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When Lexicalization Meets Grammaticalization: The Development of ‘wang+path’ Adverbials in Northern Chinese

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This paper discusses a productive compounding pattern, which combines preposition 往wang (wàng or wǎng) ‘towards’, with a path-expressing element, either a monosyllabic localizer, e.g. 往裡 wānglǐ ‘in’, or a path verb, e.g. 往回 wānghuí ‘back’ or 往起 wāngqǐ ‘up’. These compounds, like directional complements, express the core path meanings of a spatial motion event (‘up’, ‘down’, ‘in’, ‘out’, ‘across’ etc.), but they appear before the verb, whereas directional complements follow the verb. Only the latter (e.g. 拿進去 nájinqu ‘take in’, 拿回去 náhuiqu ‘take back’ or 拿起來 náqǐlái ‘take up’) have a bounding effect on the clause. We argue that one important motivation for this lexicalization process is the need for two complete symmetrical sets of path-marking elements which share the same repertory of path meanings, but have different aspectual implications for the clause. The second type of compounds (wang + directional verb) appears later in history than the first type (wang + localizer), and fills up the gaps existing in the repertory of core path meanings provided by localizers, e.g. huí ‘back’, qǐ ‘up (source-oriented)’, guò ‘over’ etc. We also discuss the role of grammaticalization in this evolution, and conclude on a few typological perspectives.

Key words: path of motion, directionals, localizers, Northern Mandarin, lexicalization, grammaticalization

1. Introduction

We discuss here a productive compounding pattern, which combines preposition 往wang (wàng or wǎng) ‘towards’, with a path-expressing element (hereafter path),

* We develop here some sections of a paper read at the 4th Kentridge roundtable on Chinese Linguistics on grammaticalization and lexicalization (National Singapore University, September 2008). I would like to thank here the organizer of the workshop, Pr. Peng Rui, and several other colleagues for their comments. The topic exactly fitted this volume, considering Pr. Alain Peyraube’s outstanding contributions to the study of both locative constructions and grammaticalization.
either a monosyllabic localizer, e.g. 往裡 wǎnglǐ ‘in’, or a path verb, e.g. 往回 wǎnghuí ‘back’ or 往起 wǎngqǐ ‘up’. WANG-path compounds, like directional complements, express the core path meanings of a spatial motion event (‘up’, ‘down’, ‘in’, ‘out’, ‘across’ etc.), but they appear before the verb, whereas directional complements follow the verb.

This study is part of a wider project which has the ambition to give another illustration of an important principle of form-meaning pairing in Chinese: the correlation of syntactic position (left or right of the verb) and perfectivity. This topic has been discussed in a number of studies of various theoretical backgrounds, dealing mainly with cases when the same noun phrases appeared before and after the verb, for instance “zài + locative noun” and “gěi + noun phrase”. In the case discussed here, though, the first component of the WANG-PATH adverbials, preposition WANG ‘toward’, expresses the direction of the motion and appears only at the left of the verb, contrasting with directionals and with the goal marker 到 dào ‘to’ which appear after. The second component is in mainstream Mandarin a localizer, which bears no relation whatsoever to the directional complements that express the path in Verb-Directional compounds. The fact that these two types of path-expressing element belong to separate word classes has made the form-meaning correlation less conspicuous than in other constructions. Through the lexicalization process discussed here, path verbs combine with preposition WANG ‘toward’ to form WANG-DIR compounds, e.g. 回 huí ‘return’ in 往回走 wǎnghuí zǒu ‘walk back’ or 起 qǐ ‘rise’ in 往起撿 wǎngqǐ jiǎn ‘pick up’. As a result, the same path-expressing elements, i.e. directionals, may appear before the verb in an adjunct prepositional phrase (hereafter PP) and after the verb as a resultative, e.g. 走回去 zǒuhuíqu ‘walk back’ or 撿起來 jiǎnlái ‘pick up’. This unveils two types of path marking in a ‘mirror image’.

This paper is organized as follows: Section 2 presents an overview of Chinese localizers and directionals, the two path-expressing categories involved here. Section 3 describes both types of WANG-PATH compounds and discusses their ‘wordhood’ and their historical development. Section 4 presents data illustrating the use of both types of WANG-PATH compounds in standard and less standard Mandarin. Section 5 discusses the motivation for this lexicalization process. The conclusion gives a few typological perspectives.

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1 We showed (Lamarre 2007a, Tang & Lamarre 2007) that verbs followed by WANG appear only in written style, and that in the spoken language of the Northern dialects they are not used.
2. The development of \textit{WANG}-PATH adverbials in Mandarin Chinese

2.1 The linguistic expression of the path of motion in Chinese: localizers and directionals

Mandarin Chinese uses various linguistic devices to encode the path of motion in a spatial motion event: besides path verbs (e.g. \textit{進 jìn} ‘enter’, \textit{出來 chūlai} ‘come out’), it can use directional complements, prepositions, and localizers, or a combination of these elements. Prepositions and monosyllabic localizers necessarily combine with a locative noun phrase (hereafter locative NP), e.g. source preposition \textit{從 cóng} ‘from’ and localizer \textit{-li} ‘in’ in (1a), and therefore belong to an \textit{adnominal} type of encoding. Directional complements mainly combine with verbs. Although they may also introduce a locative NP, e.g. \textit{進 jìn} ‘enter’ in (1b), they often appear without, e.g. (1c), and can thus be considered as an \textit{adverbal} type of path encoding.\footnote{The terms of \textit{adverbal} and \textit{adnominal encoding} are borrowed from Berthele (2004). They correspond roughly to the distinction made by Talmy between satellites and prepositions. Satellites modify the verbs and may appear without the reference (or ground) noun phrase.}

(1) a. \textit{從 邊裡 掏出來}
\textit{cóng bāo-li tāo-chūlai}
‘draw out of the bag’

b. \textit{放進 邊(裡)}
\textit{fàng-jìn bāo(-lǐ)}
‘put into the bag’

c. \textit{放進去}
\textit{fàng-jin-qu}
‘put in’

These various types of path encoding combine following complex and numerous patterns which differ according to dialects and style (see Lamarre 2007a, Tang & Lamarre 2007 etc.). The lexicalization pattern discussed here originates in a prepositional phrase where the preposition \textit{WANG} ‘toward’ (\textit{wǎng} or \textit{wàng}, hereafter represented as \textit{WANG}) combines with a locative NP (which may include a localizer) to express the direction of the motion in a motion event. Instead of a whole locative NP, preposition \textit{WANG} ‘toward’ has come to combine with localizers to form an adverbial which expresses the
direction of the motion such as ‘in’ or ‘up’. The focus of this study, WANG-PATH
adverbials, is divided into two subtypes according to the nature of the path-expressing
element: a monosyllabic localizer (LOC) in WANG-LOC adverbials, e.g. 往裡 wānglǐ
‘in’; a directional complement (DIR) in WANG-DIR adverbials, e.g. wānghuì 往回
‘back’ or 往起 wāngqǐ ‘up’. We give below a brief presentation of the two grammatical
categories from which these path-expressing elements are taken, i.e. localizers and
directional (or path) verbs. In modern Chinese, localizers and directional (or path) verbs
form two distinct closed-class categories which have been widely discussed in the
literature, but rarely compared one to each other.

2.2 Localizers

Localizers express “the relative position of objects” (Chappell & Peyraube 2008:15).
Their main function is to change the ordinary noun they follow into a ‘place word’, which
can then function as a locative NP in specific syntactic environments, for instance
combine with locative prepositions and verbs like 從 cóng ‘from’, 往 wāng ‘toward’, 在
zài ‘be at, at’, or 到 dào ‘to arrive at, go to’. Chinese localizers follow the evolutionary
path proposed by Svorou (1993:101) and by Heine et al. (1991:132), from a noun to an
adposition through a genitive construction (see Peyraube 2003). They are considered
either as a subcategory of nouns or as postpositions. It is generally admitted that disyllabic
localizers function more like nouns and monosyllabic ones more like adpositions: only
the former can function as subject or object of a verb, and the latter are bound forms
and often undergo some degree of phonetic reduction (tonal neutralization, erosion of
the initial consonant etc.). Localizers are also known to combine with prepositions such
as 往 wāng, 朝 cháo, 向 xiàng ‘towards’, or 從 cóng ‘from’ etc., like in the WANG-
PATH compounds examined here.

Chinese localizers, like the spatial grams discussed by Svorou (1993:31), designate a
spatial region of the locative noun used as the reference of the localization or of the
motion (the landmark in her terms, or ground NP in Talmy’s terms). The repertory of
Chinese localizers fits with Svorou’s (1993) core regions used in spatial reference: the
INTERIOR/EXTERIOR/TOP/BOTTOM/FRONT/BACK/SIDE/MEDIAL REGIONS
(respectively 裡 lǐ, 外 wài, 上 shàng, 下 xià, 前 qián, 後 hòu, 旁 páng, 中 zhōng and 間 jiān etc., see Peyraube 2003 and Chappell & Peyraube 2008 for more details). If we
follow Talmy (2000:53-57) in distinguishing several components of path, localizers
express among other things what he calls the conformation component of the path,
which includes notions such as “the inside of an enclosure” or “the surface of a volume”.

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2.3 Directional (or path) verbs and complements

Chinese directional complements grammaticalized from path verbs (or directional verbs qūxiàng dòngcí in the traditional terminology; see Ota 1958:210, Peyraube 2006 and Ma 2008), and compound with verbs to form VERB-DIRECTIONAL compounds just as the resultative complements do (see ex. (1)). Several studies of various theoretical backgrounds (Talmy 2000:108-109, Lamarre 2003, 2007b, Shen 2003, Peyraube 2006) have pointed out the similarity of directional complements with Talmy’s path satellites (Talmy 2000:101-112). Strictly speaking, only a subclass of Chinese path verbs function as directional complements: their repertory is similar to that of path satellites in typical satellite-framed languages. Slobin (2001), in discussing the role played during language acquisition by the opposition between closed-class categories and open-class categories, noted that although verbs generally form an open-class category, in a language such as Jacaltec (a Mayan language spoken in Central America, as described in Craig 1993), where directionals grammaticalized from verbs, the verbs expressing core path schema actually form a closed-class category within the open category of verbs. 3 Table 1 shows the correspondence between Jacaltec path verbs and path directionals (Craig 1993), Standard Mandarin path verbs and path directionals, and Hungarian verb prefixes, to illustrate Slobin’s remark about the ‘schematic, generalized meanings’. Hungarian verb prefixes do not have any path verbs corresponding to the verb prefixes listed here, and can therefore be considered as a more ‘typical’ satellite-framed language than Chinese, which uses both path verbs and path satellites (see Lamarre 2003 and 2007b).

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3 Slobin (2001:419) noted this about Jacaltec’s directionals: “The directionals have all of the defining features of closed-class morphemes: there is a small, phonologically reduced set of bound morphemes, with schematic and generalized meanings. However, each of these suffixes corresponds to a full verb of motion, and such verbs are clearly an open class by standard definitions. […] In fact, both sets are small and closed, and both have the familiar characteristics of grammaticizable notions. Clearly, the directionals are grammaticized forms of the verbs. And just as clearly — within the ‘open class’ — these ten motion verbs constitute a small, closed class.”
## Table 1: The core path verbs and path directionals in Jacaltec, Hungarian and Chinese

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Jacaltec</th>
<th>Hungarian</th>
<th>Mandarin Chinese</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tovi ‘go’ → -toj ‘away from’</td>
<td>VERB meggy</td>
<td>去 ‘go’ → -qu ‘thither’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tita ‘come’ → -tij ‘toward’</td>
<td>VERB jön</td>
<td>来 ‘come’ → -lai ‘hither’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ahi ‘to ascend’ → -(a)h ‘up’</td>
<td>PREFIX fel-</td>
<td>上 ‘ascend’ → -shang ‘up’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ayi ‘to descend’ → -(a)y ‘down’</td>
<td>le-</td>
<td>下 ‘descend’ → -xia ‘down’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oki ‘to enter’ → -(o/e/i)k ‘in’</td>
<td>&quot; be-</td>
<td>进 ‘enter’ → -jin ‘in(to)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>el ‘to exit’ → -(e/i)l ‘out’</td>
<td>&quot; ki-</td>
<td>出 ‘exit’ → -chu ‘out’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ek ‘to pass’ → -(e/i)k ‘through’</td>
<td>&quot; át-</td>
<td>过 ‘pass, cross’ → -guo ‘over’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paxi ‘to return’ → -pax ‘back/again’</td>
<td>&quot; vissza-</td>
<td>回 ‘return’ → -hui ‘back’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kanh ‘to rise’ → -kanh ‘up’</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>起 ‘rise’ → -qi ‘up’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although each language has a few idiosyncratic items for which no corresponding form can be found in other languages, a similar set of core path schema is found in many other languages (see François 2003 or Ross 2004 on Oceanic languages). This explains why in order to introduce the Western or the Russian reader to Chinese directionals, Chao (1968:459) and Jaxontov (1958:90) compared Chinese with German and Russian verbal prefixes (about Russian preverbs as path satellites, see Talmy 2000:106).

### 2.4 The repertories of localizers and of directionals

We saw that from a semantic point of view, localizers and directional complements express different facets of path or spatial reference. Whereas localizers may also appear in sentences expressing static location or motion, directional complements are devices which (in their spatial meaning at least) encode mainly the path of motion in sentences expressing a motion. In sentences expressing a spatial motion (like examples (1a-c) above), their repertory displays a partial overlapping shown in Table 2.4 Here a distinction must be made for English glosses between ‘back1’ antonym of ‘front’ (like in ‘step back’) and ‘back2’ meaning ‘go back to one’s original position’, and between ‘up1’, expressing an upward motion toward a goal (used for instance in a running motion from the ground-floor to the second floor), and ‘up2’, which is source-oriented (used for instance when the moving entity stands up from a chair, or when the agent picks up something from the floor). Two items, *shàng* and *xià*, are homomorphic (and polysemous). In *WANG-PATH* adverbials, where *WANG* expresses direction ‘toward’, locatives and directionals come to fill the same slot, and both encode the path of motion.

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4 This table lists only a few core items. Other items such as 近 jìn ‘close’ and 開 kāi ‘away’, and the deictic directionals 來 lái and 去 qù could be added to the repertory of the directionals, localizers 对面 duì(miàn) ‘facing’, or 中間 zhōngjiān ‘middle’ etc. to the repertory of the localizers.
Table 2: The core members of localizers and directionals: overlapping of path meanings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Loc.</th>
<th>dòng</th>
<th>páng</th>
<th>qián</th>
<th>hòu</th>
<th>shàng</th>
<th>xià</th>
<th>lǐ</th>
<th>wài</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>east</td>
<td>near</td>
<td>front</td>
<td>back</td>
<td>top</td>
<td>bottom</td>
<td>inside</td>
<td>outside</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dir.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>up</td>
<td>down</td>
<td>in</td>
<td>out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>shàng</td>
<td>xià</td>
<td>jìn</td>
<td>chū</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>huí</td>
<td>qǐ</td>
<td>guò</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The grey cells at the right of the table show the path meanings for which only directionals are available. huí ‘back2’, qǐ up2 and guò ‘over’ are precisely the items which will in some Mandarin dialects combine with WANG to form WANG-DIR adverbials.

In mainstream Chinese such switches are not usual, which explains why WANG-DIR adverbials are rarely discussed. We will see in §4 that the only WANG-DIR compound fully integrated in Standard Mandarin is 往回 wānghuí ‘back (to one’s original position)’, and that other items are more or less marked as dialectal. Fang (2003) described a similar overlapping in the colloquial dialect of Beijing, where -li (‘inside’, a localizer) appears after verbs, in the position usually occupied by directional complements:

(2) 你什麼時候住裡的？
nǐ shénme shíhou zhù-lǐ de
2SG be which time live-inside NOM
‘When did you move in?’

In the case of WANG-PATH compounds, the switch of functions occurs the other way round: the directional fills in a slot primarily devised for a localizer. As a result, 往外推 wāngwài tuī and 往出推 wāngchū tuī both mean ‘push out’ in the Mandarin dialects which use both.

3. More on WANG-PATH adverbials

3.1 WANG-LOC and WANG-DIR adverbials, and their repertory

The WANG-PATH compounds discussed here are not usually considered as words by Chinese reference grammars and dictionaries. They are not listed in the authoritative Dictionary of Contemporary Chinese (現代漢語辭典 Xiàndài Hànyǔ Cídiǎn), but are listed in the recently published dictionary of ‘phrases’ or 短語 duǎnyǔ (Li & Xu 2008:5)
Only the first of the two types discussed here, where \textit{WANG} combines with a monosyllabic localizer, is widely described in the literature. The first descriptions of \textit{WANG}-\textit{LOC} compounds by Lü (1965[1990]) and Chao (1968:525-526) treat them like phrases consisting of a preposition and a substantive. Although Chao transcribes these compounds without hyphenation, as he does for words, he uses the vague term ‘occurrence after prepositions’, and Lü (1965[1990], 1980) uses the term ‘combination’ (\textit{zūhé} in Chinese); hence, neither treats them as a word. According to Lü (1980:482), a major reference glossary of grammatical words, PPs formed of the preposition \textit{往} ‘toward’ and localizers or locative NPs appear before the verb to express ‘the direction of the action’. Lü’s examples include both \textit{WANG}-\textit{LOC} compounds such as in \textit{往前看} \textit{wàngqián kàn} ‘look forward, look ahead’, \textit{往外走} \textit{wàngwài zǒu} ‘walk out’, \textit{往上拉} \textit{wàngshàng lā} ‘pull up’, and PPs where \textit{WANG} combines with a nominal or pronominal element, such as \textit{水往低處流} \textit{shuǐ wàng dīchù liú} ‘water flows toward low places’, or \textit{往我這兒瞧} \textit{wáng wǒ zhèr qiáo} ‘look at me’.

According to Lü’s survey (1965[1990]) on the use of localizers in Mandarin Chinese,\footnote{The survey was based on two written corpora amounting to about 10,000 characters, and representing a rather colloquial variety of Mandarin. These include a few chapters of Lao She’s novel \textit{Rickshaw}, also used in the present paper, which reflects a variety of northern Mandarin.} \textit{往} ‘toward’ is the preposition which appears the most frequently with the largest repertory of monosyllabic localizers: \textit{上} \textit{shàng} ‘top, up’, \textit{下} \textit{xìa} ‘bottom, down’, \textit{前} \textit{qián} ‘front’, \textit{後} \textit{hòu} ‘back’, \textit{裡} \textit{lǐ} ‘inside’, \textit{外} \textit{wài} ‘outside’, \textit{東} \textit{dōng} ‘east’, \textit{南} \textit{nán} ‘south’, \textit{西} \textit{xī} ‘west’, and \textit{北} \textit{běi} ‘north’. Other prepositions expressing direction, \textit{向} \textit{xiàng}, \textit{朝} \textit{cháo} and \textit{衝} \textit{chòng}, also appear in combination with monosyllabic localizers, but less frequently.

Chao (1968:525) also described in detail the possible combinations of various prepositions, including \textit{WANG}\footnote{Chao (1968:525-526) uses character \textit{望} \textit{wàng}, (see the discussion in §3.2). We changed Chao’s original phonetic transcription to pinyin.} ‘toward’, \textit{向} \textit{xiàng} ‘toward’, \textit{在} \textit{zài} ‘at’, \textit{從} \textit{cóng} ‘from’ etc. with monosyllabic localizers. Both \textit{WANG} and \textit{xiàng} ‘toward’ can combine with most of the monosyllabic localizers, but according to Chao (1968:526), the fact that \textit{內} \textit{nèi} is more literary than its synonym \textit{裡} \textit{lǐ} ‘inside’ accounts for the absence of the combination \textit{*望內} \textit{*wàngnèi} ‘in’. Earlier studies show some discrepancy regarding the repertory of these compounds for prepositions other than \textit{WANG}. For instance Lü notes that \textit{在} \textit{zài} ‘at’ can usually only combine with polysyllabic localizers, with one exception in his corpus: \textit{在前} \textit{zàiqián} ‘at the front (of it)’. Chao mentions that combinations of \textit{在} \textit{zài} with monosyllabic localizers are subject to various semantic restrictions, which disappear with a polysyllabic localizer (suffixed with -\textit{tou} or -\textit{bianr}). Fang (2003) mentions the use in Beijing colloquial of \textit{在裡} \textit{zài lǐ} ‘in’, considered by Chao as lacking.
As for prepositions expressing the source of the motion, both Chao and Lü remark that 從 cóng and 由 yóu tend to be restricted to symmetrical sentences where both the source and the goal of motion appear, such as ‘from X to(ward) Y’. Lü only found one isolate occurrence of 從裡 cónglǐ ‘from inside’ in his corpus, a combination given as non-occurring by Chao. This restriction apparently pertains to the semantics of the preposition: Zou (1984) noted that 往裡 wànglǐ ‘go inside’ or 朝東去 cháođōng qù ‘go eastward’ are possible, while 從裡來 cónglǐ lái ‘come from inside’ and 自東來 zìdōng lái ‘come from the east’ are infelicitous. He attributed this dissymmetry to the semantics of the preposition: only prepositions expressing the direction of the motion, and not those expressing the source, can compound with monosyllabic localizers. The asymmetry disappears with disyllabic localizers, i.e. when the combination operates at the syntactic level.

To conclude, previous studies do not consider WANG-LOC compounds as adverbs, but agree that monosyllabic localizers are bound forms, and that they combine freely only with prepositions expressing direction, whereas disyllabic localizers combine freely with any preposition no matter what the meaning.

No mention is made in the studies presented above of the other type of WANG-PATH compounds, where the path-expressing elements belong to the category of path (or directional) verbs, and more exactly, to the closed-class category of those path verbs which grammaticalized into directional complements. This may be because most of these compounds are felt as non-standard. Ota (1958:308, §18.8), mentions two WANG-DIR items: 往起 wàngqǐ ‘up (source-oriented)’ and 往出 wàngchū ‘out’ (without giving any example), and remarks that the item which combines with preposition WANG is not a substantive, and that these compounds should be analyzed as a kind of adverbial. We follow here this analysis and consider that both WANG-LOC (e.g. 往裡 wànglǐ) and WANG-DIR (e.g. 往起 wàngqǐ) are adverbials.

Another peculiar construction where WANG combines with verbs or adjectives has been mentioned in the literature (see Lü 1980:480). However in such constructions the verb or the adjective is usually followed by the localizer 裏 lǐ ‘in’, e.g., 往裡改 wàng huàlǐ gāi ‘change for the worse’, 往死裡打 wàng sǐlǐ dǎ ‘beat to death’. This is obviously a related issue, especially if we consider that the early occurrences of wānhuí ‘back’ were followed by -lǐ, but there is insufficient space to discuss it here.

### 3.2 More on preposition WANG: its origin, its phonetic and graphic variants

Preposition WANG ‘toward’ comes from the verb 往 wāng ‘to go’ (now obsolete in modern Mandarin), and appeared around the Tang period to introduce the direction of
motion (Ota 1958:253, Jiang & Wu 1997:469-470, Ma 2002:81-85). Another preposition of similar meaning but with a different initial and a different tone (falling tone wàng) developed from the verb 望 wàng meaning ‘look (into the distance)’. According to Jiang & Wu (1997:469-470), after these verbs independently grammaticalized into prepositions of similar meaning, during the Ming and Qing period, after some time of competition, they eventually merged, and this merging triggered a new reading wàng for 往 ‘toward’. Both characters appear in various proportions in historical documents (see also Chao 1968:758).

The pronunciation wàng for ‘toward’ (falling tone category) is generally believed to reflect colloquial Northern Chinese. For instance a dictionary of Beijing lexicon (王璞 Wang Pu, 1911, 京音字彙 Jīngyīn zìhuì, p.116) mentions a colloquial pronunciation wàng for the meaning ‘towards’. Lü Shuxiang (1980:482) transcribes WANG as wàng when it stands for ‘toward’. This reading wàng was however eliminated in 1985 from the list of accepted readings for 往 in the RPC, and now in Standard Chinese only wǎng is listed (some dictionaries list wàng as an ‘old’ reading). Both tones are observed in various Mandarin areas for preposition ‘toward’: for instance a falling tone in central Shaanxi, and a rising tone in Kaifeng (Henan), which both belong to the Zhongyuan Mandarin subgroup.

In some documents, the Ming novel 金瓶梅 Jin Píng Méi for instance, both 往 and 望 wàng appear in WANG-LOC compounds. The more recent, northern texts where WANG-DIR compounds appear mainly use 往. We draw therefore the conclusion that the complex issues presented above, however important they may be for the history of Chinese prepositions, bear no direct relationship to the focus of this study, i.e. the lexicalization process which leads first to a full set of WANG-LOC compounds then to a more or less developed set of WANG-DIR compounds. As noted by previous studies, most of the prepositions with the semantics of ‘toward’ (xiàng, cháo, chòng etc.) are likely to compound with monosyllabic localizers. We discuss mainly WANG here because it is the most frequent preposition with this semantics in our data.

### 3.3 WANG-LOC and WANG-DIR compounds: prepositional phrases or words?

As was pointed in §3.1, neither WANG-LOC compounds nor WANG-DIR compounds are usually treated as words in Chinese reference grammars and dictionaries. However, they appear in several Chinese-Japanese dictionaries edited in Japan. Some transcribed them as two separate words, and list them as idioms, for instance the Hakusuisha Chuugokugo Jiten (白水社中國語辭典, Hakusuisha 2002) which lists 往裡 wǎng lǐ, 往外 wǎng wài, 往上 wǎng shàng, 往下 wǎng xià, 往前 wǎng qián and 往
後 wang hòu (all WANG-LOC compounds), as well as two WANG-DIR adverbials, both given as ‘dialectal’: 往回 wǎng huí ‘back’ and 往起 wǎng qǐ ‘up (source-oriented)’. The older Chuunichi Daijiten compiled by Aichi University ([中日大辞典, Taishuukan 1986/89]) lists basically the same items but transcribes them as words (wǎnglǐ, wǎngwài, etc.), adding 往出 wǎngchū ‘out’, and giving 往回裡 wǎnghuīlǐ (or wǎnghuīlǐ) as a synonymous variant of 往回 wǎnghuí ‘back’.

Let’s now return to the issue of the ‘wordhood’ of WANG-PATH compounds. Monosyllabic localizers are bound forms (Chao 1968:524, Packard 2000:75-76, etc.), which is a sufficient reason to treat WANG-PATH compounds as words. If we follow Packard’s classification of Chinese words, WANG-LOC compounds are ‘bound root words’ (formed from a root word, ‘toward’ and a bound root, the localizers). We follow however Chao (1968:359) and call them ‘compounds’, for the sake of simplicity. Packard (2000:95-106) also analyzes VERB-DIRECTIONAL compounds as words (see his answer in note 2 p.81 about his grounds for analyzing 走進 zǒujìn ‘walk in’ as a word). To analyze WANG-PATH adverbials as words provides a consistent treatment of the compounding process at work on both sides of the verb (left and right). Here are a few other reasons to treat WANG-PATH compounds as words (adverbials), and to consider their development as being also a phenomenon of lexicalization.

(a) Some of the disyllabic WANG-LOC compounds undergo semantic change, whereas combinations of prepositions with disyllabic localizers usually keep their spatial meaning (Chao 1068:524~). For instance wǎnghòu ‘back’ also has the temporal meaning of ‘from now on, in the future’, and wǎngxià ‘down’ is used to mark an ongoing action: 往下说 wǎngxià shuō corresponds to 說下去 shuōxiàqù ‘go on talking’. We deal here only with the spatial meanings of these forms, but the ‘wordhood’ of these WANG-LOC adverbials is the basis for such semantic changes: WANG-LOC items are listed in the lexicon (see Packard 2000:298-303), as opposed to phrases where the localizer is polysyllabic (e.g. 往下邊儿 wǎng xiàbiānr ‘down’), which function at the syntactic level.

(b) Both WANG-LOC and WANG-DIR items are unequally distributed in Chinese dialects. Shanghainese, for instance, developed neither WANG-DIR nor WANG-LOC adverbials, but uses PPs formed from WANG and a polysyllabic localizer.8 The next sections shows that WANG-PATH compounds are more frequently used in northern Mandarin than in Standard Mandarin.

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8 At this point, I would like to thank colleagues and postgraduate students from the University of Tokyo who speak Shanghainese and the Shengzhou dialect, another Wu dialect, for this information, and also Wu Fuxiang for the information that WANG-D compounds do exist in his mother tongue (a Mandarin dialect of the Jianghuai subgroup).
3.4 From direction PPs ‘toward NP’ to WANG-PATH adverbials

From a preliminary survey of a sample of various historical texts of the last thousand years, we can provide a rough sketch of the development of WANG-PATH compounds. WANG-LOC adverbials are likely to have originated from expressions where preposition WANG combines with a locative NP (followed by a localizer), or with a disyllabic localizer. The first WANG-LOC compounds we found appeared in the novel 金瓶梅 Jin Ping Mei (where there are not yet any WANG-DIR compounds to be found) and in Pu Songling’s 聊齋俚曲 Liáozhāi lǐqǔ (late Ming). These appear later, in the novel 紅樓夢 Hóng Lóu Mèng (Qing period), as shown in Table 3. In the Qing period, WANG-DIR compounds occur only in texts reflecting northern Chinese, so we have not listed any texts reflecting a more southern usage in Table 3.

Table 3: WANG-DIR compounds in a few historical texts reflecting northern Chinese

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WANG+</th>
<th>huí</th>
<th>huílǐ/huílái</th>
<th>qǐ</th>
<th>jìn</th>
<th>chū</th>
<th>guò</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lào Qìdà and Piào Tóngshì (Yuan, Ming and Qing editions), Jin Ping Méi cíhuà (late 16th c.)</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hóng Lóu Mèng (18th cen.) chap. 1-120</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>3/0</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Êr nǚ yīngxióng zhūăn (mid.19th cen.)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2/2</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guānhuá Zhīnán (1881)</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>1/0</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xiăo Ė (1908)</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luótuo Xiángzi (1937)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The details of this process require a separate investigation: WANG-huí ‘back’ first appeared not as a disyllabic compound, but as a phrase where WANG combined with the directional verb huí followed by localizer lǐ (thus treated as a noun, like some other verbs or adjectives in modern Chinese) or with the bimorphemic path verb huílái ‘come back’. At the present stage we suppose that WANG-DIR compounds developed from WANG-LOC compounds through some kind of analogy. However, these data point at a switch from an adnominal encoding where preposition WANG ‘toward’ combines with a locative NP encoding the spatial reference of the motion, and possibly including a localizer, to an adverbal type of encoding. This shift can be schematically represented as the schema below shows. In STAGE 1, we deal with an average prepositional phrase (hereafter PP) consisting of preposition WANG and a locative NP. Many locative NPs consist in an ordinary noun followed by a localizer, either disyllabic (type a) or monosyllabic (type b). When the NP is covert and its interpretation relies on the context or the situation, we go to STAGE 2, where preposition WANG combines either with a disyllabic localizer, i.e. a free morpheme of substantive nature, to form a PP (STAGE 2a), or with a monosyllabic localizer, i.e. a bound morpheme, to form a WANG-LOC adverbial (STAGE 2b).
In some northern dialects (including Beijing colloquial), there is a STAGE 3, where the path-expressing element is filled in by a directional verb (or path verb) to form WANG-DIR compounds. The covert reference noun cannot be recovered without modifying the semantics or the structure of the verb phrase.

**STAGE 1**

nature of the linkage: syntactic level (PP = WANG + locative NP)

type of encoding: adnominal encoding of the DIRECTION of the motion

reference noun: overtly expressed

e.g. (a) 往屋子裡頭擠 wǎng wūzi lǐtou jǐ;
    (b) 往屋裡擠 wǎng wūlǐ jǐ ‘squeeze into the room’

↓

**STAGE 2a**: WANG + disyllabic localizer

nature of the linkage: PP (phrase, syntactic level)

type of encoding: indeterminate

(the localizer functions like a substantive but the reference noun is covert)

reference noun: covert (recoverable through situation or context)

e.g. 往裡頭擠 wǎng lǐtou jǐ ‘squeeze in(side)’

↓

**STAGE 2b**: WANG-LOC adverbial

nature of the linkage: compound (morphological level)

type of encoding: adverbal encoding of the DIRECTION of the motion

reference noun: covert

 e.g. 往裡擠 wǎnglǐ jǐ ‘squeeze in(side)’

↓

**STAGE 3**: WANG-DIR adverbials

nature of the linkage: compound (morphological)

type of encoding: adverbal

reference noun: covert or inexistent, overt reference noun impossible to recover

e.g. 往回走 wǎnghuí zǒu ‘walk back’, 往起站 wǎngqí zhàn ‘stand up’

Departing from WANG-LOC compounds (STAGE 2b), in STAGE 3 the noun used as reference of the spatial motion cannot be recovered easily for WANG-DIR compounds. For instance, in the case of 往回走 wǎnghuí zǒu ‘walk back’ we can recover a WANG-NP phrase with an overt reference noun 往家裡走(回去) wǎnghālǐ zǒu (huíqù) ‘walk home’, where huí disappears or moves to the slot of the directional complement. In the
case of wǎngqí zhàn ‘stand up’ it is impossible to insert a locative NP if we keep preposition wǎng ‘toward’, because qí is source-oriented (*往床 zhàn). A possible paraphrase will use preposition ‘from’ and express the path ‘up’ as a directional complement: 從床上站起來 cónghuángzhàn ‘rise from the bed’. Similarly, 從地上挑(起) cónghdìjiǎnpí ‘pick up from the floor’ will correspond to 往起挑 wǎngqí jiān ‘pick up’. This shows that the link between WANG-PATH adverbials and the original PP as the syntactic combination of preposition WANG and a nominal locative free morpheme (stage 1), that was still recoverable for WANG-LOC adverbials (STAGE 2b), has been cut off for WANG-DIR adverbials (stage 3).

4. **WANG-LOC and WANG-DIR adverbials in Northern Mandarin**

4.1 **Literary corpora reflecting post-war Standard Mandarin and pre-war Beijing colloqial**

We mentioned in §3.4 that only texts reflecting northern Mandarin used WANG-DIR adverbials. In this section we compare the use of WANG-LOC and WANG-DIR adverbials in two literary corpora, one representative of prewar Beijing Mandarin (hereafter BM), Lao She’s novels, the other of the emerging Standard Mandarin of the fifties (hereafter SM), and show that both use WANG-LOC adverbials (with a higher frequency in the former), while WANG-DIR adverbials are limited to the Beijing Mandarin corpus; the only item appearing in both corpora is 往回 wǎnghuí ‘back (to the place of origin)’. Table 4 gives the number of tokens for each type of WANG-PATH compound in these two corpora of equivalent length. For the sake of simplicity, only the types of WANG-LOC compounds directly relevant to the discussion are taken into account, i.e. those likely to express a path meaning similar to that expressed by directional verbs. Thus wǎngqián ‘ahead’, wǎnghòu ‘back1’, wǎngdōng ‘eastward’ etc., listed in Table 2, have been omitted in Table 4. Localizers ‘top’ and ‘bottom’ and directional verbs ‘ascend’ and ‘descend’ are homomorphic (shàng and xià).

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9 To get a Northern Mandarin corpus of about the same length as the novel chosen for the Standard Mandarin corpus, 青春之歌 Qīngchūn zhī gē (The Song of Youth) (written in by Yang Mo, 370,000 characters), we added to Lao She’s novel 駱駝祥子 Luótuó Xiángzi (Rickshaw, 134,000 characters) the first part (chapters 1-34) of another of his novels, 四世同堂 Sìshì tóngtáng (Four generations under one roof). The representativity of the Standard Mandarin corpus chosen here was controlled with several other texts written in the 1980’s and the 1990’s by various authors. The English translations used here are Rickshaw, translated by J. M. James, (University of Hawai‘i Press 1979) and The Song of the Youth, translated by Nan Ying (Beijing: Foreign Language Press 1964).
Table 4: Frequency of occurrence of \textit{WANG}-LOC and \textit{WANG}-DIR compounds in two types of Mandarin

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>in</th>
<th>out</th>
<th>\textit{up}_1</th>
<th>\textit{up}_2</th>
<th>down</th>
<th>\textit{back}_2</th>
<th>over</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+ Localizer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ Directional verb</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beijing Man. corpus</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Man. corpus</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The variety of the verbs combining with these adverbials is of course much higher in the BM corpus, for instance, \textit{wàngwài} ‘out’ appears only with three verbs (‘walk’, ‘run’ and ‘pull’) in the SM corpus, whereas in the BM corpus it combines with about 30 different verbs. \textit{WANG}-DIR compounds are also very versatile in BM, for instance \textit{往起} ‘up\textsubscript{2}’ (source-oriented motion) combines with 11 types of verbs, such as \textit{zhăng} ‘grow’, \textit{tiào} ‘jump’, \textit{lì} ‘rise’, \textit{chān} ‘help by the arm’, \textit{ná} ‘take’, \textit{guǒ} ‘tie up’, \textit{shōushi} ‘tidy up’ etc., whereas it does not appear in the SM corpus at all. The following examples (3) and (4) are taken respectively from the \textit{Song of Youth} (SM) and \textit{Rickshaw} (BM corpus) and show that \textit{WANG}-LOC adverbials are often translated by verbs particles in English. In ex. (3), students who took part in a demonstration were beaten and ‘dragged away’. In ex. (4), Xiangzi is questioned by the police and does not want to let the detective ‘in’ the house of his master.

(3) [許多學生頭上流了血，]也有的被警察綁架著往外拉。
\begin{verbatim}
yě yǒu de bèi jīngchá bǎngjià-zhe wàng-wài lā
also have NOM PAS police tie.up-DUR toward-out drag
\end{verbatim}
‘[Many students were bruised and bleeding from wounds on the head,] some were being tied up and dragged away’. (\textit{Song of Youth} 1 part 1, chap 15, translation p.142)

(4) 躲他還不行呢，怎能往裡請呢！
\begin{verbatim}
duō tā hài bù xíng ne, zěn néng wàng-lǐ qǐng ne!
avoid 3SG yet NEG go PRT how can toward-inside ask PRT
\end{verbatim}
‘I can’t slip away from him but how can I ask him in!’ (\textit{Rickshaw} chap. 11, translation p.103)

4.2 \textit{WANG}-DIR adverbials in Northwest Mandarin dialects: a complete repertory

Let’s now look at the repertory of \textit{WANG}-D adverbials found in the \textit{岐山} Qishan dialect of Shaanxi (west of Xi’an, Guanzhong subgroup of Mandarin dialects, field data
we found there the unusual \textit{往過} \textit{wàngguò} ‘over, across’,\footnote{\textit{WANG-guò} ‘over’, a \textit{WANG-D} item which does not appear in Lao She’s texts used here as a corpus, is not necessarily an original feature of western Mandarin: several fellow researchers who grew up in Beijing confirm it is used in the Beijing colloquial too (I thank here Fang Mei and Zhao Liyan for their enlightening remarks) We found on the internet site Baidu the following question: “Who could tell me where you go when you \textit{往過走} \textit{wǎng guò zǒu}?” One of the answers provided said: “This is an expression used in Chengde dialect, and means ‘go ahead’” (cf. http://zhidao.baidu.com/question/74162307.html). Chengde and Beijing belong to the same dialect subgroup. The term is probably not understood everywhere, even in Beijing (another colleague brought up in Beijing, Prof. Lu Jian, said she did not know its meaning).} and the deictic adverbs \textit{往去} \textit{wàngqù} ‘thither’ and \textit{往来} \textit{wànglái} ‘hither’ that we had not seen mentioned before in the literature. Previous studies on northwest Mandarin mentioned \textit{往進} \textit{wàngjìn} and \textit{往出} \textit{wàngchū} (Sun 2007:178), and \textit{往過}, \textit{往起}, \textit{往來}, \textit{往進}, \textit{往回} (Mo 2004). These items also appear on the internet with a huge variety of verbs. In the case of the most conspicuously non-standard items such as \textit{WANG-guò}, \textit{WANG-lái}, \textit{WANG-qù}, \textit{WANG-chū} and \textit{-jin}, the geographical origin of the internet sources (blogs, local newspapers, novels, or others) when they could be identified were most often located in Shaanxi, Shanxi, Gansu, Inner Mongolia, i.e. in northwestern China.\footnote{Another preposition of similar meaning, \textit{朝} \textit{cháo} ‘toward’ forms the same compounds as \textit{WANG} with directional verbs in Xi’an dialect (this information was provided by Prof. Lan Binhan from Shaanxi Normal University, PC, 2007).} We provide below a few examples of frequent collocations for these non-standard \textit{WANG-DIR} adverbials.

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textit{往過} \textit{WANG-guò} ‘across, over’: 走 \textit{zǒu} ‘walk’, 跑 \textit{pǎo} ‘run’, 開\textit{(車)} \textit{kāi} ‘drive, move (for a car)’, 拉 \textit{lā} ‘pull’, 飛 \textit{fēi} ‘fly’ etc.
  \item \textit{往起} \textit{WANG-qǐ} ‘up’: 撿 \textit{jiǎn} ‘pick up’, 拿 \textit{ná} ‘take’, 飄 \textit{piāo} ‘float in the air’, 站 \textit{zhàn} ‘stand’, 背 \textit{bēi} ‘carry on one’s back’, 拽 \textit{zhuài} ‘pull, drag’, 翹 \textit{qiáo} ‘raise, lift up’, 提 \textit{tí} ‘lift’, 爬 \textit{pá} ‘climb’
  \item \textit{往出} \textit{WANG-chū} ‘out’: 跑 \textit{pǎo} ‘run’, 倒 \textit{dào} ‘throw away’, 逃 \textit{táo} ‘run away’ etc.
\end{itemize}

Note that these verbs also frequently combine with the homomorphic directionals. Table 5 shows how these \textit{WANG-DIR} compounds contributed to fill the gaps of the repertory of the path-expressing items for \textit{WANG-LOC} adverbials. The repertory of core path meanings now includes two deictic items for which only demonstratives \textit{zhè} ‘here’ and \textit{nà} ‘there’ were available.
Table 5: WANG-PATH adverbials in the Qishan dialect of Shaanxi, and on the internet

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WANG-PATH adverbials</th>
<th>in</th>
<th>out</th>
<th>up₁</th>
<th>up₂</th>
<th>down</th>
<th>back₂</th>
<th>over</th>
<th>hither</th>
<th>thither</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+ Demonstratives ‘here/there’</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>zhèr</td>
<td>nàr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ Localizer (WANG-LOC)</td>
<td>lǐ</td>
<td>wài</td>
<td>shàng</td>
<td>xià</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ Directional (WANG-DIR)</td>
<td>jìn</td>
<td>chū</td>
<td>qǐ</td>
<td>huí</td>
<td>guò</td>
<td>lái</td>
<td>qù</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WANG-DIR internet examples</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3 Two types of adverbial marking of the path of motion

We saw that WANG-LOC compounds were often translated by English verb particles (ex. (3) and (4)). Similarly, we found in our corpus ‘[tears] streamed down [his cheeks]’ for 往下流 wàngxià liú (SY), and ‘turn back’ for 往回跑 wànghuí pāo (SY). One consequence of the semantic overlapping of WANG-PATH adverbials and directional complements we observed above in §2.4. (Table 2), is that both are rendered by English verb particles ‘up’, ‘down’, ‘out’ etc. For instance the New Age Chinese-English Dictionary (新時代漢英大辭典, Commercial Press, 2005) translates 往外走 wǎngwài zǒu as ‘go out’ (p.1589) and 往出走 wǎngchū zǒu as ‘come out’ (p.219), mentioning that the latter is dialectal, and 走出 zǒuchū is translated as ‘come out’ (p.219). To illustrate this similitude in the temporal domain, both 往下說 wàngxià shuō and 說下去 shuōxiàqu are translated as ‘go on talking/speaking’ (p.1589 & 1661, see also §4). More equivalents are given below in (5).

(5)

WANG-LOC compounds | VERB-DIRECTIONAL compounds | WANG-DIR compounds
--- | --- | ---
往裡擠 wânglǐ jǐ | 擠進去 jǐnjù ‘squeeze in’ | 往里挤 wânglǐ jǐ
往外租 wângwài zū | 租出去 zūchūqu ‘rent out’ | 往出租 wângchū zū
往上爬 wângshàng pá | 爬上去 páshàngqu ‘climb up’ | 往上爬 wângshàng pá
往下流 wângxià liù | 流下去 liúxiàqu ‘flow down’ | 往下流 wângxià liù

WANG-LOC adverbials positioned at the left of the verb function in a mirror image of directional complements, positioned at the right of the verb. In the case of WANG-DIR compounds, this mirror image gets even closer, since the path-expressing elements
are taken from the same repertory of directional verbs. However, this similarity is deceiving: \textit{WANG}-PATH adverbials function like PPs, they are adjuncts without any influence on the aspectual features of the VP, whereas directional complements tend to function in northern Mandarin like result complements, and to have a perfectivizing effect on the verb they compound with. Jaxontov (1958:90) noted that Chinese directional complements, like Russian preverbal suffixes, are not aspect markers \textit{per se}, they have an autonomous and concrete (often spatial) meaning, but they also have a perfectivizing effect. Chinese \textit{VERB-DIRECTIONAL} compounds are not compatible with imperfective suffix \textit{ZHE}, and rarely co-occur with progressive suffix \textit{zài} (see Lamarre 2007a). \textit{WANG}-PATH compounds, like the PPs they evolved from, are adjuncts and do not modify the aspectual features of the clause. They can co-occur with progressive marker \textit{zài} (in Standard Chinese, \textit{zài} is not originally a northern Mandarin marker), as well as with durative verbal suffix \textit{zhe}, for instance in (6) and (7).

(6) …把頭髮使勁往上梳著，梳著…
\textit{…bǎ tóufa shǐjìn wàngshàng shū-zhe, shū-zhe…}
OM hair vigorously toward-top com-DUR comb-DUR
‘Then she vigorously combed up her hair.’ (The Song of Youth, part 1 chap. 29, translation p.247)

(7) 老車夫的頭慢慢的往下低，低著低著，全身都出溜下去。
\textit{lǎo chēfū de tóu màn màn-de wàng-xià dī, old rickshaw NOM head slow-ly toward-bottom droop dī-zhe dī-zhe, quánshēn dōu chūlī-xià-qù.}
droop-DUR droop-DUR whole-body all slide-descend-go
‘[Before the tea was ready] the old man’s head sank slowly down and down until he slid onto the floor.’ (The Song of Youth, translation p.91)

5. Where lexicalization meets grammaticalization

According to the criteria proposed by Brinton & Traugott (2005:97), \textit{WANG}-PATH adverbials only reflect the first stage L1 on their three-stage cline of lexicality: their meaning is compositional and thus predictable (at least in the case of those \textit{WANG}-PATH compounds which express the path of motion), the morpheme boundaries are still clear, and the compounding process is productive. This is also the case for \textit{VERB-DIRECTIONAL} compounds which keep their spatial meaning.

On the other hand, as the localizers composing \textit{WANG-LOC} adverbials, as well as the subset of directional verbs used to form \textit{WANG-DIR} compound are closed-class
categories, \textit{WANG-DIR} compounds form a closed-class category too. The development of a closed-class category is a matter of grammaticalization. What was the motivation for the lexicalization of these compounds and the formation of this category of adverbials expressing various directions of the motion?

In §3.1, we noted that only prepositions expressing the direction of the motion, not the source, may occur with monosyllabic localizers. This suggests other factors involved for the lexicalization of \textit{WANG-PATH} compounds than mere prosodic factors: in this case why should a colloquial preposition such as \textit{cóng} ‘from’ be excluded from this process? Why should the \textit{direction} of the motion be the key to this process? The answer is that path-expressing elements in \textit{WANG-PATH} adverbials and directional complements form two closed-class categories with a partly overlapping repertory of path meanings, which contrast by their syntactic position. Thanks to this grammaticalization process, two complete sets of the core schema of motion path ‘in/out/up/up\textsubscript{2}/down/back\textsubscript{2}/over’ are now available for an adverbal encoding (i.e. without an overt reference NP) at the left and right of the verb.

The repertory of paths meanings expressed by \textit{WANG-LOC} adverbials showed some gaps: direction ‘back (to one’s original position)’, direction ‘upward’ but in a source-oriented motion, direction ‘across’ or ‘over’, due to the fact that localizers originally encode the location, not the path in a motion (see the grayed part in Table 2 above). The scenario we suggest is that directional verbs, and specifically the set of directional verbs which form \textit{VERB-DIRECTIONAL} compounds, provided the lexical (or morphological) material for \textit{WANG-DIR} adverbials, and eventually filled these gaps.

From a pan-Sinitic point of view, the correlation between the postverbal position and the perfectivizing function of the resultative predication tends to be more clear-cut in northern dialects (Lamarre 2007a and Tang & Lamarre 2007 show that postverbal locative NPs are restricted to goal NPs in northern dialects), this may explain why \textit{WANG-DIR} adverbials expressing direction (a unbounded path) mainly developed in northern dialects. After the first items developed (probably \textit{wánhui} ‘back’ then \textit{wàngqì} ‘up’ if our preliminary sample survey is accurate), the two sets of path-expressing elements, localizers and directional verbs, were reanalyzed as being available to encode path after \textit{WANG}, and analogy probably accounts for the further development in some Mandarin dialects of \textit{wàng guò} ‘over’, \textit{wàngjìn} ‘in’, \textit{wángchū} ‘out’, which show some degree of redundancy with \textit{wánglǐ} and \textit{wângwài}, and of the deictic \textit{wânglái} ‘hither’ and \textit{wângqù} ‘thither’, which correspond to Standard Mandarin \textit{wâng zhèr} ‘toward here’, and \textit{wâng nàr} ‘toward there’.
6. Conclusion: typological perspectives

To conclude this short study, it is worth noting that Chinese would not be the only satellite-framed language having two symmetrical sets of path-encoding elements, one perfectivizing, the other not. Several studies of Slavic verbal prefixes show how prepositions and prefixes are often related etymologically but opposed aspectually (see for instance Daynovska & Desclés 2004 on Bulgarian; or Dąbrowska 1996 on Polish). To come back to the case of Hungarian, a typical satellite-framed language (but not an Indo-European language), verb prefixes presented in Table 1 have a perfectivizing function besides their specific path meaning, as is shown in example (8) for the preverb át ‘across’. When they are moved to a postverbal position, they keep their path meaning but lose their perfectivizing function, and the clause becomes imperfective, as in (9) (examples are taken from Knittel et al. 2002:71):

(8) Péter át-men-t-ø a híd-on
    Peter across-go-PAST-3S the bridge-SUPERESSIVE
    ‘Peter crossed the bridge’ [Fr. a traversé]

(9) Péter men-t-ø át a híd-on
    Peter go-past-3S across the bridge-SUPERESSIVE
    ‘Peter was crossing the bridge’ [Fr. traversait]

From this point of view, the motivation for the lexicalization/grammaticalization process discussed is probably not restricted to Chinese. We are also convinced that a systematic comparison of Chinese WANG-PATH adverbials and directional complements will contribute to our understanding of the respective role of satellites and prepositions in satellite-framed languages, and to the clarification of the highly controversial category of ‘satellite’. WANG-PATH adverbials are not PPs — since they do not include any nominal element — and hold a ‘sister relation to the verb’ — which means that they fall under Talmy’s definition of path satellites (2000:101). We argue here against their treatment as satellites.
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