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Why you cannot go *from* and *från* the same place: A contrastive look at the prepositions *from* and *från*

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Abstract

The purpose of this essay is to describe the way the prepositions *from* and *från* work, both semantically and syntactically. However, the focus is on the translation from *from* into Swedish. The question this essay aims at answering is: “is there any mutual correspondence between English and Swedish use of their respective prepositions”? The question is relevant since a large amount of the literature today claim that prepositions are idiosyncratic and that one would need to study indefatigably in order to fully learn the L2’s use of a preposition.

For this essay I have used the English-Swedish Parallel Corpus (ESPC) as the source of my material and I have used the cognitive linguistic perspective as the theoretical framework. The cognitive perspective sees prepositions as conceptual and therefore it ought to be plausible to find a pattern in the way the prepositions *from* and *från* are translated. The sentences from ESPC are analysed semantically and syntactically; the relevant sentences are commented on in the essay.

According to my material there are some general patterns that *from* conform to. For example, complex English postmodifying prepositional phrases tend to translate into Swedish relative clauses. The greatest restriction syntax had on the preposition was that it often forced the preposition in the translation to a certain preposition of another semantic field. The semantic patterns are more discernible and plenteous. There are three categories that *from* appear in and several subcategories. In most of these categories *from* can be defined and the relevant prepositions in the translations are definable as well. For example, when used in an abstract sense, *from* can be translated into either Swedish *av* or *på*, depending on the context.

The reason why *from* and the Swedish prepositions cannot fully be analysed and defined is because the material from the ESPC is limited and the time spent on the essay has been confined to a relatively short period. Because of this restraint, the essay has been more of an explanatory and summarising nature. However, some results, of which some were given above, have come up and shown that preposition do not appear to be idiosyncratic. Indeed, prepositions appear to conform to certain concepts that can determine their use, both spatially and metaphorically, which depends on the contexts of the original preposition and the translation as well.

1. Introduction

Prepositions are notoriously difficult to master for a second language learner (L2 learner). Specifically, the exact choice of a certain preposition can elude the L2 learner since the different semantic domains might differ between one's mother tongue and one's target language. This yields a seemingly non-systematic usage of prepositions. Indeed, prepositions carry with them several semantic and syntactic restrictions that determine their use in speech and writing, e.g. some prepositions, such as *apart from*, are complex and consist of two prepositions instead of one (Estling Vannestål, 2007, s. 365). Furthermore, some prepositions are occasionally interchangeable (*since* and *from*), some vary in meaning depending on the context in which they appear (*in a shoe*, *in autumn*) and some even help construct verbal phrases that are noncompositional (think *about*). In this sense prepositions might appear idiosyncratic, i.e. that they work in seemingly illogical ways and that there is no reason to their behaviour.

Dirven (1993) claims that the English prepositions idiosyncratically divide the physical space in which English people wish to describe the different relations between different entities. It would therefore not be uncontroversial to claim that Swedish does the same. That is, if we take into account the cognitive perspective of how human beings construe the spatio-physical world we inhabit (Tyler & Evans, 2003, p. 23), then we ought to be able to find a pattern in how English prepositions are used.

Scholars have discussed much about both the semantics and syntax of prepositions in English and have so with great ardour and scrutiny (Lindstromberg, 2010; Zelinsky-Wibbelt et al., 1993 and Rudzka-Ostyn et al., 1988). E.g., with a cognitive approach, Lindstromberg aims to explain the semantics of the majority of the most frequent English prepositions. Zelinsky-Wibbelt's anthology is a collection of articles that examines and discusses the semantics of English, Dutch and German prepositions with different theoretical approaches. Rudzka-Ostyn is similarly a collection of articles discussing cognitive linguistics and its application on different elements of language, e.g. prepositions.

Some authors in *The Semantics of Prepositions* (Zelinsky-Wibbelt, 1993) look at prepositions from a contrastive perspective. They look at bodies of texts written in an original language and their respective translations and analyse the data contrastively. One advantage of contrastive analysis (CA) and corpora is that it usually studies the use of prepositions in authentic texts. However, there have been few corpora-based studies of prepositions in two closely related languages. In this essay, the cognate prepositions English *from* and Swedish

från will be investigated in authentic texts from the English-Swedish Parallel Corpus (ESPC) (see Altenberg, Ajimer & Svensson for a detailed explanation of the ESPC).

The aim of this essay is to investigate the differences and congruencies between the English and the Swedish prepositions *from* and *från*. The following research questions can be formulated:

- Which is the most frequent Swedish translation of English *from* and the most frequent English translation of Swedish *från*?
- Can translation patterns be found that shed light on specific semantic and syntactic restrictions of *from* and *från* respectively? Specifically, are different semantic domains associated with *from* and *från*, respectively?

This essay will argue that prepositions are not idiosyncratic or any more difficult to learn than any other part of a language.

2. Method, Material and Theoretical Background: Parallel Corpus, CA and Cognitive Linguistics

This essay is based on the data collected from the English-Swedish Parallel Corpus (ESPC). The corpus consists of over 1.3 million words, both in English and Swedish, that are taken from 136 original text samples. The text samples consist of both fictional and non-fictional literature and the amount of samples in English and Swedish are similar in both size and genre. The creation of the ESPC was initiated by Professor Karin Ajimer of Gothenburg and Professor Bengt Altenberg of Lund in 1993 as a joint project by the Departments of English at the Universities of Göteborg and Lund. For a thorough description of the ESPC, I refer to Altenberg, Ajimer & Svensson (2001).

A parallel corpus is a useful tool when one wishes to have a large body of texts to work with when conducting a contrastive analysis. The materials for the essay are in the form of a selection of sentences in their original language, both English and Swedish, and their corresponding translated sentences. The sentences have been selected randomly in order to hinder preconceptions or theoretical frameworks to infringe on the data. All of the sentences are taken from fiction literature. The restrictions that fiction texts have are taken into consideration. For example, some sentences discussed below portrait how translational methodologies or dialectal choices affect the translations of the original sentences (see 4.1, sentence (18)).

For this study a contrastive analysis (CA) of the material has been employed. CA is often carried out based on translations. Ebeling and Ebeling (2013, p. 26) point that an advantage with translations is that it has the capability to map the potential varying “degree of correspondences between different items or categories in different languages”. They mention that Johansson (1975) expounds that CA does not only contribute to the development of better second language acquisition, but also to better translation techniques, language typology and that it furthers the understanding of universal structures or phenomena in human language (Ebeling & Ebeling, 2013, p. 28).

A contrastive analysis could further the understanding of the structural and semantical restrictions of prepositions. Via patterns found in the analysis, one could extrapolate grammatical differences that govern the respective languages use of prepositions. Furthermore, a contrastive study could provide information about a language that otherwise would be difficult to recognise in a monolingual study.

Another benefit of the CA method is that it can easily highlight the absence or presence of mutual correspondence (MC) between lexemes, words or structures in two or more languages. MC refer to those parts of a language that appear or do not appear in similar contexts and under similar conditions in different languages (Ebeling & Ebeling, 2013, p.30), e.g. *nonetheless* often corresponds to Swedish *likväl*.

Prepositions are, as mentioned earlier, often claimed to be difficult to master. Moreover, they are often claimed to be highly grammatical and idiomatic and; consequently, work differently in every language, even in historically related languages (Rudzka-Ostyn et al., 1988, p. 301). Prepositions are thus an area especially important for CA to try to categorise and discuss. Particularly important is the underlying semantics and lexico-grammatical patterns associated with different prepositions since they are a part of speech that is a difficult faculty for L2 learners.

Cognitive linguistics forms the theoretical foundation for this study. According to Taylor (Rudzka-Ostyn et al., 1988, p. 299f) many scholars, e.g. James (1980) and Swan (1980), claim that the only way for someone to acquire an understanding of the L2's prepositions is to learn them by heart. According to cognitive linguistic theory, such a claim is untrue.

Cognitive linguistics is a perspective on language structure and meaning. In cognitive grammar all elements of language stem from a concept, to which related and dissimilar elements are connected (Tyler & Evans, 2003, p. 3). Therefore, prepositions, among other

function words, are as equally conceptualised in the human cognition as other more apparent lexical items, such as nouns or adjectives. Furthermore, Tyler and Evans (2003, p. 23) explain that “spatio-physical properties of the world of humanly perceived experience are fundamental to human cognition”. This entails that the basic understanding of gravity and other laws of physics is part of our understanding of the world (See section 3.3 for a description of the development of prepositions)

However, this spatial domain later extends into other, more abstract domains, such as time, cause and reason (Dirven, 1993, p- 76). These extensions are largely due to that the image schema of prepositions is transported into another context. E.g. *from* in a spatial domain conveys a movement away from a source, whereas in the temporal context it conveys a meaning of movement away from a certain point in time. With this perspective, understanding of the concepts of prepositions is alleviated and it becomes easier to understand their ability to appear in a multitude of contexts.

3. Background: Categorisation and Conceptualisation of the Prepositions *from* and *från*.

In this section I will discuss the definition of the two prepositions *from* and *från* from an etymological, syntactical and semantical perspective. The choice to explore the prepositions’ etymology might seem irrelevant. However, I would claim that it could be fruitful to understand the prepositions’ history in order to more fully understand their present states in their respective language.

3.1 The Etymology of *from* and *från*.

Swedish *från* and English *from* both stem from the Proto-Germanic preposition **fra* or **fram*, which became *frá* and *fram* respectively (“FROM”). The proto-form meant both *forward* and *from*. Although Swedish *från* and English *from* are cognate words, they are not used in the exact same way in both languages. Their semantics and syntax have diverged through the years since. This divergence is evident both in their description in grammar books and in the material for this study.

3.2 The Syntax of *from* and *från*.

This section will deal with the syntax of the Swedish preposition *från* and the English preposition *from*. The references for the definitions of the respective syntax are the major

grammars *Svenska Akademiens grammatik 2: Ord* by Teleman et al. (1999) and *A Grammar of Contemporary English* by Quirk et al. (1972).

For the Swedish language, the most prevalent use of *från* is as the head of a prepositional phrase (PP). The complement can be different kinds of structures; often a nominal phrase, finite dependent clause (in this essay simply called “dependent clause”) or a to-infinitive.

- Nominal phrase: “Har ubåtshotet *mot Sverige* verkligen ökat?” (Has the submarine menace *to Sweden* really increased?)
- Dependent clause: “vi litade *på att du skulle vara lämplig för uppdraget*” (We trusted you to be appropriate *for the assignment*)
- Full infinitive: “Vi har funderat *på att låta dig få uppdraget*” (We have been thinking *about giving you the assignment*).

In fact, Teleman et al., continues to explain that when a to-infinitive is the complement, the infinitive marker “att” needs to stay and cannot be removed. Lastly, *från* belongs to a closed set of prepositions where another PP or an adverb phrase can be the complement. The complement then point to a point either forward or back in time. *Från* can especially construe a point in time from where the noun it modifies originates, (1)

(1)

- a) den där tidningen är *från i fjol*
- b) that newspaper is *from last year*

The preposition *from* takes a noun phrase (NP) or a clause in nominal function as its complement. The most prototypical clauses in nominal function are *-ing*-clauses and *wh*-clauses (Quirk et al., 1972, p. 323).

- NP: “the man *from mars*”
- *-ing*-clause: “he understood the issue *from watching a lot of movies*”

From occur in PPs functioning as adverbials or postmodifiers.

- NP: “the man *from mars*”
- Adverbial: “He walked *from the cinema*”
- Postmodifier for a noun: “the Vikings *from eastern Scandinavia* had attacked”

Quirk et al. agrees with the former authors’ definition of the preposition *from*. However, they point out that *from* points to the movement from the source, while *away from* indicates the position of the moving object (1972, p. 323).

3.3 The Semantics of *from* and *från*

Cognitive linguists claim that prepositions are fundamentally spatial in their meaning (Langacker, 1987, p.167). However, over time prepositions have extended their use to incorporate temporal meaning and abstract meaning. Such a development is not unexpected; since human beings exist in a spatio-physical world, we firstly recognise the spatial elements. The linguistic units that humans use to express spatial relations then transfer to the temporal domain (Radden & Dirven, 2007, p. 326). The abstract domain is the last domain to appear for the development of the preposition, which is reflected in the human understanding of our world. Infants first acquire the understanding of the spatio-physical world, then of the space-time that exists, and; lastly, they construe more abstract relations (Tyler & Evans, 2003, p. 28f).

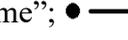
It is difficult to discuss prepositions without referring to the units that the prepositions “affect”, e.g. the noun that can be in the preposition’s complement or the location towards which a subject wishes to go. The thing one wishes to locate is called the *Trajector* (TR), whereas the reference point is called the *Landmark* (LM) (Radden & Dirven, 2007, p. 305). There are different suggestions for what to call these different elements; however, these are the two prevalent terms used by a large group of linguists (cf. Radden & Dirven, 2007, Taylor, 1995, Zelinsky-Wibbelt et al., 1993 and Langacker 1987). In the sentence “the cat jumped from the table”, the cat is the TR and the table is the LM and the preposition *from* mediates the relation between these two elements. In this sentence, *from* conveys that the cat has initiated a movement away from the LM.

A preposition can often mediate different relations depending on the context it appears in, i.e. it can be ambiguous. This contextual meaning is apparent in not only prepositions but also nouns and verb (Saeed, 2009, p. 60), e.g. *run* means different things in “I go for a run every morning” and “the ball-player hit a home run”. Other prepositions mediate different

relations; “the cat jumped onto the table” signifies something else than what the cat in the previous paragraph did (when the cat jumped from the table).

As indicated above, cognitive linguistic theories have a good description of how humans understand prepositions. The manner in which people construe these spatial relations between TRs and LMs is called image schema, which are conceptual constructions that portray the way humans categorise movement and stagnancy (Saeed, 2009, p. 366). For example, *to* is seen as , and *in* as .

Several scholars have discussed the meaning of *from* and still debate on the exact meaning of the preposition. The definitions of *from* by various cognitive linguists have been consulted and are discussed below. For this essay *from* is considered in three domain: *spatial*, *temporal* and *abstract*. The spatial domain has four subcategories: *dynamic*, *static*, *initial residence* and *initial position*. Likewise, the abstract domain is divided into several categories. For *from*, these are *agent*, *cause*, *constituent/ingredient*, *dispossession*, *evidence/logical grounds* and *possession*. *Från* appear in the same senses except for cause and agent, and in a way constituent/ingredient (see 4.2.3 below for more discussion).

Firstly, the spatial domain needs to be addressed. Lindstromberg formulates his prototypical interpretation of *from* as a preposition “used to describe a path in terms of its origin” (2010, p. 43). He explains that the origin can be a point in a space, a surface, different objects and bodies or places. Furthermore, he claims that the preposition *from* is associated with the visual schematic and mental motor image often recognised as “the point from where a subject came”;  (2010, p. 11). The arrow in the schema points towards the LM and the dot represents the TR. He points out that the meaning of *from* does not entail whether the TR travels from an interior object or not, and is therefore more ambiguous than *out off* or *from inside*. This means that it is the TR, or rather the path, that is important rather than the LM in relation to the TR.

Confer the above description of *from* with Radden and Dirven’s explanation of spatial prepositions. According to them, prepositions of the aforementioned domain appear in locative, directional and extensile typologies, or relations. However, since *from* does not express a locative relation this relation will not be discussed in this essay (cf. Radden & Dirven, 2007, p. 307f for more discussion).

In the directional relation the actual direction of the TR is specified in relation to the LM. According to Radden and Dirven our perception of motion events in the spatial world is categorised into the image schema SOURCE-PATH-GOAL and; consequently, the direction can

be relative to one of the three. Even though goal is typically the most related LM, *from* relates to the source, as mentioned by Lindstromberg, and is questioned with the phrase: *where from?*

An extent is different from direction in that the significant relation is not “between a trajectory and a landmark, but a relation between a thing and its measured property” (Radden & Dirven, 2007, p. 307). In other words, this relation relates the different dimensions that a TR can have in space, e.g. width, length, distance, etc. For *from* this is realised in a dynamic relation and a static relation disguised as dynamic, see (2) and (3), respectively

(2)

We went *from* Buena Vista (*up*) to Cotton wood

(3)

The road goes *from* Buana vista (*up*) to Cottonwood

(4)

I am *from* Sweden

(5)

He collected his car *from* the lot

These two latter relations are called static and dynamic, respectively, by Taylor (1995, p. 110). However, the static sense according to Taylor is simply not property in dimensions, but also the connection between the TR and in the case of *from* its source or origin. Therefore, in the sentences (4) and (5) *from* would be seen as static. Savchenko (2013, p. 16) further distinguishes static initial residence/source from initial position, where the former example would be residence/source and the latter position.

As mentioned earlier, spatial domain is the original domain and from where other meanings stem. Dirven (Zelinsky-Wibbelt et al., 1988, p. 84) claims that *from* has three basic purposes. The purposes are to denote a point in space relative to a goal; to refer in time space to a point from where the TR has departed, and to denote a departure from a point to another in causation. The temporal use is simply about time; therefore, whenever an element of time is realised as the TR and/or the LM *from* is used temporally.

The abstract sense is the most diverse domain (Lindstromberg, 2010, p. 45f; 207). Below is a useful list of different abstract senses *from* can have that Lindstromberg have assembled (2010, p. 246-254).

- Agent: the most prevalent use of *from* in an agentive sense is the passive use, where *from* often can be switched with *by*, e.g. “I was treated very well *from* the police”.
- Cause: the sense is often described as indirect since *from* denotes a cause that is often indirectly related to the consequence, e.g. “die *from* TB”.
- Constituent/ingredient: *from* in this sense construes the movement from the LM as a great change in dimensionality or constitution, etc., e.g. “cheese is made *from* milk”.
- Dispossession: the LM is often a person who is bereft of something, e.g. “nobody could take her dignity *from* her”.
- Evidence/logical grounds: “portrays evidence as the starting point in a path and the conclusion as the endpoint”, e.g. “judging *from* the look of her face, she had had a rough day”.
- Possession: also called integrative since what *from* denotes in this sense is something that is part of or belongs to something else, e.g. “this piece is *from* the statue”.

There are few studies on *från* with a cognitive perspective. However, the Swedish grammar book *Svenska Akademiens grammatik 2: Ord* (SAG) offer an insight. Swedish *från* can express dispossession and temporality (Teleman et al., 1999, p. 712). No other abstract relation is mentioned. Otherwise, *från* is described in the SAG (1999, p. 701) as the spatial place of origin of the movement. Its prototypical usage does not indicate from what type of place the movement originates. E.g. the sentences (6) and (7) below do not grammatically mark the difference between moving out of an interior or exterior source.

(6)

- Johan flyttade kastrullen *från plattan*
- John moved the stewpan *away from the hot plate*

(7)

- Från huset mittemot* kom ett svartklätt sällskap
- A party dressed in black arrived *from the house across*

However, the authors point out that an interior place of origin can be highlighted with the preposition *ut* (Teleman et al., 1999, p. 702), see (8) above. Moreover, *ur* is only used when the goal of the path is outside, as Teleman et al. call it, the B-referent (*B-referenten*) and not specified as in (9). Otherwise the preposition (ut) *från* serves as the more accepted preposition. For example confer (10) with (11)

(8)

- a) Anders bar *ut böckerna från garaget*
(Lit.) ... *out books_{def} from garage_{def}*
- b) Anders carried *the books out of the garage*

(9)

- a) De gick *ut ur kyrkan bort mot bilarna*
(Lit.) ... *out from within church_{def} away towards cars_{def}*
- b) They walked *out of the church towards the cars*

(10)

- a) ?De gick *ut ur kyrkan till bilarna ett stycke längre bort*
(Lit.) ... *out from within church_{def} to...*
- b) They walked *out of the church to the cars parked somewhat further away*

(11)

- a) De gick *ut från kyrkan till bilarna ett stycke längre bort*
(Lit.) ... *out from church_{def} to...*
- b) The walked *out of the church to the cars parked somewhat further away*

4. Results and Discussion

In the material *from/från* can function as the head of a PP functioning as an adverbial; as the head of a PP functioning as a postmodifier in an NP or AdjP and can be ambiguous. Examples (12)-(14) illustrate the three functions, respectively. The italics in all the examples below are mine; in order to highlight the relevant phrases.

(12)

Early evening noises *from outside* — small-town noises (AH1)

(13)

And this is a memorandum *from our medical director* (AH1)

(14)

a) He collected his car *from the lot* (AT1)

b) Han hämtade bilen *på parkeringsplatsen* (AT1T)

(Lit.) ... *on parkinglot_{def}*

In (14) the PP is ambiguous. It can either be a postmodifier or an adverbial and the two different structures offer two different interpretations of the sentence. As a postmodifier, the car is more defined which means that the relevant car is a car selected from a group, all probably owned by the subject. The adverbial signals that the phrase *his car* is all that is needed to identify the object, probably because the subject owns only one.

Overall, the original English sentences contain the preposition *from* more often than the Swedish sentences contained *från*. The raw frequencies are 1417 sentences with *from*, and 871 sentences with *från*. The frequencies per 1000 words are then 4.1 and 2.8, respectively. The more frequent use of *from* than *från* is further strengthened by the respective translations. The mutual correspondence between original English *from* and the translated Swedish *från* was 73%, i.e. out of 1417 examples of *from* there were 1029 examples of *från*. Conversely, the correspondence between original Swedish *från* and the translated English *from* was 79%.

What this could entail is that English *from* is a more prolific preposition in different contexts compared to Swedish *från*, since it appears more often in the original texts and enters the translations more frequently than *från* does in the translation of *from*. Moreover, that *from* is more often used possibly entails that *from* has a wider range of meanings than *från* or that *from* is more preferred in certain contexts.

4.1 The Syntax

First of all, it should be noted that in this study the syntactic analysis did not yield enough conclusive evidence to make a generalising claim. However, some tentative patterns are discernible. The two most prevalent roles of the preposition *from* in the English original texts from ESPC are as a PP functioning as a postmodifier in a NP and as the head of a PP functioning as an adverbial. The heads of these phrases are both simple and complex, i.e. either a single preposition, in this case *from*, or two units, in this case as an adverb and

preposition: *away from*. Example (15) illustrates a simple preposition and (16) gives an example of a complex one.

(15)

- a) In a way (he thought, turning off the faucet), she was dead, that young, vivid Sarah *from their first enthusiastic apartment on Cold Spring Lane*. (AT1)
- b) På sätt och vis, tänkte han och stängde av kranen, på sätt och vis var hon död, den där unga, livliga Sarah *som entusiastiskt drog in i deras första bostad på Cold Spring Lane*. (AT1T)
(Lit.) ... *who enthused pulled into their first house on Cold Spring Lane*

(16)

- a) She explained that the handle of the pan should be pointed *away from the front of the stove*. (ST1)
- b) Hon förklarade att handtaget på kastrullen skulle vara vänt *inåt spisen*. (ST1T)
(Lit.) ... *towards the interior of stove_{def}*

Sentence (15) illustrates a pattern where English complex postmodifying PPs translate into Swedish relative clauses. It is evident from these examples that long postmodifying PPs are less optimal in Swedish. A similar trend is noted for Norwegian in the forthcoming article *The way of the world: the collocational framework “the N1 of the N2” and its Norwegian correspondences*, by Hasselgård. Hasselgård discusses a certain type of English postmodifying phrase compared to Norwegian (p. 18f). She claims that the Norwegian language prefers verbal clauses over complex prepositional phrases. Since Swedish and Norwegian are two very closely related languages it is plausible to claim that Swedish tends to prefer such clausal structures as well. Indeed, a look at the sampled sentences provides us with claim for such a characteristic, as illustrated in (15) above and (17) and (18) below.

(17)

- a) [F]riendly little circular eyes peering at you *from behind those less-than-state-of-the-art spectacles*. (JB1)
- b) [D]e rara små klotögonen som plirar fram bakom *brillorna som knappast är à la mode*. (JB1T)

(Lit.) ... *glasses that hardly is à la mode*

(18)

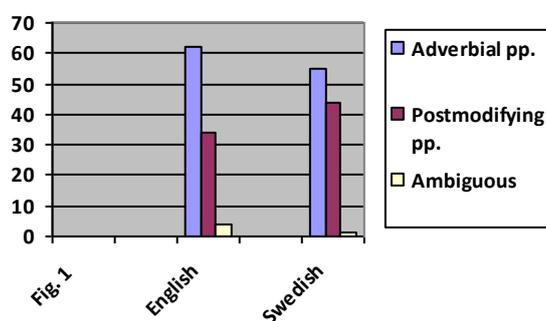
a) Mrs Annette Adams, *still flaccid from too many unpleasant surprises on a Monday morning*, wore a cream shirt, a charcoal grey skirt and a string of knobbly pearls. (DF1)

b) Mrs Annette Adams, *som fortfarande var i upplösningstillstånd efter alltför många överraskningar en måndagsmorgon*, var klädd i gräddfärgad blus, mörkgrå kjol och ett halsband med skrovliga pärlor. (DF1T)

(Lit.) ... *who still was in state of decomposition after too many surprises one Monday morning...*

It can be noted that the postmodifying PP and the postmodifying relative clause have roughly the same meaning. In other words, the relative clause specifies the head of the phrase, as the PP does. However, in the Swedish translations of the English complex postmodifying PPs there is a unifying semantic concept: movement, or change of some kind. (17) points towards the movement from where the peering takes place; and in (15) the former Sarah has metaphorically died and transformed, “moved”, into another personality.

With *from* as its head, the PP can also appear as an adverbial in the clause. These adverbials can denote temporality (19), causality, manner, instrument and other different roles (20). In the material, the adverbial function is the more prevalent function compared to the postmodifying PP; see figure 1.



(19)

Would it all be cleared up and decided by the time I saw him again, two or three weeks *from now*? (BR1)

(20)

Flora's heels were downtrodden: it was bad for her young legs; they bowed outward *from the knee*. (FW1)

There might be various reasons why an English PP is turned into a Swedish relative clause. Syntactic structures can affect the semantic concepts (see 3.3) that are available for an utterance. Observed above was that complex English postmodifying phrases tend to translate into Swedish relative clauses and in such conditions a preposition is often restricted by the verb or the noun or can even be omitted depending on the construction. The most prevalent translation changes that affected the semantics of the translations that were found in the material was English postmodifying phrases that were turned into Swedish relative clauses.

(21)

- a) He ate an apple and a little box of raisins *from his bag* (AT1)
- b) Han åt ett äpple och en liten kartong russin *som han hade i väskan* (AT1T)
(Lit.) ... *that he had in bag_{def}*

(22)

- a) Hit men inte längre förmådde skenet och röken *från Stockholms innerstad att tränga fram*. (KOB1)
(Lit.) ... and smoke_{def} *from Stockholm's innercity to press forwards*
- b) In the far distance to the left, the pitch-black sky faded into a bluish haze, marking the limits of the glow and smoke generated *by central Stockholm*. (KOB1T)

In (21), the choice of a relative clause with a state verb as predicate excludes the preposition *från* as a viable option. Instead the preposition which denotes a static interior for the TR *i* is selected. This is not unsurprising; since the predicate is static there cannot be movement and since the LM is a container, “bag”, the preposition needs to denote an enclosure, which *i* does. In sentence (22b) the translation renders the agent in sentence, “skenet och röken”, into a passive product of “central Stockholm”, which necessitates a change of preposition. There is not enough conclusive evidence to make the change from active into passive a defined rule, cf. (22). However, the important thing to note is that the

relation between the TR and the LM can depend on the syntax of the sentence, e.g. choice of verb and voice can affect the preposition.

Similar to the change from complex postmodifier to relative clause, PPs that function as adverbials in English are often turned into a Swedish dependent clause, cf. (23) and (24).

(23)

a) (There are secret and exciting games, though, with the sergeant's daughter, Elise, in the attic or the back garden, when they come home *from tennis*.)

(BR1)

b) (Det finns emellertid hemliga och spännande lekar att ägna sig åt, med Elise, polisens dotter, på vinden eller i trädgården på baksidan, när de kommer hem *efter att ha spelat tennis*.) (BR1T)

(Lit.) ... *after to have played tennis*

(24)

a) [Put] down a stone in each corner to stop it *from blowing away*. (RDO1)

b) [Lade] en sten på varje hörn *så att det inte blåste bort*. (RDO1T)

(Lit.) ... *so that it not blew away*

Another related situation also affects the choice of preposition. These situations arise when, for example, the verb in Swedish does not have direction embedded in its meaning, whereas the corresponding English verb does (Talmy, 1985, p. 62-63). A verb can convey both the path and the manner of the motion or just one of these meaning components. Different languages deal with this in different ways. E.g. Spanish “La botella *pació* por el tubo” (the bottle floated through the pipe) literally means “the bottle moved-through through the pipe” (Talmy, 1985, p. 69). Germanic languages prefer to express [motion+manner] whereas Romance languages prefer [motion+path]. Illustrated in the Spanish sentence, *pació* literally means moved-through. However, since English verbs prefer manner *pació* is translated into *floated* and the path of the verb is expressed via *through*. Since English is a Germanic language, one would expect that there would not be many [motion+path] verbs present in the material; however, because of the high influence of French and Romance languages in general English has a large amount of these types of verbs, cf. (25) and (26).

(25)

a) Nu fick man inte *komma bort från stigen*. (AL1)
(Lit.) Now permitted one not *come away from path_{def}*.

b) They must not *leave the path now*. (AL1T)

(26)

a) Jag hade inte velat segla som ett sätt *att fly från en outhärdlig vardag*
(BL1)

(Lit.) ... to sail as a way *to flee from an unbearable everyday life*.

b) I had not wanted to sail away as a way *to escape a tedious everyday existence*. (BL1T)

In (25b) the verb *leave* apparently entails the motion of the verb, i.e. away from something, which the Swedish verb *komma* (*come*) does not and is thus dependent on the preposition *från* to convey the direction. Likewise, in (26b) *escape* does not need the help of a particle to denote the LM, whereas *fly* in many cases does (Svensk ordbok, 2009, p. 784). Consequently, the preposition is not needed in the English translations.

From the material a minor point can be said about original *från*. In sentence (27b) an English –ing form is used to represent the Swedish original structure.

(27)

a) Han hade minst 15 yrkesverksamma år kvar och han *skulle från och med nu bli en mycket bra yrkesman*. (JG1)

(Lit.) ...and he *would from and with now* become a ...

b) He had at least fifteen professional years left, and *starting today* he would be a very good professional. (JG1T)

The –ing form does not have a corresponding form in Swedish. In terms of its semantics, the Swedish *presens particip* (present participle) closest resembles the non-finite present participle since it has the ability to denote a progressive or durative action (Teleman et al., 1999, p. 588). Nevertheless, syntactically, the English present participle behaves differently to the Swedish *presens particip*.

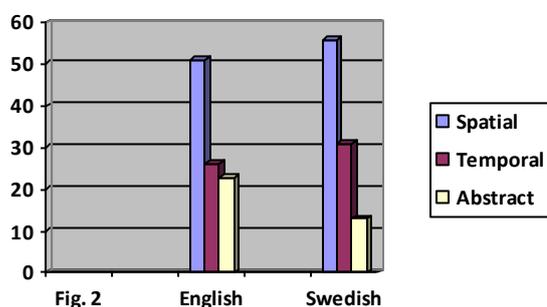
In (27) the action begins at the time of the speech and denotes a fixed point in a time line with the timex (a unit that makes reference to time, i.e. *tomorrow* or *spring*) *nu*; however the phrase *från och med nu* denotes that the action not only starts immediately, but shall

continue for an indeterminable time. This is basically what the progressive is used for (Quirk et al., 1972, p. 94). In such instances prepositions could be expected to disappear.

4.2 The Semantics

Both *from* and *från* have a spatial, temporal and abstract meaning. Spatial is the domain most often intended when using *from* and *från*, as one could expect since the spatial domain is the original meaning. Figure 2 illustrates the percentage distribution between the three domains for Swedish *från* and English *from* in the original language. One can clearly note that the use of *from* and *från* in the three domains is quite evenly mirrored in English and Swedish.

However, there is a clear difference between the two languages in the way they use the respective prepositions. Although English uses the preposition more often and with a broader definition, Swedish often prefers to use a specific preposition and make the TR-LM relation more explicit. This specificity is mostly contained to the metaphorical, i.e. temporal and abstract use.



For the collected data, five major patterns could be distinguished regarding the translation of *from*, which will form the basis of the semantic analysis. For the spatial domain two patterns were distinguished. The prepositions *ur* and *i* were chosen for the majority of the divergent translations. They deal with different kinds of sources for the TR. Likewise for the abstract domain two patterns were distinguished. The prepositions *på* and *av* were the prevalent translations. They deal with cognitive reasoning, e.g. logic and cause. However, they appeared as well in some other relations such as agent and even static spatial. All temporal uses of *from* were translated into *sedan* except in some translations where the structure of the original sentence had been rearranged for the translation and in one instance

where the adverb *senare* was used. In other words the preposition *från* can in Swedish appear in more ambiguous sentences or it can, and probably will, be substituted for a less equivocal preposition, e.g. (28).

(28)

a) (pouring himself a glass of iced water *from the fridge*, hanging keys on one of the hooks he put up when we first moved here, asking us what sort of day we 've had) (NG1)

b) (håller upp ett glas isvatten åt sig *ur kylan*, hänger upp nycklar på en av de krokarna han satte upp när vi var nyinflyttade, frågar oss hur vi har haft det under dagen) (NG1T)

(Lit.) ... to self *from within fridge_{def}*...

In (28) "*ur kylan*" could be rewritten as "*från kylan*". However, a difference would appear. "[U]r kylan" states that the trajectory spans from the interior of the fridge to a space X, probably adjoining the exterior of the fridge, whereas "*från kylan*" only confirms the original station of the TR. This is related to what Lindstromberg says about functional roles (cf. schematic meaning in 3.3). Functional roles are assigned to different prepositions, depending on context, by the speakers of a certain language. For example, *behind* has the functional role to conceal an object or a subject, whereas *from* does not have such a functional role (2010, p. 12). However, since our world knowledge allows us to understand the meaning of *fridge*, and thus the possible and probable scenarios in which it can occur we construe that *from* in (28) entails *from the interior*.

Observe that the aforementioned corresponding Swedish prepositions are the ones that conformed to a clear and definable category. The translations from English *from* into Swedish prepositions will form the basis for this analysis. That which can be said will be said about translations from *från*. However, first it is fruitful to examine some translations that are more difficult to explain.

(29)

a) He collected his car *from the lot* (AT1)

b) Han hämtade bilen *på parkeringsplatsen* (AT1T)

(Lit.) ... *on parkinglot_{def}*

In (29) *from* is used in a dynamic spatial sense and more importantly the sentence conveys a movement away from the LM. Consequently, one interpretation of the sentence could be that the subject collects the car and walks away. However, *from* could also indicate the initial position of the car. In such a scenario the movement is not the focus and the origin of the TR is more important. This could explain why the translator chose the preposition *på* for the Swedish sentence, which is a preposition that describes the location of the TR, namely that the TR rests on top of a two-dimensional surface. Therefore, *på* cannot occur with movement away from an LM, although movement can occur on the same place. Compare “gå *på* stället” (walk *in* the place) with “gå *från* stället” (walk *from* the place).

However, from a brief overview of Korp, the corpus of Språkbanken at Göteborgs Universitet, [hämta+på] seems to be as acceptable as [hämta+från]¹. Thus, the interpretation of *from* in (29) above as spatial dynamic is not so foreign for a Swede. The choice; apparently, seems to rely on the translator’s dialect or methodology when translating, since *från* can convey the same relations in such a sentence as (29), i.e. dynamic spatial and initial location. In any case, the choice of *på* instead of *från* seems odd, since *på* does not convey the same notion as *from* does in this sentence, regardless of which relation *from* is trying to convey.

4.2.1 The Spatial Domain

The spatial use of *from* was mostly confined to dynamic spatial, which conveys a movement within the space we occupy away from location X. This movement is often expressed in Swedish with the preposition *från*.

(30)

- a) He rolls away *from* *Marjorie* (DL1)
- b) Han rullar *från* *Marjorie* (DL1T)
(Lit.) ... *from* *Marjorie*

¹ <http://goo.gl/AWG315>

However, in certain structural and/or semantic situations, *from* does not correspond to *från*. When *from* designates a location X which is located within an enclosed space, Swedish often opt for *ur*. This preposition have a clear definition: the TR is moving out of an interior LM.

(31)

- a) [...] bleeding *from the mouth*. (BO1)
 - b) [...] med blodet rinnande *ur munnen*. (BO1T)
- (Lit.) ... *from within mouth_{def}*

(32)

- a) Your son Wilfred has spent six years as a grub in this school and we are still waiting for him to emerge *from the chrysalis*. (RD1)
 - b) Er son Wilfred har nu tillbringat sex år av sitt liv som larv i den här skolan och vi väntar fortfarande på att han ska krypa *ur sin kokong*. (RD1T)
- (Lit.) ... *crawl from within his own cocoon*

Both (31) and (32) illustrate clearly that the source from which the TR comes is viewed as a hollow enclosure. Notice that in both examples *ur* acts as the head of PP functioning as an adverbial. A closer look at all occurrences of *ur*; however, does confirm that *ur* also appears in postmodifiers. Nevertheless, it is notable that 87% of the PPs that contain *ur* functions as the head of an adverbial.

(33)

- a) I went and fetched it *from the bedroom* (DF1)
 - b) Jag gick och hämtade den *i mitt sovrum* (DF1T)
- (Lit.) ... *in my bedroom*

Conversely, *from* need not always focus on the TR but also on the LM. In (33) the LM needs to have an interior source, like *ur* does. However, the relation does not convey a movement along a path from one point to another, only that the TR was at a certain position before and at another at the moment. This is the same as initial position. In (33) *from* is used to signal that the TRs original place was inside the bedroom; although, it is not there anymore. *I* is chosen in the Swedish translation. According to Teleman et al. (1999, p. 687f) Swedish *i* is used when a three-dimensional LM envelopes the TR partially or wholly. Furthermore, the

TR needs to be static. Since the English original sentence conveys a relation of former, or initial, position, the preposition *i* seems adequate and even specifies that it is between the bedroom walls that the thing did reside.

From is often used in a spatial sense, and often the preposition *från* is chosen as its translation equivalent. However, for the divergent translations, i.e. where *från* is not chosen, only *ur* and *i* have definable structures and clear contexts in which they appear. The remaining translated sentences are translated in different ways. Some sentences change focus, e.g. (34) where a complex noun phrase is translated into a clause. In other translations a preposition is not necessary, e.g. (35) where several of the elements in the English phrases are affixed to two words due to the word-formation rules in the Swedish language.

(34)

- a) [...] the contamination probably *from an infected food handler*. (AH1)
- b) [...] en smittad person hade antagligen handskats med maten.(AH1T)
(Lit.) a contaminated person had probably handled with food_{def}

(35)

- a) Early evening noises *from outside* — small-town noises (AH1)
- b) Eftermiddagsljud -småstadsljud (AH1T)
(Lit.) afternoon-noises – small-town-noises

The other senses in the spatial domain: initial residence, initial position and static spatial, are used less frequently. For initial residence, this makes sense since it is only used when someone speaks about one's country of origin. In my material, initial position is not often used even though it is sometimes described as the prototypical use of *from* (cf. Rudzka-Ostyn, 1988, p. 280).

English on the other hand utilises a similar preposition to *ur* in similar ways as in (36); although the translations do not choose this option as frequent as the Swedish translations chooses *ur*. Indeed, (36) is the only English translated sentence where *från* was translated into *out of*.

Furthermore, only one preposition in the English translations conformed to a definable pattern. *Off* covers a type of dynamic movement where the path quickly changes direction. Whereas *from* in all spatial instances describe a movement away from the LM, all of them

have an implicit straight path. *Off* denotes a course for the TR that more or less diverges from the straight path.

(36)

- a) Svaret kom plötsligt *från himlen*. (SCO1)
(Lit.) ... *from heaven*_{def}.
- b) The answer came suddenly *out of the blue*. (SCO1T)

(37)

- a) Hej faster, sa Franklin och hakade ner den stora yxan *från axeln*. (ARP1)
(Lit.) ... unhooked down that big axe_{def} *from shoulder*_{def}.
- b) "Hi, Auntie," said Franklin, shrugging the big axe *off his shoulder*.
(ARP1T)

(38)

- a) Han svängde till höger *från huvudvägen* men tog av nästan genast igen.
(SW1)
(Lit.) He swung to right *from main-road*_{def} ...
- b) He swung *off the main road* to the right, but then turned again almost immediately. (SW1T)

4.2.2 The Temporal Domain

The temporal domain is not part of the abstract domain for the reason that time is a quantitative phenomenon in the English and Swedish languages. Like spatial it is still measurable, but similarly to the abstract it is a metaphorical use of the spatial *from*. In most of the instances in the divergent translations where *from* were used in a temporal sense, the Swedish preposition of time *sedan* is used. However, *från* is used in the Swedish original sentences in temporal clauses as well. According to my findings, the difference between *från* and *sedan* seems to be that *sedan* cannot appear as the head of postmodifying phrases, as illustrated in (28) and (29). Moreover, that Teleman et al. (1999) do not seem to mention whether or not *sedan* can appear in postmodifying phrases strengthens the claim. Especially since they do expound that *sedan* has the ability to act as the head of a PP functioning as an adverbial (p. 709f).

(39)

a) But would I still be so sure a year *from now*? (BR1)

b) Men skulle jag vara lika säker ett år *från nu*?

(Lit.) ... one year *from now*?

(40)

a) She had changed her clothes *from last night*. (AH1)

b) Hon hade klätt om *sedan kvällen innan*. (AH1T)

(Lit.) ... *since night_{def} before*

From is translated into *från* in (39) since *från* has the ability to express duration (Teleman et al., p. 709f). In (40), the structure is rearranged from a postmodifying phrase into an adverbial, since *sedan* only functions within an adverbial.

Both prepositions *from* and *från* act in similar ways when they are used in the temporal sense. However, it is interesting to note that of the 11 sentences that contained *från* in a temporal sense, only 27% were used as postmodifying PPs. Perchance it is an inclination of how *från* in its temporal domain works, namely that it prefers adverbials, but is in the process of working its way into the realm of postmodifiers. English likewise showed similar tendencies; however, 35% of *from*'s temporal sentences were postmodifying PPs.

4.2.3 The Abstract Domain

From has a wide field of abstract usages. These usages are more consistently translated into other Swedish prepositions than *från* compared to the spatial use of *from*. Based on my material, *from* can appear in a number of abstract senses that *från* cannot.

In the material, cause, agent and constituent/ingredient were the three abstract senses that English *from* had and Swedish *från* did not. However, in Korp one can note another sense of *från* for Swedish. A quick look at the word *förvandla*² (transform) shows that *från* can convey an abstract change from one state to another, i.e. a type of constituent. Observe that *från* is constricted to the structure 'från N1 till N2' (from N1 to N2). This means that it is probably an abstraction of the static spatial use of *från*, e.g. "från skolan till huset" (from the school the house), and less syntactically free than English *from*. Furthermore, *from* appears

² <http://goo.gl/zWkDIH>

more often than *från* in the senses that they share. Out of the English sentences 23% were abstract, whereas 13% of the Swedish sentences were abstract.

When *from* is used in the causal relation, *av* is often the choice in the Swedish translations. According to SAG (Teleman et al., 1999, p. 712) *av* is a prolific preposition since it can convey four different abstract relations. Three of these relations are evident in my material. Firstly, in the subcategory “cause and reason” the most prototypical choice of preposition is *av*, (41). Since *från* lacked this relation in my material one can then assume that *från* does not have this ability. Secondly, *av* can convey the agent of the clause, (42). Furthermore, *from* could also translate into *av* when it was in phrases that denoted some kind of logical connection, (43).

(41)

a) Or that Vicky learned early, *from Sebastian's bad example*, the virtues of adaptability. (MD1)

b) Eller att Vicky *av Sebastians avskräckande exempel* tidigt lärde sig anpassbarhetens dygd. (MD1T)

(Lit.) Or that Vicky *of Sebastian's deterrent example*...

(42)

a) I'm your family now, and you'll get more love *from me* than you've ever had in your life before. (AH1)

b) Jag är din familj nu, och du kommer att få mer kärlek *av mig* än du har fått i hela ditt tidigare liv (AH1T)

(Lit.) ... more love *of me* than...

(43)

a) *From the plates and the place settings*, it was apparent someone else had sat at the head and someone else at the foot (RR1)

b) *Av tallrikarna och dukningen* att döma var det tydligt att ytterligare någon suttit vid ena kortänden och någon vid den andra (RR1T)

(Lit.) ... *Of plates_{def} and table-laying_{def}* to judge...

In both (41) and (42), it is evident that *from* operates as two different relations and yet the sense of removal from an original point can still be perceived. In (41) “Sebastian’s bad

example” is the LM from which the lesson that Vicky learnt comes from. In (42) once again a point in of origin is stressed; “me” is the LM and the love that emanates from “me” is the TR. Sentence (43) construes the logical bond between the evidence and the conclusion as a physical path with the LM “the plates and the place settings” as the origin and the TR as the conclusion. Swedish *från*; however, cannot be construed in such a way and therefore *av* is the corresponding preposition, since it has the related sense of exterior encumbrance and point of origin. Furthermore, common for all senses of *av* is that the TR is a consequence of the LM. The conclusion is a consequence of the fact that the plates and the place settings were arranged in a certain way. Vicky learnt something as a consequence of the LM, in (41). This is probably why *från* is not possible in these senses.

The other preposition that abstract *from* consistently translated into was *på*. *På* appears in scenarios where *from* intends constituent (44), possession (45) or logic (46).

(44)

a) They'd soothe his chest with balsam brewed *from cloves and juniper and peppermint*. (JC1)

b) De masserade honom och gjorde en balsam *på kryddnejlikor, enbär och pepparmynta* som lindrade retningarna i bröstet. (JC1T)

(Lit.) ... balsam *on cloves, juniper berries and peppermint that...*

(45)

a) I borrow them *from the library*. (RD1)

b) Jag lånar dem *på biblioteket*. (RD1T)

(Lit.) ... *on library_{def}*

(46)

a) I couldn't tell *from his expression* whether he could or not. (DF1)

b) Jag kunde inte avgöra *på hans ansiktsuttryck* om han kunde det eller ej.

(DF1T)

(Lit.) ... decide *on his facialexpression* if...

In (44b) *på* does not convey the exact same relation between the TR and the LM as (44a) does. Whereas *from* denotes a great change from the ingredients that constitute the balsam to the finished product, *på* only states that the balsam metaphorically rests on top of the said

ingredients. This would not be too unlikely, since *from* can convey a movement on a metaphorical path as well: “an increase *from* 12 euros” (Lindstromberg, 2010, p. 45).

However, the choice of *på* for the possessive *from* can appear slightly odd. What (45) conveys is that the library is the possessor and the LM, and the borrowed items are the TR. The books, as the borrowed items presumably are, are seen as part of the library and have been removed along a path away from it. *På* expresses an immovable state, and here the focus is not on the path away, but on the point in space where the action was performed. However, in the material, possessive *från* appears both in original language (47) and in translation (48).

(47)

- a. Inte nu, väste hon och det lät som fräsandet *från en äsping*. (KOB1)
(Lit.) ... it sounded as hiss_{def} *from a viper*.
- b. "Not now," she whispered, and it sounded just like the hiss *of a viper*.
(KOB1T)

(48)

- a. "The best coral comes *from the Mediterranean*." (DF1)
- b. "Den bästa korallen kommer *från Medelhavet*."
(Lit.) ... *from Mediterranean*_{def}

Neither does the syntax seem to be the difference between *på* and *från*. Both can appear as adverbials and as postmodifiers. Once again, there appears to be a question of focus, as in (29). If the focus is on the dimensional relation between the TR and the LM, then *från* works perfectly. However, if the focus is on the point where the action is performed then *på* is chosen.

The English translations of the preposition *från* do not conform to any pattern, except for one: *of*, which is used in translations when *från* is used in a possessive phrase. Both *from* and *of* can express possession in English. Lindstromberg expounds the distinction and calls the possessive *from* integrative. *From* conveys that the TR has travelled a physical space from the LM to which it belongs, whereas *of* expresses a relation where the TR is an integral part of the LM (2010, p. 207). For example, cf. the difference between “this is a piece *from* the statue” with “this is a piece *of* the statue”. Apparently, Swedish *från* does not make this distinction and cover both the possessive and the integrative relation. In (47) *från* is translated into *of* since the “hiss” is interpreted as an integral part of the viper.

5. Conclusion

Often people have claimed that prepositions are difficult to master due to their idiosyncrasy or “idiomaticity”. From the analyses of this essay, I would claim that such a statement is false, and that difficulties are due to the language-specific schematic of prepositions. Two languages need not use prepositions in the same manner, even though the two relevant languages may be related. This leads to the conclusion that the acquisition of prepositions is furthered if one learns the internal structure and meaning of the L2 preposition, instead of solely relying on the use of a corresponding L1 preposition.

From the data collected from the ESPC, the following can be noted about the syntax and semantics of *from* and *från*. The most frequent effects the syntax of Swedish have on the translations were on English complex postmodifying PPs and complex adverbials. They turned into relative clauses and dependent clauses, respectively. Another observation was that the original verb in the translation could have clear effects on the choice of preposition in the translation. The verb could describe an event or state which might have to be expressed in another way in the target language; or the verb may convey a path which makes the preposition redundant. Furthermore, overall the syntactic preferences did indirectly force the semantic field of the sentence to change in the translations, due to the difference between English and Swedish syntax. For example, the English PPs functioning as postmodifiers were translated into Swedish relative clauses and therefore the type of prepositions available changed in the translation.

Another pattern in the material was that English uses the preposition *from* more prolifically than Swedish uses the cognate preposition *från*. This indicates that *from* covers a wider semantic field than *från*. Furthermore, in places where it would be possible with Swedish *från*, the translations still prefer a more explicit preposition. For example, if the context makes it clear that a TR moves out of an enclosure, *ur* is often the choice of translation for English *from*; however, the converse is not necessarily true. In other words, *out of* is not as frequent as translation of *från* as *ur* is for *from*.

The contrastive analysis method has a great deal to offer for L2 teaching. In this vein, this study has shed some light on the similarities and differences between the preposition *from* and *från*. Furthermore this information could be implemented into the relevant dictionaries and grammars.

Indeed, I would claim that it would be necessary to revise the dictionaries so that they become more pedagogical. For example, in Nordstedt's *Engelsk-Svenska Ordbok – Professionell*, the entries for the prepositions *from* and *från* are far from exemplary. There is some structure in the form of categories such as “cause” or “space”. However, there is neither an offer of further explanation of what the general meanings of the prepositions are nor what the different categories entail, which I would claim is essential for a dictionary. Indeed, I would claim that the entries are a bit confusing since they seldom offer an explanation of how to use the translations nor do the entries give examples of when they can be used. Furthermore, *sedan* is not even claimed to be a translation for *from* in its temporal sense. In the material *sedan* appeared as a translation of temporal *from* in 78% of the cases.

There are some limitations to the current study. Firstly, due to the limited number of sampled sentences, this study has been of an exploratory nature; and although this essay has been fruitful, it has only been so to a certain degree. In order to acquire a more comprehensive understanding of the definitions of *from* and *från*, it is crucial that a larger study is conducted for more conclusive data. In a study with a larger and more varied material, some extra time would be needed for in-depth analysis. Lastly, it is appropriate that I reiterate some criticism: the literature is not really in agreement on whether it is the movement from LM or the initial position at LM that is the focus with the preposition *from*. There is thus still much to discuss regarding the finer points of prepositions in use; how they react to different structures and exactly into what kind of semantic fields that they can be categorised.

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