ARRIVAL EXPRESSIONS IN THAI

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0 Abstract
This paper aims to provide an in-depth analysis of the semantic and syntactic structures of Thai expressions for arrival (i.e. an entity arrives at a goal after locomotion). I present a new perspective in which Thai arrival expressions are viewed as a subtype of ‘accomplishment1 construction’ consisting of two equipollent verbal components for cause and effect events (Takahashi 2007). The combination of a preceding locomotion event denoted by the first component and a subsequent arrival event denoted by the second component constitutes a macro-event2 of accomplishment expressing that the locomotion event gives rise to the arrival event. Thai grammar does not require the formal distinction between finite and non-finite verbs, and therefore more than one verb in a plain form is allowed to co-occur in a clause. This fundamental morphosyntactic property of Thai enables the speakers to produce arrival expressions as well as other types of the accomplishment construction with a coordinate, yet mono-clausal, structure.

1 Originally, the term ‘accomplishment’ was used by Vendler (1967: 102) to refer to one of the four classes of lexical aspect or ‘Aktionsart’ (namely, ‘state’, ‘achievement’, ‘activity’ and ‘accomplishment’). The accomplishment aspect, which resides in the lexical meaning of, e.g., such English verbs or verb phrases as melt, freeze, learn in one hour, draw a circle, etc., is generally characterized to have the following distinctive features: [- static], [+ telic] (i.e. entailing a clear endpoint), and [- punctual]. However, Takahashi (2007) has applied this term to feature the aspectual nature of Thai constructions consisting of two serial verb phrases that express a cause-effect phenomenon which, the speaker construes, naturally occurs in the given pragmatic, physical, social and cultural context, and whose consequence is of interest to the speaker.

2 Talmy (2000: 213-288) gives an account of the notion ‘macro-event’ as follows. A macro-event is a single fused event composed of two simpler events holding some relationship, which is a fundamental and pervasive type of event complex in the underlying conceptual organization of language, and it is amenable to expression by a single clause. Thus, the notion of macro-event is meant to be a cross-linguistically valid one, and accordingly, I utilize this notion to account for the underlying structure of Thai expressions for complex event of arrival (i.e. an entity arrives at a goal after locomotion). However, I do not perfectly agree with him; in particular, I doubt the universal validity of his a priori postulation that “a macro-event consists of a pair of close-related Figure-Ground events (ibid.: 213)”, put differently, consists of “a main event and a subordinate event (ibid.: 215)”. Having examined Thai expressions for a variety of complex events (cf. Takahashi 2007, 2009), I believe that a macro-event may consist of two coordinate sub-events, which we may call ‘complex figure’ event (Croft 2001: 327). In this paper I try to show that Thai arrival expressions, which form a major category of Thai construction for a macro-event of accomplishment (cause-and-effect), do involve two coordinate sub-events: a prior locomotion event and a posterior arrival event (see Section 2).
1 Introduction
The purpose of this paper is to examine the semantic and syntactic structures of Thai expressions for the spatio-temporal concept ‘arrival’. By the term ‘arrival’, I refer to an event in which an entity arrives at a goal after locomotion, as exemplified in (1) and (2).3

(1) khoom lɔɔy khɯ ̂n pay thɯ̌ŋ dàat fáa
   lantern float ascend go arrive roof-deck
   *The floating-lantern floated up and arrived at the roof-deck.*

(2) kháw lɔɔy khoom khɯ ̂n pay sùu thɔ́ñŋ fáa
   PRONOUN float lantern ascend go arrive and stay sky
   *They sent up a floating-lantern which got to the sky and stayed (there).*

Unlike a number of previous studies on Thai motion expressions (e.g. Diller 2006, Kessakul 2005, Kölver 1984, Muansuwan 2002, Thepkanjana 1986, Zlatev 2003), I consider motion expressions like those in (1) and (2) as a single clause that represents a complex event consisting of two sub-events in succession: that is, a prior locomotion event and a posterior arrival event. thɯ̌ŋ ‘arrive’ in (1) and sùu ‘arrive and stay’ in (2) are often considered as allative preposition indicating a path of motion toward an endpoint, which leads to an interpretation of (1) and (2) as simplex motion expressions. However, the use of these lexical items is not necessary for expressing an allative sense (Takahashi 2005). As illustrated in (3) and (4), a simple concatenation of a locomotion verb phrase and a goal noun phrase is enough to encode a situation in which an entity moves to a goal entity. This reveals that thɯ̌ŋ ‘arrive’ in (1) and sùu ‘arrive and stay’ in (2), which are missing in (3) and (4) respectively, are not responsible for the allative sense.

(3) khoom lɔɔy khɯ ̂n pay dàat fáa
   lantern float ascend go roof-deck
   *The floating-lantern floated up to the roof-deck.*

(4) kháw lɔɔy khoom khɯ ̂n pay thɔ́ñŋ fáa
   PRONOUN float lantern ascend go sky
   *They sent up a floating-lantern to the sky.*

When there is need to explicitly express the meaning of allative, Thai speakers put the allative preposition yang ‘to’ in front of the goal noun phrase, as in (5) and (6). (For the classification of Thai spatial prepositions, see Section 4.2.)

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3 The data used for this study were gathered mainly from published literary works which I randomly selected and partly from a computerized corpus of the Thai language that belongs to the National Electronics and Computer Technology Center (NECTEC), National Science and Technology Development Agency (NSTDA), Thailand, as well as other electronic texts on the Internet which I freely searched with the Google search engine. Besides examples (37) to (39) which are from Kessakul (2005), all examples in this paper are constructed or adapted from expressions in the abovementioned data by the author and are guaranteed to be well-formed by Thai native speakers.
The floating-lantern floated up to the roof-deck.

They sent up a floating-lantern to the sky.

In this paper I will claim that *thɯ̌ŋ* ‘arrive’ in (1) and *sùu* ‘arrive and stay’ in (2) above have the same function as *yùt* ‘halt, stop and stay’ in (7) and *patháɁ* ‘collide’ in (8) below have. That is, they have the function of describing a substantial arrival event arising from a preceding locomotion event. I name verbs with this function ‘arrival verbs’ (see Section 3).

The floating-lantern floated up and stopped at the roof.

They sent up a floating-lantern which collided against the roof.

Generally, Thai is characterized as a phonologically tonal, morphologically isolating, syntactically verb-serializing, and discourse-pragmatically topic-prominent language. These features of the language are well-known. Unfortunately, however, the following most significant morphosyntactic characteristics of the language are still scarcely recognized: in Thai, verbs have no grammatical division between finite and non-finite forms (Diller 1988, Bisang 1995), and noun phrases adjacent to a verb have no clear distinction between required arguments of the verb (i.e. subject and object noun phrases) and non-arguments (e.g. adjunct, complement, oblique noun phrase) (Minegishi 1988). If we define ‘main verb’ as ‘the finite verb determining the argument structure of the clause including the verb’ according to the basic principles of the formal analysis in the “standard” linguistics based on Indo-European grammar, we cannot accurately define the main verb in a Thai serial verb construction which is a mono-clause with multi-verbs. Most of Thai linguists conventionally analyze the first verb *lɔɔy* ‘float’ in (1) and (2) as the main verb while *thɯ̌ŋ* ‘arrive’ in (1) and *sùu* ‘arrive and stay’ in (2) as preposition, presumably because they adopt the dogma of Indo-European grammar that one clause must contain one finite verb.

There are two extreme opinions about finiteness of verbs in a series comprising a mono-clausal structure (viz. serial verb construction or in short SVC). One is presented by Foley & Olson (1985), and the other is by Givón (1991). Although they have the common view that an SVC should be regarded as a single clause, they sharply contrast with each other in their opinions regarding the finiteness value of verbs in an SVC. Foley & Olson explain that each verb in an SVC has the same status as predicate; namely, they are all finite. By contrast, Givón states that verbs in an SVC are co-lexical stems or grammatical morphemes; namely, they are all non-finite.
I would like to emphasize that finiteness is essentially a morphological concept, not a semantic concept, and therefore the distinction ‘finite vs. non-finite’ of verbs must be morphologically marked by inflection or other morphological devices. For this reason, I reject the idea that we can classify Thai verbs, which have no inflectional coding of finiteness, as finite or non-finite. In my opinion, we can only semantically divide Thai verbs in use into two groups depending on their discrete status of ‘factuality’ (‘factual’ vs. ‘non-factual’) (Takahashi 2006). We use Thai verbs in a particular discourse to express either a factual event (e.g. the event of eating in the past or the present, as expressed by *kin* ‘eat’ in (9)) or a non-factual event (e.g. the event of eating in the future, as expressed by *kin* ‘eat’ in (10)).

(9)  tham ?aahǎan maa  kin  
make dishes come eat  
(He) cooked and after coming to the place (he) ate [FACTUAL].

(10)  tham ?aahǎan (wáy / phɯ̂a thîi cà?)  kin  
make dishes (for future reference / in order to) eat  
(He) cooked in order to eat [NON-FACTUAL].

In short, finiteness is not the grammatical category for Thai verbs and Thai speakers do not have to morphosyntactically distinguish between finite and non-finite verbs. Therefore, more than one verb in a plain form can co-exist in a single clause. This fundamental morphosyntactic property of Thai enables the language speakers to produce ‘arrival expressions’ as well as other types of ‘accomplishment constructions’ with a coordinate, yet mono-clausal, structure (see Section 2). I argue that arrival expressions are composed of two verbal components for locomotion and arrival, and the two components are in a coordinate relationship. In other words, the two components are equal constituents of a single clause for a macro-event of accomplishment expressing that a locomotion event ends up with an arrival event.

2 Arrival expressions: a subtype of accomplishment construction

In a previous study (Takahashi 2007), I maintained that arrival expressions can be regarded as a kind of ‘accomplishment construction’ consisting of two verbal components for ‘cause’ and ‘effect’ events. The gist of the arrival expressions is that a prior locomotion event [CAUSE] gives rise to a posterior arrival event [EFFECT]. There are other semantic types of accomplishment construction, as illustrated in (11) and (12).

(11)  chon lóm  
bump fall over  
(He) bumped into something [CAUSE] and fell over [EFFECT].

(12)  fāŋ rúu rɯ ̂aŋ  
listen understand  
(He) listened to something [CAUSE] and understood it [EFFECT].
The second verb phrase in these constructions encodes a certain result arising from the preceding event denoted by the first verb phrase. The preceding cause event has a more or less dynamic nature, and the following effect event is a natural consequence brought about by the preceding cause event. We use these accomplishment constructions to comment on whether or not the effect event is realized as a result of the cause event, as respectively exemplified in (13) and (14).

(13) pay thûng ráan
    go arrive shop
(He) went [CAUSE] and reached the shop [EFFECT].

(14) pay máy thûng ráan
    go NEGATIVE arrive shop
(He) went [CAUSE] but did not reach the shop [EFFECT].

The effect event, which is capable of being solely negated, is no more subordinate-like than the preceding cause event. Rather, the two events have the same functional weight in comprising a macro-event of accomplishment. There is one strong piece of linguistic evidence to support this view.

Example (15) below, which includes the pre-verbal progressive marker, is unacceptable because the combination of the cause and the effect events as a whole is within the scope of modification of the progressive marker, and the telic nature (i.e. entailing a clear endpoint) of the effect event is incompatible with the progressive aspect (or atelic aspect, i.e. not entailing a clear endpoint). If (15) is a simplex locomotion expression and thûng functions as allative preposition which is subordinate to the preceding motion verb pay ‘go’, then it should be compatible with the progressive aspect.

(15)* kamlaŋ pay thûng ráan
    PROGRESSIVE go arrive shop
(He) was going to the shop. (intended meaning)

I argue that since there is no main-and-subordinate relationship between a pair of events represented by the two components of accomplishment constructions, the two events cannot be analyzed in terms of ‘framing-event’ and ‘co-event’ posited in Talmy’s (1991, 2000) theory of ‘event integration’. Framing-event and co-event are events that constitute a macro-event represented by a single clause. The framing-event is a main event which determines the overall temporal and spatial framework of the macro-event. The co-event, on the other hand, is a subordinate event of circumstances in relation to the macro-event as a whole. It performs functions of support in relation to the framing event. According to Talmy (2000), there are five macro-event types, as listed in (16), which includes the type of ‘motion’.
a. Motion:

\[ \text{The ball rolled in.} \]
Framing-event denoted by \textit{in}: Path  
Co-event denoted by \textit{rolled}: rolling

b. Temporal contouring:

\[ \text{They talked on.} \]
Framing-event denoted by \textit{on}: Aspect  
Co-event denoted by \textit{talked}: talking

c. State change:

\[ \text{The candle blew out.} \]
Framing-event denoted by \textit{out}: Changed property  
Co-event denoted by \textit{blew}: blowing

d. Action correlating:

\[ \text{She sang along.} \]
Framing-event denoted by \textit{along}: Correlation  
Co-event denoted by \textit{sang}: singing

e. Realization:

\[ \text{The police hunted the fugitive down.} \]
Framing-event denoted by \textit{down}: Fulfillment or Confirmation  
Co-event denoted by \textit{hunted}: hunting

Within the framework of Talmy’s (1985, 2000) typology of ‘lexicalization patterns’ in motion-event encoding, English is categorized as a ‘satellite-framed’ language, where the framing-event is represented fully by the combination of a satellite element being in construction with the verb (e.g. run \textit{out}) and a preposition being in construction with an object nominal (e.g. \textit{of} the house) and a co-event is represented by a verb (e.g. run) (e.g. run \textit{out of} the house). In contrast, Japanese is categorized as a ‘verb-framed’ language, where the framing-event is represented by a finite verb and a co-event is represented by a non-finite verb or other lexical elements. Compare English locomotion expression (17) with Japanese locomotion expression (18).

(17) \textit{The ball rolled in.} 
Framing-event denoted by \textit{in} (satellite): Path  
Co-event denoted by \textit{rolled} (verb): rolling

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4 Talmy (2000: 102) defines ‘satellite (to the verb)’ as “the grammatical category of any constituent other than a noun-phrase or prepositional-phrase complement that is in a sister relation to the verb root”.

(18) booru wa korogatte haitta (or haitte itta)
ball TOPIC rolling entered (or entering, went)

The ball entered (or went in), rolling.

Framing-event denoted by haitta (finite verb) ‘entered’: Path
(or haitte itta (non-finite verb, finite verb) ‘entering, went’: Path)
Co-event denoted by korogatte (non-finite verb) ‘rolling’: rolling

In the English expression (17), the satellite (in) represents the framing-event of Path and the verb (rolled) represents the co-event of rolling (Manner). In the Japanese expression (18), on the other hand, the finite verb (haitta ‘entered’ or haitte itta ‘entering, went’) represents the framing-event of Path and the non-finite verb (korogatte ‘rolling’) represents the co-event of rolling (Manner).

A Thai counterpart of these simplex locomotion expressions is shown in (19).

(19) lûuk bɔɔn klîŋ khâw (or khâw pay)
ball roll enter (or enter go)

The ball entered (or went in), rolling.

Framing-event denoted by khâw (verb) ‘enter’: Path
(or khâw pay (verb, verb) ‘enter, go’: Path)
Co-event denoted by klîŋ (verb) ‘roll’: rolling

Slobin (2003) developed Talmy’s typology further, and he claims that verb-serializing languages are neither verb-framed nor satellite-framed languages but are ‘equipollently-framed’ languages. In equipollently-framed languages, both framing-event and co-event are expressed by equivalent grammatical forms. In the case of Thai locomotion expressions, the framing-event of Path is basically expressed by path or deictic verbs and the co-event of Manner is expressed by manner-of-motion verbs and other lexical items.

However, arrival expressions discussed in this paper, e.g. (20) below, unlike simplex locomotion expressions, e.g. (19) above, are composed of the two components for two serial events of locomotion and arrival.

(20) lûuk bɔɔn klîŋ khâw pay thɯ̌ŋ
ball roll enter go arrive

The ball went in, rolling, and arrived.

Each of the two components in (20) (the locomotion component klîŋ khâw pay ‘roll + enter + go’, the arrival component thɯ̌ŋ ‘arrive’) has an equipollent status and expresses neither a framing-event nor a co-event. A locomotion event and an arrival event denoted by the two components are coordinate events forming a macro-event of accomplishment. Although the two components express different, albeit serial, events (i.e. locomotion and arrival), they constitute a single clause. A piece of evidence for this claim is that an allative prepositional phrase, if any, occurs at the rearmost position, as shown in (21). This complies with the syntactic principle of Thai grammar that in a clause, a prepositional phrase must follow a verb or a series of verbs expressing a single event.
The ferry came across, traveling, and arrived at the final stopping port.

Example (22), where the allative prepositional phrase (yaŋ thâa rua plaay thaaŋ ‘to the final stopping port’) is placed in front of the second component instead, sounds odd.

The ferry came across, traveling, to the final stopping port and arrived at some other port. (possible meaning)

As can be seen in (21), Thai speakers put an allative prepositional phrase introducing a goal entity (yaŋ thâa rua plaay thaaŋ ‘to the final stopping port’) at the end of the two serial components for a locomotion and an arrival (dəən thaaŋ khâam maa ‘came across traveling’ + thɯ̌ŋ ‘arrived’), since they consider the two components as a single clause encoding a macro-event of motion.

In what follows, the semantic and syntactic structures of Thai arrival expressions will be examined in detail. In Section 3, I will outline the semantics of arrival verbs. In Sections 4.1 and 4.2, I will account for the well-composed structures of the first and the second components of the expressions, respectively. And in Section 5, I will give concluding remarks.

3 The semantics of arrival verbs

From the corpus data of Thai arrival expressions which I collected from various published books and electronic texts (see footnote 3 for the details), I found that typical arrival verbs were of two categories: ‘stop verbs’ and ‘change-of-state verbs’, as in (23).

(23) Arrival verbs

a. Stop verbs:

b. Change-of-state verbs:
   tɛ̀ɛk ‘break’, phaŋ ‘tumble down, fall to the ground’

(24) and (25) provide samples of arrival expressions containing a stop verb (patháɁ ‘collide’) and a change-of-state verb (tɛ̀ɛk ‘break’), respectively.

(24) lom nǎaw phûŋ patháɁ bay nāa
wind cold dart collide face
A cold wind darted in and collided against the face.
(25) cút phlúʔ khûn pay têek tua klaan fâa ignite cannon cracker ascend go break body in the center of sky
(They) ignited cannon crackers which went up and burst in midair.

I assume that each arrival verb has particular semantic values with respect to the following three aspects: (a) the schematic configuration and other characteristics of the goal entity, such as a point-like or surface-like shape; (b) the type of the effect arising from the mover’s arrival, such as a punctual or lasting effect; and, (c) the type of the result of the arrival, such as a certain resultant state. The specific semantic values of typical arrival verbs are summarized in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Semantic values of typical arrival verbs in Thai</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) The nature of goal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thûng ‘arrive’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>khâw ‘enter’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hâa ‘seek’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chon ‘bump’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tôg ‘meet’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thûuk ‘touch’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>doon ‘hit’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pathâp ‘collide’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>krathôp ‘strike against’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yût ‘halt, stop and stay’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>càp ‘catch and hold’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thâap ‘lay flat against’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sûu ‘arrive and stay’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>têek ‘break’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phaj ‘tumble down’</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

4 Construction patterns of arrival expressions
Let’s now look more closely at the construction patterns of Thai arrival expressions.

I adopt Croft’s (1990, 1998) concept ‘causal chain’ for the representation of the event structure underlying Thai arrival expressions. The causal chain is the causal and aspectual organization of the ‘idealized cognitive model for verbal events (event ICM)’. He assumes that all possible causal-aspectual types of verb-meaning stem from the causal chain among three main ‘segments’ (constituent phases of event) of the event ICM, namely ‘CAUSE + CHANGE + STATE’, as graphically shown in Figure 1.
As Figure 2 below schematically depicts, the bi-partite structure of Thai arrival expressions (the first CAUSE component + the second EFFECT component) reflects the causal chain linking the preceding locomotion event with the following arrival event.

Figure 2: The event structure underlying Thai arrival expressions: Causal chain among CAUSATION, PROCESS, CHANGE and STATE

In order to represent the event structure of Thai arrival expressions as appropriately as possible, I have adapted Croft’s simple figure (Figure 1) in a few respects. Firstly, I have changed the label for the first force-dynamic segment ‘CAUSE’ into ‘CAUSATION’ to differentiate the label for the first segment in the event structure of the expressions (CAUSATION) from the label for the first syntactic component of the expressions (CAUSE). Secondly, I have analytically divided the second durative segment ‘CHANGE’ into two segments: the second durative segment ‘PROCESS’ and the third punctual segment ‘CHANGE’. Thirdly, I have parenthesized the first and the last segments ‘CAUSATION’ (which is called CAUSE in Figure 1) and ‘STATE’ as well as all the black circles ‘●’ at the beginning or the end of each segment which represent event-participants involved.

In the event structure underlying Thai arrival expressions (Figure 2), the prior locomotion event encompasses two segments, i.e., CAUSATION and PROCESS. Likewise, the posterior arrival event embraces two segments, i.e., CHANGE and STATE. The PROCESS and CHANGE segments in the middle are indispensable to an arrival event (viz. an event in which an entity arrives at a goal after locomotion), while the parenthesized CAUSATION and STATE segments in the periphery are dispensable. Put differently, the latter two peripheral segments may be outside the scope of attention and so be unmentioned. In addition, there are three main participants in an arrival event, i.e., ‘Causer’, ‘Mover’ and ‘Reference point for determining a path’ (such as ‘Source’ and ‘Goal’). A Causer initiates the locomotion of the Mover (CAUSATION); The Mover moves along a path (PROCESS), then it stops at a Goal (CHANGE), and it may stay there for a while (STATE). ‘●1’ at the beginning of the CAUSATION segment and ‘●2’ at the beginning of the PROCESS segment represent the Causer and Mover, respectively. ‘●3’ at the beginning of the CHANGE segment through ‘●5’ at the end of the STATE segment
represent either the Mover or Goal. All of these participants may or may not be named by a noun phrase (and so they are parenthesized), just like the CAUSATION and STATE segments which similarly may or may not be explicitly expressed by a verb.

From Figure 2, we can see that the event structure of Thai arrival expressions entails two sub-events: the CAUSE event of locomotion represented by the first component and the EFFECT event of arrival represented by the second component. Note, however, that the first and the second components are not necessarily always combined. Either of the two components by itself can express a simplex motion event. The first component alone expresses a simplex locomotion event, as in (26) and (27), and the second component alone expresses a simplex arrival event (viz. an instantaneous event of arrival, separated from the preceding locomotion event), as in (28) and (29). Thai syntactic structures are thus quite flexible.

(26) kháw lɔɔy khoom khûn pay
PRONOUN float lantern ascend go
_They sent a floating-lantern up away._ [CAUSATION + PROCESS]

(27) khoom lɔɔy khoom pay
lantern float ascend go
_The floating-lantern floated up away._ [PROCESS]

(28) khoom patháɁ lǎŋkhaa
lantern collide roof
_The floating-lantern collided with the roof._ [CHANGE]

(29) khoom yùt thîi lǎŋkhaa
lantern stop and stay at roof
_The floating-lantern stopped and stayed at the roof._ [CHANGE + STATE]

4.1 Construction patterns of the first component of arrival expressions

The first component of the arrival expressions designates a caused or spontaneous locomotion. Lexical items appearing in the first component can be classified into four main categories: ‘causer noun phrase’, ‘cause-of-motion verb phrase’, ‘mover noun phrase’ and ‘locomotion verb phrase’. In turn, the last category subsumes four sub-categories: ‘manner-of-motion verb’, ‘direction verb’, ‘path verb’ and ‘deictic verb’. Direction verb and path verb may take a noun phrase indicating a reference point for the path of motion, such as starting point and passing-by point. Table 2 shows the linear order among these main constituents of the first component.
Table 2: Linear order of main constituents of the first component

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>&lt;1&gt; Causer NP</th>
<th>&lt;2&gt; Cause-of-motion VP [CAUSATION]</th>
<th>&lt;3&gt; Mover NP</th>
<th>&lt;4&gt; Locomotion VP [PROCESS]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;4.1&gt; Manner-of-motion V</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;4.2&gt; Direction V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;4.3&gt; Path V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;4.4&gt; Deictic V</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some representative members of the verb categories are given in (30) through (34).

(30) Cause-of-motion verbs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>verb</th>
<th>meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>khwâaŋ</td>
<td>‘throw’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dìit</td>
<td>‘flick’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>têʔ</td>
<td>‘kick’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paa</td>
<td>‘throw’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phlåk</td>
<td>‘push’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yoon</td>
<td>‘throw’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lûan</td>
<td>‘slide’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>khôn</td>
<td>‘load’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cuuŋ</td>
<td>‘pull, drag’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nam</td>
<td>‘carry’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phaa</td>
<td>‘guide someone’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yîp</td>
<td>‘pick’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yók</td>
<td>‘lift’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lâak</td>
<td>‘drag’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(31) Manner-of-motion verbs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>verb</th>
<th>meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>klîŋ</td>
<td>‘roll’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>khlaan</td>
<td>‘crawl’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>khûûup</td>
<td>‘creep’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dûuon</td>
<td>‘walk’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bin</td>
<td>‘fly’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lûy</td>
<td>‘float’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wînğ</td>
<td>‘run’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lûy</td>
<td>‘flow’;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kâaw</td>
<td>‘step’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kraden</td>
<td>‘hurtle’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tày</td>
<td>‘clamber’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thalâk</td>
<td>‘spurt out’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phên</td>
<td>‘rush out of’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phûng</td>
<td>‘spout’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>traween</td>
<td>‘wander’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bûu̱n</td>
<td>‘speed’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phɛ̀n</td>
<td>‘rush out of’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phûng</td>
<td>‘spout’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>traween</td>
<td>‘wander’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bûu̱n</td>
<td>‘speed’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fàa</td>
<td>‘break through’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hɛ̀ɛ</td>
<td>‘parade’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dândôn</td>
<td>‘trudge’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lûay</td>
<td>‘ramble’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trèe</td>
<td>‘stroll’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yɔ̂ŋ</td>
<td>‘tiptoe’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(32) Direction verbs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>verb</th>
<th>meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>càak</td>
<td>‘leave’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tòk</td>
<td>‘fall’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thûy</td>
<td>‘retreat’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yɔ́ɔn</td>
<td>‘reverse’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rûaŋ</td>
<td>‘drop off’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lòn</td>
<td>‘drop’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>com</td>
<td>‘sink’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(33) Path verbs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>verb</th>
<th>meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>khâw</td>
<td>‘enter (durative aspect reading)’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ʔɔ́ɔk</td>
<td>‘exit’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>khûm</td>
<td>‘ascend’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lûy</td>
<td>‘descend’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>klàp</td>
<td>‘return’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>khâam</td>
<td>‘cross’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>taam</td>
<td>‘follow’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phàan</td>
<td>‘pass’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phûń</td>
<td>‘pass’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lûy</td>
<td>‘follow along’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lát</td>
<td>‘cut across’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tûp</td>
<td>‘go along’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lûay</td>
<td>‘go along’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lâm</td>
<td>‘overstep’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lûy</td>
<td>‘exceed’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sùan</td>
<td>‘pass each other’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ʔɔ́ɔn</td>
<td>‘take a roundabout way’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(34) Deictic verbs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>verb</th>
<th>meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pay</td>
<td>‘go’ ,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maa</td>
<td>‘come’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(35) to (37) below exemplify the first component of the arrival expressions. (The number <1> to <4.4> attached to the words in (35) to (39) corresponds to the number indicated in Table 2.) Expressions for caused locomotion such as (35) require the combination of cause-of-motion verb and path/deictic verb, while those for spontaneous locomotion such as (36) and (37) exclude causer noun phrase and cause-of-motion verb which represent the CAUSATION segment.

(35) khâw têʔ lûuk bûn klîŋ yûɔ̀n phàan pratuu khâw pay
   PRONOUN kick ball roll reverse pass door enter go
   <1> <2> <3> <4.1> <4.2> <4.3> <4.3> <4.4>

He kicked the ball which went back in rolling through the door.
The ball went back in rolling through the door.

He hurried and stepped quickly, with his shoulders bent forward, forcing his way through light rain. (Kessakul 2005)

The following are semantic and syntactic constraints on the first component of Thai arrival expressions. Firstly, to express a caused locomotion, one cause-of-motion verb and at least one path or deictic verb must be combined. Secondly, to express a spontaneous locomotion, on the other hand, causer noun phrase and cause-of-motion verb must be absent. Though only one locomotion verb is able to express a locomotion event, normally more than one verb is serialized. It is possible for a manner-of-motion verb, direction verb and path verb to multiply occur in a single clause. This is because the concepts of ‘manner-of-motion’, ‘direction’ and ‘path’ can be richly described from more than one perspective. Examples (35) and (36) above, for instance, include two path verbs, i.e., phàan ‘pass’ and khâw ‘enter’, which concurrently characterize the motion in question as passing some object and also as going into some enclosed space. Furthermore, example (37) above includes three manner-of-motion verbs, i.e., câm ‘walk quickly’, kâaw ‘step’ and fâa ‘break through’, as well as one onomatopoeia, i.e., dûm dûm ‘walk quickly and straight with the shoulders bent forward’, all of which together modify the manner of the person’s moving. In contrast, the number of cause-of-motion verbs and deictic verbs appearing in a single clause is limited to only one, simply because only one value of ‘cause of motion’ and ‘deictic relation’ can be specified for a single motion event.7

Interestingly, Kessakul (2005) states that we frequently encounter Thai motion expressions consisting of multi-verb-phrases which express a mover’s spontaneous motion along a complex path with intermediate points where one relocation terminates and another relocation starts, as illustrated in (38) and (39) below. This complex path is formed by connecting a number of relocation paths. For example, the complex path in (38) is made up of two paths, i.e. (38a) and (38b); that in (39) four paths, i.e. (39a) to (39d). Kessakul calls

---

5 By ‘direction’ I mean ‘relative direction of path being formed with a starting point and/or an endpoint’ (Takahashi 1997).
6 By ‘path’ I mean ‘relative direction of path arising from interaction with a reference object’ (Takahashi 1997) which Talmy (1991, 2000) considers as ‘the core schema of motion event’.
7 However, the combination of the two deictic verbs, viz. pay maa ‘go + come’, may be added to a locomotion verb to indicate a to-and-fro kind of the path of the described locomotion, that is, moving back and forth in a more or less confined space.
this syntactically expanding phenomenon ‘structural recurrence’ of the locomotion verb phrase. Thai syntactic structures are amazingly elastic indeed.

(38) a. naawaa kâaw tháaw loŋ càak fútbàat
   Nawa step foot descend from footpath
   <3> <4.1> <4.3>

b. dəən khâam thanǒn pay yaŋ ráan ?aysakhriim
   walk cross road go to ice-cream shop
   <4.1> <4.3> <4.4>

_ Nawa stepped off the footpath and walked across the road toward an ice-cream shop. (Kessakul 2005)_

(39) a. rút lúk khɯ ̂n
   Rut get up ascend
   <3> <4.1> <4.3>

b. dəən thaaŋ tɔ ̀ɔ
   travel continue
   <4.1>

c. lát lɔ́Ɂ     p a y  t a a m  s â a k  Ɂ a a k h a a n
   take a short cut along the side go along the ruin of building
   <4.3> <4.4>

d. phàan thanǒn
   pass road
   <4.3>

_ Rut got up and continued his trip, taking a shortcut along the ruin of the building, passing the road. (Kessakul 2005)_

It should be noted that normally the first component of arrival expressions examined in this section does not undergo the structural recurrence of the locomotion verb phrase; otherwise, the symmetrical relationship existing between the first and the second components would become ill-balanced.

4.2 Construction patterns of the second component of arrival expressions

The second component of the arrival expressions depicts the final phase of an arrival event, which is the culmination of the prior locomotion event represented by the first component. The second component describes how and where the moving entity has arrived, whereby imposing a telic nature onto the locomotion event. Table 3 shows the linear order of three main categories of lexical items occurring in the second component: ‘arrival verb’, ‘preposition’ and ‘goal noun phrase’.
Table 3: Linear order of main constituents of the second component

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>&lt;5&gt; Arrival V</th>
<th>&lt;6&gt; Preposition</th>
<th>&lt;7&gt; Goal NP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[CHANGE (+ STATE)]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;5.1&gt; Stop V</td>
<td>&lt;6.1&gt; Endpoint Preposition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;5.2&gt; Change-of-state V</td>
<td>&lt;6.1.1&gt; Allative Preposition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;6.1.2&gt; Attendant relation Preposition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;6.2&gt; Global locative Preposition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;6.3&gt; Local locative Preposition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The semantic and syntactic constraint on the second component of Thai arrival expressions is very simple: to express the final phase of an arrival event, one arrival verb is necessarily used, whereas other constituents are optionally used.

Examples of the second component of the arrival expressions are given in (40) and (41). (The number <5> to <7> attached to the words in (40), (41), (44) to (47) corresponds to the number indicated in Table 3.)

(40) … thâap bon tûu lay flat against upper cabinet <5> <6.3> <7> (It relocated and) covered the cabinet.

(41) … thɯ̌ŋ nâa rót arrive front car <5> <6.3> <7> (It relocated and) arrived in front of the car.

The category of preposition consists of three main sub-categories: ‘endpoint preposition’, ‘global locative preposition’ and ‘local locative preposition’. There are two

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8 In Thai, prepositions for indicating the endpoint of motion (i.e. endpoint prepositions including the allative preposition yaŋ ‘to’ and the attendant relation preposition kàp ‘with’ ) are prepositions proper; that is, they are no longer content words (verbs or nouns), whereas there are no prepositions proper for indicating the starting point or the passing course of motion. However, in a simplex locomotion expression, the direction verb càak ‘leave’, when occurring after a path verb and/or a deictic verb or before an allative preposition, serves as ‘starting-point (ablative) preposition’ (i.e. càak ‘from’) (see example (38a)) and the path verb taam ‘follow’, when occurring after a deictic verb or before an allative preposition, serves as ‘passing-course preposition’ (i.e. taam ‘along’) (see example (39c)).

9 The two classes of locative nouns functioning as locative prepositions that I name here, ‘global locative prepositions’ and ‘local locative prepositions’, roughly correspond to Zlatev’s (2003: 322-326) two classes of such nouns, ‘class nouns’ and ‘region nouns’, respectively. However, the number of ‘class nouns’ is smaller than that of ‘global locative prepositions’ listed in (42), and the lexical item klaaŋ ‘in the center of, in the middle of, amid; center, middle’ is categorized by Zlatev as the latter ‘region noun’ (‘local locative preposition’), but by me as the former ‘global locative preposition’.
endpoint prepositions: the ‘allative preposition’ (i.e. *yag* ‘to’)\(^{10}\) and the ‘attendant relation preposition’ (i.e. *kàp* ‘with’). The allative preposition highlights a path toward a goal entity, while the attendant relation preposition indicates a goal entity with which a mover comes into touch. Unlike these endpoint prepositions, global and local locative prepositions are not prepositions proper, but are nouns that are capable of functioning as locative preposition in a certain context. Various labels have been given to these lexical items, e.g., relational nouns, localizers, locative nominals, locative relator nouns, locative particles, and so on (cf. Bisang 1996: 549). Global locative prepositions specify the global configuration of a locative entity (such as point and side), as in (42).

(42) Global locative prepositions:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{thî}‘\text{at; place}’ \\
\text{thɛ́w}‘\text{in the region of; row}’ \\
rɔ̃p ‘\text{around; surrounding}’ \\
thûa ‘\text{all over; everywhere}’ \\
khâŋ ‘\text{on/to the side of; side}’ \\
dân ‘\text{on/to the side of; surface}’ \\
phaay ‘\text{in the side of; space}’ \\
bîây ‘\text{in the direction of; direction}’ \\
thaây ‘\text{in the direction of; way}’ \\
klây ‘\text{in the center of, in the middle of, amid; center, middle}’ \\
râwày ‘\text{among}’
\end{align*}
\]

On the other hand, local locative prepositions specify intrinsic configuration (such as front or back) or relative orientation with respect to a certain viewpoint (such as right and left) or absolute orientation with respect to gravity (such as above and below) or other fixed directions (such as north and south), all of which have relatively fine-grained contrastive values, as in (43).

(43) Local locative prepositions:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{bon} ‘\text{on; upper part}’ & & \text{lây} ‘\text{under; lower part}’ \\
nay ‘\text{in; inner part}’ & & nɔ̄ɔk ‘\text{out; outer part}’ \\
nâ ‘\text{in front of; face}’ & & \text{lây} ‘\text{behind; back}’ \\
khwâ ‘\text{right}’ & & \text{sây} ‘\text{left}’ \\
nî ‘\text{above; north, uphill, upstream}’ & & \text{tû} ‘\text{below; south, downhill, downstream}’
\end{align*}
\]

Different types of prepositions may co-occur, but they must take place in the fixed order, as in (44) and (45).

---

\(^{10}\) It is interesting to note that in a simplex locomotion expression, the arrival verbs *thûŋ* ‘arrive’ and *sùu* ‘arrive and stay’ function as allative preposition when combined with the starting-point (ablative) preposition (i.e. *càak NP {thûŋ / sùu} NP* ‘from … to …’) and *sùu* ‘arrive and stay’ also functions as allative (or illative) preposition when preceded by the arrival verb *khâw* ‘enter (punctual aspect reading)’ (i.e. *khâw sùu NP* ‘get into …’) (Takahashi 2005: 116-117).
5 Conclusion
In this paper I have characterized Thai arrival expressions as composed of two components expressing a prior locomotion event and a posterior arrival event which are in a coordinate relationship. The two components constitute a single clause for a macro-event of accomplishment. I have shown that Thai arrival expressions have systematic, though very elastic, structures. Thai grammar does not require a single main verb in an SVC. This is crucial for the establishment of accomplishment construction that consists of two equipollent verbal components for cause and effect. My claim is that arrival expressions should be categorized as a major type of this versatile bi-partite construction.

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References


