Distinction between two types of Location (the Location of an Object and the Location of an Event) in Kupsapiny
Kazuhiro Kawachi

Abstract
This study examines the patterns of expressing location, goal, and source in Kupsapiny, a Southern Nilotic language of Uganda, and shows that as in Japanese and Korean, this language makes a distinction between two types of location: the location of an object and the location of an event. In Kupsapiny noun phrases, the location of an object is expressed the same way as goal, and the location of an event is marked the same way as source. Unlike the location of an object, the location of an event as well as goal and source can be expressed by verb suffixes. The two types of location need to be distinguished in crosslinguistic studies of expression patterns of the spatial concepts. The location of an event might conceptually be near the source, though the location of an object might not be.

1 Introduction
This study examines the patterns of marking location, goal, and source in Kupsapiny, a Southern Nilotic language of Uganda, and shows that like Japanese and Korean, this language makes a distinction between two types of location: the location of the existence of an object (object location, henceforth) (e.g. The cat is on the table.) and the location of an event (event location, henceforth: "locale" in Talmy 2000) (e.g. The cat is eating on the table.1). In Kupsapiny noun phrases, object location is expressed the same way as goal, whereas event location is marked the same way as source. Unlike object location, event location as well as goal and source can be expressed by verb suffixes. Together with the same distinction made in Japanese and Korean, these suggest the following. First, the two types of location need to be distinguished in crosslinguistic studies of marking patterns of these spatial concepts. Second, unlike previously claimed (e.g. Nikitina 2009),

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Abbreviations: ALL: allative, DEC: declarative, SP: speaker, EV.LOC: event location/event locative, OBJ.LOC: object location/object locative

Note to transcriptions. There are a few differences between Montgomery's (1966) and O'Brien & Cuyers' (1972a, 1972b) transcriptions and mine. Unlike the previous studies, the present study has not two types of /ə/ but only one type. It also has /ʌ/ and /ə/ in addition to the six vowels, /i/, /e/, /æ/, /ʌ/, /ɒ/, and /ə/ found in the previous studies. Also unlike the previous studies, which use the short vowels to transcribe the long vowels (e.g. o for /oː/), and use the diacritic of two dots over a vowel symbol to transcribe the short vowels (e.g. o for /o/), the present study transcribes the short vowels with the single vowels (e.g. o rather than o for /o/), and transcribes the long vowels by doubling their short counterparts (e.g. oo rather than o: for /oː/).
location and source may not necessarily differ conceptually from each other by much – one type of location, event location, could be conceptually close to source, though the other type of location, object location, may be conceptually distant from source.

Section 2 reviews literature on crosslinguistic studies on patterns of marking location, goal, and source, and summarizes the distinction between the two types of location made in Japanese and Korean. Section 3 presents Kupsapiny data, and shows how the two types of location, goal, and source are marked in this language. Section 4 discusses issues involving the patterns of marking these concepts in Kupsapiny. Section 5 concludes the paper.

2 Theoretical Background
2.1 Review of studies on patterns of marking location, goal, and source
One area of spatial semantic studies conducted in recent years concerns crosslinguistic research on expressions of location, goal, and source, which examines how differently or alike these three conceptual categories are marked with adpositions, particles, or case affixes, and when more than one of them are marked the same way in a particular language, how each concept is encoded in the meaning of the verb or is inferred from the context (e.g. Creissels 2006, Nikitina 2009).

According to Creissels (2006) and Nikitina (2009), the five possible patterns of marking the three concepts shown in (1) differ in how commonly they can be found in languages. (1a) and (1b) are common across languages, for example, European languages, and (1e) is fairly common in languages in Sub-Saharan Africa (Creissels 2006), particularly Niger Congo languages including Wan (a Southern Mande language of Côte d’Ivoire) (Nikitina 2009). (1c) is rare, and is only attested in languages like Dinka (a Western Nilotic language of Sudan) (Anderson 2002: 11-12) and Nivkh (a language isolate of Russia) (Gruzdeva 1998: 30). (1d) is not found in Creissels (2006: 22), and is described as extremely uncommon by Nikitina (2009: 1116), who cites Laz (a Kartvelian language of Turkey) (Kutscher 2001: 162-172) as an example.

(1)  a. location vs. goal vs. source
    Location, goal, and source are marked differently from each other.
    b. location=goal vs. source
    Location and goal are marked the same way, and differently from source.
    c. location=source vs. goal
    Location and source are marked the same way, and differently from goal.
    d. goal=source vs. location
    Goal and source are marked the same way, and differently from location.
    e. location=goal=source
    Location, goal, and source are marked the same way.

According to Nikitina (2009), in languages that mark goal and source the same way, one of the concepts is encoded in the meaning of the verb or is inferred from the context.

Based on the crosslinguistic distributions of the patterns, Nikitina (2009: 1116) argues that goal is conceptually closer to location than source is, as schematized in (2), which represents the relative distances between the three concepts in the universal conceptual space. Note that (2) has been adapted to the present study from Nikitina (2009), who calls what the present study refers to as location “place” or “static location”.

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Nikitina claims that the smaller distance between location and goal as compared to the distance between location and source reflects the cross-linguistic tendency to mark location and goal the same way more commonly than marking location and source the same way, and the cross-linguistic tendency to mark goal and source more contrastively from each other than any other combination of two out of the three concepts.

Nikitina (2009: 1117-1118) also notes that the three concepts are mapped onto individual languages in language-specific ways, and boundaries between the categories are not necessarily drawn the same ways across languages. She also points out that there are cases in some languages in which the location marker and the goal or source marker can be used alternately without any difference in truth conditional meaning in sentences containing the same set of a verb and the noun phrases for event participants, but it is difficult to find cases where the goal marker and the source marker can alternate with each other (Nikitina 2009: 1118).

However, none of the previous studies mentioned above distinguishes the two types of location, object location and event location, and seems to assume that they are marked the same way and can be placed together in the universal conceptual space because examples of both types of location are treated alike as expressions of location. In fact, Japanese and Korean make this distinction, as described in section 2.2.

2.2 Two types of location distinguished in Japanese and Korean

Japanese and Korean make a distinction between the two types of location, object location and event location, with particles -ni (object location) and -de (event location), as in (3) and (4), and with particles -ey (object location) and -eye (event location), as in (5) and (6), respectively.\(^2\)

**Japanese**

(3) Hanako-ga gakkoo-ni i-ru.
    Hanako-NOM school-OBJ.LOC exist(animate.figure)-DEC
    ‘Hanako is at school.’

(4) Hanako-ga gakkoo-de benkyoo s-iteiru.
    Hanako-NOM school-EV.LOC study do-PRES.PROG
    ‘Hanako is studying at school.’

**Korean**

(5) John-i hakkyo-cy iss-ta.
    John-NOM school-OBJ.LOC exist-Dec
    ‘John is at school.’ (adapted from Choi 1993:208)

(6) John-i hakkyo-eye seongpu ha-n-ta.
    John-NOM school-EV.LOC study do PRES-DEC

\(^2\) According to Choi (1993: 219), the Korean particle for object location -ey is not restricted to the existential verb iss-ta, but can also be used with verbs like num-i ‘remain’, sviim-i ‘hide’, ep-ta ‘not be’, and posture verbs. This also seems to apply to Japanese. However, when what looks like the particle for object location is used with the verb of hiding or a posture verb, it is not clear whether it expresses object location or the goal of motion.
Japanese and Korean use particles of the same forms as those for static location (-ni and -ev, respectively) to mark goal as well, as in (7) and (8).

Japanese

(7) Hanako-ga gakkoo-ni ik-u
    Hanako-NOM school-ALL go-DEC
    'Hanako goes to school.'

Korean

(8) John-i hakkye-ey ka-n-ta.
    John-NOM school-ALL go-PRES-DEC
    'John goes to school.' (adapted from Choi 1993:208)

Thus, in these languages, it is only object location, not event location, that is marked the same way as goal.

Nevertheless, Japanese and Korean differ in the pattern of syncretism with the particle for event location. In Japanese, the particle for event location shares the same form as that for the instrumental, as in (9). On the other hand, in Korean, the particle for event location is the same in form as that for source, as in (10). Note that Korean has another particle that marks source, -puthe, which is the particle specifically used for source; thus, in (10), -eyse can be replaced by -puthe (John-i hakkyo-puthe torawa-ss-ta.).

Japanese

(9) Hanako-ga tegami-o pen-de kai-ta
    Hanako-NOM letter-ACC pen-INST write-PERF
    'Hanako wrote the letter with a pen.'

Korean

(10) John-i hakkye-eyse torawa-ss-ta.
    John-NOM school-ABL return-PAST-DEC
    'John returned from school.'

The patterns of the syncretism of the case particles in Japanese and Korean are shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>concept language</th>
<th>goal</th>
<th>location object location</th>
<th>event location</th>
<th>source</th>
<th>instrumental</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>-ni</td>
<td>-ni</td>
<td>-de</td>
<td>-kara</td>
<td>-de</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>-ev</td>
<td>-ev</td>
<td>-eyse</td>
<td>-puthe-eyse</td>
<td>-(h)ollo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 Syncretism of the particles for goal, two types of location, source, and instrumental in Japanese and Korean

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Note that there are a small number of cases in Japanese where the event location marker -de and the source marker -kara can be used alternately to express the same event. The event location marker is used when the ground object is treated as the location of the event, and the source marker is used when the figure object continues to move or maintains its state after it departs from the source, as in (11)-(14). Therefore, the ranges of events expressed by the two types of expressions differ from each other — generally, with all other portions of the sentence being equal, the range of events covered by the event location expression is wider than that covered by the source expression. For example, the source expression versions of (11)-(14) are not used if the figure object does not move from the source saliently enough (e.g. (11) if the book was returned to the library without being checked out of it; (12) if the road did not continue long enough from the division at the bridge; (13) if the influenza did not spread out of Mexico; (14) if the letter was not mailed out while the person was on the trip).

**Japanese**

(11) Hon-o sono toshokan-de-kara kari-ta.
    book-ACC that library EV.LOC-ABL borrow-PERF
    I borrowed the book at/from that library.

(17) Kono mita-wa ano hana de-kara huta-teiri
    this road-TOP that over.there bridge-EV.LOC-ABL two-CLASSIFIER-to
    divide-RESULTATIVE-STATE
    This road divides into two at the bridge/from the bridge on.

(13) Sono influenza-wa mekisiko-de-kara hajima-ta.
    that influenza-TOP Mexico-EV.LOC-ABL start-PERF
    That influenza started in/from Mexico.

(14) Tegami-o tabisaki-de-kara kai-ta.
    letter-ACC trip-destination-EV.LOC-ABL write-PERF
    I wrote a letter (to someone) while I was on a trip.

On the other hand, the source marker -kara shows such an alternation with neither the object location marker -ni nor the goal marker -ni. This suggests that object location and goal are conceptually farther from source than event location is. The distinction between the two types of location made by case particles in Japanese and Korean may appear peculiar to these languages, where object location is expressed the same way as goal, and event location is expressed differently from object location as well as goal. For example, Choi (1993, 1997) implicitly assumes that the distinction between the two types of location is language-specific, and claims that the principle of the distinction is not innate, but is learned by children as they attend to the input language. The next section shows that the two types of

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3 Choi (1993, 1997) attributes the distinction between the two types of location to the distinction betweenative verbs and activity verbs. However, the former distinction should be ascribed not to the distinction between the two types of verbs, but to the distinction between types of figure entries, objects and events, because the particle for event location, rather than that for object location, is normally used with a figure noun phrase that refers to an event, regardless of the type of verb. For example, in the Japanese example (1), the location of the event is marked with the event location particle -de, even though the verb is the existential verb.
3 Kupsapiny Data
Kupsapiny is spoken in the Sebei region in east Uganda. The Sebei region is an informal label for the Kupsapiny speaking region, and is more correctly the “Sebei sub-region”, which is part of the Eastern region of Uganda. It used to be one administrative unit called the Kapchorwa district, but divided into the two administrative districts of Bukwa and Kapchorwa in 2005. The Sebei region is about 300 km east of Kampala (about 360 km by car), and covers an area of approximately 1,750 km² on the northern slopes of Mt. Elgon, an extinct volcano. The Uganda-Kenya border crosses Mt. Elgon northeast to southwest, separating its northwestern side in Uganda and its southeastern side in Kenya. According to the national census in 2002, the population of the Sebei people rose from 120,000 in 1994 to 181,000 (a little over 130,000 in Kapchorwa district and a little below 50,000 in Bukwa district).

The Sebei region is the only community where Kupsapiny is spoken. Almost all the people in this region speak this language. Many Sebei seem to consider Sabaot, which is spoken by about 280,000 people on the Kenyan side of Mt. Elgon, to be another intelligible dialect of their language. Thirty percent of the Sebei people are monolingual in Kupsapiny. Most of the remaining population speaks English as their second language. Many of them also speak Lugisu (also called Masaaba or Lumasaaba), a Bantu language spoken by the Bugisu (also spelled Bagisu: also called Danasaba) people in the Sironko and Mbale districts in the southwest of the Kapchorwa district, as well as Swahili. Additionally, some of them speak Luganda (also known as Ganda), the most widely spoken Bantu language in Uganda.

Kupsapiny belongs to the Elgon group in the Kalenjin branch of the Southern Nilotic language family. Only a few studies have been conducted on this language (Montgomery 1966, O’Brien & Cuyers 1975a, 1975b). Southern Nilotic languages generally have been little studied in the past, though there are some studies on other Kalenjin languages (e.g. C. Creider 1982, Creider & Creider 1990).

This language has VSO word order, as in (15). Adjuncts occur after the object, also as in (15).

Japanese

(1) sono koosaten-de*-ni jiko-ga a-ita.

There was an accident at that intersection.

4 There are a number of anthropological studies on the Sebei people that have been conducted by Goldschmidt (e.g. 1967, 1969, 1976, 1986). Goldschmidt (1976) in particular is a comprehensive study of the Sebei, though it does not discuss their language very much.

5 In ditransitive sentences, either the direct object or the indirect object can occur right after the subject, as in (i) and (ii).

(i) ku-ywwe kiprop meesani ceerwaaru amitum.

PREFNT PAST 3-give Kiprop table Ceerwaaru yesterday

(ii) ku-ywwe kiprop ceerwaaru meesani amitum.

RECENT PAST 3-give Kiprop Ceerwaaru table yesterday

‘Kiprop gave this table to Ceerwaaru.’

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3.1 Overview of Spatial Expressions in Kupsapiny

This subsection provides an overview of the inventory of expressions for spatial expressions in Kupsapiny. It uses some terminology used in Talmy’s (1985, 1991, 2000, 2007) typology of event integration, though it does not deal with the event integration patterns in Kupsapiny.

**Verbs**

Path of motion verbs in Kupsapiny are listed in (16) and (17). The verbs in (16) are non-agentive or self-agentive motion verbs, whereas the verbs in (17) are agentive motion verbs. The first two verbs in each group are deictic verbs.


(17) sütu ‘take/bring (an inanimate figure/object)’, kwóóru ‘take/bring (an animate figure/object)’, yiwe ‘put’, toor ‘put/carry on head, place on the surface of’, kasan ‘put/cary on back’, yoome ‘put together’, yek ‘lift up, look up’

**Manner of motion verbs** are shown in (18). All of these verbs are used for self-agentive motion, and a few can also be used for non-agentive motion.


**Cause of motion verbs** are shown in (19).

(19) wir ‘throw’, worte ‘throw (a short distance)’, xiriir ‘throw (a long distance)’, toor ‘push (intentionally)’, wonki ‘push (may be accidentally)’, cut ‘pull’

Kupsapiny has an existential/loccational verb (the existential verb, hereafter): niite (colloquial)

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4 Grammatical cases on at least some noun phrases seem to be expressed by tone. Rising tone tends to occur on the second syllables of nominative proper nouns, and falling tone tends to occur on the final syllables of accusative proper nouns, as in (35). However, I have not been able to figure out the complete system of case marking on nouns in this language, and do not indicate case anywhere in the morpheme-by-morpheme glosses for the Kupsapiny example sentences.

5 There are two verbs of running, xop and ciwóy. There are contexts where only one of them is appropriate while the other is not, but it is not clear exactly how they differ, except that ciwóy seems to be used mainly for self-contained rather than translational motion.
form: *mi*?l). This verb is used for expressing the existence of a figure object with respect to a (usually) given ground object (e.g. *There is a book on the table*), or locating a (usually) given figure object with respect to a ground object (e.g. *The book is on the table*).

**Locational nouns**

Kupsaniny has a series of locational nouns like (20), which specify a component of a path or a particular portion of a ground object. They follow a noun phrase that refers to a ground object. In other words, the possession construction "POSSESSOR POSSESSION" ("PR PM" for short) is formed by juxtaposing a possessor noun phrase and a possessum noun (a noun phrase for a ground object and one of the locational nouns, respectively) without using any possession marker, as in (21).

(20) arit/orit *inside*, sâng *outside*, târat *aboveavour*, top, tâp *underness, belowness, bottom*, karenj *bottom*, kérira *bottom*, tay *front, aheadness, right*, lit *back, left*, tapin *closeness, end (of a corner)*, kamâc *besideness*, pupoo *a (particular) side of (river, road, field)* (e.g. pupoo-ni *this side*, pupoo-nin *that side*), kwén *in the middle of*, matow *aboverness, the other side of the bed* in a house, the area behind the headboard of the bed.

(21) mitte siret paakit orit.
    exist cloth bag inside
    The cloth is in the bag.

What are treated as locational nouns may appear to be postpositions, but are nouns, because they can be accompanied by the possessive pronominal suffix, as in (22).

(22) mitte ceepét tây-gwàni.
    exist Ceebet aheadness/front-1SG.POSS
    'Ceebet is in front of/me of me.'

At least some of the locational nouns can occur by themselves to serve as adverbials.

This language has another possession construction taking the form of "PM-*tap* PK", where the possessum noun with the possessive suffix -*tap* (allomorphs: -*ta*, -*ap*, -*iap* PL: -*kap*) precedes the possessor noun. Many of the locational nouns in (20) can serve as possessum nouns in this

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8 They are treated as adverbs in O’Brien & Cuypers (1975a: 34, 85).

9 Like arit/orit *inside*, there are pairs of forms that alternate between their initial a and their initial n (e.g. am/nom: at (event location), from (source), amikonik: ‘food’, anpa/ango: ‘river’, avgoni: ‘two’). They are in free variation, but the Mtsi dialect, which is spoken in the western-most Sebei region (the west edge of the Kapchorwa district), seems to use only forms with the initial a.

10 The possession construction formed by means of juxtaposition ("PR PM") seems to be used only for part-whole relationships including cases where the possessum noun expresses a relational concept like location, but not for other types of possessive relations. For example, for a part-whole relationship as in (i), the "PR PM" possession construction as well as the possession construction with the possessive suffix *tap* on the possessum noun can be used.

(i) (a) ku-nam ceepét ceerootic met.
    RECENT.PAST.3-touch Ceebet Ceerootic head
(b) ku-nam ceepét mawt-iap ceerootic.
    RECENT.PAST.3-touch Ceebet head-POSS Ceerootic

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possession construction, as in (23).\(^{11}\)

(23) ali-tap/ori-tap ‘inside’, ngi-tap ‘bottom’, karekê-tap ‘bottom’, kerite-tap ‘bottom’,
kamâ-tap/kamâ-ta ‘betweenness’, komwântu ‘betweenness, middle’

However, the use of the suffixed locational nouns in (23) in this possession construction as in (24)
is considered not to be good or is not very common as compared to the use of the locational nouns
in (20) in the other possession construction as in (21).

(24) mita siter ali-tap paakît.
exist cloth inside-POSS bag

The cloth is in the bag.

Prepositions
Kupunpinja has the following spatial prepositions: am or am at (event location), from (source), than
(standard of comparison) (am or am are in free variation), akay ‘up to’, paka ‘up to’, kehva ‘in
the direction of, along’. The first one of these prepositions is discussed in the next section.

Verb suffixes
Kupunpinja has verb suffixes that can form an applicative construction, where a noun phrase that
does not express a direct object but an event location, instrument, or beneficiary occurs
syntactically as if it were a direct object.\(^{12}\) Only those suffixes that can concern spatial concepts

\[\text{Ceebeet touched Ceebritic’s head.}\]

On the other hand, for possessive relations like the one in (ii), the “PM-tap PK” possession construction has to be used, and the “PR PM” possession construction cannot be used.

(ii) ku-kaa ceebritic katampu-tap ceebritimo.
RECENT.PAST:3 look Ceebritic book-POS Ceebritimo
‘Ceebritic looked at Ceebritimo’s book.’

\(^{11}\) The possessive suffix -tap cannot be used with miton ‘a (particular) side of (river, road, field)’. It can follow miton ‘aboveness, the other side of the bed in a house, area behind the headboard of the bed’ to form miton-tap, but it is not often used. I do not have data for the occurrence of this suffix with any ‘outside’ or kârat ‘aboveness, top’.

\(^{12}\) There are a series of suffixes used on verbs. There are several slots for prefixes and approximately nine slots for suffixes. As shown in (i) and (ii), where the lower the number of the suffix is, the closer it is to the verb root, previous researchers, Montgomery (1966: 47-48) and O Brien & Cuacer (1975a: 61), respectively, characterized affix slots, especially prefix slots, differently from each other. Only one of what the present study describes as spatial applicable suffixes seems to contain suffix 1 in (i) (one of the directional suffixes -r, which Montgomery (1966) gloss as ‘motion away from’), but none of them seems to correspond to suffixes 1 and 6 (one of the directional suffixes -to, which O’Brien & Cuacer (1975a) gloss as ‘away’, and two of the allomorphs of the instrumental suffix -e and -ne) of (ii). The suffix -r may be part of what is described as the suffix to in the present study, but there is no example in my data where the suffix to expresses motion away from a ground object.

(i) Montgomery (1966)


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are shown in (25), and are discussed in the next section.13

(25) -ci  goal, event location, benefactive
    -yi, -to  event location
    -ne  source (toward the speaker)
    -e, -te  event location, source, instrumental

In (26a) and (27a)(27a2), where event location and source are indicated with the suffixes, respectively, kó, which would be preceded by the preposition ama/on in the non applicative constructions in (26b) and (27b), occurs without the preposition, and looks as if it were a direct object as in (28).

(26) (a) kwe-kón-e  ccepét  kó.
    REMOTE.PAST.3-run-EV.LOC  Ceebet  house
(b) kwe-kón  ccepét  am  kó.
    REMOTE.PAST.3-run  Ceebet  EV.LOC  house
    'Ceebet ran in the house.'
(27) (a1) ku-cut  ccepét  kó.
    RECENT.PAST.3-escape-SOURCE(TOWARD.SP)  Ceebet  house
    'Ceebet escaped from the building (toward the speaker).'
(a2) ku-cut-te  ccepét  kó.
    REMOTE.PAST.3-escape-SOURCE  Ceebet  house
(b) ku-cut  ccepét  am  kó.
    RECENT.PAST.3-escape  Ceebet  SOURCE  house
    'Ceebet escaped from the building.'
(28) ku-kas  ccepét  kó.
    RECENT.PAST.3-look  Ceebet  house
    'Ceebet looked at the house.'

Adverbs
There are adverbs for approximate locations like (29), which can be used with motion verbs.

(29) a. yu 'here', yun 'there', yún 'over there'14
    b. li 'this way (pointing)', liñ 'that way (pointing)', liún 'that way over there (pointing)'.

(11) O'Brien & Cuyers (1975a)
   – 9. Reflexive suffix

13 There are pronominal clitics that have the same forms as two of the suffixes in (25): -ci (third person
   dative), -ne (third person singular nominative). When the latter form occurs one time on a verb, an ambiguity
   can occur between the clitic and the suffix, because the nominative pronominal clitic is optional.
14 The adverbs in (29) are used for object location and event location as well as goal, and have to be
   accompanied by the preposition ama/on when expressing source. Thus, unlike in the case of nouns, when these
   adverbs are used, object location and event location are treated the same, and differently from source.

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wuli ‘this way (not pointing)’, wulín/wuló ‘that way (not pointing)’, wulíń ‘that way over there (not pointing)’
c. pédó/keel ‘downward (in/to a relatively lower location)’, tóló/matów ‘upward (in/to a relatively higher location)’, yóói ‘beneath (in/to a vertically lower location)’, tóói ‘above (in/to a vertically higher location)’

3.2 Patterns of marking location, goal, and source in Kupsapiny

Marking of location, goal, and source on noun phrases or with a preposition

The distinction between the two types of location, object location and event location, discussed in section 2 is not peculiar to these languages, but is also found in Kupsapiny. This language groups object location with goal and event location with source. If the distinction is represented in the conceptual space in (2), it will look like (30), where object location is closer to goal than event location is, and event location is closer to source than object location is (the distances between the concepts should be ignored).

(30) goal ——— object location ——— event location ——— source

In Kupsapiny, like goal, object location always has zero marking, as in (31)-(32) and (33)-(34), whereas event location is usually marked the same way as source, with the preposition an/om, which precedes the noun phrase for a ground object, as in (35) (36) and (37)-(38).

Goal

(31) ku-wó ceepté makít.
    RECENT.PAST.3-go Ceebet market ALL
    ‘Ceebet went to the market.’

(32) ku-cóó ceepté onpo.
    RECENT.PAST.3-come Ceebet river ALL
    ‘Ceebet came to the river.’

Object location

(33) mííte ceepté makít.
    exist.3 Ceebet market.OBJ.LOC
    ‘Ceebet is at the market.’

(34) mííte kapatí meesá.
    exist book table.OBJ.LOC
    The book is on the table.

Event location

(35) ku-póó ŋ ceepté ceeROOTIC am makít.
    RECENT.PAST.3-meet Ceebet CeeROOTIC E.V.LOC market
    ‘Ceebet met CeeROOTIC at the market’

(36) kya-ya-yóy aml amník am cóóookí.
    REMOTE.PAST.3SG-cook 1SG NOM food E.V.LOC kitchen
    ‘I cooked food in the kitchen.’

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Basically event location and source are marked the same way in most cases. However, the preposition *anu*/*om* can be omitted in some event location expressions, for example, (36) (but not for any source expression). In such a case, because the noun phrase for the ground object is not marked at all, and looks the same as noun phrases for object location and goal. Nevertheless, native speakers of Kopiapiny are aware that *anu*/*om* is omitted from such sentences. In fact, in many cases, including (35), *anu*/*om* cannot be omitted from event location expressions. Under what condition(s) such an omission is possible or not remains to be explored.

As in (31)-(35), the noun phrase for a ground object is often used without any locational noun. In such a case, although the exact part of the ground object or the exact location with respect to the ground object, which is the location of a figure object or event or is the goal or source of motion, is not specified, it is often inferred from the geometric relation typically found between participating entities. For example, in (32), the book is on the table rather than under it or next to it, and in (38), the person fell from the top of or a relatively high portion of the tree rather than from a low portion of the tree. Thus, when the exact part of the ground object or the exact location with respect to the ground object does not have to be specified or can be inferred easily enough, the noun phrase for the ground object often is not accompanied by the locational noun.

On the other hand, when the exact part of the ground object or the exact location with respect to the ground object needs to be specified, locational nouns may accompany the noun phrase for a ground object. Also in such cases, the four concepts seem to be expressed basically the same ways as in cases where no locational noun occurs. Object location and goal have zero marking, as in (39) and (40), respectively, and event location and source are marked with the preposition *anu*/*om*, as in (41) and (42), respectively, though this preposition as used for event location (but not for source) seems to be able to be omitted in many cases, where the location of the event appears to have zero marking (e.g. instead of (41), *kyaa-yóy anu amik keetiik keernta*).

*Object location*

(39) *mittre* *kitap* *mees* *tarat.*

exist book table top

The book is on the table.

---

15 In a sentence like (35), *anu*/*om* cannot be omitted unless the event location suffix is used on the verb, as in (i), which expresses the same event as that expressed by (35).

(i) *kup-póor* *ceepet* *ceepet* *makit.*

RECENT.PAST.2-see to-see CEET CEET SITE

‘Ceebet met Ceebet at the market.’

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**Goal**

(40) ku-cóó  ceepét orpo orít.

RECENT.PAST.3-come Ceebet river inside

*Ceebet walked into the river (toward the speaker) (lit. Ceebet came to the inside of the river).*

**Event location**

(41) kya-n-yóy

REMOTE.PAST.1SG-cook 1SGNOM food EV.LOC tree under

*I cooked food under the tree.*

**Source**

(42) kii-síw

nuwaantét am lakám tarát.

REMOTE.PAST.3-roll rock SOURCE mountain top

*The rock rolled from the top of the mountain.*

Whether the locational nouns are used or not, there is no ambiguity between object location and goal, because the verb used for object location is always the verb of existence. On the other hand, ambiguity can occur between event location and source interpretations when the preposition amwom

is used for the noun phrase for a ground object or a noun phrase made up of the noun phrase for a ground object and one of the locational nouns, as in (43) and (44) (and (42); see footnote 16).

(43) kyáá-súw

REMOTE.PAST.1SG-fall 1SGNOM EV.LOC/SOURCE house-1SG.POSS

ambiguous between ‘I fell down in my house.’ (event location) or ‘I fell down from my apartment room (lit. house).’ (source)

(44) kyaa-kas

REMOTE.PAST.1SG-seen 1SGNOM Kiprop EV.LOC/SOURCE

ambiguous between ‘I saw Kiprop in my house.’ (event location) or ‘I saw Kiprop from my house.’ (source)

This also suggests that event location and source are conceptually close to each other.

Note that goal and source are never marked the same way. When amwom is omitted from event location expressions, event location may appear to be zero-marked just like goal and object location, but source is always marked differently from them.

**Use of verb suffixes in expressions of location, goal, and source**

As mentioned in section 3.1, Kupsapiny has a series of verb suffixes that are used in spatial expressions. The two types of location are also differentiated here, in that the existential verb,

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16 This sentence could have the event location interpretation: ‘The rock rolled on the top of the mountain.’. In this interpretation, the preposition amwom could be omitted, but if it is used to express source, it cannot be omitted.
which is used to express object location, cannot take any suffix of this type, whereas event location can usually be expressed with a suffix on the verb when the noun phrase for the event location is not preceded by am/om.

However, the distinction between the two sets of spatial concepts (object location and goal on one hand, and event location and source on the other) is not found in the use of the verb suffixes. As shown in Table 2, the sets of verb suffixes that are used in expressions for the three concepts, goal, event location, and source, are different from each other, though one of the suffixes (-ti) can be used in either goal or event location expressions and three others (-te, -c, and -te) can be used in either event location or source expressions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>goal</th>
<th>event location</th>
<th>source</th>
<th>another use or synonymity with another suffix</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ci</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>benefactive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-yi</td>
<td>√</td>
<td></td>
<td>(carrying and benefactive?)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-to</td>
<td>√</td>
<td></td>
<td>(carrying?)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-te</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√ (toward the speaker)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-c</td>
<td>√</td>
<td></td>
<td>instrumental</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-te</td>
<td>√</td>
<td></td>
<td>instrumental (motion via?)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 Verb suffixes used in expressions of goal, event location, and source

These suffixes are described below. Admittedly, because of the limitation in the amount of data in the present study, it is not resolved whether each suffix is specifically devoted to expressing one of the spatial concepts, nor is it clear whether what the present study treats as a single suffix (e.g. -ci, -te, -c) is actually made up of two suffixes. Thus, the glosses for the suffixes in the following examples may not be correct. It should also be noted that some of the forms that are described as separate suffixes in Table 2 may actually be allomorphs of a single suffix. Nevertheless, because sufficient data is not available to verify whether or not any two or more of these forms are allomorphs of the same suffix, the following discussion assumes that all the forms are different suffixes.

**Goal**

Unlike event location and source, which can be expressed with various suffixes, goal seems to be able to be expressed only by one suffix. Also, unlike the suffixes used in event location and source expressions, which can occur with various types of verbs, the goal suffix seems to occur only on certain verbs: non-path verbs (e.g. reo ‘jump’, kon ‘run’, yay ‘get broken’) and verbs for short paths (stum ‘fall’, wem ‘put’, nam ‘carry with hand/shoulder, hold’). When goal is expressed in sentences with other types of verbs, no suffix is used.

* -ci used in goal expressions: This suffix is used in goal expressions, as in (45) and (46). As in (45) and (46a), even when no locational noun is used, this suffix expresses arrival not at the location referred to by the noun phrase for the ground object, but the portion of the location referred to by the noun phrase for the ground object where the figure object is considered to usually arrive as a result of the action expressed by the verb. Thus, (45) means not ‘Ceeet jumped to the river’, but ‘Ceeet jumped into the river’.

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This suffix has the same form as the benefactive suffix, which is illustrated in (47) and (48). It also has the same form as one of the suffixes that can be used for event location, as seen shortly.  

(47) kwe kõj-ci  
REMOTE.PAST.3-run-BEN Ceebet school-3SG.POSS
'Ceebet ran for the benefit of the school.'

(48) ku-sit-ci  
RECENT.PAST.3 wash BEN Cecrootic clothes Ceebet  
'Cecrootic washed Ceebet's clothes for her yesterday.'

**Event location**

There are six suffixes that can be used in event location expressions. One of them is also used in goal expressions, and three of them are also used in source expressions. Note that when the suffix is used in event location expressions, the preposition *anvo* cannot be used.

- **-ci used in event location expressions**: The suffix that has the same form as that used in goal expressions -ci can be used in event location expressions, as in (49) and (50). It is not verifiable whether this suffix actually expresses the concept of event location. This suffix may express the completion of an event rather than event location.

(49) ku-põó-ci  
RECENT.PAST.3-meet-EV.LOC Ceebet Cecrootic market  
'Cecrootic met Cecrootic at the market.'

(50) ka-toor-ci  
PRES.PERF.3SG.push-EV.LOC Ceebet Cecrootic Ceeleimo river  
'Cecrootic pushed Ceeleimo in the river.'

---

17 There is also a use of -ci as in (i), where its meaning is not clear.

(i) ku-põó-ci  
RECENT.PAST.3-meet.EV.LOC Ceebet Cecrootic  
'Cecrootic got angry with Cecrootic.'

18 I have not asked my consultants how (49) differs from (50).
• -yi used in event location expressions: This morpheme may be a different suffix from -ci, or an allomorph of the same suffix as -ci, which is phonologically similar to it. An example is given in (51).

(51) ku-kac-yi ceepeˈt rupirunət kəno oʊɪt. RECENT.PAST.3-see-EV.LOC Ceebet fish.PL. river inside
‘Ceebet saw fish in the river. (Ceebet was in the river area, and saw fish.)’ (Note that kəno oʊɪt modifies not rupirunət but the verb, and expresses the location of Ceebet’s seeing fish.)

This suffix is not restricted to event location, but seems to be also used for carrying of someone/something with a benefactive meaning, as in (52) and (53).

(52) kwe-kój-yi ceepeˈt siimút. REMOTE.PAST.3-run-CARRYING/BEN Ceebet telephone
‘Ceebet took the phone to its owner in a hurry.’

(53) kwe-kój-yi ceepeˈt lekwet suptiaal. REMOTE.PAST.3-run-CARRYING/BEN Ceebet child hospital
‘Ceebet took the child to the hospital in a hurry.’

• -to used in event location expressions: This suffix can also be used in event location expressions, as in (54). (54) differs from (49) only in the verb suffix: the former uses -to, and the latter uses -ci. Thus, -to and -ci are very likely to be different suffixes, though their difference in meaning is not clear.

(54) ku-póo-t to ceepeˈt ceerootic məki. RFCENT.PAST.3-meet-EV.LOC Ceebet Ceerootic market
Ceebet met Ceerootic at the market.

This suffix is also used for an action by which the reterent of the subject noun phrase carries something, as in (55).

(55) ku-wéé-to ceepeˈt kitapɪt səkəməh

---

19. There is also an example like (i) where -yi seems to express goal. However, I have no examples in my data where -yi attaches to any other verb than tʊʊr ‘put’ to express goal.

(i) kwe-tʊʊr-yi ceepeˈt kitapɪt \begin{align*} & \text{(a) mesa, table} \\
& \text{(b) mesa, tarat, top} \end{align*}
REMOTE.PAST.3-put-GOAL Ceebet book
‘Ceebet put the book on the table.’

20. This suffix also appears in a sentence like (i), where its meaning is not clear.

(i) ku-wonik to ceepeˈt ceerootic. RECENT.PAST.3-push-GOAL Ceebet Ceerootic
‘Ceebet pushed Ceerootic.’

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RECENT.PAST.3-go-CARRYING Ceebet book school
'Ceebet went to school with the book.'

* -ne used in event location expressions: An example of this suffix in an event location expression is shown in (56).

(56) Kin-mwekko-nd Ceebet Ceerootic mwipamut sukultu.
RECENT.PAST.3-tell-EV.LOC Ceebet Ceerootic lie school
'Ceebet told a lie at school.'

In (57), miiy-ne could be replaced by miy-e, which contains the suffix form -e (see below). Unless -ne and -e are in free variation, they seem to be different suffixes. The difference in meaning between -ne and -e is not obvious, but unlike -e, -ne does not seem to be used as an instrumental suffix.

(57) miiy-ne Ceebet kapcorwa.
live.PRES.3SG-EV.LOC Ceebet Kapcorwa
'Ceebet lives in Kapcorwa.'

* -e used in event location expressions: Examples of the use of -e in event location expressions are shown in (58) and (59).

(58) kwa-kop-e Ceebet kwaalawa.
REMOTE.PAST.3-run-EV.LOC Ceebet field
'Ceebet ran in the field.'

(59) kwa-ta-e Ceebet Ceerootic sukultu.
REMOTE.PAST.3-kick-LOC Ceebet Ceerootic school
'Ceebet kicked Ceerootic at school.'

As mentioned above, -ne has a use as an instrumental suffix, as in (60) and (61). Like the Japanese particle de, the use of -ne as both an event location marker and an instrumental marker suggests that event location and instrumental arcs conceptually similar to each other in that the location of an action could be regarded as involving the use of the location for the action. Linguistically, the two concepts can be treated similarly.

(60) kwa-sil-e peenit paroowewt.
RECENT.PAST.1SG-write-INST pen letter
'I wrote the letter with the pen.'

(61) kwi-wit-e Ceebet Ceerootic ruwantu.
RFCENT PAST 3-hit-INST Ceebet Ceerootic stone
'Ceebet hit Ceerootic with a stone.'

* -ce used in event location expressions: This suffix form is used in event location expressions, as in
(62). (Because -te is similar in form to -t, and is used similarly to it, -te and -t may be allomorphic variations of the same suffix.)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{kwe-múrkho-te} & \quad \text{ceepét peenít} \\
\text{REMOTE.PAST.3-roll-EV.LOC} & \quad \text{Ceebet pen}
\end{align*}
\]

\{ (a) meesa. table \ \\
\{ (b) meesá tárat. table top \}

‘Ceebet rolled the pen on the table.’

Like -t, -te can be used as an instrumental suffix, as in (63).

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{ku-láa-y-té} & \quad \text{ceerótic mataarêt akáy kot tárat.} \\
\text{RECENT.PAST.3-climb.up-INST} & \quad \text{Ceerootic ladder up to house top}
\end{align*}
\]

‘Ceerootic climbed the house to its top using a ladder.’

It is also used in expressions for motion events involving the vector via (e.g. path expressed by over or through in English), as in (64), and looks like a marker for this vector. However, such a use of -te also seems to be able to be regarded as part of its use as an instrumental suffix, because a motion event of this type involves the use of the path that moves via the ground object.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{kwe-ram-tè} & \quad \text{ceerótic} \\
\text{REMOTE.PAST.3-jump-VIA} & \quad \text{Ceerootic}
\end{align*}
\]

\{ (a) sunjeenê. fence \ \\
\{ (b) tirisí. window \}

‘Ceerootic jumped (a) over the fence (b) through the window.’

**Source**

There are three suffixes that can be used in source expressions. Note that as in event location expressions, when any of the suffixes is used in source expressions, the preposition *anim* cannot be used.

- *-te used in source expressions. The suffix -te, which is or whose homophonous suffix is used in event location expressions, also appears in expressions of motion events involving source where the figure object moves toward the speaker, as in (65)-(67).

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{ku-cóo-ne} & \quad \text{ceepét makit.} \\
\text{RECENT.PAST.3-come-SOURCE(TOWARD.SP)} & \quad \text{Ceebet market}
\end{align*}
\]

‘Ceebet came from the market (toward the speaker).’

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{ku-rók-ne} & \quad \text{ceepét likam tárat.} \\
\text{RECENT.PAST.3-descend-SOURCE(TOWARD.SP)} & \quad \text{Ceebet mountain top}
\end{align*}
\]

‘Ceebet moved from the top of the mountain (toward the speaker).’

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{kwe-siru-ne/kui-wir-ne} & \quad \text{REMOTE.PAST.3-throw(short.distance)-SOURCE(TOWARD.SP)/} \\
\text{REMOTE.PAST.3-throw(long.distance)-SOURCE(TOWARD.SP)}
\end{align*}
\]

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ceepét mpiiret sikeenke looyatát.
Ceebet ball fence opening
'Ceebet threw the ball from the hole in the fence (toward the speaker).'

- -te used in source expressions: An example of the use of -te as a marker of source is shown in (68). (It remains to be investigated whether deixis is relevant to this form, and whether it is different from -me and -te.)

(68) kwe-krêp-te seeerotic nookit.
    REMOTE.PAST.3-run-SOURCE Ceerootic dog
    'Ceerootic ran away from the dog.'

As mentioned in the discussion on -te used in event location expressions, -te is also be used as an instrumental suffix.

- -te used in source expressions: Unlike -me, -te is deixis-neutral. Compare (69) and (70) with (66) and (67), respectively, which express motion toward the speaker.

(69) ku-rôk-te seeepet lëkan tarat
    RECENT.PAST.3-descend-SOURCE Ceebet mountain top
    'Ceebet moved from the top of the mountain.'

(70) kwe-sirir té/kù wir tè
    REMOTE.PAST.3-throw(short.distance)-SOURCE/
    REMOTE.PAST.3 throw(long.distance)-SOURCE
    seeepet mpiiret sikeenke looyatát.
    Ceebet ball fence opening
    'Ceebet threw the ball from the hole in the fence.'

4 Discussion
As shown in the previous section, Kupsapiny treats the two types of location differently.

When none of the verb suffixes for spatial concepts is used, the noun phrase for a ground object

21 Because -te can be used for either event location or source, there are cases where the sentence can have either interpretation, as in (i). (Although -me and -te can also be used for either concept, I have no data in which such an ambiguity occurs with either of these forms.)

(i) ku-wonik-te seeepet kitapat meesa.
    RECENT.PAST.3-push-EV.LOC/SOURCE Ceebet book table
    'Ceebet pushed the book on/from the table.'

22 There are cases like (ii) where -me, instead of -te, has to be used for deixis-neutral situations

(ii) kwe ciwiri na*lewe ciwiri te seeepet
    REMOTE.PAST.3-pull-SOURCE(TOWARD.SP)/REMOTE.PAST.3-pull-SOURCE Ceebet
    sanintiya imaren.
    plant ground
    'Ceebet pulled the plant from the ground/garden.'
is marked differently. The noun phrase for object location is zero-marked, whereas that for event location is preceded by the preposition am/on to form a prepositional phrase for the event location. The zero-marking found in the noun phrase for object location is also found in the noun phrase for goal, and the preposition am/on is used not only for event location but also for source. Thus, object location and goal on one hand and event location and source on the other receive different treatments in this language.

The difference between the two types of location also emerges in the use of the verb suffixes for the spatial concepts. The existential verb cannot take any of these suffixes, but most other verbs can take one or more of the suffixes for event location, namely ət, əo, ə, a, and ə, the first of which is also used for goal and the last three of which are also used for source. Thus, it may appear that object location is very different from goal as well as event location and source, and not only source but also goal is treated somewhat similarly to event location in the use of verb suffixes. Nevertheless, as mentioned in the previous section, the goal suffix attaches only to non-path verbs and verbs for short paths, and other types of verbs do not take any goal suffix in goal expressions. Therefore, when the suffix is not used, goal is actually expressed similarly to object location in the sense that neither of them has marking with any preposition or any suffix. Although the set of suffixes used in event location and source expressions are not exactly the same, and that used in event location expressions subsume that used in source expressions, event location and source are expressed similarly in that in expressions of either concept, the preposition am/on cannot be used when any of the suffixes is used, and the preposition usually has to be used when none of the suffixes is used (though the preposition can be omitted in some event location expressions), as in the pair of event location examples (71) (repeated from (49) and (54)) and (72) (repeated from (55)) and the pair of source examples (73) (repeated from (65)) and (74).

(71) ku-p'oort-ag/kup-p'ood-to
      ceepét eceerotic
    makit.
   RECENT.PAST.3-meet-EV.LOC/RECENT.PAST.3-meet-EV.LOC Ceebet Ceerotic
  market
  Ceebet met Ceerotic at the market.

(72) ku-p'oort ceepét eceerotic am makit.
    RECENT.PAST.3-meet Ceebet Ceerotic EV.LOC market
  ‘Ceebet met Ceerotic at the market.’

(73) ku-ceo-ag
      ceepét makit.
    RECENT.PAST.3-come-SOURCE(TOWARD SP) Ceebet market
  ‘Ceebet came from the market (toward the speaker).’

(74) ku-ceo am ceepét makit.
    RECENT.PAST.3-come SOURCE Ceebet market
  ‘Ceebet came from the market.’

Moreover, unlike in the case of the use of the preposition am/on, the set of suffixes used in event location and source expressions are not the same.

Thus, event location and source are treated similarly in Kupsapiny, as in Korean. As mentioned earlier, there are cases where the same sentence can have either the event location interpretation or the source interpretation, as in (43) and (44). These suggest that event location and source may not
be conceptually so distant from each other if there is a universal conceptual space, contrary to Nikiitina (2009)’s claim that source is conceptually farther from location than goal, though this appears to apply if what is meant by location is limited to object location.

Nevertheless, as Nikiitina (2009) argues, goal and source are also clearly distinguished in this language. They seem to be conceptually more distant from each other than any other pair combination of the concepts of goal, two types of location, and source.

As shown so far, the principle of the distinction between the two types of location in Kupsapiny seems to be the same as that in Japanese and Korean. However, like the boundaries between goal, location, and source, which Nikiitina (2009) argues are not drawn the same way across languages but in language-specific ways, the ways that the two types of location are marked differently in specific instances are language-specific and differ from language to language. In the pair of Kupsapiny and Japanese examples in (75) and (76), the location of the pen is treated as the location of the event of possession in Kupsapiny, whereas it is treated as the location of the object in Japanese.

(75) a-pónt ani peenit am mijeŋkə.

PRES.1-have 1SGNOM pen EV.LOC pocket

‘I have a pen in my pocket.’

Japanese

(76) Poketto-ni/*Poketto-de pen-o mot-teru.
pocket-OBJ.LOC/pocket-FV.LOC pen-ACC have-RESULT.STATE

‘I have a pen in my pocket.’

5 Conclusion

In conclusion, the two types of location, object location and event location, are distinguished not only in Japanese and Korean, but also in Kupsapiny. Typological studies on location, goal, and source have to take this distinction into consideration. Unlike object location, event location may conceptually be proximate to source.

References


23 If the same situation is depicted as existence rather than possession, the location of the pen is expressed as object location rather than event location, as in (i).

(i) miite peenit mijenku nwaanit.

eXist pen pocket-1SG.POSS

‘There is a pen in my pocket.’

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Associates.