

SPACE LEXICALIZATION IN COMPOSITIONS BY INDONESIAN EFL LEARNERS: TOWARD NEAR-NATIVE STYLE

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Abstract. This research intends to find out whether or not Indonesian EFL learners are aware of the presence of “space” and lexicalize it in their English compositions. It takes 21 seventh-semester English Department students as research subjects. They are given story pictures and asked to write a narrative. The resulting 21 EFL narratives are measured against a native-speaker narrative model in terms of “spatial words” (prepositions and adverbial particles), producing the following comparisons: 6.6% : 7.2% in total, 78.2% : 85.7% used dynamically, 95.5% : 100% used obligatorily, and 19.2% : 28.6% used in phrasal verbs. This means that Indonesian EFL learners are sensitive enough to “space” and know how to lexicalize it in their compositions. Theoretically, their sensitivity to “space” implies that while learning English they have undergone some cognitive restructuring; and practically, EFL learners who wish to acquire near-native style in writing should be competent in space lexicalization.

Key Words: space lexicalization, spatial words, near-native writing style

Abstrak. Penelitian ini bertujuan untuk mengetahui apakah pembelajar Indonesia mampu mempersepsi “ruang” dan menuangkannya dalam karangan bahasa Inggris mereka. Subyek penelitian adalah 21 mahasiswa Jurusan Sastra Inggris. Mereka diberi cerita berupa gambar dan diminta menulis narasi dalam bahasa Inggris. Karangan yang mereka tulis dibandingkan dengan karangan-model karya penutur asli bahasa Inggris dalam hal penggunaan “kata ruang” (preposisi dan partikel adverbial), dan hasilnya adalah sebagai berikut: 6.6% : 7.2% jumlah total, 78.2% : 85.7% digunakan secara dinamis, 95.5% : 100% digunakan dalam konteks wajib, and 19.2% : 28.6% digunakan dalam verba-frasa. Ini berarti pembelajar Indonesia mampu mempersepsi “ruang” dan menuangkannya dalam karangan mereka. Secara teoritis, ini berarti bahwa selama mereka mempelajari bahasa Inggris telah terjadi perubahan kognitif pada diri mereka; dan secara praktis, pembelajar Indonesia yang ingin mengarang dengan gaya bahasa penutur asli harus menguasai leksikalisasi ruang.

Kata Kunci: leksikalisasi ruang, kata ruang, gaya bahasa penutur asli

“Space” is a universal concept, but it is perceived differently and hence also lexicalized (put into words) differently by different languages. English is very perceptive of space; and it conveys spatial dimension in

two different ways: by means of *prepositions* (Tyler & Evans 2003) and *adverbial particles* (Slobin 1996), or simply *particles* for short. Examples of prepositions conveying space are given in (1).

- (1) a. **in** the room, **on** the table, **under** the tree
 b. **into** the water, **over** the fence, **through** the forest

In examples (1.a), the prepositions *in*, *on*, and *under* convey the sense of “location”, whereas the prepositions in examples (1.b) convey the sense of “direction”. In English, the sense of “direction” can also be conveyed by means of adverbial particles, as shown in examples (2) and (3).

- (2) a. He went **up** the ladder.
 b. They carefully walked **down** the hill.
 (3) a. His office is **up** there on the seventh floor.
 b. The vacuum cleaner is **down** in the basement.

Taking a closer look at examples (1), (2) and (3) and considering *lack* of necessary technical terms for adequately describing “space” in English, I propose several technical terms. First, I propose the term “**spatial words**”, which lump together all prepositions and adverbial particles conveying “space” in English. Secondly, by grouping the prepositions *in*, *on*, and *under* in (1.a) on the one hand and grouping the prepositions *into*, *over*, and *through* in (1.b) as well as the particles *up* and *down* in (2) and (3) on the other, I propose the terms “**static**” spatial words for the former and “**dynamic**” spatial words for the latter. The reason should be clear: static spatial words convey the sense of “location” but the dynamic spatial words convey the sense of “direction” or “motion”. Third and finally, by comparing the use of the particles *up* and *down* in (3.a) with *up* and *down* in (3.b), I propose the terms “**obligatory**” and “**optional**” spatial words. As the terms indicate, obligatory spatial words must be there in the given context, as required by the grammar, whereas the optional spatial words are there for

“ornamental” purposes¹. The deletion of the latter would *not* make sentences (3.a) and (3.b) ungrammatical, but it would make them sound *less* English. It should be noted immediately that prepositions are always used obligatorily whereas particles, based on my years of observation, are mostly used obligatorily but sometimes optionally.

Compared with English, Indonesian is much less sensitive to “space”. It conveys spatial dimension only through prepositions since it lacks adverbial particles. Looking back at examples (1), (2), and (3), only prepositions in (1.a) have direct natural equivalents in Indonesian, as shown in examples (4).

- (4) **di dalam** kamar, **di atas** meja, **di bawah** pohon

Notice that in the Indonesian translations, the one-word English prepositions *in*, *on*, and *under* do not have single-word but double-word equivalents: *di dalam*, *di atas*, and *di bawah*. This indicates that, even at the “prepositional level”, Indonesian is lexically not as rich as English. Similarly, when we translate examples (1.b) into Indonesian, as can be seen in (5), we will see more lexical limitations in Indonesian.

- (5) **ke dalam** air, **di atas** pagar, **lewat/melalui** hutan

Like Indonesian prepositions in examples (4), *ke dalam* is also a double-word equivalent for the English single-word *into*. Moreover, the prepositions *di atas* in (4) and *di atas* in (5) tell us that Indonesian has only “one” equivalent for *on* and *over*, and additionally also *above*. Interestingly, the preposition *lewat/melalui* as equivalents of *through* further reveals that Indonesian sometimes borrows “verbs” to convey this particular sense of motion.

¹ I propose the terms “ornamental” and “formal” use of spatial words in an earlier paper (Kadarisman 2010); they are synonyms of “optional” and “obligatory” use respectively.

Now pushing further, the particles *up* and *down* in examples (2) and (3) have *no* equivalent in Indonesian, since, as noted earlier, it lacks adverbial particles which are abundant in English. This brief comparison pointing out the difference between Indonesian and English in dealing with “space” leads me to conduct research on space lexicalization by Indonesian learners. The research question is: *Do Indonesian EFL learners lexicalize space in their compositions? More operationally, are Indonesian EFL learners aware of the presence of “space”, and accordingly do they lexicalize it as spatial words in their English compositions?*

The findings of this research will have both theoretical and practical implications. Theoretically, either the success or failure of Indonesian EFL learners in lexicalizing space will tell us—with reference to linguistic relativity, or more specifically to the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis (see Gumperz & Levinson 1996: 2)—whether or not they have undergone cognitive restructuring. If they have, then they will be sensitive to space; but if they have not, then they, as Indonesians, will remain insensitive to space. Practically, from their success or failure in space lexicalization, we can learn its impacts on their English compositions, particularly on how it affects their writing style.

With respect to “space lexicalization” the world languages fall into two big categories: verb-framed languages and satellite-framed languages, abbreviated respectively as **V-languages** (e.g., Indonesian and Spanish) and **S-languages** (e.g., English and German). These two categories, as noted by Hickmann and Robert (2006: 4), were first introduced by the pioneering works of Talmy (1985, 1991, and 2000). He suggests that languages can be divided into two groups (i.e., V-languages and S-languages) in terms of *manner* and *path*. The term “manner” suggests the general motion whereas the term “path” suggests a specific di-

rection. A **V-language** such as Indonesian conveys the notions of “manner” and “path” by lexicalizing them together in the main verbs (e.g., *masuk*, *keluar*, and *naik*). In contrast, an **S-language** such as English encodes “manner” through the main verbs and “path” through “satellites”, such as particles or prepositions associated to the main verbs. For example, taking the verb *go* as the main verb, the Indonesian examples above can be rendered into English as *go in*, *go out*, and *go up*.

What do we learn from the contrast (of conveying “manner” and “path”) between the Indonesian and English verbs above? We learn *four* things, somewhat redundantly. *First*, in Indonesian, both “manner” and “path” are lexicalized together through main verbs; but in English “manner” is lexicalized through main verbs while “path” is lexicalized through “particles”. *Secondly*, the way English conveys the notion of “path” clearly indicates the **dynamic** nature of its adverbial particles. Referring to the previous examples, the verb *go* conveys one and the same “manner”, but the adverbial particles *in*, *out*, and *up* convey different “paths”. Clearly, it is the adverbial particles that semantically convey different “directions”. *Thirdly*, the absence of particles in Indonesian makes the language lack the complexity of phrasal verbs. In contrast, English is very rich with phrasal verbs, which can be intriguing syntactically and semantically (see McCarthy et al. 1999 and Redman 1997). *Fourth and finally*, in terms of their semantic complexity, English phrasal verbs which consist of main verbs and particles², as noted in *Chambers Dictionary* (1996: v) and also by Schmitt (2000: 99), may have literal meaning (e.g., *go in* = enter), semi-idiomatic meaning

² For the sake of simplicity, phrasal verbs consisting of main verbs, particles, and prepositions (e.g., *put up with*, *go away with*, *look down upon*) are set aside from the discussion.

(e.g., go up = increase), or idiomatic meaning (e.g., go off = explode).

Moreover, with respect to language acquisition, English children acquire phrasal verbs, and hence also adverbial particles, automatically as 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 greatest difficulty for foreign learners is the use of non-deducible phrasal verbs” (opcit.: 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.).

While “space lexicalization” has been a well-known research topic in theoretical linguistics, more specifically in the domain of linguistic relativity, it is scarcely recognized in EFL research. Therefore, this brief literature review boils down to the following four assumptions which, taken together, serve as **Theoretical Framework** for the present research:

1. Indonesian is a V-language whereas English is an S-language. Accordingly, Indonesian speakers are accustomed to conveying “manner” and “path” together through main verbs whereas English speakers are used to conveying “manner” through main verbs and “path” through adverbial particles or prepositions.
2. Psycholinguistically, owing to the way in acquiring their L1, Indonesian speakers are probably less sensitive to space. Within the domain of “linguistic relativity”, this psycholinguistic phenomenon is in accord with the well-known Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis. That is, the way one perceives reality is in part determined by the language one speaks (see Gumperz & Levinson 1996: 2).

3. Pedagogically and ideally, while developing their English proficiency, Indonesian EFL learners are presumably developing their sense of space at the same time. Thus improving English proficiency among Indonesian EFL learners simultaneously means (partial) restructuring of their thought pattern or linguistic cognition.
4. In the present research, their success or failure in cognitive restructuring will affect their English compositions, specifically in terms of style. If they have become sensitive to space, then they may accomplish a better, near-native style; but if they remain insensitive to space, they will write in English but keeping Indonesian style.

RESEARCH METHOD

Research Subjects. The subjects of this research are 21 seventh-semester students at the English Department, State University of Malang. They are considered advanced learners of English since they have completed taking all the four language skills (i.e., listening, speaking, reading and writing) as well as all Grammar classes. Furthermore, their average score of Writing III (the highest level of Writing courses) as well as their average GPA is 3.5, or equal to A-. Thus they are assumed to have undergone sufficient cognitive restructuring and have become sensitive enough to “space” when they write in English.

Research Instruments. To collect the primary data, I use two major instruments: a series of pictures of a “story of two monkeys” (see Appendix 1)³ and the accompanying instructions (see Appendix 2) to write a narrative paragraph of about 100 words. As can be seen in Appendix 1, the story

³ I am very grateful to Drs. Bambang Suryanto, M.Pd., an English lecturer at Politeknik Negeri Malang, who has done the wonderful drawing of “A Tale of Two Monkeys”.

consists of 6 pictures, all depicting “space”. Picture (1) depicts “location” whereas pictures (2) through (6) depict “motions” of the two monkeys and the tiger. By looking at the pictures, the research subjects are expected to “see” the “motions” in the story, and accordingly put them into *dynamic spatial words*.

The third research instrument is a “model”, i.e., a narrative written by a native speaker of English⁴ which serves as a “benchmark”. The benchmarking here refers specifically to the use of “spatial words” in the narrative model, presented below.

“A Tale of Two Monkeys”

Two monkeys **were sitting in the grass** eating bananas when suddenly a tiger appeared. The monkeys **quickly ran away** and climbed a tree to try escape. The tiger **came after them** and started to climb the tree. Fortunately the branches of the tree **hung over a river** so they were both able to **dive into** the water below. The tiger **didn't follow them into** the river. One monkey was able to **swim to safety on the opposite side**. The other was taken **by** a crocodile. (85 words)

The use of “spatial words” in the narrative model, following their classification given in the Introduction, can be seen in three different ways: *dynamic* or static use, *obligatory* or optional use, and their use in *phrasal verbs*. This benchmarking is presented in Table 1

Prepositions and particles conveying “space” must be differentiated from prepositions conveying “grammatical relations”, such as—referring to one available example in the narrative paragraph—*taken by a cro-*

codile, where *by* indicates an “agentive relation”. Setting this preposition aside and reading Table 1, we find 7 spatial words (i.e., 6 prepositions and 1 adverbial particle); their frequency of occurrence in the narrative (7 out of 85 words) is 8.2%. In their given contexts, these 7 spatial words are mostly used dynamically (85.7%) and all obligatorily (100%), but they help make up phrasal verbs infrequently (28.6%).

On the basis of the analysis above, the native speaker “model” of the narrative is used as a “benchmark” in the following way: each English composition (written by each research subject) is analyzed for the purpose of finding the spatial words (i.e., prepositions and adverbial particles) in it in terms of (a) their frequency of occurrence, (b) their dynamic or static use, (c) their obligatory or optional use, and (d) their contribution to making up phrasal verbs.

Data Collection. The use of pictures as a research instrument to elicit language data is justified by Oller (1979: 308-20). Using the picture series and the accompanying instructions (Appendices 1 and 2), I collect 21 English narratives written by the 21 research subjects. Analysis of these narratives, using the native speaker model as a benchmark, is given in the following section.

ANALYSIS OF THE EFL NARRATIVES

The 21 EFL narratives are analyzed in terms of their lengths and the total number of spatial words in them as manifestation of space lexicalization. Moving to greater detail, the spatial words are further analyzed in terms of their dynamic use, their obligatory use, and their use in phrasal verbs. Results of the analysis are presented in Table 2

⁴ I am very thankful to Thomas Connors, Ph.D., an American linguist working for the Max Plank Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, for providing me with the narrative of “A Tale of Two Monkeys”.

Table 1. Space Lexicalization in the Native Speaker Model

No	Spatial Words: Prepositions/Particles	Dynamic	Obligatory	In Phrasal Verb
1	were sitting in the grass	-	+	-
2	ran away	+	+	+
3	came after them	+	+	+
4	hung over a river	+	+	-
5	dive into the water	+	+	-
6	didn't follow them into the river	+	+	-
7	swim to safety on the opposite side	+	+	-
$\Sigma = 7 \rightarrow$ 85 words (8.2%)		6/7 (85.7%)	7/7 (100%)	2/7 (28.6%)

Table 2. Spatial Words in the EFL Narratives

No	Research Subjects	Total Number of Words	Spatial Words							
			Total	%	Dynamic		Obligatory		In Phrasal Verbs	
					Total	%	Total	%	Total	%
1	AEA	119	8	6.7	5	62	8	100	1	13
2	ADN	111	7	6.3	6	86	7	100	4	57
3	ASR	116	8	6.9	6	75	8	100	2	25
4	BAN	116	8	6.9	7	88	8	100	2	25
5	BGN	114	8	7	7	88	8	100	2	25
6	EW	115	6	5.2	4	66	5	83	0	0
7	FCH	115	6	5.2	3	50	6	100	0	0
8	HDL	107	11	10.3	8	73	11	100	5	45
9	HR	124	9	7.3	9	100	7	78	2	22
10	KL	107	7	6.5	5	71	6	86	1	14
11	Kr	114	7	6.1	7	100	6	86	1	14
12	MH	115	5	4.3	4	80	5	100	2	40
13	NRY	109	6	5.5	5	83	6	100	1	17
14	PW	119	8	6.7	7	88	7	88	0	0
15	RIG	95	9	9.5	8	89	8	89	1	11
16	RL	112	6	5.4	4	66	6	100	0	0

No	Research Subjects	Total Number of Words	Spatial Words							
			Total	%	Dynamic		Obligatory		In Phrasal Verbs	
					Total	%	Total	%	Total	%
17	SMN	110	6	5.5	3	50	6	100	1	17
18	TC	108	11	10.2	10	91	11	100	3	27
19	TF	114	7	7	6	86	7	100	1	14
20	YFW	117	8	6.8	5	62	8	100	0	0
21	ZM	120	5	4.2	3	60	5	100	1	20
Total		2377	156		122		149		30	
Average & %		113.2	7.4	6.7	5.8	78.2	7.1	95.5	1.4	19.2

As shown in Table 2, in terms of length, the longest narrative consists of 124 words (by HR) and shortest narrative consists of 95 words (by RIG), with the average length of 113.2 words—or 13.2 words more than the required length of 100 words. With regard to space lexicalization in the narratives, it shows up in the total of 156 “spatial words” or 7.4 words in average, equal to 6.6% of the overall (2377) words in the 21 narratives. The biggest number of spatial words (i.e., 11/107 words or 10.3%) is found in HDL’s narrative and the smallest number (i.e., 5/120 words or 4.2%) is found in ZM’s narrative.

Further analysis of EFL space lexicalization reveals that among the total of 156 spatial words in Table 2, 122 words (78.2%) are used *dynamically* to convey “motions” in the picture story; 149 words (95.5%) are used *obligatorily* (i.e., their absence would make the given constructions ungrammatical); and 30 prepositions and/or particles (19.2%) help make up *phrasal verbs*. The “meaning” of each of these three percentages in the EFL narratives will be fully revealed if we compare the summary of Table 2 with the summary of the native speaker “model” (see Table 1), both combined and presented in Table 3.

Table 3 tells us that in terms of length the EFL narratives (113.2 words) are longer than the narrative model (85 words). Further comparison of spatial words occurring in both of them can be presented by putting (%) side by side: in terms of space lexicalization (6.6% for the narrative model, 8.2% for the EFL narratives), in terms of dynamic use (78.2% : (85.7%)), in terms of obligatory use (95.5% : (100%)), and in terms of their use in phrasal verbs (19.2% : (28.6%)). Overall, it means that, compared with the native speaker model, the EFL narratives do less space lexicalization, use spatial words less dynamically and less obligatorily (the latter suggesting allowing some optional use of adverbial particles), and contribute a bit less to constructing phrasal verbs.

However, it should be noted immediately that, as can be seen in Table 2, several EFL narratives contain more space lexicalization than does the narrative model (8.2%), as can be seen in the 3 narratives by HDL (10.3%), by TC (10.2%), and by RIG (9.5%). Surprisingly, in terms of the dynamic use of spatial words, the model (85.7%) is outperformed by 7 narratives: (100%) by HR and Kr respectively, (91%) by TC, (89%) by RIG, and (88%) by BAN, BGN, and PW respectively. And in terms of the optional use of adverbial particles, the model (0%) is

Table 3. The EFL Narratives (Average) and the Native Speaker Model Compared

	Length of Narrative	Total	%	Spatial Words					
				Dynamic		Obligatory		In Phrasal Verbs	
				Total	%	Total	%	Total	%
EFL Narratives : Average & %	113.2	7.4	6.6	5.8	78.2	7.1	95.5	1.4	19.2
Model: Σ words & %	85	7	8.2	6	85.7	7	100	2	28.6

outperformed by 6 narratives: (22%) by HR, (17%) by EW, (14%) by KL and Kr, (12%) by PW, and (11%) by RIG.⁵ Finally, in terms of contributing to phrasal verb construction, the model (28.6%) is outperformed by 3 narratives: (57%) by AND, (45%) by HD, and (40%) by MH.

Referring to the results of the analyses above, one important conclusion can be drawn: while in general the EFL narratives lexicalize space less than the native speaker model does, a closer look at the former reveals that several EFL narratives—in certain aspects of space lexicalization—perform a little higher or even much higher than the native speaker model does.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This section discusses the research findings obtained through data analysis and relate them to the research question, and then points out theoretical and practical implications of the findings.

Space Lexicalization by Indonesian EFL Learners

As made clear under data analysis, the research question posed at the end of the Introduction obtains a positive answer: Indonesian EFL learners are aware of the presence of “space” and put it in spatial words in their compositions, although, as compared with the native speaker narrative

model (see Table 3), their space lexicalization (6.6%) is not as much as that in the model (8.2%). This is the “big picture” of the research findings. To obtain a “real picture” of the EFL narratives, in this section I will pick up several narratives and analyze them by looking closely at how they lexicalize space. For the first narrative, I select one (by RIG) that is very close to the narrative model in terms of length and space lexicalization. In example (1), the spatial words in RIG’s narrative are printed in bold.

Example (1). The Narrative by RIG

Once upon a time, there were two monkeys eating bananas. Suddenly, a fearing tiger roared **at** them; they were shocked and **ran away**. But, the tiger chased them. They jumped **from** one tree **onto** another trying to save their lives. One of them hung **on** a branch **on** the river bank. The tiger climbed **up** the branch to catch him. When the tiger was approaching him, the monkey jumped **into** the water and swam **across** the river. Finally, he reached the other bank of the river and the tiger could not follow him; he was safe. (95 words)

A careful reading of this narrative reveals that it is nearly error-free (i.e., only one lexical error occurs: **fearing tiger* should be *fearsome tiger*), telling us that RIG is highly proficient in writing. It is reasonable since she is one of the best students in class, and in the first semester of 2009/10 she did a sandwich program in the

⁵ The percentages here are obtained by subtracting 100% with percentages of obligatory use in the narratives: (78%) by HR, (83%) by EW, (86%) by KL and Kr, (88%) by PW, and (89%) by RIG.

United States. Her narrative is 95 words long, containing 9 spatial words (9.5%):

8 used dynamically and obligatorily (89%) and 1 used in phrasal verbs (11%). More clearly, 1 preposition is used statically (i.e., *a branch **on** the river bank*); 1 adverbial particle is used optionally (i.e., *climbed **up** the branch*); and 1 adverbial particle helps make up a phrasal verb (i.e., *ran **away***).

In terms of content, the story is somewhat incomplete, since it does not tell us what happened to one of the two monkeys. However, in terms of organization, the story is quite coherent and effectively uses “cohesive devices”: personal pronouns or anaphoric reference (put in order: *them, they, them, they, their, him, him, he, him, and he*), the definite articles for anaphoric purposes (*the tiger* and *the monkey*), logical connectors (*but, when, and finally*), and a sentence

adverb (*suddenly*). The effective use of these cohesive devices makes the story run smoothly. Moreover, in terms of language, the nice flow of ideas is also due to the right and appropriate use of English tenses—simple past tense of the verbs and adjectives (*were, roared, were [shocked], ran away, chased, jumped, hung, climbed, jumped, swam, reached, could not follow, and was [safe]*) combined nicely with past progressive tense (*there were two monkeys eating bananas* and *was approaching*). With regard to diction and collocation, the words—most of them are of high frequency—are well selected and combined. With respect to mechanics, the rules of spelling, capitalization, and punctuation are thoroughly observed. To sum up, except for the small defect in its content, RIG’s narrative is excellent in terms of organization and language

Table 4. RIG’s Narrative and the Native Speaker Model Compared

	Length of Narrative	Total	%	Spatial Words					
				Dynamic		Obligatory		In Phrasal Verbs	
				Total	%	Total	%	Total	%
RIG’s Narrative: Σ words & %	95	9	9.5	8	89	8	89	1	11
The Model: Σ words & %	85	7	8.2	6	85.7	7	100	2	28.6

To further see the excellent quality of RIG’s narrative, Table 4 compares her narrative with the native speaker model. This table clearly shows that RIG’s narrative and the model, which are almost similar in length (95 words) : (85 words), are very close to each other with respect to the production of **spatial words**: 9.5% : 8.2% in total, 89% : 85.7 % in dynamic use, 89% : 100% in obligatory use, and 11% : 28.6% in making up phrasal verbs.

The meticulous descriptions of RIG’s narrative presented above are meant to serve as strong evidence that her “sensitivity to space” is only a small part of her high

English proficiency. More specifically, her sensitivity to space is part of her outstanding vocabulary skill; and in the present study it shows up as “spatial words” which nicely match those produced by a native speaker in the narrative model. Stylistically, the rich space lexicalization in RIG’s narrative makes her story sound animated and lively, just as the narrative model does.

To show a big contrast, I will present another narrative by ZM, which, among the 21 narratives collected, contains the biggest number of errors and the smallest number of spatial words. The errors are

shown by underline and the spatial words are printed in bold.

Example (2). The Narrative by ZM

The Tiger and the Monkey

One day, there were two monkeys [that] were enjoying banana **under** a big tree. They were talking [to] each other about what they have done at that day. When they were talking [to] each other, suddenly a tiger came and would like to kill them. Hence, they run as fast as they could. They were climbing the big tree near the river. Then, the tiger also followed to climb the tree so that both monkeys were trapped **on** the tree. No one could be done except plunge themselves **to** the river and run. Next, both monkeys were already reaching the other riverside. They felt safe now. Finally, the tiger just walked **from** the tree and went **away**. (120 words)

As can be seen from the underlined words in example (2), ZM's narrative contains 13 **grammatical errors**.⁶ In terms of "linguistic categories", these 13 errors include 2 plural nouns (*monkey* and *banana*), 2 prepositions (*at* [for *on*] and *to* [for *into*]), 4 tenses (*have*, *run* [twice], and *were already reaching*), objective, relative, and negative pronouns—1 each (*themselves*, omission of [*that*]), and *no one* [for *nothing*]), and 2 phrasal verbs (*were talking* [*to*] *each other* [twice]). All these errors belong to "basic grammatical errors", suggesting that ZM's composition is a poor one.

As for the spatial words in ZM's narrative, they are presented in Table 5. There are 5 **spatial words** (4.2%) showing up in the story. (Note that prepositions conveying notions other than "space" do not count.) Out of these 5 spatial words, 3 are used dy-

namically (i.e., *plunge themselves* [*in*]*to the river*, walked **from** *the tree*, and went **away**); and the other 2 are used statically (i.e., **under** *a big tree* and **on** *the tree*).

What is the effect of this minimum space lexicalization on the narrative? Recall that 5 out of the 6 pictures of the story depict "motions". Normally, motions in English are conveyed by means of dynamic spatial words. Since ZM's narrative contains only 3 dynamic spatial words, most of the "motions" in the story (called "path" by Hickman and Robert [2006: 4]) are conveyed by means of the main verbs—just like in Indonesian, where "manner" and "path" are conveyed together by main verbs. In effect, the narrative loses its "native flavor", stylistically. In brief, in this narrative, poor grammar goes together with poor sensitivity to "space". I would assume that there may be positive correlation between EFL learners' writing proficiency and their competence in space lexicalization. However, this is only an assumption, which requires further research to prove it.

Theoretical and Practical Implications of the Findings

According to the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis, "the way we perceive reality is partly determined by the *language* we speak"; the word "language" here implicitly refers to L1. Under the Theoretical Framework, Hickman and Robert (2006: 4) state that a satellite-framed language like English is more sensitive to "space", whereas a verb-framed language like Indonesian is less sensitive to space. When Indonesian speakers learn English as a foreign language, a question curiously arises: do they acquire space sensitivity? The finding of the present research gives a "positive answer" to this question. Space lexicalization of 6.6% in the EFL narratives is not too far away below space lexicalization of 8.2% in the native speaker model, suggesting that Indonesian EFL learners have become sensitive enough to "space" while acquiring English.

⁶ The classification of grammatical errors in terms of "linguistic categories" here refers to Chapter 7, "Errors" of *Language Two*, by Dulay et al. (1982), with some necessary modification by me, the researcher.

Table 5. Spatial Words in ZM's Narrative

Research Subject	Total Number of Words	Total	%	Spatial Words					
				Dynamic		Obligatory		In Phrasal Verbs	
				Total	%	Total	%	Total	%
ZM	120	5	4.2	3	60	5	100	1	20

To explain the acquisition of space sensitivity by Indonesian EFL learners, taking a model from "Universal Grammar & SLA" should be helpful. In the generative literature which focuses on the acquisition of L2 Syntax, the success in acquiring a particular L2 grammatical rule is known as **parameter resetting** (Gass & Selinker 1994: 127-8). Taking this psycholinguistic model, the success in acquiring space sensitivity can thus be seen as **cognitive restructuring**.

That is, while acquiring English, Indonesian EFL learners restructure their linguistic cognition. As a result, when they "use English", they "perceive reality through this foreign language". In other words, when they use English, they also think in English. This psycholinguistic explanation should be a significant contribution to the study of linguistic relativity: the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis turns out to apply not only to L1 but, to some degree, also to L2.

Table 6. Spatial Words in the Narratives by FCH and HDL

Research Subjects	Total Number of Words	Total	%	Spatial Words					
				Dynamic		Obligatory		In Phrasal Verbs	
				Total	%	Total	%	Total	%
FCH	115	6	5.2	3	50	6	100	0	0
HDL	107	11	10.3	8	73	11	100	5	45

The next question following the first is: when Indonesian EFL learners have become more sensitive to space and hence competent in space lexicalization, do they improve their style in writing? To answer this question, I will present two other EFL narratives. They are equally good in terms of organization and language; but they differ a great deal in space lexicalization, as can be seen in Table 6.

As made clear in this table, the two narratives by FCH and HDL do not differ much from each other in terms of length: (115 words) : (107 words). However, they differ considerably from each other in the use of spatial words, making a total of (5.2%) : (10.3%) respectively. Consequently, while the obligatory use of spatial words (100%) is the same in both narratives, there is a big difference in their dynamic use (50%) : (73%) and also in their use in phrasal verbs

(0%) : (45%). The striking difference in space lexicalization in both narratives can be seen in Examples (3) and (4).

Example (3). The Narrative by FCH: Spatial Words

The Tiger and the Monkey

There were two monkeys eat bananas **in** the forest. After they ate bananas, they went home **to** their house. They did not know that a tiger saw them. Then he hunted them until they climbed a tree. He waited them **under** the tree and opened his claws. Suddenly, he tried to climb the tree to catch one monkey. After he tried hard, he could climb the tree and almost catch the monkey. But the monkey moved **to** the end of the branch and jumped **into** the river although he could not swim to save his life. Finally, the

monkey was still alive after he held a branch of tree in the bank of the river. (115 words)

The narrative by FCH contains 3 grammatical errors (shown by underline): *eat* should be ***eating*** (line 1), *the monkey* should be *the **other** monkey* (line 5), and *in the bank* should be ***on the bank*** (last line). In total, 3 errors in a narrative of 115 words are equal to 2.6%; the low percentage of errors tells us that the narrative is a good composition—in terms of grammar. However, in terms of *style*, the narrative sounds *flat*, for the obvious reason that, as mentioned earlier, it lacks the dynamic use of spatial words. In other words, the “path” that should be conveyed separately through spatial words are conveyed together with “manner” through main verbs. With reference to the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, the narrative still carries over an Indonesian way of looking at the reality, and as a result, it *lacks native flavor*. As a comparison, here is the narrative by HDL.

Example (4). The Narrative by HDL: Spatial Words

Two Monkeys and the Tiger

One day, there were two monkeys enjoying their lunch together **on** the savannah **near** a river. Suddenly, a hungry tiger **came out from** the bush and wanted to eat the monkeys. Therefore, the monkeys **ran away** and climbed a tree **near** a river bank. They jumpued **from** branch **to** branch in order to avoid the tiger which also tried to climb. By its strong claws, the tiger succeeded to **go up** the tree. However, the clever monkey jumped **into** the river before being **caught up** by the tiger, while the other **ran away** to the jungle. Lastly, the clever monkey could reach the opposite side of the river. (107 words)

This narrative contains two spelling errors, or probably mistakes: *therfore* should be *therefore* (line 3) and *jumpued* should be *jumped* (line 3) and 1 grammatical error: *succeeded to go up* should be *succeeded **in going up*** (line 5). The two careless errors taken aside, only 1 grammatical error (0.9%) remains. This very small percentage of errors indicates that HDL’s narrative is a very good composition—not only in terms of grammar but also in terms of style. The rich use of spatial words, most of them used dynamically (73%) and many of them used in phrasal verbs (45%), makes the narrative sound lively. With reference to the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, the narrative leaves behind an Indonesian way and picks up an English way of looking at “space” or “motions”. The result of this cognitive restructuring on the part of the writer yields a composition that bears *near-native style*.

The above comparison between the two narratives by FCH and HDL leads to a conclusion that minimum space lexicalization makes an EFL composition sound stylistically flat, whereas maximum space lexicalization makes an EFL composition sound stylistically alive—the latter approaching native writing style. For practical purposes, bringing out the notion of space lexicalization in English should help both EFL teachers and learners become aware of the fact that English behaves in its own way in dealing with “space”. When this awareness of space sensitivity is incorporated into the instructional materials and classroom practices, especially at the advanced level, the expected result will be a more refined writing style. Recall that the term “space lexicalization” means “putting space into words”; and hence it is part of vocabulary skill. Thus, in dealing with space, advanced EFL learners will accomplish near-native style if they are lexically skillful in using spatial words dynamically, optionally, and in combination within phrasal verbs.

CONCLUSION

EFL learners at the advanced level, as represented by the research subjects, are mostly aware of the presence of “space”; and they do space lexicalization in their English compositions. As measured against a native composition model, their space lexicalization is close enough to that in the model. Further examination of space lexicalization in the EFL narratives reveals that the obligatory use of spatial words is relatively high, the dynamic use is moderate, and the use in phrasal verbs is low. These different degrees in using spatial words seem to be related to grammar. The obligatory use, as the term indicates, is required by grammar, i.e., the absence of the spatial word would make the sentence ungrammatical; and therefore it is accorded a high level. On the other hand, the dynamic use and the use in phrasal verbs are not required by grammar, hence putting the former at the moderate level and the latter at the low level. This implies that the research subjects as writers are given freedom in these two domains.

The fact that Indonesian EFL learners in this research are sensitive enough to “space” and know how to lexicalize it in their compositions proves that they have undergone cognitive restructuring while learning English, probably in a subconscious manner. Through years of learning English, they seem to have been simultaneously trained to think in English. This long and tedious process of acquiring a foreign language results, among other things, in cognitive restructuring. In practice, this implies that when they use Indonesian, they think in Indonesian and they do *not see* space. But when they use English, they think in English and they become *perceptive* of space. As has been discussed earlier, this finding has a theoretical implication on the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis: the *language* we use partly determines the way we perceive

ive reality. Obviously, “language” here refers to L1. However, in the case of bilinguals, “language” here—in addition to referring to L1—may also refer to L2, as a result of cognitive restructuring.

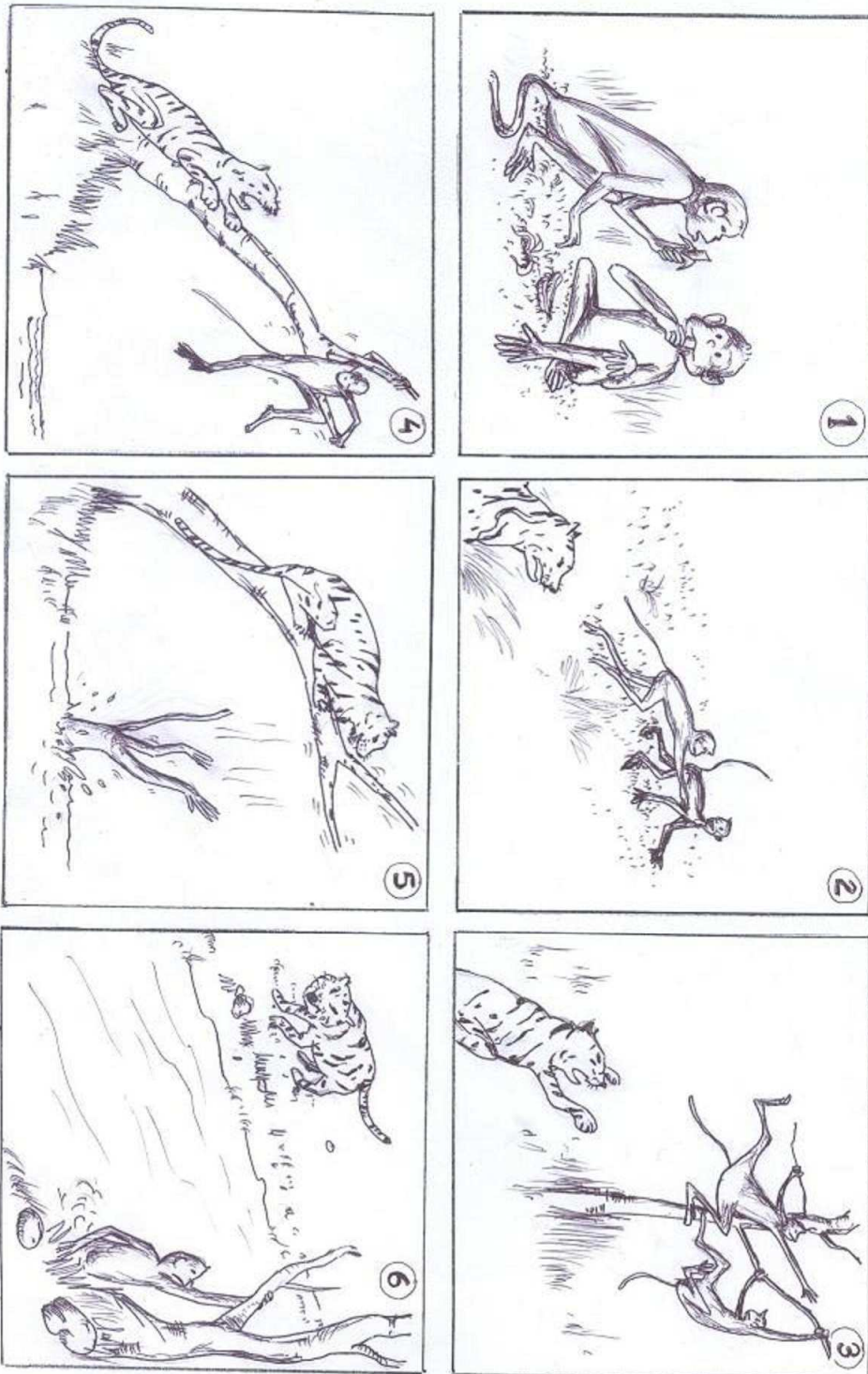
Finally, for TEFL in Indonesian context, the research results yield one important suggestion. It is advisable that EFL teachers and advanced learners become aware of the fact that English is very sensitive to space and accordingly requires much space lexicalization. More importantly, as made clear from the comparison between FCH’s narrative and HDL’s narrative, a refined writing style often depends on dynamic use of spatial words, particularly adverbial particles. Therefore, those who want to accomplish near-native style in writing have to master, among other things, the dynamic as well as the optional use adverbial particles. Notice that everyday utterances such as (a) *Stand **up** please*, (b) *Come on **in***, and (c) *Let them go **away*** tell us that the so-called phrasal verbs rely heavily on adverbial particles. Moreover, EFL teachers and advanced learners should further explore the notion of “space” and look at its implications on formal vs. informal use of English, as illustrated in the contrast between the following pairs: *take : pick up*, *submit : turn in*, *erase : rub out*, *extinguish : put out*, *reduce : cut off*, etc. Briefly, those who wish to write well and communicate fluently must never forget those small but important words in English: adverbial particles.

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Appendix 1. Pictures of “A Tale of Two Monkeys”



Appendix 2. Instructions (for the Research Subjects) Accompanying the Story Pictures.

WRITING A NARRATIVE PARAGRAPH. *Study this series of pictures carefully and then do the following:*

1. Write a one-paragraph narrative by describing the given picture story in about 100 (one hundred) words.
2. You may use a (bilingual and/or monolingual) dictionary if you have difficulty describing particular events in the picture story.
3. Whenever necessary, use sentence connectors to show the flow of the consecutive events in the story.
4. Recall that a “story” happened in the past, and so you must use appropriate forms of past tense in your composition.
5. You are given 24 (twenty four) hours to write the paragraph. So, your composition is due tomorrow at 8.45 a.m.