

# SPACE LEXICALIZED: ITS LINGUISTIC IMPACTS IN ENGLISH AND ITS IMPLICATIONS FOR EFL LEARNING

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**Abstract:** Our sense of space is part of our experiential universals. However, the incorporation of space into words differs across languages. This paper argues that “space” is lexicalized in English but not in Indonesian. English encodes the sense of location and direction into *adverbial particles*, producing language-specific expressions. Together with prepositions, adverbial particles also combine with simple verbs producing *phrasal verbs* and making a highly familiar verb expand itself into a huge range of meanings. Furthermore, the unique syntactic behavior of phrasal verbs is assumed to be the motivation for the phenomenon of “prepositional stranding” in English. The enormous presence of adverbial particles in English and their absence in Indonesian could be problematic for Indonesian EFL learners. This problem can be viewed from two perspectives: inward & outward.

**Key words:** “space”, lexicalization, adverbial particles, phrasal verbs, learning problem, contrastive analysis, restructuring thought pattern.

Space is an intimate part of our everyday life experience. Taking a distance, we can conceive space as something out there—“something limited and measurable in length, width, and depth and regarded as not filled up” (Longman 1978: 1070), as when we refer to a “cube” in geometry. But living within it, we experience *space* as “that which surrounds us and continues outward in all directions” (ibid.), giving each of us the sense of being at the center of *where*. This human sense of being “where”, or the sense of location and direction, makes space a universal concept. Every member of a

culture or speech community has the same experience of undergoing this spatial dimension.

However, in spite of its universal recognition, space is incorporated differently across languages. That is, space is lexicalized as adverbial particles and/or prepositions in a specific way in English, but not in Indonesian. This reminds us of the Saussurean principle: *the linguistic sign is arbitrary* (Saussure 1916 [1959]: 67). The well-known, immediate interpretation of this principle is that there is no logical connection between form and meaning. But now pushed further to account for the phenomenon under discussion, the principle of arbitrariness can be interpreted as follows: every language as a self-contained whole has its own way of recognizing and categorizing “objective realities” out there in the real world. As a result, every language is structurally unique. English is unique in recognizing and lexicalizing space.

In my earlier writing (Kadarisman 2005), I have noted this linguistic phenomenon in passing, in support of my argument for linguistic relativity.

Now taking at the outset the different linguistic manifestations of space in English and Indonesian, this paper intends to explore further and dwell deeper into this topic. The objectives of this paper are twofold: first, to find out to what extent the lexicalization of space affects the linguistic system of English, and secondly, to explain why the different linguistic manifestations can be problematic for Indonesian EFL learners.

### **LEXICALIZATION OF “SPACE” IN ENGLISH AND ITS LINGUISTIC IMPACTS**

The term “lexicalization” means putting concepts into words, or in the Saussurean paradigm putting signified into signifier. However, this does *not* suggest that language is a name-giving device: giving names to nameless objects in the outside world. But rather, at the lexical level, language is a system of *arbitrary* signs (Culler 1986: 26, emphasis added). As noted earlier, “arbitrariness” implies that each language has its own way of putting concepts into words. What is important in one language may be unimportant for another. In this respect, the notion “space” is given high prominence in English, but not in Indonesian. Slobin (1996: 83) points out that English encodes the sense of location and direction by means of elaborated use of prepositions and adverbial particles, as shown in the following examples.

- (1) a. His office is **up** there on the seventh floor.  
 b. You'll have to walk **down** the street to the drugstore.  
 c. The theater is a few blocks **away** from here.

While the particles *up* in example (1)a clearly indicates an upward location, the particles *down* and *away* in examples (1)b and (1)c suggest motion and distance in a rather vague manner. However, they have one thing in common: the way they signify space is uniquely English. For better clarity, a comparison between English, Spanish (translated into English), and Indonesian is given in examples (2).

- (2) a. The bird flew **down from out of** the hole in the tree.  
 b. The bird exited from the hole of the tree flying toward below.  
 c. *Burung itu keluar dari lubang pohon dan terbang merendah.*

Although it contains a long sequence of particles and prepositions *down from out of*, sentence (2)a, according to Slobin (*ibid.*), sounds normal to native speakers of English. By contrast, the Spanish equivalent in (2)b contains no particle; and the Indonesian translation in (2)c is much closer in lexicalization to Spanish than to English. The examples in (2) clearly show that the sense of location and direction is lexicalized elaborately in English, but not in Spanish or Indonesian.

Other English examples, together with their Indonesian counterparts, show contrast in different depths of the wells in the following:

- (3) a. He went **down** to the bottom of the well.  
 b. He went **all the way down** to the bottom of the well.  
 (4) a. *Ia turun ke dasar sumur.*  
 b. *Ia turun ke dasar sumur yang sangat dalam.*

Notice that the meaning of *sangat dalam* 'very deep' in Indonesian can be expressed in English through the phrase *all the way down*—in (3)b. Of course, this phrase will simply give emphatic meaning if the adjective phrase *very deep* is also used, as in (5).

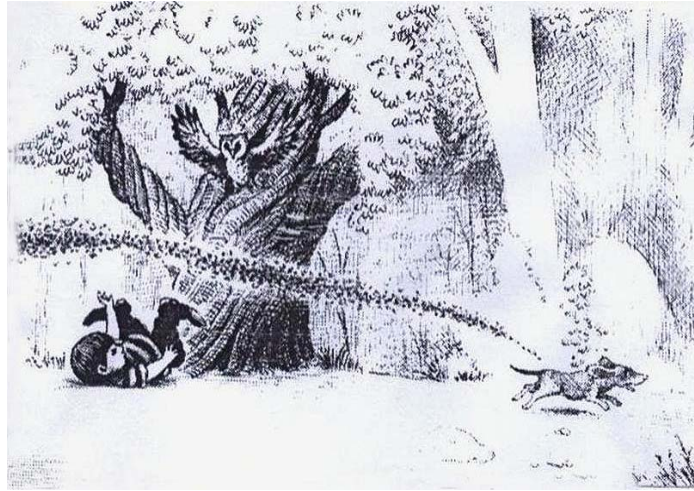
- (5) He went all the way down to the bottom of the very deep well.

The point here is that the notion of space expressible lexically in English is most probably not expressible in Indonesian.

With respect to acquisition, English children, who served as subjects in Slobin's (1996) research, demonstrate that they have acquired adverbial particles at the very early age in their linguistic development. Asked to describe a picture of a boy who falls down from a tree and a swarm of bees

chasing a dog (see Figure 1), four-year-old and five-year-old research subjects produced utterances (6) and (7) respectively.

- (6) The dog's running **through** there and the boy fell **off**.<sup>1</sup>
- (7) The boy fell **out** and the dog was being chased by the bees.



**Figure 1. The owl coming out of a hole on the tree, the boy falling down, and the dog running away being chased by a swarm of bees**

The use of the adverbial particles *through* and *off* in (6) and *out* in (7) is of special interest to observe. The particle *through* suggests the running motion; and the particles *off* and *out* following the verb *fell* in (6) and (7) each suggests sudden detachment from the tree. These three English particles have no lexical equivalent in Indonesian.

For further illustration, below are examples taken from *Reader's Digest*, September 2009 issue, where adverbial particles signify the notions of "place" or "direction", either in a literal or metaphorical sense.

- (8) There is a popular sex video that makes its **round on** campus ...

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<sup>1</sup> Example (6), which contains an error in the use of present progressive tense *is running* in place of the past progressive tense *was running*, tells us that the acquisition of adverbial particles *through* and *off* precedes the acquisition of past progressive tense. If this research subject represents normal acquisition of English, then we can conclude that the acquisition of adverbial particles occurs very early in English-as-L1 acquisition.

They moved **on**, only to return moments later.  
 This couple could rarely afford to eat **out**.  
 I have told him his behavior bothers me, but he laughs it **off**.  
 Get your son to help **out with** the daily household chores.  
 While filling **up** at a petrol station, ...  
 The answer is just a click **away**.

The phrases containing adverbial particles (plus prepositions) in (10)—*makes it round on campus, moved on, eat out, laughs it off, help out with, filling up, and just a click away*—are typically English, mostly suggesting the sense of direction or motion. If these phrases are to be translated into Indonesian, then the particles are all gone:

*beredar di kampus, bergerak maju, makan di luar, menertawakannya, membantu menyelesaikan, mengisi bensin, and tinggal klik saja.*

None of the English particles remain in the Indonesian translations; for the obvious reason that Indonesian lacks adverbial particles. To keep the original meaning intact, the Indonesian translations compensate for the missing particles with a content word (i.e., *maju, menyelesaikan, bensin*) a structure word (i.e., *saja*), or a prepositional phrase (*di luar*).

***From Adverbial Particles to English-specific Expressions and Phrasal Verbs.*** By “English-specific expressions”, I mean the use of adverbial particles encoding “verbal” or “adjectival” meanings<sup>2</sup>, which are typically English. Below are examples—with some modification—taken from *Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Electronic Dictionary* (2007), presented on the basis of logical order in “space perception”: ***in, out, up, down, on, off, and away***. Semantically, *in* and *out* suggest inclusion and exclusion; *up* and *down* suggest upward and downward location; *on* and *off* suggest presence and absence in the surrounding space; and *away* suggests a moving distance. The examples illustrating English-specific use of each of these seven adverbial particles are presented from the most literal to the highly metaphorical in meaning. Under each set of examples are presented phrasal verbs where the verbs take the given particle in the literal sense, moving up to a semi-idiomatic or a fully idiomatic sense. (Note that the list here is not intended to be exhaustive; but rather it is used to illustrate how

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<sup>2</sup> The term “verbal” and “adjectival” meanings here become obvious through translation from English into Indonesian, e.g., *The ball was definitely in!* (*Bolanya jelas masuk!*) and *Is the fire completely out?* (*Apinya sudah benar-benar padam?*)

particles having “verbal” and “adjectival” meanings can move further away so as to help produce English phrasal verbs.)

- (9) The ball was definitely <sup>3</sup>**in**!  
She has been **in and out** of hospitals since the accident.  
When does your essay have to be **in**?  
High heels are **in** this season.

The use of *in* in examples (9) leads to “verb + *in* combinations” familiar to us, such as *come in*, *jump in*, *move in*, *run in*, and *walk in*, and then moves to less familiar combinations such as *go in* (enter), *sign in* (register), and *turn in* (submit).

- (10) There was a phone call for you while you were **out**.  
Both copies of *Wuthering Height* were **out**.  
When we got home, all the lights were **out**.  
Is the fire completely **out**?

Opposite in meaning to *in*, the particle *out* used in examples (10) leads to “verb + *out* combinations” with literal meaning such as *go out*, *move out*, *jump out*, and *run out*, and then moves on to idiomatic phrasal verbs such as *put out* (extinguish), *turn out* (prove to be) and *think something out* (consider)

- (11) The sun was high **up** when the farmers started doing the harvest.  
The cost of car insurance is **up**, but not very much.  
I’ve been **up** all night finishing my essay.  
Do you know when the network will be **up** again?  
Stop working. Time is **up**

The use of *up* in examples (11) leads to “verb + *up* combinations” familiar to us, such as *get up*, *stand up*, and *wake up*, and then moves on to less familiar phrasal verbs such as *make up one’s mind* (decide), *put something up* (raise/build/fix), and *think something up* (produce a new idea or plan).

- (12) The old vacuum cleaner is **down** in the basement.  
The network will be **down** for an hour for a routine maintenance.  
The whole system has gone **down**.  
She’s been really **down** since her husband died.

Opposite in meaning to *up*, the particle *down* used in examples (12) leads to

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<sup>3</sup> In this sentence, *in* means inside the area where the game (of tennis, for example,) is played.

“verb + *down* combinations” with literal meaning such as *go down* or *walk down* to the lake, and *put something down*, and then moves on to more idiomatic use such as in *write down*, *look down upon*, *turn down* (reduce) the volume or *turn down* (reject) the offer.

(13) The horse galloped off as soon as she was **on**.

Wait until the power is **on**.

Hurry up with the make-up. I’m **on** (performing/on air) in ten minutes.

Food had to be rationed when the war was **on** (happening).

The use of *on* in examples (13) leads to “verb + *on* combinations” familiar to us, such as *get on*, *go on*, *keep on*, *put on* and *switch/turn on*, then moves on to less familiar phrasal verbs such as *hang on* (hold/wait), *come on* (come onto the stage)<sup>4</sup>, and *move on* (start doing a new activity or move to a new place)<sup>5</sup>.

(14) You cannot turn on the TV now. The power is **off**.

Make sure the computers are all **off** before you go home.

She’s **off** to Canada next week.

He is **off** on holiday at the moment.

The exams are so far **off** that I’m not even thinking of them yet.

Opposite in meaning to *on*, the particle *off* used in examples (14) leads to “verb + *off* combinations” familiar to us, such as *get off*, *keep off*, *take off*, and *switch/turn off*, and then moves on to less familiar phrasal verbs such as *cut off* (reduce), *put off* (postpone), and *take some time off*.

(15) It’s only three miles **away** from here.

The wedding is only a week **away**.

She is **away** on holiday until the end of next week.

I was still writing **away** when the exam finished.

A near synonym of *off*, the particle *away* used in examples (15) leads to “verb + *away* combinations” familiar to us, such as *go away*, *get away*, *look/turn away*, and *take something away*, and then moves on to less familiar phrasal verbs such as *fade away*, *get away with something* (avoid punishment)<sup>6</sup>, *melt away*, and *put something away* (in a storage place). The examples in (9) through (15), covering the use of adverbial particles *in*,

<sup>4</sup> The audience cheered as the band **came on**.

<sup>5</sup> I’d done the same job for years and felt it was time to **move on**.

I’ve been living in Honolulu long enough. It’s time to **move on**.

<sup>6</sup> I thought I could **get away with** it. I wouldn’t pay any tax at all.

*out, up, down, on, off, and away*—both in isolation and in combination producing phrasal verbs—suggest three important things, syntactically, semantically, and stylistically. Syntactically, while they look like prepositions, English particles behave in a specific way: they can occur sentence-finally, phrase-finally, or word-finally, as shown in the following examples.

- (16) [There was a phone call for you while you were **out**.]  
[It turned **out**] that his assumption was wrong.  
[Put **out**] your cigarette before enter the room.

Semantically, adverbial particles may encode the sense of location (as illustrated in (17)) and direction (as illustrated in (18)) explicitly, less explicitly, or idiomatically.

- (17) Yes, he is **in**. He'll see you in ten minutes.  
When does your essay have to be **in**?  
High heels are **in** this season.  
(18) The gas station is only a few blocks **away** from here.  
The exams are only a week **away**.  
You cannot get **away** with it.

When meaning and form are involved, the arbitrary principle rules in again. While English always encodes the sense of space by means of adverbial particles (and also prepositions), the meaning of each adverbial particle may range from the literal to the idiomatic. There is no one-to-one correspondence between form and meaning.

Stylistically, adverbial particles—as used in the previous examples—suggest less formal or informal use, and hence their massive presence in spoken English. It does not mean that formal written English keeps away from using adverbial particles. The difference is in quantity. Adverbial particles occur a lot more in speech than in writing. At the same time, the natural use of adverbial particles, and thus also phrasal verbs, gives “native flavor” to the language. Shifting from adverbial particles to phrasal verbs, the latter are in fact much more dominant than the former; and they are better known to native speakers of English as well as EFL teachers and learners. For this reason, a few notes on this subject are necessary.

*A few Notes on English Phrasal Verbs.* The move from adverbial particles to phrasal verbs is like the move from **ornamental** to **formal** use. By the former term, I refer to the use of adverbial particles as in (19)—partly repeating examples (6) and (7), produced by very young English children.



- (19) The dog's running **through** there and the boy fell **off**.<sup>7</sup>  
 The boy fell **out** and the dog was being chased by the bees.  
 His office is **up** there on the fifth floor.  
 It's only a mile **away** from here.

I would consider the use of the adverbial particles *through*, *off*, *out*, *up*, and *away* in examples (19) to be *ornamental* or *optional*. That is, their deletion in (20)

- (20) The dog's running there and the boy fell  
 The boy fell and the dog was being chased by the bees.  
 His office is there on the fifth floor.  
 It's only a mile from here.

does not make the four sentences ungrammatical, but it makes them sound *less* English. Such utterances are marked as having *foreign accent*, or strong trace of L1—indicating that the L1 (such as Indonesian) lacks adverbial particles. Interestingly, as they move from ornamental to *formal* use, the presence of adverbial particles becomes *obligatory*, as shown in the semantic contrast between *get* and *get up*, meaning 'obtain' and 'wake' respectively.

The formal use of adverbial particles together with propositions is the essential feature of **English phrasal verbs**. The enormous presence of phrasal verbs in English lexicon requires a special treatment, especially for the advantage of EFL learners. The publication of *Chambers Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs* (1996), for example, is primarily intended for this purpose. Using the "Introduction" in this dictionary as the major reference, below I sketch out the overall linguistic features of English phrasal verbs as well as their implications for EFL learning.

- a. Structurally, a phrasal verb is a short two-word or sometimes three-word phrase made up of a verb and an adverbial particle or a preposition, such as *get out*, *make up*, and *put up with*. However, while the verbs *get*, *make*, and *put* in each of these examples may stand by itself having its own lexical meaning, there are phrasal verbs that are always accompanied by a particular particle or preposition, such as *rely on*, *abstain from*, and *consult with*.

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<sup>7</sup> In footnote 1, the error has been pointed out in the use of the present progressive tense *is running* in place of the past progressive tense *was running*, and also the acquisition of adverbial particles *through* and *off* is assumed to precede the acquisition of past progressive tense.

- b. Semantically, phrasal verbs fall into three categories: (a) phrasal verbs whose combinations may have literal, semi-idiomatic, or idiomatic meanings, such as *hold down*, *push around*, and *push up*; (b) phrasal verbs whose particles function as intensifiers, such as *finish off*, *tidy up*, and *eat up*; and (c) phrasal verbs which behave idiomatically or known as non-deducible phrasal verbs, such as *act up*, *go off*, and *polish off*—each meaning ‘behave badly’, ‘explode’, and ‘finish easily and quickly’.
- c. With respect to language acquisition, English children acquire phrasal verbs automatically as a natural part of their linguistic development; there is *no* psycholinguistic burden on their acquisition. In contrast, EFL learners have to learn English phrasal verbs piece by piece, frequently ending up with little success. In fact, “one of the features of English that presents the greatest difficulty for foreign learners is the use of non-deducible phrasal verbs” (p. vii). Furthermore, “understanding and being able to use these constructions correctly in spoken and written English is essential if the learner is to develop a complete command of the language” (ibid.).
- d. With respect to English usage and lexical development, native speakers not only produce and comprehend phrasal verbs naturally and automatically in their speech or writing but also keep on creating them all the time. “Chambers Word-Track monitors new phrasal verbs that are being invented all the time by native speakers of English” (p. x), while noting that many of them are highly informal or slang. This type of lexical development owes to what Chomsky (1965: 6) terms the “creative” aspect of language use. In fact, the term needs reinterpretation: in addition to referring to the use of finite means to produce infinite ends<sup>8</sup>, it also means combining available lexical items to produce novel expressions.<sup>9</sup>

From the above descriptions, it is obvious that phrasal verbs are syntactically and semantically unique in the sense that they are typically English. Lexically, phrasal verbs keep adding up in number all the time, giving EFL learners an impression that English phrasal verbs are boundless. Psycholinguistically, they are natural parts of L1 acquisition as well as L1 produc-

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<sup>8</sup> The “finite means” here refer to the finite number of words and grammatical rules, and “infinite ends” refer to the infinite number of possible phrases and sentences.

<sup>9</sup> The “available lexical items” refer to the existing verbs and adverbial particles, and “novel expressions” refer to the resulting new phrasal verbs in English.

tion and comprehension; but to EFL learners most phrasal verbs appear more like idioms. Each has to be learned and memorized for its own structure, its own meaning, and its own possible collocations. To illustrate the complexity of English phrasal verbs, I would like to select one very familiar verb in English, namely *go*, and point out how it combines with particles and/or prepositions so as to produce phrasal verbs. In *Chambers Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs* mentioned above, the phrasal verbs centering on the verb *go* give 45 entries (presented in Table 1), printed on ten pages (pp.145 – 154) of the dictionary.

**Table 1. Phrasal Verbs with the Verb *Go***

No.	Phrasal Verb	No.	Phrasal Verb	No.	Phrasal Verb
1	go about	16	go before	31	go on at
2	go about with	17	go beyond	32	go out
3	go after	18	go by	33	go out with
4	go against	19	go down	34	go over
5	go ahead	20	go down in	35	go overboard
6	go along	21	go down with	36	go over to
7	go along with	22	go for	37	go through
8	go around	23	go forth	38	go through with
9	go around with	24	go forward	39	go to
10	go at	25	go in	40	go together
11	go away	26	go in for	41	go toward
12	go back	27	go into	42	go under
13	go back on	28	go in with	43	go up
14	go back over	29	go on	44	go with
15	go back to	30	go on about	45	go without

The phrasal verbs listed in Table 1 are not given their synonyms or definitions; the long list of “*go* phrasal verbs” in this table reveals three important things. First, simple and highly familiar verbs like *go* may take countless particles and prepositions so as to produce phrasal verbs with a huge range of meanings. Secondly, the “*go* phrasal verbs” may still increase in number, since, as noted above, “new phrasal verbs are being invented all the time by native speakers of English”. In fact it should be pointed out that the list in Table 1 is not a complete list; it does not include *go off*, which in Longman Dictionary (1978: 490) is given 8 different meanings. Thirdly, taking this information into account, one phrasal verb in

the list may have more than one meaning. Referring back to *Chambers Dictionary*, *go about* has 4 meanings; *go after* has 2 meanings; *go by* has 5 meanings; *go down* has 9 meanings—and so forth. Thus, it is justifiable to conclude that, as simple verbs in English take up particles and prepositions and develop into phrasal verbs, they lexically expand themselves in a considerable manner.

**From Phrasal Verbs to “Prepositional Stranding”.** As illustrated in examples (16), adverbial particles are unique with respect to word order: they may occur sentence-finally, phrase-finally, or word-finally. This is because adverbial particles take no NP object. On the contrary, prepositions always take an NP object. Notice the contrast between the two in (21).

- (21) He is **in**.  
He is **in** the room.  
They moved **on**.  
They depend **on** you.

Examples (21) give an impression that only adverbial particles, but not prepositions, may occur sentence-finally. However, this is not always the case. In restrictive adjective clauses, phrasal verbs such as *depend on* and *talk to* may occur sentence-finally.

- (22) That foundation is a reliable funding agency you can depend **on**.  
Who was the old woman you talked **to**?

In the generative literature, the phenomenon of preposition occurring at the end as in (22) is known as “prepositional stranding” (Napoli 1993: 114). Of course, both sentences in (22) also have alternative syntactic structures—shown in (23).

- (23) That foundation is a reliable funding agency **on** which you can depend.  
Who was the old woman to **whom** you talked?

However, in terms of usage, the two sentences in (22) sound more natural than those in (23). In speech, sentences in (23) sound stilted or bookish although in formal academic writing such grammatical structures are occasionally used. From “verb + preposition combinations” such as *depend on* and *talk to*, prepositional stranding goes further so as to include examples in (24).

- (24) Is this the knife you cut the bread **with**?  
Is she the woman you bought this car **from**?

Notice that, when put back to their original word order, *with* in *cut the bread with the knife* and *from* in *bought this car from the woman* are not part of phrasal verbs. These two prepositions attach somewhat loosely to the verbs *cut* and *buy*, and yet as shown in (24) they can get “stranded”. Pushing a step further, English even allows “prepositional stranding” as in (25).

- (25) a. Active: No one has slept in this room for years.  
 b. Passive: This room has not been slept **in** for years.<sup>10</sup>

The change from the active to the passive in (25) involves “transitivity” in an unusual manner. The **intransitive** verb *slept* + *in this room* in (25)a shifts into a **passive transitive** *has been slept in* in (25)b.<sup>11</sup> Thus *slept in* in (25)b is syntactically much like the transitive phrasal verbs in the passive: *had been knocked down / run over / thrown out*. Only English can “create transitivity” through prepositional stranding.

To recapitulate, “space” has been uniquely lexicalized in English, producing adverbial particles which seem to be strongly related to phrasal verbs. Lexically, English has become increasingly richer through the endless growth of phrasal verbs. Syntactically, the “peculiar behavior” of adverbial particles and phrasal verbs has probably been the motivation for the appearance of “prepositional stranding” in English. These overall linguistic features which are typically English may be challenging problems for Indonesian EFL learners.

## IMPLICATIONS FOR EFL LEARNING

Both the adverbial particles and phrasal verbs, as demonstrated by English children and noted by linguistics scholars, constitute part of linguistic competence among native speakers of English. They flow out naturally and effortlessly in their speech and writing, especially in informal written genres. On the other hand, as noted in *Chambers Dictionary* (1996: x), they present the greatest difficulty for EFL learners. To verify the validity of this scholarly claim, I have done a small elicitation test and se-

<sup>10</sup> I learned that this syntactic structure is possible in English when I took Grammar II during my undergraduate years. This sentence, as I recall, is available in *Living English Structure*, by Stannard Allen.

<sup>11</sup> The Indonesian equivalents for the *intransitive* and *passive transitive* forms in (25)a and (25)b would be: (a) *Tak seorang pun pernah tidur di kamar ini selama bertahun-tahun*; (b) *Kamar ini tak pernah ditiduri selama bertahun-tahun*.

lected some naturally occurring data. The elicitation test was done by giving the picture<sup>12</sup> (Figure 1) to seventeen EFL learners at the high advanced level<sup>13</sup> and asking them to write one compound sentence in English, describing what the owl did and what happened to the boy and the dog in the picture. The aim of this test is to elicit language data and find out whether or not the notion of “space” is lexicalized by Indonesian EFL learners in their English sentences. As for the naturally occurring data, they have been selected from narrative writings by high school students<sup>14</sup>; they are used to find out whether or not the sense of space is ever incorporated lexically into their compositions.

The picture in Figure 1, with regard to the lexicalization of space, may well be described as follows:

(26) The owl flew **out of** the bole on the tree, the boy **fell down**, and the dog was running **away** being chased by a swarm of bees.

In example (26), the adverbial particles immediately following the verbs (*flew out of*, *fell down*, and *was running away*) encode the sense of direction. The results of the elicitation test given to the 17 research subjects (see footnote 14) are presented in Table 2.

**Table 2. Frequency of Producing Adverbial Particles**

No	Particles	Frequency	%	Remaining Subjects (%)	Remarks on Remaining Subjects
1	<i>out</i>	6	35.3	11 (64.7)	no particle
2	<i>of</i>	3	17.6	14 (82.4)	<i>from</i>
<i>Table continued</i>					
3	<i>down</i>	13	76.5	4 (23.5)	no particle
4	<i>away</i>	7	41.2	10 (58.8)	no particle

<sup>12</sup> The picture used in this small research is a picture used by Slobin (1996) in his research investigating how space and time are respectively lexicalized and grammaticized in speech produced by native speakers of four different languages: English, Spanish, German, and Hebrew.

<sup>13</sup> The subjects of my research are 17 first-semester students at the S2 English Education Program, Graduate School, State University of Malang in the 2009-10 academic year.

<sup>14</sup> I am grateful to Yadhi Nur Amin, *M.Pd.*, a 2009 graduate from *Program Pascasarjana Universitas Negeri Malang* and an English teacher at *MAN Lasem, Central Java*, for providing me with the narrative compositions (by the second-year students at his school) I need for writing this paper.

As shown in this table, the particle *down* (in *fell down*) occurs most frequently (76.5%); the particle *away* (in *was running away*) occurs less frequently (41.2%); the particle *out* occurs much less frequently (35.3%); and the particle/ preposition *of* occurs the least frequently (17.6%)—both in *flew out of*. The last is mostly replaced by the research subjects with the preposition *from*—and hence *flew out from*.

The decreasing frequency in using the particles *down*, *away*, *out*, and *of* in the subjects' descriptions of the picture is probably due to the decreasing degree of their familiarity with the verbal expressions: *fall down*, *run away*, and *fly out of*. At this point it is interesting to note that none of the subjects uses the particles *off* or *out* in *fell off* or *fell out*—as used respectively by the four-year-old and five-year-old English children (see examples (6) and (7) above). The contrast in verbal production here tells us that adverbial particles are acquired very early in life by native speakers of English, but very late by EFL learners—considering that the research subjects here are EFL students at the advanced or even high advanced level.

As for the compositions by 20 Indonesian high school students (see footnote 15), an introductory note is necessary. They were asked to write a free composition about their past activity. All of them wrote what they did or what happened to them in the past, mostly producing three-paragraph narrative writings of different lengths—the shortest consisting of 104 words and the longest consisting of 276 words, all 20 compositions adding up to the total number of 3,465 words and making an average length of 173 words. How many phrasal verbs show up in these 20 compositions? Are there any adverbial particles coming out? Answers to these questions are given in Table 3.

Each phrasal verb in Table 3 occurs only once, except *carried out* and *got up* which occur twice and three times respectively. In terms of their frequency of occurrence in all 20 compositions, it is very low indeed: 0.75%. Outside the phrasal verbs, there is no particle showing up. Only two prepositional adverbs (*along* and *on* + NP) come out, making up 0.09%. Notice that phrasal verbs occur less than 1%, adverbial particles (standing by themselves) 0%, and prepositional adverbs less than 0.1%. All of these suggest that the sense of location, motion, and direction is hardly ever lexicalized by the present research subjects. This reveals that there is a huge gap between the learners' interlanguage and English as the target language in terms of "lexicalizing space".

**Table 3. Phrasal Verbs and Particles in Students' Compositions**

No.	Phrasal Verbs	No.	Propositions (Suggesting Motion)
1	arrived at	1	along the beach
2	carried out (2x)	2	along the road
3	coming back from school	3	on the way (4x)
4	fell down		
5	getting off the bus		
6	got up (3x)		
7	looked for		
8	walked along the village		
9	went on a picnic		
10	woke up		
$\% = *26 / **3.465 \times 100 = \mathbf{0.75}$		$\% = 3 / 3.465 \times 100 = \mathbf{0.09}$	

\*26 – each phrasal verb consisting of 2 words, so  $10 \times 2 = 20$ ; then *carried out* (2 x) and *got up* (3 x), so  $20 + 2 + 4 = 26$   
\*\*3.465 – the total number of words in 20 compositions

The acquisition of Indonesian as L1 never makes the learners aware of recognizing and categorizing “space”, or more specifically the sense of location and direction. The Indonesian language works out perfectly well without taking the spatial dimension into account; and therefore it never “trains” its speakers to deal with it. The term “training” here refers back to the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis which states that L1 partly shapes its speakers’ thought pattern (see Gumperz and Levinson 1996: 4-5). Thus learning English which requires lexicalizing space means “restructuring the old thought pattern”.

### CLOSING REMARKS

Across cultures, space is an experiential universal; but across languages, it is perceived and hence lexicalized differently. While Indonesian seems to be negligent toward space, English is a language highly sensitive to the spatial dimension. Accordingly, space is incorporated lexically in an elaborate manner, producing **adverbial particles** for both ornamental and formal purposes—suggesting optional and obligatory use respectively. In the formal use, adverbial particles may stand by themselves with “verbal”



or “adjectival” meaning. Then together with prepositions, they flock around simple verbs producing **phrasal verbs** which are present in abundance in English lexicon; and through everyday language use by native speakers they keep adding up in number. Referring to their meanings, it should be noted that the Saussurean principle of arbitrariness rules: their semantic coverage ranges over from the most literal to the peculiarly idiomatic.

With respect to language acquisition, there is a big difference between native and non-native acquisition of adverbial particles and phrasal verbs. For native speakers of English, their acquisition and, in effect, their use in language perception and production come out naturally and effortlessly. In contrast, for Indonesian EFL learners, both adverbial particles and phrasal verbs show up as completely new lexical entities. They must be acquired through conscious learning, and very often with meager success. On the surface, this can be regarded as the L2 learning problem predictable through Contrastive Analysis hypothesis; but in a deeper mental level, this is a problem of restructuring the old thought pattern. Indonesian EFL learners, whose L1 has never trained them to perceive “space” linguistically, have to train themselves to become sensitive to the presence of space, and find adverbial particles which convey the sense of location and direction in an appropriate linguistic manner.

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