The polyfunctionality of which in Övdalian*

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The Övdalian wh-word *ukin* has a variety of syntactic uses, spanning from the canonical use as personal pronoun (’who’) to predicative property querying item (’what … like’) and polarity item introducing both main and embedded clauses. In this paper the various uses will be described and discussed, and it will be argued that the polyfunctionality of *ukin* can be well understood on the background of wh-syncretisms in other North Germanic varieties which all point in the direction of principled grammaticalization patterns in this domain. The pattern found will be accounted for by a nanosyntactic approach to lexicalization ranges.

1. Introduction

This paper investigates the syntax of the Övdalian wh-word *ukin*. *Ukin* is cognate with English *which* and Swedish *vilken*, and furthermore with Swedish and Norwegian dialectal forms like *hukken, høkken, Åkken* and similar forms. Övdalian *ukin* however exhibits a much wider range of uses than its cognates in other Germanic varieties: it can be used for English *who*, determiner *which* and *what kind of*, the predicative expression *what…like*, complementizer *if/whether*, and also as an introducer of matrix yes/no-questions. These various uses are exemplified in (1).

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*This paper is based on investigations carried out during the NORMS fieldwork in Ålvdalen between 29 May and 1 June 2007. I am grateful to the 15 informants from different villages in Ålvdalen whom I got the chance to speak with. I am furthermore very much indebted to Lars Steensland for guiding my investigations in unpredicted but highly interesting directions during the fieldwork, and I have also benefitted greatly from his comments on an earlier version of this manuscript. The paper has been presented at the NORMS Workshop on Determination in Tromso in March 2009 and at the 5th Grand Meeting for Scandinavian Dialect Syntax in Ålvdalen in August 2009, and I thank the audiences on these occasions for their valuable feedback. Furthermore, I am grateful to two anonymous reviewers for very fruitful comments on an earlier draft, and to the editors for their input and recommendations.*
1. a. *Ukin al du råk i Stokkol?*  
   whom shall you meet in Stockholm  
   ‘Who will you meet in Stockholm?’

   b. *Ukin bil ir denn?*  
   which car is yours  
   ‘Which car is yours?’

   c. *Ukan bil ar du?*  
   which car have you  
   ‘What car do you have?’

   d. *Ukin sir an aut?*  
   which looks he out  
   ‘What does he look like?’

   e. *An spuord mig ukað íg war trät?*  
   he asked me which I was tired  
   ‘He asked if I was tired.’

   f. *Ukað ir du trät (eld)?*  
   which are you tired or  
   ‘Are you tired?’

Throughout the paper *ukin* will be glossed as ‘which’ to reflect its cognacy.

The variant forms *ukan* (1c) and *ukað* (1e and 1f) are exponents of *u kin* in masculine accusative singular and neuter nominative/accusative singular, respectively. The classical inflectional paradigm for *u kin* as provided by Levander (1909: 67) is as follows (orthography standardized).

Table 1. The inflection of Övdalian *u kin* ‘which.’

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1. The neuter singular form *ukað* will in some sub-varieties of Övdalian be pronounced /u kar/ as final and postvocalic ð in general has been rhotacized in these varieties.
According to Dahl and Koptjevskaja-Tamm (2006) the genitive marker in classical Övdalian is formally speaking not a case affix but rather a possessive clitic attaching to the dative form, and in any event this genitive marking has since Levander’s time gone out of use in Övdalian (see Svenonius, this volume, for further discussion). Moreover, as we will see below, the widespread conflation of nominative and accusative forms (cf. Svenonius, this volume) can nowadays also be observed with *ukin*.

Alongside *ukin* there is the item *ukindier* 'which of the two', which corresponds to Swedish *vilkendera*, and where the -dier part is invariant whereas the *ukin*-part is inflected as in Table 1 above (see Levander 1909: 68). In this paper the focus will be on *ukin*, but some comparative notes on *ukindier* will be made, in particular in Section 2.5.²

For five of the six uses of *ukin* in (1) there exist alternative *wh*-expressions in contemporary Övdalian: the only use which is unique to *ukin* is PERSON, and in fact for this function *ukin* has fully replaced an older item *wer* which was the item used about a century ago (see below).

These facts suggest that the morphosyntactic status of *ukin* to some extent is in a state of flux and that this part of the Övdalian grammar is undergoing considerable change. The present study may shed some light on the direction of these changes, and the Övdalian data are furthermore highly interesting when compared to the lexicalization ranges of different *wh*-items across other varieties of Germanic.

In the following I will go through the six different uses of *ukin* and compare *ukin* to alternative *wh*-expressions in Övdalian. This will be the main topic of Section 2. In Section 3 I will compare the Övdalian *wh*-expressions to other North Germanic varieties function by function, and I will show that there seem to be systematic patterns as to how a single *wh*-item may cover different query functions. This will lead up to an analytic discussion in Section 4 where I will propose a so-called ‘nanosyntactic’ account of the polyfunctional syntax of *ukin*. The gist of the proposal is that an item can spell out the whole or a consecutive subpart of a given syntactic structure and that grammaticalization proceeds through successive expansion (or reduction) of the range of spell-out that the item has.

² One very clear morphosyntactic difference between *ukin* and *ukindier* is that whereas the former will be followed by an indefinite noun, the latter must be followed by a noun which carries the definite suffix. This difference is also reflected by Swedish *vilken* vs. *vilkendera*. Thus we have the following contrasts.

(i) a. ukų buok/*buotję* b. ukųdier buotję/*buok
   'which book'    'which of the two books'
Furthermore, as the examples in (1) suggest, the range of an item may expand from one category type to another, for instance from the nominal to the clausal domain, and I will argue that also this follows principled patterns: the main idea will be that there are “contact points” across category types in the sense that there are distinct syntactic uses of functional items that correspond to each other semantically or pragmatically. Section 5 concludes the paper.

The data in this study are drawn from various sources. In addition to information retrievable from existing literature, in particular Levander (1909) and Steensland (2006), the investigation is based on my own data collection during the NORMS fieldwork in Ålvdalen in May/June 2006, where I conducted qualitative interviews with altogether 15 informants from various villages in Ålvdalen.

During my own interviews I presented the informants with examples rendered orally in Övdalian and I took notes as to whether they found the examples acceptable or not. I did not use a fixed questionnaire, but rather augmented and developed it from session to session as my own understanding of the matters grew. I did not use a numeric scale either, and furthermore I read out the examples myself as well as I could. As a result of this there is some variation with respect to exactly what issues and examples were discussed with each informant. Circumstantial factors may of course have influenced their judgments, but I nevertheless think the notes from the sessions give valid and useful pointers regarding the phenomena investigated.3

During the NORMS fieldwork other researchers made recordings of spoken Övdalian, which since have been transcribed and made available through the Nordic Dialect Corpus (Johannessen et al. 2009, see also Johannessen and Garbcicz, this volume). There are a handful of examples of ukin in the corpus, and these examples will be mentioned where appropriate.

Unless specified otherwise, all examples in the following will be Övdalian.

2. The many functions of Övdalian ukin

2.1 The pronominal use (‘who’)

Steensland (2006: 115) mentions the person querying capacity as one of the uses of ukin in contemporary Övdalian, and in this respect Övdalian is part of a large continuum of Norwegian and Swedish dialects that use the cognate of which as the correlate of English who (see Norsk Ordbok 2005: 540ff; Rietz 1962: 260). Several

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3. My fieldnotes have, along with fieldnotes from many of the other participants at the NORMS Ålvdalen fieldwork, been uploaded to the ScanDiaSyn Document Chest, a repository available for researchers involved in the research collaboration on Scandinavian dialect syntax.
variants are found, for instance hokken, åkken, høkken, hukkin, hukkin and so forth, and the continuum stretches from Telemark county in the west through parts of Buskerud, Oppland, Hedmark, Akershus and Østfold counties in Norway into the adjacent Swedish speaking areas, including Dalecarlia.4

The following example, which is sampled from the internet, illustrates the person querying capacity of ukin.

(2) *Ukin ar rennt å skaidum jär?*

which has run on ski.pl.dat here

‘Who has skied here?’

If the targeted referent is a set with two or more members, the plural form uker will be used in (2), triggering 3rd person plural agreement on the verb.

(3) *Uker ava rennt å skaidum jär?*

which.pl have run on ski.pl.dat here

‘Who have skied here?’

There are no examples of ukin used to query for person in the Nordic Dialect Corpus. What is particularly surprising about this is that there seems to be no examples of person queries whatsoever in the corpus. However, during the NORMS fieldwork, I presented the following example to most of my informants, who confirmed its acceptability.5

(4) *Ukin al du råk i Stokkol?*

which shall you meet in Stockholm

‘Who will you meet in Stockholm?’

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4. Rietz (1962: 260), which was originally printed in 1862–1867, documents hökken and similar forms from a large part of the Swedish dialect area, ranging from Skåne, Blekinge, and Småland in the south to Jämtland and Västerbotten in the north and from various districts in Central Sweden. He also attests such forms from both Österbotten and Nyland in Swedish-speaking Finland. This suggests that such forms of the wh-word for person may have constituted a large contiguous area in the Swedish speaking part of Scandinavia. Whether this is the case also in contemporary Swedish dialects is less clear, but for the Norwegian area a variety of forms cognate with ukin – and meaning ‘who’ – can be found in recent 21st century recordings in the Nordic Dialect Corpus (Johannessen et al. 2009).

5. 11 of the 15 informants judged this example or a corresponding example with a slightly different predicate. One of these 11 informants wanted a different wording with the split expression wen … fyö fuok ‘what for people’ instead of ukin. Interestingly, only one informant reacted slightly to the choice of the nominative form ukin rather than accusative ukan: in fact, whereas most of the informants accepted both ukin and ukan on this object DP, three informants explicitly rejected the accusative form ukan. This attests to the general loss of accusative case in Övdalian (see Svenonius, this volume).
Standard Swedish uses the item *vem* to query for singular person, but as pointed out to me by Björn Lundquist (p.c.), if the query targets a plural referent, *vem* is inappropriate – instead the plural form of the *wh*-determiner *vilken* must be used. This can be illustrated by the examples in (5) (see also Teleman et al. 1999: 355, §109d).

(5) a.  

\[ \text{Vem har ställd sina bilar framför vårat hus?} \]

\[ \text{Who has put his/her/*their cars in front of our house?} \]

b.  

\[ \text{Vilka har ställd sina bilar framför vårat hus?} \]

\[ \text{Which. PL has put 3POSS.REFL-PL. cars in-front-of our house} \]

‘Who have put their/*his/*her cars in front of our house?’

In (5a) the targeted referent for *vem* can only be a singleton set – the speaker expects there to be a single owner of the cars parked in front of the house in question. Conversely, in (5b) there must be two or more owners of the cars. This then shows that also Standard Swedish has a person (pronoun) use of the *wh*-item that is cognate with *which*.

Danish *hvem* and Norwegian *hvem/kven* work differently in this respect, allowing both singular and plural referents. The same holds for English *who*. Furthermore, using *hvilke* ‘which. PL’ in examples like (5) would be illicit in Danish and Norwegian.

The person use of *ukin* in Övdalian appears to be a relatively new innovation. Levander (1909: 67) lists the item *wer* as the Övdalian interrogative person pronoun, while at the same time noting that *ukin* can be used both “independently and unified”; i.e. both pronominally and adnominally. The item *wer*, which is cognate with Old Norse *hverr* and Old Swedish *hva(r)*, has since lost its capacity to be an interrogative word, and in contemporary Övdalian it now only exists as a distributive quantifier, i.e. corresponding to English *each* (cf. Swedish *varje*, Danish *hver*).

2.2 The adnominal use (‘which’ and ‘what kind of’)

Both Levander (1909: 67) and Steensland (2006: 115) mention the determiner use of *ukin*, both of them indirectly by giving *vilken* ‘which’ as the Swedish translation and Steensland directly by providing the following example (given under the item *twika*, op.cit 113).

As discussed in Vangsnes (2008c) English *which* and its standard Mainland Scandinavian cognates (*hvilken*) are first and foremost used to query for *token* and not for *kind*. Accordingly, these items are not felicitous in noun phrases that typically target a *kind* referent. The contrast can be brought about by the following examples.

(7) a. Which/*what kind of car is yours? English
b. What kind of/#which car do you have?

In Vangsnes (2008c) I propose to use this sentence pair as a test to establish whether *wh*-items can be used adnominally to query for *token* and/or *kind*.

During the NORMS Älvdalen fieldwork in 2006 this test was applied in a somewhat unorganized way: 12 of the informants were presented with sentences of the type ‘Wh DP is yours?’ (e.g. (8a)), but unfortunately only five of these were also asked about sentences of the type ‘Wh DP do you have?’ (e.g. (8b)).

(8) a. *Ukin* bil *ir* denn?
    *which* car is yours
    ‘Which car is yours?’

    b. *Ukan* bil *ar* Bengt?
    *which* car has Bengt
    ‘What car does Bengt have?’

All 12 informants in question accepted the *token* querying use of *ukin*, and of the subgroup of five only one responded negatively to a *kind* use of *ukin*. The negative response was brought about by controlling for possible answers to (8): the informant in question was the only one who would not accept answering with an indefinite DP.7

More careful studies of the adnominal use of *ukin* should preferably be carried out, but the general impression is that both a *token* and a *kind* interpretation are allowed. Partial support for this comes from the fact that both Levander (1909) and Steensland (2006) provide *hur(u)dan* alongside *vilken* as a possible Swedish gloss
for ukin. The wh-word hurdan/hurudan can be used adnominally in Swedish, but only with a kind reading. Hence, whereas (9a) is ungrammatical in Swedish, (9b) is licit, carrying the presupposition that a particular type of car is queried for.\(^8\)

\[(9)\]

\(\text{a. } *\text{Hurdan bil är din?} \quad \text{Swedish}\)
\[\text{HOW-DONE car is yours}\]
\[\text{‘What car is yours?’}\]

\(\text{b. Hurdan bil har du?} \quad \text{HOW-DONE car have you}\)
\[\text{‘What car do you have?’}\]

In the next subsection we will discuss another use that ukin shares with Swedish hur(u)dan, namely the predicative one which yields property queries.

In the Nordic Dialect Corpus I have found the following three examples of adnominal ukin.

\[(10)\]

\(\text{a. og sjå ur dier add dar og jämfyöra ukin lyx wjå}\)
\[\text{and see how they had there and compare which.m.sg luxury we had}\]
\[\text{‘… and see how they were conditioned and compare with what luxury we have’ (klitten_141)}\]

\(\text{b. eð war helt otroligt alltså ukað pe... par...}\)
\[\text{it was whole incredible really which.n.sg couple lærerpar}\]
\[\text{teacher.couple}\]
\[\text{‘It was just incredible what a teacher couple!’ (aasen_48)}\]

\(\text{c. og ig wet ig tykkt eð war so underlit uker...}\)
\[\text{and I know I thought it was so strange which.pl dier add ju slaik fin kläder og slaikt å sig}\]
\[\text{they had prt such nice clothes and such on refl}\]
\[\text{‘… and I know I thought it was so strange what … after all, they were wearing such nice clothes.’ (klitten_144)}\]

None of these examples involve direct questions. (10a) may be categorized as an indirect question whereas I would categorize (10b) as an (embedded) exclamative. (10c) is an incomplete noun phrase – the speaker makes a pause and continues with a new sentence, or perhaps an embedded exclamative, and judging from the continuation one might suspect that this example also involves an (non-completed) exclamative, or perhaps an embedded exclamative.

\(^8\) Hurdan is here glossed as how-done to reflect its etymology. For more information about the internal structure and external distribution of Swedish hur(u)dan, see Vangsnes (2008a, 2008b).
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The use of *ukin* in exclamative DPs parallels the exclamative usage of *vilken* in Swedish more generally (see Delsing 2010 for discussion). Steensland (2006: 108) provides the following example (under the item *tiokk*):

(11) *Drait, ukin gröt! Eð war tiokker eð so war attrað!*  
Shit, *which* porridge. It was thicker *som* was along  
‘Shit, what a porridge! It was thicker, what we got along with it!’

Although languages may use distinct items to form exclamative DPs, it seems that we can regard the exclamative use of *ukin* as a special instance of the *kind* referring use seen in interrogatives. We will briefly return to the exclamative use in Section 2.6.

Whereas *ukin* seems to be the only available expression for *person* queries in contemporary Övdalian, for both *kind* and *token* queries there exist alternatives, notably a *what for* construction. Levander (1909: 67f) mentions the expression *wenförrien* as the correlate to Swedish *vad för en*, but he does not discuss how it is used. Most of my informants were asked about this way of forming *wh*-nominals, and all of them approved of it. The informants furthermore accepted the expression both to be split and unsplit as exemplified in (12), but the impression was nevertheless that most informants preferred the split versions.

(12) a. *Wen för bil ar Bengt?*  
what for car has Bengt  
‘What car does Bengt have?’

b. *Wen ar Bengt för bil?*  
what has Bengt for car  
‘What car does Bengt have?’

In the recordings in the Nordic Dialect Corpus there are altogether nine examples of *wen för (ien)* nominals, and all of them are split. Three examples are given here.

(13) a. *wen war eð för ien månað? juni?* (aasen35)  
what was it for a month June  
‘Which month was it? June?’

b. *ig wet it wen diem åvå för språk*  
I know not what they have for language  
men diem läk då (evertsberg188)  
but they play then  
‘I don’t know what language they have, but they play all the same’

c. *wen avið ið för bil då?* (skolan79)  
what have you.pl for car then  
‘What car do you have then?’
As is evident from these examples the *wen før ien* expression is compatible with both *token* and *kind* interpretations, and that is also the impression I have from the informant interviews.

2.3 The predicative use (’what like’)

By a *property* query I understand the counterpart of an English question with the expression *what ... like*. Most Germanic varieties will use the same *wh*-item as in *manner* queries for such cases. However, in English the question *What does he look like?* carries a different presupposition than *How does he look?* in that the former asks for a description whereas the latter asks for an evaluation. German *Wie sieht er aus?* on the other hand is ambiguous between the two. The description query is a *property* query whereas the evaluation query is, in my opinion, a *manner* query. (See Vangsnes 2013 for further discussion.)

There is one single example in the Nordic Dialect Corpus of *ukin* used to query for *property*, namely the one in (14).

(14) **og bar eð wart liuost og dier add si’tt uky füg såg aut**
    and only it became light and they had seen which.fsg I saw out
    so fuor diem
    so went they
    ‘... and when it got light and they had seen what I looked like, then they left ...’

Notice that the form of *ukin* in this example is the feminine singular, *uky*. The speaker who utters the sentence is a woman, and *uky* does in fact show agreement with the subject of the clause in the predicative use.9 Thus, we get the following contrasts.

(15) a. **Ukin sir an aut?**
    which-m.sg.nom looks he out
    ’What does he look like?’

b. **Uky sir ₅ aut?**
    which.f.sg.nom looks she out
    ’What does she look like?’

c. **Ukað sir eð aut?**
    which-n.sg.nom looks it out
    ’What does it look like?’

d. **Uker ₅j₃ dier aut?**
    which-pl.nom look they out
    ’What do they look like?’

9. I am grateful to Lars Steensland for pointing this out to me during the NORMS fieldwork.
The polyfunctionality of which in Övdalian (cf. Section 2.2) can also be used in this kind of construction, and it will also agree with the subject of the clause in number and gender (see Teleman et al. 1999: 358, §112). The following examples are sampled from the internet.

(16) a.  *Hurdan* ser karaktärens närmaste familj ut? Swedish How-Done.C.Sg looks character-def’s closest family out ‘What does the character’s closest family look like?’

b.  *Hurdant* ser ditt liv ut i övrigt? How-Done.N.Sg looks your life out in-other ‘What does your life look like otherwise?’

c.  *Hurdana* ser argumenten ut FÖR ett avgiftssystem? How-Done.Pl look arguments.def out for a fee-system ‘What do the arguments in favor of a system of fees look like?’

The majority of the 11 Övdalian informants who were asked about the agreement pattern in (15), confirmed it, but on this point there was in fact some interesting variation across the speakers. One of the eleven did not accept the predicative use of *ukin* and required the item *ur* ‘how’ instead. Of the remaining ten informants, three – all from the northern/upper part of Älvdalen (Åsen and Finnmarken) – would use either an uninflected form of *ukin*, i.e. *uk*, or the neuter form *ukað* in this construction. No other northern/upper informant provides information to the contrary. A fourth informant from Brunnsberg (also north, but closer to the main village) reported to accept both an inflected form or just the bare uninflected form. The sample of informants is of course very small, but the upper/lower geographic divide stands out in this case and seems worth investigating further.

2.4 A note on property vs. manner and degree

Just like Swedish and most other Germanic varieties, Övdalian allows the use of the manner *wh*-expression *ur* ‘how’ with a predicate that facilitates a description which is ambiguous between a property and a manner reading. The use of *ur* instead of *ukin* in property queries was in fact accepted by all informants asked.

(17)  *Ur* sir an aut? How looks he out ‘What does he look like?/How does he look?’

On a comparative note, those speakers of Standard Swedish that I have consulted seem to prefer *hur* over *hurdan* in such questions and tend to regard *hurdan* as an item belonging to a more formal and/or literary register.
Conversely, none of my Övdalian informants accepted any use of *ukin in manner queries proper: only *ur was accepted, in for example (18).

(18) *Ur/*ukað/*ukin al du tågå dig niði Stokkol? how/which.n/which.m shall you take you down.in Stockholm 'How are you going to get yourself to Stockholm?'

Just like Swedish *hur, English *how, and German *wie, Övdalian *ur is used in both manner and degree questions. Thus, alongside (18) we have (19).

(19) *Ur/*ukað/*ukin gåmål ir du? how/which.n/which.m old are you 'How old are you?'

It is worthwhile mentioning this fact since other varieties of North Germanic have distinct items for manner and degree, and in such cases it will always be the manner item which is used in property queries, and which in some varieties also may span some of the nominal functions discussed above for *ukin (see Vangsnes 2008a, 2008c, 2013 for further details). We will return to this below.

Let us now finally consider the use of *ukin as a question particle, either introducing a matrix or an embedded question.

2.5 *Ukin as a polarity particle

The question particle use of *ukin is always instantiated by the neuter singular form *ukað, and this use of *ukin will henceforth be referred to as *ukað. My data from the NORMS fieldwork are far from exhaustive when it comes to *ukað. In particular I did not establish whether the clause-initial use of *ukað represents the default way of forming yes/no-questions, be it main or embedded.

However, out of the nine informants who were asked about the phenomenon, only one rejected the complementizer use (*ukað). Of the remaining eight, seven informants allow *ukað both with embedded and main yes/no-questions – the eighth informant was not asked about the main clause use.10

All of the *ukað informants also accept the use of *um to introduce embedded yes/no-questions. This item corresponds to *om 'if', which is the most widely used yes/no-complementizer in Swedish/Norwegian/Danish (originally a preposition roughly meaning 'about').

10. A subset of the *ukað informants also accepted the use of *ukaðier 'which of the two' as a complementizer whereas others did not, but on this issue the fieldnotes – and my own memory – are too rudimentary for anything concise to be formulated.
I did not exhaustively check whether the informants also could form matrix yes/no-questions by inversion, but I am quite convinced that this is a widespread way of forming polar questions in Övdalian, and I did note this as an option for a couple of the informants. Other issues such as preference or not for tags like *eld* ‘or’ with *ukað*-questions should be looked into in future investigations of this topic.

Övdalian polarity questions can thus take on at least the following forms.

(20) a. *Ukað ir du träät (eld)?*  
    *which are you tired or*  
    ‘Are you tired?’

b. *Ir du träät (eld)?*  
    *are you tired or*  
    ‘Are you tired?’

c. *An spuord mig um/ukað íg war träät?*  
    *he asked me if/which I was tired*  
    ‘He asked if I was tired.’

The isomorphy represented by Övdalian *ukað* introducing both main and embedded yes/no-questions is by no means unique across languages, in fact, not even across varieties of North Germanic. Such isomorphy is well-known from the Rogaland dialects of Norwegian for the item *om* (see Enger 1995; Vangsnes 1996; Rognes 2011: 121ff), and it is also found in Finland-Swedish dialects (Östman 1986). In these dialects we thus find both (21a) and (21b).

(21) a. *Om du har vore i Stavanger?*  
    *Rogaland Norwegian*  
    *if you have been in Stavanger*  
    ‘Have you never been to Stavanger?’

b. *Eg lure på om du har vore i Stavanger.*  
    *I wonder on if you have been in Stavanger*  
    ‘I wonder if you have been to Stavanger.’

Such isomorphy is furthermore known from Old Norse for the item *hvárt* (which corresponds to contemporary Icelandic *hvort* ‘if, whether’) (see Faarlund 2004: 226f; Vangsnes 1996), a reflex of which may be found in Västerbotten dialects of Swedish where we encounter the form *hört* (Delsing p.c.; see also the item *hódt* in Rietz 1962: 260).

English *whether* is cognate with Old Norse *hvárt*: apparently their common etymology is an expression consisting of ‘who’ and ‘other’ (see e.g. the *Concise Oxford*
Dictionary of English Etymology), and as shown and discussed by Van Gelderen (2009), throughout the history of English whether has developed from a pronoun to a matrix polar question particle to an embedded polar complementizer.

Whether the same developmental track holds for Övdalian ukin is an open question: the data currently available do not suffice to decide on the issue. One might also wonder whether the polar question particle necessarily must have developed from a PERSON function: intuitively, one may argue that it could equally well have arisen from the adnominal TOKEN function, say, if one reasons that a yes/no-question queries for the validity of a proposition, hence for either of the “tokens” ‘yes’ or ‘no’.

Furthermore, it might be the case that the complementizer/question particle use of ukin has come about through influence from the item ukindier (Swedish vilkendera) which literally means ‘which of the two’ and which thus quite directly matches the etymological origin of English whether and Old Norse hvárt. That would square particularly well with the idea that a yes/no-question queries for the choice of two possible answers, ‘yes’ or ‘no’.

And ukindier does have an adnominal TOKEN use. Steensland (2006: 115) only lists the neuter form ukaðier for which he notes a pronoun and a complementizer use; but during the NORMS fieldwork, all informants who were asked about it, allowed ukindier to be used adnominally. No informant accepted the item to query for KIND, however, and the obligatoriness of TOKEN readings for ukindier seems straightforward given its inherent partitivity (‘which of two’) and also given that it requires the presence of the definite article on the noun (see note 2).

2.6 Other contexts for ukin

In Section 2.2 we saw that ukin may be used to form exclamative noun phrases comparable to English exclamative DPs of the form what a N. Although, as argued above, one may consider this a special use of the one in KIND questions, it is worth pointing out that languages often do make a formal distinction between KIND querying DPs and exclamative DPs. In English for instance the indefinite article is obligatory in a singular exclamative DP whereas it cannot appear in an interrogative KIND DP, cf. the contrast in (22).

\[(22) \quad \text{a. What *(a) car you have!} \quad \text{English} \\
\text{b. What (*a) car do you have?} \]

Another example concerns the Icelandic cognate of ukin, hvilíkur, which can only be used in exlamatives and not in interrogatives (cf. Vangsnes 2008c: 234, Jónsson 2010). Consider the following example from Jónsson (2010: 38).
The polyfunctionality of *which* in Övdalian

(23) Hvílíka skyssu hef ég gert! Icelandic

*which.f.sg.acc mistake.acc* have I made

‘What a mistake I have made!'

On the basis of such comparative evidence, we may argue that the adnominal use of *ukin* in exclamative DPs may equally well be regarded as a separate function along with the ones discussed above. Still, the relation to *kind* querying expression seems significant, and a specific proposal exploiting this will be given in Section 4.4.

Steensland (2006: 115) mentions an independent use (i.e. not adnominal) of the neuter form *ukað* that we may also categorize as exclamative. Consider his example, given here in (24).

(24) Ukað eð ir dar witeð fättäs!

*which it is there sanity-def lacks*

‘How terrible it is when there are no brains!’

English seems to lack a direct counterpart to such exclamatives, and other varieties of North Germanic may use different items than Övdalian, in some cases other *wh*-items and in other cases D-elements (see Abels and Vangsnes 2010: 3ff for discussion).

Steensland (op. cit.) furthermore notes a free choice use of the neuter form *ukað* as in the following example.

(25) [I]g dug it old mig waknan ukað so ir.

I manage not keep me awake *which som is*

‘I don’t manage to stay awake anyhow.’

Again, it is quite common across languages to observe *wh*-items either used as, or involved in, free choice expressions (cf. English *anyhow, whatever*, Swedish *hur som helst, vilken som helst*). The free choice use may also be listed as a separate function of *ukin* in Övdalian insofar that it does not follow automatically that it should have this capacity.

The use of *ukin* in exclamatives and free choice contexts does not involve interrogative force, and for the remainder of this paper we will focus on the cases where *ukin* is involved in questions.

2.7 Homonymy or syncretism?

Summarizing, we have now seen that Övdalian *ukin* is used in a variety of ways to form questions. It can be used: (i) in person queries, (ii) in token queries, (iii) in kind queries, (iv) in property queries, (v) in embedded polar questions, and (vi) in matrix polar questions. In addition, there are the non-interrogative uses just discussed above. Only the person function appears to be particular to *ukin*: for all the other interrogative functions there exist alternative *wh*-expressions.
Further research is needed to clarify what the relative status of *ukin* and the alternative *wh*-expressions is in terms of frequency, register, style and so forth, but it is still quite evident that the lexicalization range of *ukin* as described here is quite impressive: to the best of my knowledge no other variety of Germanic possesses a *wh*-item with such a varied range of uses. However, we do find several cases across Germanic where a single *wh*-item spans parts of this range and sometimes partly other query functions, and in the following section we will consider some of these in comparison with Övdalian.

A question of a general nature that arises is whether one should regard the different uses as instances of homonymy or as (morphosyntactic) syncretism. That is: Does the lexicon contain distinct lexical items for each of the different uses or are we really talking about a single lexical entry that is used in different morphosyntactic contexts?

Steensland (2006) for instance distinguishes the nominal/adjectival uses from the polar question particle/complementizer uses: the former are given under the entry *ukin* whereas the latter are given under the entry *ukað*. This may make sense from the practical, applied point of view of writing a dictionary, but it may not reflect the mental reality of the minds of Övdalian speakers. We know that *ukað* is the form that *ukin* will take in neuter singular contexts, and under a syncretism approach one may hold that this is, by default, the form we see in polar questions since there is no nominal for the question particle/complementizer to agree with.

In the remainder of this paper the syncretism approach will be entertained: in cases where we find the same exponent across different functions, distinguished on comparative and/or semantic grounds, the assumption will be that we see instantiations of the same lexical entry. Since we are dealing with function words rather than morphological paradigms here, this use of the term ‘syncretism’ will differ somewhat from how it is normally employed in the morphological literature (see e.g. Baerman et al. 2005).

Let us then consider cases of syncretism in *wh*-expressions in other varieties of Germanic.

3. **Comparisons across Germanic *wh*-inventories**

3.1 **PERSON VERSUS TOKEN**

Syncretism between *person* and *token* was found in Old Norse. The item *hverr* (the cognate of older Övdalian *wer*, cf. Section 2.1.) was both an interrogative pronoun (‘who, what’) and a token querying determiner (‘which’). The following two examples are taken from Heggstad et al. (1975: 212).
(26) a. Hverr á hestinn? Old Norse
   WHO-M.SG.NOM owns horse.ACC-DEF.M.ACC
   ‘Who owns the horse?’

   b. Konungr spyrr hverr utlendr hann var.
   king.NOM asks WHO-M.SG.NOM nationality.SG.NOM he was
   ‘The king asks (of) which nationality he is.’

To the best of my knowledge, Faroese is the only contemporary variety of North Germanic which still uses a cognate of Old Norse hverr both pronominally and adnominally in questions, and as discussed in Vangsnes (2009) the item in question, hvør, can be used adnominally to query for both token and kind.12 Faroese has furthermore also acquired an adnominal what for construction which can be used both in token and kind queries (see below in Section 3.2).

The Övdalian/Old Norse system of identity across ‘who’ and ‘which’ is also found in southeastern dialects of Norwegian with the item (h)vem, which historically speaking is derived from a masculine dative form of Old Norse hverr, i.e. hveim, and which is the form used for ‘who’ in standard varieties of Danish, Swedish, and (Bokmål) Norwegian (cf. above).13

12. In Icelandic, which on most accounts is the most archaic of the contemporary North Germanic varieties, the interrogative determiner use of hver has been lost and replaced by the non-agreeing item hvaða (see Vangsnes 2008c: 238 for discussion).

   (i) a. Hver á hestinn? Icelandic
       WHO.M.SG.NOM owns horse.ACC-DEF.M.ACC
       ‘Who owns the horse?’

   b. Hvaða/*hver maður á hestinn?
       WHICH/WHO.M.SG.NOM man.SG.NOM owns horse.ACC-DEF.M.ACC
       ‘In which country is this man the king?’

   c. Hverskonar maður á hestinn?
       [WHAT-KIND]-GEN man.SG.NOM owns horse.ACC-DEF.M.ACC
       ‘What kind of man owns the horse?’

Cognates of hverr are otherwise used as a distributive quantifier (‘each’) across all contemporary varieties of North Germanic, a use which was found also in Old Scandinavian.

13. All of the examples in (27) are taken from the internet, and the one in the b.-example specifically from <http://www.bilforumet.no/annet-bilrelatert/155521-bil-syntes-v-rdens-peneste-5.html>. Such examples involving adnominal hvem are abundant on the web. The phenomenon is not new, however. Older sources for several Eastern Norwegian dialects mention this, e.g. Larsen (1907: 116) for the Oslo dialect, Skulerud (1926) for the Norderhov dialect. Furthermore, during the data collection for the Scandinavian Dialect Syntax project adnominal (h)vem has been documented on the measure points Darbu and Jevnaker which both lie some 60–70 km to the southwest and northwest of Oslo, respectively. As noted in Vangsnes (2008b: 53), the web is full of statements virtually condemning this use of hvem, suggesting that it is a highly stigmatizing dialect feature in Central East Norway.
(27) a. *Hvem hadde penest sølvkjole?* 
   ‘Who had the nicest silverdress?’

   b. *Hvem bil syntes du er verdens peneste?* 
   ‘Which car did you think is the nicest in the world?’

   c. *Hva slags kjoler er penest?* 
   ‘What kind of dresses are the nicest?’

Furthermore, in a cross linguistic perspective it is worth noting that identity across ‘who’ and ‘which’ is found in several other languages. Consider the following examples from Greek (Marika Lekakou, p.c.) and Serbian (Monika Bader, p.c).

(28) a. *Pjos su to ipe afto?* 
   ‘Who told you this?’

   b. *Pjo aftokinito ine (to) diko su?* 
   ‘Which car is yours?’

   c. *Ti (idus) aftokinito exis?* 
   ‘What (kind of) car do you have?’

(29) a. *Ko ti je ovo rekao?* 
   ‘Who told you this?’

   b. *Ko-ji auto je tvoj?* 
   ‘Which car is yours?’

   c. *Kakav auto imaš?* 
   ‘What kind of car do you have?’

A fuller display of different *wh*-words in these languages could be in order, but a crucial point here is to notice that ‘which’ patterns with ‘who’ rather than with the KIND-querying expressions (‘what kind’).

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14. Serbian *kakav* actually has a closer affinity to ‘how’ than to ‘what’: manner ‘how’ is *kako* whereas bare ‘what’ is *šta*. 

3.2 Token versus kind

Above it was concluded that adnominal ukin is compatible with both token and kind readings. This kind of syncretism is fairly common across Germanic for other adnominal wh-items. English adnominal what is a case in question, and the German was für and the Dutch wat voor construction is generally considered to be compatible with both kind and token readings, see Bennis et al. (1998), van Riemsdijk (2005), Leu (2008a, 2008b) and references cited there. The same holds for the Faroese hvat fyri construction (Vangsnes 2009), and as we saw above, it also holds for the Övdalian wen för (ien) construction.

An important comparative note in this respect is that the cognate of ukin in Danish, Norwegian, and Swedish, (h)vilken, is quite clearly associated with token interpretations only. The Swedish example in (30) for instance is only well-formed to the extent that the question targets a pre-defined set of houses or a contextually given list of house types. The same should be brought out by the English translation.

(30) #Vilket hus har du? Swedish
     which house have you
     ‘Which house do you have?’

Interestingly, as discussed in Vangsnes (2008c: 234f), the cognate of which in the Old Germanic languages was strongly associated with kind interpretations only, and the token use thus represents a later development.

Furthermore, judging from the morphosyntactic behavior of other adnominal wh-expression across North Germanic dialects (see Vangsnes, op. cit., for details), it seems likely that the extension from kind to token has passed through a stage where which and some of its cognates were compatible with both a kind and a token reading, i.e. similar to what can be observed for what for nominals in several contemporary Germanic varieties. In that respect, when we only consider the adnominal uses, Övdalian ukin can be argued to be on this intermediate stage, allowing both kind and token interpretations.

3.3 Kind versus property and manner

As mentioned in Section 2.4, most Germanic varieties will use the same wh-item in property and manner queries. Thus, where English makes a distinction between how and what … like German will use wie in both contexts, Dutch will use hoe, Faroese will use hvussu, Danish will use hvordan and so forth.

Above we saw that Övdalian can use both ur and ukin in a property question: both (31a) and (31b) are accepted.
(31) a. *Ur sør an aut?*  
    *how looks he out*  
    ‘What does he look like? / How does he look?’

b. *Ukin sør an aut?*  
    *which looks he out*  
    ‘What does he look like?’

We recall that the difference between the two items is that *ur* can also be used in a manner question whereas *ukin* cannot. Along with that we can notice that the choice of *ukin* in (31) yields the property reading only, i.e. with a query for a description and not an evaluation. *Ur* on the other hand is compatible with both readings.

However, *ur* cannot be used in any of the other contexts described for *ukin* above: it cannot be used adnominally, it cannot be used as a pronoun to query for person, and it cannot be used to introduce yes/no-questions. In other words, the functional overlap between *ukin* and *ur* is precisely in property queries. The same holds for Swedish *hurdan* versus *hur*.

In a comparative perspective it is worth pointing out that in other varieties of North Germanic we find manner *wh*-items that have a greater overlap with *ukin* in terms of lexicalization range. As discussed in Vangsnes (2008a, 2008b, 2008c, 2013) in Norwegian dialects and colloquial Icelandic the item used in manner and property questions can also be used adnominally. Furthermore, in some dialects the adnominal use is compatible with just kind interpretations (e.g. East Norwegian) whereas in other dialects it is compatible with both kind and token interpretations (e.g. North Norwegian) (see Vangsnes & Johannessen 2011: 141ff). As illustrated in (32) the Tromsø dialect is an example of a variety allowing both kind and token interpretations for the item in question.

(32) a. *Korsn vil du løse probleme?*  
    *wh will you solve problem-DEF*  
    ‘How will you solve the problem?’

b. *Korsn ser han ut?*  
    *wh looks he out*  
    ‘What does he look like?’

c. *Korsn bil har du?*  
    *wh car have you*  
    ‘What kind of car do you have?’

d. *Korsn bil er din?*  
    *wh car is yours*  
    ‘Which car is yours?’
It seems that in all cases where a manner wh-expression spans into the adnominal domain in Germanic dialects, the expression in question is distinct from the wh-item used in degree questions. At the same time the manner items appear to be augmentations on the degree items: the degree item in the Tromsø dialect, for instance, is kor, hence a subpart of korsn (see Vangsnes 2008a for further discussion).

At the other end of the lexicalization range, there are, as far as I know, no cases in Germanic of a wh-item that spans both the manner and the person function: the Tromsø dialect for instance uses kem in person queries and korsn is completely impossible there.

Although there is a considerable overlap between Övdalian ukin and for instance Tromsø korsn, the two are different in both ends of the lexicalization range: ukin cannot be used in manner queries, and korsn cannot be used in person queries. The overlap of this particular pair is property, kind and token.

3.4 Summary

Table 2 gives an overview of several different wh-items in different varieties of Germanic, which illustrate patterns of syncretism. The Övdalian items are rendered in boldface.

The way this table has been set up, syncretism only obtains between adjacent functions. Any other ordering of the functions would disrupt this pattern. That may of course be a coincidence, but it may also reflect something of significance.

Table 2. Lexicalization ranges for a selection of wh-items across Germanic.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>‘degree how’</th>
<th>‘manner how’</th>
<th>‘what … like’</th>
<th>‘what kind of’ kind</th>
<th>‘which’</th>
<th>‘who’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>how</td>
<td>how</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Övdalian</td>
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<td>ur</td>
<td>ur</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Swedish</td>
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<tr>
<td>Swedish</td>
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<td>hurdan</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Övdalian</td>
<td>ukin</td>
<td>ukin</td>
<td>ukin</td>
<td>ukin</td>
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<tr>
<td>Faroese</td>
<td>vør</td>
<td>vør</td>
<td>vør</td>
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<tr>
<td>East Norw.</td>
<td>vem</td>
<td>vem</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dan./Swe./Norw.</td>
<td>(h)vilken</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Övdalian</td>
<td>wen (…) för</td>
<td>wen (…) för</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tromso Norw.</td>
<td>Korsn</td>
<td>Korsn</td>
<td>Korsn</td>
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<tr>
<td>East Norw.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Danish</td>
<td>hvordan</td>
<td>hvordan</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
What if the particular ordering of syntactic functions in Table 2 were to reflect for instance an underlying conceptual pattern along which function words may grammaticalize, i.e. expand and (subsequently) change their lexicalization range?

This idea is entertained in Vangsnes (2013) where a grammaticalization framework is developed based on what we may call ‘nanosyntactic’ principles (see Ramchand 2008; Caha 2009; Lundquist 2009; and Starke 2009, 2011). In the next section I will analyze the syntactic behavior of ukin along the lines of that approach.

4. A nanosyntactic account of the syntax of ukin

4.1 Functional sequences and the Superset Principle

First of all, the proposal put forth in Vangsnes (2013) is that the functions in Table 2 are organized along two independent functional sequences (henceforth ‘fseqs’), namely the following. The function place has not been discussed above, but its relevance will become clear in the discussion below.

(33) a. P/A queries: [place] [degree] [manner] [property]
    b. D/A queries: [person] [token] [kind]

The label P/A queries alludes to ‘predicative/adverbial’ and D/A queries to ‘determiner/adjectival’: alternatively we could refer to the two sequences as non-nominal and nominal, respectively.

Furthermore, kind and property can be regarded as two sides of the same coin, being different only as to whether they are adnominal (kind) or not (property). Under such a view, the distinction is parallel to that between attributive and predicative adjectives, and property vs. kind thus represents a link between the two functional sequences. The idea is then that functional expansion may proceed across the two fseqs only through the property~kind connection: we do not expect expansion directly from for instance token to property or from kind to manner.

A central claim of nanosyntax is the assumption of a post-syntactic lexicon: syntactic structures are built and matched against lexical items rather than built from lexical units as such. In turn this opens up for allowing one word form to match more than just one node (i.e. non-terminal Spell-Out). The so-called Superset Principle (Caha 2009: 55) regulates what count as viable matches between syntactic structure and lexical items:

(34) The Superset Principle

A phonological exponent is inserted into a node if its lexical entry has a (sub-) constituent that is identical to the node (ignoring traces).
According to this principle a given lexical item can spell out different parts of a syntactic structure as long as it is specified to be bigger or equal to those parts. Relating this to the fseqs in (33) it means that an item which can spell out place, can also spell out degree, manner, and property, and an item which can spell out person can also spell out token and kind.

As we have seen in the previous sections, Övdalian *ukin* can lexicalize person, token and kind, and thus it behaves well with respect to the Superset Principle: all of the structures are properly contained in the constituency associated with *ukin*. We can summarize this as follows.

(35) a. [**person**] [**token**] [**kind**] → *ukin
    b. [**token**] [**kind**] → *ukin
    c. [**kind**] → *ukin

Also the capacity of *ukin* to lexicalize property squares with the Superset Principle as this function is the most embedded one in the P/A fseq: the fact that *ukin* cannot lexicalize any of the “higher” functions raises no problem as it simply means that the higher parts of the fseq are not part of the constituency of *ukin*.

(36) a. [**place**] [**degree**] [**manner**] [**property**] → *ukin
    b. [**degree**] [**manner**] [**property**] → *ukin
    c. [**manner**] [**property**] → *ukin
    d. [**property**] → *ukin

At this point it should be obvious that the Superset Principle needs to be constrained: not for the sake of *ukin*, but in order to deal with items that lexicalize the higher parts of the fseqs but not the lower ones. We will approach this issue by first comparing the items that lexicalize place and degree in Övdalian and Norwegian.

4.2 Competition, preference and optionality

In Övdalian, like in Swedish, we find two different items for these functions, *war* (place) and *ur* (degree), whereas Norwegian (and Danish) uses the same item for both functions (*kor/hvor*). Compare the Övdalian examples in (37) with the Nynorsk Norwegian ones in (38): the item *kor* is glossed as ‘wh’ to emphasize its general status (as both a place and degree item).

(37) a. War/*ur byddjer du?
    where/how live you
    ‘Where do you live?’
    b. Ur/*war gambel ir du?
    how/where old are you
    ‘How old are you?’
c. Ur/*war al du tágå dig niði Stokkol?
   how/where shall you take you down-to Stockholm
   ‘How will you get yourself to Stockholm?’

d. Ur/*war sir an aut?
   how/where looks he out
   ‘What does he look like?’

(38) a. Kor bur du? (Nynorsk) Norwegian
   wh live you
   ‘Where do you live?’

b. Kor gammal er du?
   wh old are you
   ‘How old are you?’

c. Korleis/*kor skal du ta deg til Stockholm?
   how/wh shall you take you to Stockholm
   ‘How will you get yourself to Stockholm?’

d. Korleis/*kor ser han ut?
   how/wh looks he out
   ‘What does he look like?’

The Superset Principle predicts that Övdalian war should be able to lexicalize
degree as well as manner and property since these are subparts of the constitu-
ency of place. But the empirical facts tell us otherwise. Likewise, Norwegian kor
should be able to lexicalize manner and property in addition to place and
degree, but it does not.

In order to account for such situations, competition among candidate lexical-
izers is invoked. In recent papers this has been referred to as ‘minimize junk’ or
‘best fit’ (see Starke 2009), and the general idea is similar to the earlier notion

(39) Preferred identifier (adapted version; see Vangsnes 1999: 48, 64; 2001: 268f):
   Use the item (exponent) with the most relevant and otherwise least irrele-
   vant features for identification of functional structure.

‘Features’ here translate to ‘(sub)constituents’ in nanosyntactic terms, and the
common core idea is that relevance rates over irrelevance. In Övdalian ur will thus
outwin war for the functions degree and manner, whereas in Nynorsk Norwegian
kor will be the best suited item for place and degree but not for manner and
property, for which korleis will be superior.

Thus, the actual lexicalizers for the P/A fseq in Övdalian come out as follows:
In turn we are now faced with yet a theoretical issue to be solved. For the property function there is a real choice between ur and ukin (cf. above in Sections 2.3 and 2.4) as several speakers allow both items in this context.

A common way to deal with this kind of optionality is to relate the choice of item to different styles or registers. Such a solution does not seem far-fetched in the case of ur vs. ukin for property in Övdalian: ur is quite clearly very similar to Standard Swedish hur, whereas the use of ukin in this syntactic context is a stronger marker of Övdalian speech.

Also the fact that ukin competes with alternative expressions in the D/A fseq, i.e. with wen (…) för for kind and token, suggests that the use of ukin belongs to a more traditional register of Övdalian: wen för represents a direct equivalent of the Swedish expression vad för. The lexicalization pattern for the Övdalian D/A fseq can therefore be rendered as in (41).

(41) a. [PERSON [TOKEN [KIND → ukin
b. [TOKEN [KIND → ukin/wen för
c. [KIND → ukin/wen för

As stated already in the introduction, person is in fact the only function in contemporary Övdalian where ukin is the unique candidate, and as noted above in Section 2.1, this use is relatively new and a result of functional expansion: ukin has replaced the older wer as the equivalent of English ‘who’.

Given that the core function of contemporary ukin is the person use, and given the view entertained here that functional expansion and erosion happen at the edge of an item’s lexicalization range, we may speculate that the weakest function of ukin today is the property use: the prediction will be that this is the function least used and the one most likely to disappear first. In turn, the kind use should be more prone to erosion from ukin’s lexicalization range than the token use, the latter being closest to the core person use. A more nuanced view of this will be presented in the next section.

4.3 Other functional expansions of ukin

In Section 2.5 we discussed the use of ukin as a polarity particle/complementizer, and it was tentatively suggested that this use has evolved from the token use. Similarly, it was suggested that there is a significant relation between the exclamative use of ukin and the kind querying use.
A way to capture these relations would be to capitalize on the way the P/A and D/A fseqs are proposed to be correlated through the property~kind connection. If the complementizer and exclamative uses represent distinct fseqs, we could argue that there exist similar links between them and the P/A and D/A sequences, notably that the complementizer sequence is connected with the D/A sequence through the token function and that the exclamative sequence is connected with it through the kind function.

(42) Excl.: [excl]

D/A: [person] [token] [kind]

C: [polar\textsubscript{main}] [polar\textsubscript{emb}]

This may seem like an unconstrained move since one then could argue for connections in all kinds of directions, i.e. as soon as one finds formal identity between expressions used in distinct syntactic contexts. However, we can give at least two arguments for this approach.

The possibly weakest argument is that the clause typing is different in the various cases. Exclamative force is distinct from interrogative force,\footnote{Zanuttini and Portner (2003) claim that wh-morphology is a necessary ingredient in exclamative clauses, but judging this from a Norwegian and North Germanic perspective, it seems questionable (see Abels and Vangsnes 2010 for discussion).} and although wh-clauses and yes/no-questions generally are categorized together as interrogatives, the fact that they entail different kinds of answers, might suggest that a distinction should be made between wh and polar force.

The second and more potent argument is that we know that expressions may develop in distinct ways in the different fseqs. The marking of English exclamative DPs is for instance distinct from the marking of a kind querying DP with what a N rather than just what N. The same holds for Norwegian where the interrogative expression contains a wh-part that must be absent in the exclamative.

(43) a. What (*a) car do you have? English
b. What *(a) car you have!

(44) a. Kva for (ein) bil har du? (Nynorsk) Norwegian
what for a car have you
‘What car do you have?’

b. (*Kva) For ein bil du har!
what for a car you have
‘What a car you have!’
Similarly, although English *whether* is etymologically related to *which*, at some point in the history of English the two expressions parted, and they are currently clearly distinct both morphologically and syntactically.

Furthermore, if the adnominal exclamative use relates to the *kind* querying use, we could argue that contiguity is broken in the case of Standard Swedish *vilken*: in questions, this item can only be used to query for *token* (see Vangsnes 2008c), but as discussed in Delsing (2010) it can also be used in exclamatives of the type in (43b) and (44b).

4.4 The lexical entry for *ukin*

The solution suggested just above needs to be explored further before drawing a firm conclusion. Adhering to it, we may sketch the lexical information for *ukin* as in (45) where the hash indicates marked uses.

(45) *ukin:*

```
[PERSON       [#TOKEN       [#KIND
 [#PROPERTY
 [EXCL
 [#POLAR_MAIN [#POLAR_EMB
```

What is intended by this set up is that *ukin* is associated with four distinct pieces of syntactic structure – four fseqs – and that it can be used as an exponent for these pieces of structure in a given utterance.

5. Conclusion

In this paper I have discussed the syntactic, and to some extent morphological, properties of the Övdalian *wh*-word *ukin*. I have shown that we can distinguish six different interrogative uses of *ukin* in the grammar of Övdalian: a predicative use (*property*), a modificational adnominal use (*kind*), a determiner use (*token*), a pronominal use (*person*), a complementizer use (*polar*), and a question particle use (*polar*). In addition there is an exclamative use.

Although *ukin* can be encountered in all of these syntactic contexts, the *person* use stands out as the core function of *ukin* in contemporary Övdalian, and I have suggested that most of the other uses may be vestiges from older stages of the language, now competing with alternative expressions in everyday speech. Nevertheless, the documented manifold behavior of *ukin* suggests that we are dealing with a highly flexible function word, a “grammatical chameleon” of sorts.
In addition to investigating the status of *ukin* internal to Övdalian, I have discussed how *ukin* relates to both cognate words and to functionally overlapping *wh*-words in other varieties of North Germanic, showing that there are interesting patterns of syncretism. We observe that *wh*-items often serve as exponents of more than just one function, and although polyfunctional items from different varieties do not have identical distributions, when we align them along a fixed ordering of functions, we see that isomorphy only obtains across adjacent functions.

My interpretation of these observations is that functional expansion (and erosion) follows particular routes along a conceptual continuum. I have suggested a ‘nanosyntactic’ analysis of this whereby *wh*-items serve as exponents of particular stretches of functional syntactic structure and where the two algorithms the *Superset Principle* and *Preferred Identifier* ensure the right choice of lexicalizer/exponent for each query function in question.

References


Garbacz, Piotr & Johannessen, Janne Bondi. This volume. Övdalian from 1909 to 2009.


The polyfunctionality of which in Övdalian


