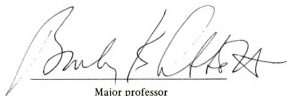This is to certify that the

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ENGLISH PREPOSITIONAL FORMS: A SYSTEMATIC DESCRIPTION
FOR USE IN ADULT SECOND-LANGUAGE INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

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Carol Ann Becka

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ENGLISH PREPOSITIONAL FORMS: A SYSTEMATIC DESCRIPTION
FOR USE IN ADULT SECOND-LANGUAGE INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

By

Carol Ann Becka

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ABSTRACT

ENGLISH PREPOSITIONAL FORMS: A SYSTEMATIC DESCRIPTION
FOR USE IN ADULT SECOND-LANGUAGE INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

By

Carol Ann Becka

Errors made by adult ESL students and student requests for informa-
tion indicate that English prepositional forms are a problem area, and
indicate a need for an effective presentation of information.

Descriptions that are available are evaluated for usefulness on
the basis of criteria defined in terms of practical classroom needs:
accuracy, completeness, comprehensibility, range, generality, simplic-
ity and definitional presentation.

The proposed alternative description is based on the assumption
that English prepositional forms are systematic and meaningful, and
that spatial relationships are primary, while all other relationships
are derived. Dimensionality of the object serves as a basis for cate-
gorization even when the object is not overtly expressed, as does the
location or motion of the non-object member of the relationship. The
relationships that are expressed by prepositional forms are equivalence,
non-equivalence, superiority, inferiority, approximate equivalence, ap-
proaching equivalence, withdrawing from equivalence, disjunction, con-
junction, reciprocity and no relationship.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express my gratitude to the members of my guidance committee, Julia S. Falk and Paul E. Munsell, and Barbara Abbott, the chairman of my committee.

Most of all, I would like to express my gratitude to my students, for their patience with my slow and tedious process of learning about English, and for their comments and corrections, which have often steered me toward the most productive pathways.
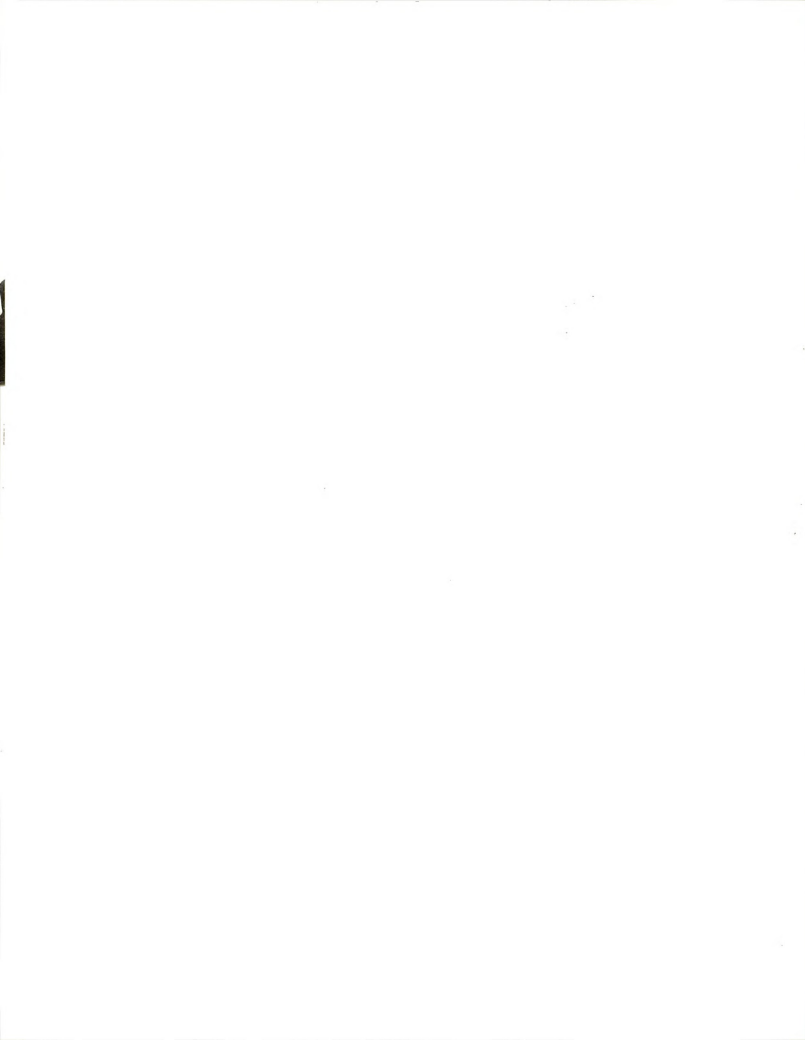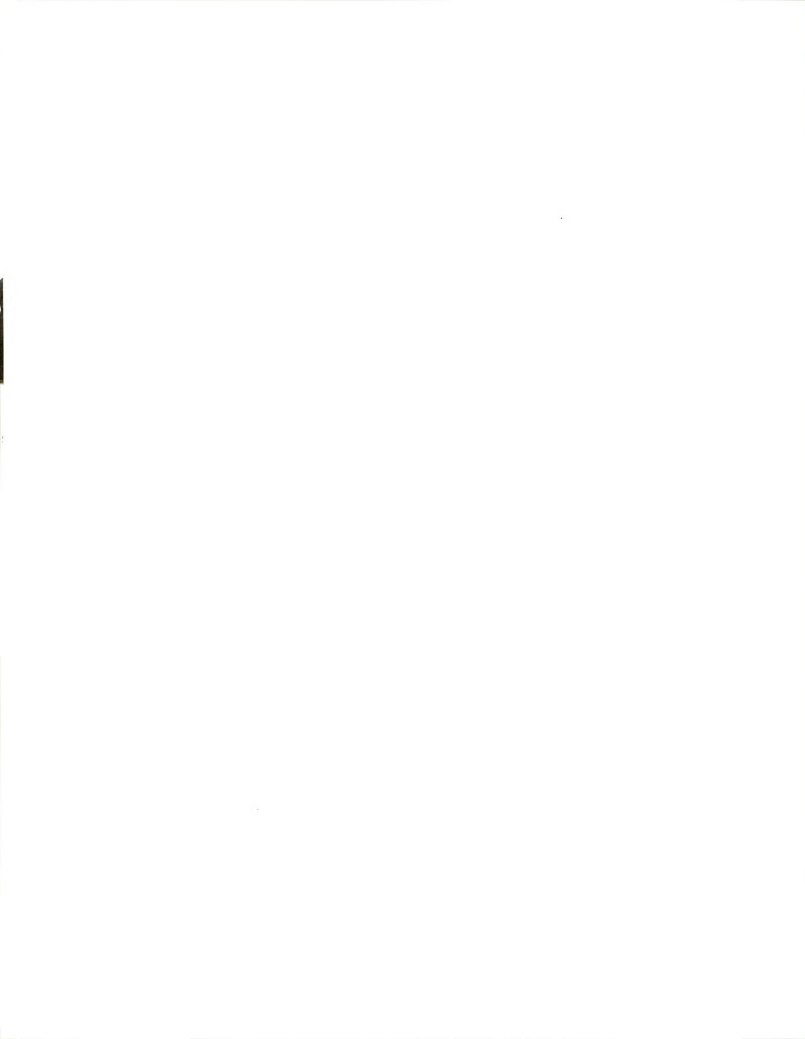
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INTRODUCTION

A PRACTICAL CLASSROOM PROBLEM: ENGLISH PREPOSITIONAL FORMS

"Flawed" production from adult second-language students gives the teacher an indication of the knowledge or lack of knowledge of the students. The following items were collected from adult students of English as a second language, having been produced by those students in free production exercises that were part of normal class activities, and in free written production for testing purposes:

> "When my radio announced there would not be school at MSU, all of my friends <u>on</u> the hall went crazy on the floor."
>
> "They pushed their chair <u>off</u> the door."
>
> "I can't help you tomorrow, but I can do something <u>to</u> you."
>
> "Today acupuncture needles are made <u>to</u> steel."
>
> "All of the students have been used to writing <u>in</u> 30 minutes <u>during</u> all term long."

Somewhat elementary English prepositional forms are being misused in the sentences above: <u>on</u>, <u>off</u>, <u>to</u>, <u>in</u> and <u>during</u>. This type of problem in choosing the appropriate prepositional form seems to be quite common, and is a type of error that is made by otherwise-quite-proficient language learners.

When students are asked to identify the areas of English grammar in which they feel they are weak, one of the most common answers is in prepositions. Many "why" questions are asked by students about prepositional forms, and the students seldom distinguish between "true"

prepositions and adverbial usages of prepositional forms.

To a teacher, this is an indication that the students do not know how to use English prepositions and prepositional forms. If students show signs of not knowing certain forms, and they request information about those forms, it is reasonable for the teacher to assume that the information, in whatever form, that the students have had access to, has not been adequate or has not been appropriate, or both, for the students' learning needs. In order to serve these needs, the teacher must locate materials of some type that are both adequate and appropriate, but before embarking on a search for such materials, the teacher must have some idea of what to look for.

The first step to be taken is the identification of criteria on the basis of which any available or formulated description should be evaluated. With these criteria, the adequacy and appropriateness of a description, explanation or set of rules can be measured, and a descision can be made to accept or to reject the description, explanation or set of rules, for classroom use. Existing presentations of information about English prepositions and prepositional forms can be examined on the basis of these criteria, and, where they fail to meet the requirements of the criteria, new presentations can be formulated, and these new presentations can be evaluated on the basis of the same criteria. The criteria serve the prupose of predicting the likelihood that a specific description would be effective for classroom use, but the ultimate test must be empirical, so the final preparatory stage should be a determination of how the selected material--whether existent or formulated for use--could be tested empirically.

In the establishment of criteria, prior to the finding or fomula-
ting of a presentation, one significant problem is that of determining
what form it is that is being investigated. "Preposition," as a gram-
matical term, generally refers to "a word which relates a substantive,
its object, to some other word in the sentence" (Roberts, 1945: 222,
see also Pei and Gaynor, 1967: 174; Stageberg, 1965: 155; Francis, 1958:
306; Fries, 1940: 110). A "preposition" is defined as an element that
precedes a noun or a noun substitute. Most grammarians, however, admit
at one point or another that "preposition-like" words appear in other
syntactic arrangements in the English language. Students are generally
less precise, and group all words that appear to be the same or similar
into a single category, which they generally label "prepositions." To
most students, the up in "He climbed up a tree," "They blew the building
up," "I climbed up," in adjectives like "an uplifting experience," in
verbs like "He upended the box," or in nouns like "upstairs" (such as in
"The upstairs has recently been painted"), is really a single item, and
when they attempt to refer to this item, they generally use the term
"preposition." The information that is being sought, to be of value to
students, must be related somehow to the students' definition based on
appearance, rather than the grammarians' definition based on syntax.*

In this presentation, selection criteria are presented (Chapter 1),
available presentations are evaluated on the basis of these criteria
(Chapter 2), an alternative presentation is proposed (Chapter 3), and
this alternative proposal is evaluated on the basis of the selected
criteria (Chapter 4).

*In this paper, "preposition" will be used to refer to all items that
are the same in form as a word that can be used as a preposition,
whether or not those items fit the syntactic definition of "preposition."

CHAPTER I
PRACTICAL CRITERIA FOR SELECTING PREPOSITIONAL MATERIALS

The goal of second-language instruction is to provide information to the students that has the potential for guiding them to the formation of acceptable utterances to express their ideas, reactions, feelings, etc. in a wide range of real-life situations. This is not only the goal of second-language instruction, but, quite naturally, it usually also functions as the standard by which students, laymen and professionals assess the quality of a language teacher, as well as the quality of instructional methods and materials (Newmark, 1966: 216).

The only true test of the adequacy and appropriateness of particular instructional materials is the test of empirical research, but the time, expense and labor involved in carrying out valid empirical research precludes the possibility of this form of materials evaluation for this particular study. Prior to empirical research, however, must come the process of selection of the instructional materials to be used in the research, and if appropriate materials cannot be found, materials must be formulated specifically for research purposes.

Assuming the above-mentioned goal to be the goal of all second-language instruction, the materials that are selected, on any topic, should be materials that appear to have the potential for fulfilling this purpose.

It would seem reasonable to demand of any presentation of information that the information be both accurate and complete, inasmuch as possible.

Accuracy

No single theoretical school of linguistics, no independent linguist, and not even the entire field of linguistics, has arrived at a definitive description of language phenomena (Sadock, 1977: 239). Accuracy cannot be measured against an objective standard, but must be measured in relative terms. If the information presented in a grammatical description, explanation or set of rules does not misrepresent the rules of a language, then that description, explanation or set of rules must be considered accurate. If following the guidelines presented in that grammatical description, explanation or set of rules would produce obviously ungrammatical utterance, then that description, explanation or set of rules must be considered inaccurate.

The degree to which accuracy of grammatical information presentation affects the success or failure of language-learning activity is unknown. Indeed, a cursory inspection of French and Spanish texts in use in some high schools and colleges in the United States can provide examples of inaccurate grammatical information, but, at the same time, the students who have used these texts may be quite competent in accurately producing the structures for which they have been given inaccurate information. It would seem, however, that student would be best served by textbooks that are at least accurate in the most general rules, and in describing the most common structures of a language. Therefore, if a text contains inaccuracies in the presentation of

general or common information, it will be considered inaccurate; if it contains inaccuracies in details of usage, or in uncommonly-used structures, its inaccuracy will be overlooked. For example, if a textbook on English prepositional usage states that all indirect object forms in English must be preceded by the preposition to, that text will be evaluated as inaccurate; if the text classes some questionable forms as prepositions, this fact will not be considered as significant enough to detract from the fundamental accuracy of the grammatical information presentation.

Completeness

There does not appear to be any agreement among grammarians as to the exact number of words and phrases that can be considered "prepositions" in the English language. Most grammarians list at least twenty such items, and the most common range is between twenty-five and thirty "simple" prepositions, with an indeterminate and fluctuating number of "phrasal" or "complex" prepositions. Since there is no single standard of quantity that can be used to determine the completeness of a description of the forms and usage of English prepositions, the apparent consensus that there are more than twenty simple prepositional forms will be used as the standard of measurement. If a grammatical presentation does not include at least twenty items in its "prepositonal" category, that presentation will be evaluated as being incomplete. Moreover, if the description does not include both types of forms--simple or one-word prepositional elements and complex or phrasal prepositional elements--it will also be judged to be incomplete. In all other cases, the grammatical description will be considered complete.

In addition to the accuracy and completeness that one would expect to find as characteristics of any type of presentation of any type of information, in order to attain the goal that was previously stated, second-language instructional materials would also need to possess the characteristics of comprehensibility and range.

Comprehensibility

"Comprehensibility" refers to the intellectual accessibility of the presentation of grammatical information. One standard that could be used to measure the comprehensibility of a particular presentation is the accessibility of that presentation to the language teacher. If the teacher cannot understand the description, it is unlikely--although not impossible--that the students would be able to understand the teacher's presentation of the ill-comprehended material. Extremely intricate symbol systems are likely to detract from comprehensibility, especially if the symbols are little-known, or are intricate enough to require substantial effort before they can be mastered and before the information they summarize can be accessible. Commonly-used symbols, or grammatical terms that are likely to be known by students would not detract from the comprhensibility of a description. As a somewhat broad criterion, then, the teacher in search of appropriate materials could dismiss materials that he or she does not understand as materials that would not be useful or appropriate for his or her classroom use, and could dismiss materials that contain intricate or little-known symbol systems as materials that are unlikely to be useful for class-room presentation.

While this is not the ultimate test of comprehensibility, it is a test that can be applied in the selection of materials.
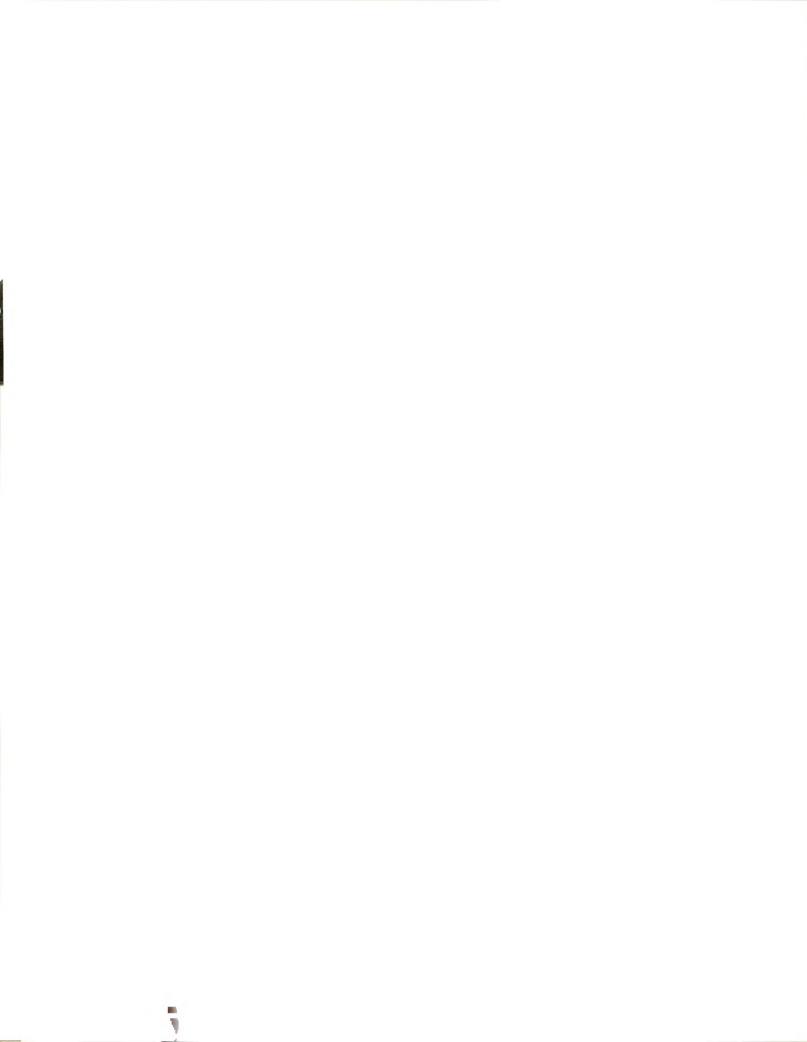
Range

The "range" of the presentation of grammatical information would
be the diversity of the types of real-life situations to which the pre-
sented structures would be appropriate. For example, in certain obscene
English expressions, the "-ing" form of a verb can function adverbially,
although "-ing" adverbial structures are uncommon in English in general.
If the presentation of grammatical information were to emphasize such
little-used structures in preference to emphasizing the most commonly
used structures, then that presentation should be judged to be inappro-
priate for classroom use.

In terms of prepositional forms and usage, if the grammatical pre-
sentation emphasize forms such as amid and notwithstanding, rather than
concentrating on the more common forms such as in, on, at, etc., then
that presentation could be judged to be inadequate and inappropriate
for classroom use. In addition, if the presentation concerned itself
with "phrasal" or complex prepositional forms, but did not concern it-
self with the simple, one-word prepositional forms, then that presenta-
tion could be considered unsatisfactory for classroom use. These
standards for acceptance or rejection of a grammatical presentation
can be justified on the grounds that the simple, one-word prepositional
forms appear to occur in all levels of formality in English, whereas
prepositional forms such as notwithstanding, and some phrasal preposi-
tional forms, such as in lieu of, do not have as wide a potential
distribution within the language (although some of the phrasal forms
are probably as commonly-used as the simple one-word forms). The
learning of forms that are acceptable in a wide range of styles or
of varieities is more likely to result in the language learner's

ability to produce utterances that are acceptable in a wide range of real-life situations than is the learning of forms with limited potential distribution.

For prepositional material presentations, in addition to possessing the characteristics of accuracy, completeness, comprehensibility and range, it would seem to be desirable that they also possess the characteristics of generality and simplicity,* and that they be definitional in nature.

Generality

Language learners do not appear to be extremely sensitive to the grammatical function of preposition-like forms, and often refer to any element that looks like a preposition as a "preposition"; in keeping with this generalization based on appearance that is commonly made by students of English, it would seem reasonable for grammatical information presentations to categorize forms that appear to be identical into a single category. This does not preclude later and supplementary sub-categorization into distinctive grammatical function groupings. It would, however, provide explicit, formal acceptance of the identity-of-appearance observation and generalization made by the students.

Even in cases where the forms appear to differ in meaning, classing them all in a single category would force the grammatical presentation into maximum generalization, at least in the initial phases of the presentation. Subdivisions, whether they be of grammatical function or of "shades of meaning," would still be possible. For example, the form

*The term "generality" is used here to refer to the categorization of forms into one class on the basis of identity of appearance; the term "simplicity" is used here to refer to the categorization of forms into one class on the basis of similarity in the subject-object relationship that they express. This is a departure from normal linguistic use of these terms.

"up" that appears in the following sample sentences, would have to be classed under a single heading, or in a single category:

> They were walking _up_ the hill.
> He carried the box _up_ the stairs.
> She stood and called _up_ the stairs.
> They blew _up_ the balloons.
> The wind blew _up_ the chimney.
> The rebels blew _up_ the building.

Since the students do appear to consider these forms to be identical, and do appear to class them in a single category, a presentation of grammatical information that (at least) began by classing them in a single category would parallel the activity observed in the students.

A presentation that does not categorize forms that are identical in appearance in the same category, but that only differentiates among such forms, would not possess the desired generality. It is not essential that the description also provide a "meaning" for the forms that are classed in a single category, but it would be desirable for it to do so.

Simplicity

The characteristic of "simplicity" in a presentation of information about English prepositional forms can be considered the categorization of all forms that serve a similar (or identical) semantic function into a single class or category. Again, this would not preclude further subdivision. It would merely provide formal, explicit acceptance of the similarity or identity of "meaning". For example, _at_, _on_ and _in_ all are used to express the idea of the object of the preposition being located in the same place as some other object or an

action. Because of the similarity in the type of relationship expressed by these three different prepositions, they should all be classified in a single category. They may subsequently be sub-classified into different categories.

A presentation that does not classify forms with similar or identical meanings in the same category, but that only differentiates between or among such forms, would not possess the desired simplicity.

Definitional Presentation

In requiring that the presentation of information about English prepositional forms be definitional, one need only demand that there be provided for the students some type of guide that will allow them to understand, and hopefully to learn, the concept that English-speaking people associate with a particular form. Any format that provides this type of information would be acceptable: charts, pictures, diagrams, definitions, or explanations. There is no evidence to indicate that one format for presenting semantic information is superior to, or more effective than, any other.

This criterion is different from generality and simplicity in that generality and simplicity dictate strategy to be followed in the organization or classification of prepositional forms (which may implicitly provide definitional information), but the criterion of providing a definitional presentation demands that "meaning" be presented in some overt manner such as charts, diagrams or explanations.

A presentation that merely lists the prepositions and prepositional forms, and gives no guidelines as to how one form can be distinguished from the others, or guidelines that would help the student to identify

the type of relationship represented by the form, would not possess the desired characteristic of being definitional in nature.

Summary and Discussion of Criteria

In the search for instructional materials on English prepositional forms, presentations that possess the characteristics described above can be judged to possess, as a consequence, the potential for being both adequate and appropriate for classroom use; presentations that do not possess these characteristics can be considered unlikely to possess the potential for being adequate and appropriate for classroom use.

A presentation can be considered accurate if the most general information on prepositional usage, when followed as guidelines, would not result in the production of obviously ungrammatical utterances. A presentation can be considered complete if it includes at least twenty simple prepositional forms, and if it presents information on both simple and complex prepositional forms. A presentation can be considered comprehensible if it is likely to be understood by the teacher who is in search of instructional materials, and if it does not depend on intricate and little-known symbol systems. A presentation can be considered to be adequate in terms of range if it includes the most-commonly-used simple prepositional forms, and if it contains information about the most common forms of both simple and complex or "phrasal" prepositions. A presentation can be evaluated as possessing the characteristic of generality if it categorizes all forms that are identical in appearance in the same category, and can be evaluated as possessing the characteristic of simplicity if it categorizes all forms that have the same semantic function in a single category or

group. A presentation can be considered to be definitional in nature
if it supplies some form of information to guide students toward the
concept that English-speaking people generally associate with a par-
ticular prepositional form.

Possessing these characteristics is the minimum that is required
of a presentation of grammatical information concerning English prepo-
sitions, if that presentation is to be expected to provide information
to adult second-language learners that would have the potential for
guiding them to the formation of acceptable utterances to express their
ideas, reactions, feelings, etc., in a wide range of real-life situa-
tions. Providing information with this type of potential is the goal
of second-language instruction.

Other characteristics might be considered desirable, and for a
particular teacher, or a particular group of students, other charac-
teristics might be considered necessary. For example, students them-
selves have expressed a desire to be given "explicit formulations of
generalization" about the grammar of the languages that they study
(Newmark, 1966: 218). To ensure cooperation from the students who
want such generalizations, these explicit formulations should probably
be included in the information that is presented to the students. It
is unproven whether explicit formulations would, in fact, be of signifi-
cant utility in the learning process, but, in a classroom, ensuring
cooperation from the students is an important enough goal to have an
effect on the content and format of instructional materials. For this
investigation and evaluation of the content and format of English pre-
positional forms and usage, criteria such as this are considered ir-
relevant, in that they are more strongly dependent on the learning

situation than on the nature of the information or the interaction between learning situation and information.

CHAPTER II

APPLICATION OF THE SELECTED CRITERIA TO AVAILABLE PRESENTATIONS

Of the available presentations of grammatical information about English prepositional forms, the most obvious category to investigate first is the category of presentations that have been formulated specifically for use in foreign-language classrooms.

Pedagogical Presentations

Since these presentations were designed for essentially the same purpose as the purpose expressed by this investigator, one would expect them to be the most likely to possess those characteristics that were deemed essential for instructional materials.

General Presentations of English Grammatical Information

All of the works investigated are general grammars of the English language, intended for use by students of English as a second language:

Crowell. 1964. Index to Modern English.
Krohn. 1971. English Sentence Structure.
Danielson & Hayden. 1975. Using English Your Second Language.
Praninskas. 1975. Rapid Review of English Grammar.
Ebbitt & Ebbitt. 1977. Index to English.
Klammer. 1977. Sentence Sense: A Basic Grammar.

For the sake of convenience, these books are referred to by the name of the author or authors, with full bibliographic references appearing in the bibliography. These particular books are discussed because they represent a range of different styles of information presentation.

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Crowell

In no case does Crowell present statements that would lead to the formation of obviously ungrammatical utterances, and, in addition, he deals with a large number of simple and complex prepositional forms. Crowell does not make use of any special symbols, other than abbreviations for commonly-used grammatical terminology, except for the symbol "S" which he uses to make a "separable two-word verb" (p. 281), but he defines and gives examples of what he means by this symbol. Crowell presents a list of 39 simple prepositional forms (p. 280), and an extensive listing of phrasal prepositions (pp. 281-303).

Crowell does categorize forms that are apparently identical into a single category, and even provides an explicit statement that he is doing so:

> Grammatically these words are not always prepositions; they are sometimes used as adverbs, conjunctions, or other parts of speech. Some grammarians call them particles or function words. Often they are part of a two-word verb... For the purposes of this list, however, they will be classified as prepositions even though in many of these expressions they do not have the function of prepositions. (p. 280)

Besides providing a listing of the prepositional forms, Crowell provides three different types of concept-form correlation information: a "definition" of the prepositional form itself, a definition of the concepts that are commonly used with the prepositional form, and a definition of the concepts conveyed by a phrase in which a preposition appears. For example, Crowell indicates that the prepositional form as can be used to mean "in the role or capacity of" or "with the function of" (p. 54); he states that when expressions of location indicate the birthplace or nationality of a person, they are preceded by the

preposition _from_ (p. 157); and he provides the definition "decide" for the phrases "come to a conclusion" and "arrive at a conclusion" (p. 285).

While Crowell's presentation of information about English prepositional forms adequately fulfills the requirements for most of the selected criteria, it fails to fulfill the requirements for the characteristic of simplicity. Rather than classifying forms that serve a similar semantic function into a single category (although all forms do appear under a single heading, because Crowell's presentation is arranged alphabetically), Crowell emphasizes differences rather than similarities in meaning. For example, he classes the sample sentence "My secretary has gone to the post office for some stamps" under the heading of _for_ to represent purpose or reason, but he classes the sample sentence "The boat sailed for Europe last Saturday" under the heading of _for_ as an indicator of destination (p. 156). These two concepts seem, intuitively, to have a strong relationship with each other, but Crowell presents no unifying theme or concept to be associated with the prepositional form _for_, and totally neglects any consideration of _for_ in the expression "for the benefit of" as being at all related to either or both of the concepts conveyed by the two sample sentences shown above.

Krohn

The prepositional information presented by Krohn fails to fulfill the requirements of accuracy and completeness. The basis of the presentation is a set of two sample sentences that are compared in word order. "Prepositions" are implicitly defined as those forms that look the same as particles, but that precede a sentence object, and "particles" are implicitly defined as those forms that look the same as

prepositions but that follow the sentence object, if that sentence object is a pronoun or a short noun phrase, and that precede a longer sentence object. Ten items are either explicitly or implicitly identified as prepositions (<u>about</u>, <u>at</u>, <u>for</u>, <u>from</u>, <u>in</u>, <u>into</u>, <u>of</u>, <u>on</u>, <u>to</u> and <u>with</u>) (p. 121, 213), and nine items are identified as "particles" (<u>away</u>, <u>back</u>, <u>down</u>, <u>in</u>, <u>off</u>, <u>on</u>, <u>out</u>, <u>over</u> and <u>up</u>) (p. 121). The forms that are identified as prepositions are the forms that occur in the position identified by "preposition" in the following structure: "verb + preposition + object"; the forms that are identified as particles are the forms that would occur in the position identified as "particle" in the following structure: "verb + object + particle" (p. 121).*

Following the guidelines of this information presentation, one could produce the ungrammatical utterances "*He walked the stairs up," and "*He climbed the fence over," and one could not produce the grammatical utterances "He walked up the stairs" and "He climbed over the fence." <u>Up</u> and <u>over</u> are identified only as "particles" not as "prepositions" and the schema for particles indicates that particles follow the object (p. 121).

Krohn's presentation of information about prepositional forms fails to be adequate in a number of different ways. First, following its guidelines would result in the production of obviously ungrammatical sentences; second, it lists 19 simple forms, and does not list or make reference to any phrasal or complex prepositions; third, it limits the production that is possible, if its guidelines are followed, to a small

*Krohn misleadingly labels this unit as one which contains "verb + particle + object" structures, but in the body of the unit, gives the formula in reverse as "verb + object + particle" (p. 121).

number of sentence types and does not include a vast number of sen-
tence types that are used in an equally vast number of real-life
situations (presumably, one could never talk about walking up stairs,
or climbing over fences, or any similar actions involving motion up or
over); fourth, identical forms such as _in_ that is prepositional in
function and _in_ that is adverbial in function are classed in separate
categories, and no attempt is made to show any indication that they
are related to each other in form or in meaning.

Danielson & Hayden

Danielson and Hayden, when discussing prepositional phrases that
are used as adverbials of place and of time, do not make use of the
term "preposition" to describe the prepositional forms. Furthermore,
when discussing adverbial phrases of purpose, they resort to the labels
"for-phrase" and "to-phrase," and continue to avoid calling preposition-
al forms by the label "prepositions" (pp. 99-105). However, in the
chapter devoted to "two-word verbs," the statement is made that "in
this book, two-word verbs are treated as fixed combinations of verbs
and prepositions" (p. 148). Danielson and Hayden do not make any
visible attempt to show a relationship between prepositions and
preposition-like forms that appear in two-word verb phrases, but
their apparent decision to eliminate potential confusion by removing
prepositions from the class of words that they call "prepositions"
seems to be a particularly bad method of resolving this issue.

Failing to establish the characteristic of generality in their
presentation of grammatical information about English prepositional
usage, Danielson and Hayden also fail to establish simplicity, because

they concentrate on differentiating shades of meaning rather than paying attention to the similarities of meaning that may exist. The prepositional forms that appear in phrasal prepositions and in two-word verbs are not included in attempts at definition, and these definitions concentrate on distinguishing among the identical forms that are used to perform the truly prepositional grammatical function. For example, the preposition in is generally defined as an indicator of location "inside a place or within a given area" as in the sample sentence "Mrs. Robb bought some roses at a flower stand in the Farmer's Market" (p. 102), but this meaning of in is distinguished from the meaning of in that is conveyed in the sample sentence "I came in a taxi" (p. 103). Intuitively, these two phrases do not seem to be assigning different semantic functions to the preposition in, and distinguishing between the semantic functions that they perform seems to be not only inappropriate, but also inaccurate.

In addition, although Danielson and Hayden seem to be providing some sort of definition for the prepositional forms that they discuss, the definitions that are provided are circular definitions, that define the word by means of the word itself, and such circular definitions are not normally considered adequate definitions for any purpose. For example, in is defined as "inside a place or within an area" (p. 102), and the fact that the meanings of the words inside and within are dependent on the meaning of the word in makes this definition circular, and, therefore, inadequate.

The presentation of information that is provide by Danielson and Hayden does not demonstrate those characteristics that have been selected, and can therefore be considered inadequate and inappropriate

for classroom use.

Praninskas

Instead of the two categories that are mentioned by many other presentations, Praninskas distinguishes four different categories of prepositional forms, and assigns preposition-like words to the categories in the manner shown in Figure 1. Common areas of meaning that a form might possess, regardless of the category to which it has been assigned, are not considered, and no attempt is made to classify identical forms in a single category, or to show how identical forms that are classified in different categories might be related to each other.

The four categories mentioned by Praninskas are "prepositions," "particles," "expressions of place," and "time words." The only correlation that is demonstrated among these categories is the implicit correlation expressed by classifying the same forms into more than one of the categories.

Some information that is not actually erroneous, but that is misleading, is presented by Praninskas. As can be seen from Figure 1, after is classified as both a preposition and a time word, as is until, but before is classified as an expression of place and a time word. According to this presentation, the phrase "the third house before the tracks" would be an expression of place, but the phrase "the third house after the tracks" would (apparently) be a prepositional phrase. While this does not preclude the formation of both of these phrases, and does not mark one of them as acceptable and the other as unacceptable, it does seem to be unnecessarily confusing.

	across	after	along	before	down	in	into	off	on	over	to	up	until
PREPOSITIONS		X				X			X		X		X
PARTICLES	X		X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
EXPRESSIONS OF PLACE	X		X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	
TIME WORDS		X		X									X

Figure 1. Classification of Prepositional Forms by Praninskas (Source: adapted from textual material contained in Praninskas, 1975).

The presentation by Praninskas includes about fifty-five of the simple and complex prepositional forms that could be considered prepositions, but only attempts to define eight of the forms. The definitions that are presented are labelled "rules," and are accompanied by examples:

RULES	EXAMPLES
In often indicates the position of something surrounded	in the cafeteria in the laboratory in the dormitory
On often indicates contact with a surface	the books on the shelf the sentences on the blackboard
At is often used in epxressions of position to indicate proximity	the blond girl at the table someone at the door

Figure 2. Rules for AT/ON/IN in Praninskas (p. 119)

Not only does this presentation provide information concerning the concepts that are represented by the forms, but, in addition, it provides some contrast among similar forms, which could be useful in distinguishing which form is appropriate in a particular context.

In general, Praninskas provides more than other presentations provide in the way of concept-form correlations, but it cannot be considered an adequate and appropriate presentation for classroom use, according to the selected criteria, because it fails to explicitly acknowledge the identity of forms. It does not class forms with identical appearance into one category, and forms with identical semantic function into a single category.

Ebbitt & Ebbitt

In Ebbitt and Ebbitt, prepositions are discussed as forms that are also able to "serve as adverbs and conjunctions" (p. 225), but

individual forms are still classified into one of three categories:
prepositions only, adverbs only, and both prepositions and adverbs.
The following forms are classed as "prepositions only": <u>beside</u>, <u>in-</u>
<u>side</u>, <u>off</u>, <u>on</u>, <u>outside</u>, <u>since</u> and <u>underneath</u>; the following forms are
classed as "adverbs only": <u>down</u>, <u>out</u>, <u>through</u> and <u>up</u>; the following
items are classed as "both prepositions and adverbs": <u>about</u>, <u>after</u>,
<u>around</u>, <u>at</u>, <u>by</u>, <u>for</u>, <u>in</u>, <u>to</u> and <u>with</u>. In order to justify the classifi-
cations that have been made, Ebbitt and Ebbitt presents the two expres-
sions, "to look after a departing car" and "to look after children,"
and explains that the two expressions are different in that "the first
has a verb modified by an adverb in its ordinary meaning, and the
second is really a different verb, with a meaning of its own, composed
of two elements" (p. 296). Not only is this "explanation" somewhat
obscure, and the example cited as adverbial somewhat infrequent in
distribution, but, in addition, it contradicts the information presented
elsewhere in the book concerning adverbs and adverbials. Under the
heading "Adverbs," no preposition-like forms appear (p. 20-1), and the
prepositional phrases that are cited ("in the morning" and "after the
exam") are identified as phrases that "have the function of adverbs"
and are therefore "classed as adverbials," since "The -<u>al</u> of <u>adverbial</u>
indicates that we are defining these words by their syntactic function
in the context, not by their form." (p. 21). It seems somewhat absurd
to assert that a particular form is an adverb, and simultaneously as-
sert that no such structures can be classified as adverbs, but must be
labelled "adverbials."

According to the definitions supplied, "adverbs" are used to in-
dicate place, time or manner (p. 211), and prepositions only exist in

full prepositional phrases, in which they precede a noun or pronoun (p. 213). This appears to be an implicit rejection of the existence of structures such as "the doctor is in" or "I haven't seen him since." They do seem to indicate place and time, respectively, but they most certainly do not have any nouns or pronouns following them.

Indentical forms, such as the "after a departing car" and "after children," are obviously not being categorized in a single category, but the distinction between them, while it is reputedly being made on the basis of grammatical function, appears rather to have been made on the basis of some sort of semantic criterion. The semantic issues, however, are somewhat befuddled also.

At one point in the book is the statement that "Even in abstract contexts (under a cloud, with ease) prepositions have meaning" (p. 225). In another location is a discussion of the "fact that the change of a word from one part of speech to another is commonplace in English" (p. 109). With reference to two-word verbs and the prepositional forms that they contain, the statement is made that "Because logic is no help, the prepositions must be learned in the phrases that determine their usage" (p. 155). These statements do not seem to be compatible with each other. The first statement can be interpreted to mean that a preposition will retain its meaning in a prepositional phrase that is abstract in nature. The statement about two-word verbs seems to be saying that the preposition-like particle is different from the "true" preposition in meaning, ostensibly because it is different in function, even though such functional changes are commonplace in the English language. In other words, use in a literal context and use in an abstract context does not change the "meaning" of a preposition.

If this is true, it seems unlikely that a variation in grammatical function should have the power to effect a variation in semantic function (it seems unlikely that alternation between prepositional usage and adverbial usage should affect the "meaning" of a prepositional form).

In summary, the Ebbitt and Ebbitt presentation of English prepositional information fails to be adequate and appropriate for classroom use in a number of different ways. Chief among its failures are the lack of agreement with the English language as it is spoken, and the lack of agreement of this presentation with itself, both of which are likely to result in gross inaccuracy of the presentation. This presentation does not make any attempt to classify identical forms in a single category, nor to classify forms that serve an identical semantic function into a single category; it does, however, make several unsuccessful attempts to distinguish indistinguishable items, and it makes several successful attempts to ignore confusing phenomena of the English language.

Klammer

Klammer's presentation concerns itself exclusively with structure and with grammatical function, totally ignoring considerations of the concepts or meanings that such structures might convey.

Twenty-eight items are identified as "prepositions," and the statement is made that "prepositions" are often units of two or more words, as well as single-word units (pp. 159-60).

In a discussion of verbs, students are warned against confusing forms that appear to be identical: "particles may look like

prepositions, but they are not--they are particles" (p. 109). The
only instructions that they are given to aid them in distinguishing
one form from another are instructions concerning grammatical function:
"when a word that ordinarily functions as a preposition loses its ob-
ject, it no longer is a preposition but an adverb" (p. 160).

Rather than being a guide to the mastery of the English language,
this presentation appears to be a guide to the mastery of grammatical
terminology. Rather than classing forms that are identical in appear-
ance into a single category, it comments on the fact that the forms do
appear to be alike, and then insists that these identical forms must
be kept separate. In addition, this presentation devotes little or no
attention to any sort of discussion of the concepts that could be con-
veyed by the structures that it presents. According to the selected
criteria, this presentation is not an adequate and appropriate presen-
tation for classroom use.

Topical Presentations on English Prepositional Forms

Some instructional materials that concentrate on prepositional
usage also exist. These topical guides to English prepositional form
usage might be expected to contain more information than generalized
instructional materials. The number of available topical guides is an
implicit assertion that this grammatical category is quite problemat-
ical for students, but the hoped-for increase in the quantity of
available information is not forthcoming, and a cursory inspection of
a number of different topical guides shows a disappointing consistency
in the quantity of information supplied, the content of the information
supplied, and the format for supplying the information.

Many of the topical guides are miscellaneous collections of a large number of "fill-in-the-blank" and multiple-choice exercises, with no identifiable organizational strategy (McCallum, 1970; Fuller and Wasell, 1961; English Language Services, 1964). Presumably the idea behind such "guides" is that a student would be able to learn prepositional forms after he or she had completed a sufficient number of exercises on such forms.

Two topical presentations are reviewed because they are slightly different from the others:

> Heaton. 1965. <u>Prepositions and Adverbial Particles</u>.
> Bruton. 1969. <u>Exercises on English Prepositions and Adverbs</u>.

The differences between these two guides and the other available guides center around the quantity of information and the organizational strategy used for presenting the information.

Heaton

Heaton's presentation is probably the most extensive list of prepositional forms that is available. It contains separate listings of 92 "common prepositions," 259 phrasal prepositions, and equally extensive lists of nouns preceded by prepositions, phrasal verbs (verb + particle units), verbs followed by prepositions, words other than verbs followed by prepositions, and many other phrases and forms that contain a prepositional or preposition-like element, including compound words that begin or end with preposition forms.

Heaton provides definitions for some of the prepositions, phrases and other itmes that appear in this listing, and, in most cases, also provides samples of usage of the listed forms or phrases. The definitions seem to concentrate on demonstrating the range of different

meanings or concepts that a form could represent, rather than presenting a unifying definition.

Within the section divisions, items are arranged alphabetically, but underneath this superficial unity of classification, Heaton distinguished "preposition" from "adverb" and provides separate listings for the "meanings" of a form when it is used prepositionally and when it is used adverbially. For example, the prepositional form <u>about</u>, when used to mean "here and there," is implicitly distinguished from the adverbial form <u>about</u>, when used to mean "here and there," by means of the supplementary definitions and the examples that are provided. <u>About</u>, as a preposition meaning "here and there," also means "in various parts of" and "all around"; <u>about</u>, as an adverb meaning "here and there," also has the extended meaning of "with a lack of purpose or aim" (p. 1, 46).

In presenting two separate listings, one of adverbs and another of prepositions, Heaton implies that they cannot be categorized under a single heading. In attempting to supply some sort of definition that will distinguish the adverbial usage meaning from the prepositional usage meaning, Heaton implies that there are substantially different meanings, depending on the function of the form in a particular structure. For these two reasons, Heaton's presentation is not adequate and appropriate for classroom use, according to the selected criteria.

<u>Bruton</u>

Bruton's book of exercises provides a collection of sample sentences in which prepositional forms could be used. The book is arranged alphabetically, so that exercises on <u>about</u> appear in the beginning of the first section, but different forms of <u>about</u> are given

different definitions and are followed by a separate set of exercises.
For example, about, as a preposition, is given the "definition" of
"used with expressions like 'tell me about' and 'a story about'" (p. 2)
and is followed by an exercise concentrating on the prepositional
usage of about. The next entry is the adverbial usage of about, which
is defined as "approximately" (p. 2), and which is followed by a set
of exercises concentrating on the adverbial usage of about. No attempt
is made to show any sort of relationship between the two forms. Bruton
does not admit that the two forms are identical in appearance, nor does
he indicate that they might demonstrate similarity in meaning despite
the differences in grammatical function.

When an attempt is made to show that similar forms are related in
some way, the result is a circular definition: inside is defined by
other forms that are also based on the preposition in, the forms "in,
within and into" (p. 14).

Bruton does not always successfully distinguish among forms that
may be used to express location, since he defines in as "indicating
position" (p. 14), which is the same definition given for at (p. 9).

Because of the lack of attempts to classify forms into a single
category on the basis of identity of appearance, or to classify forms
into a single category on the basis of semantic function, Bruton's
presentation cannot be considered adequate or acceptable for classroom
use, according to the selected criteria.

Theoretical Presentations

Whereas the pedagogical presentations of information about English
prepositions and prepositional forms are intended for classroom use,

and as such, might be expected to possess those characteristics that are deemed essential for instructional materials, the available theoretical presentations of information about English prepositions and prepositional forms, due to their nature as theoretical presentations, can not automatically be expected to possess the characteristics of instructional materials. An examination of the selected criteria, however, reveals that the characteristics of accuracy, completeness, comprehensibility,* range, generality, simplicity and definitional presentation are not unreasonable demands to make on a theoretical presentation. In light of this, and in light of the fact that the available pedagogical presentations fail to fulfill the demands of the selected criteria, the theoretical presentations are assessed below on the basis of their compliance with the selected criteria.

In a search for information that is usable in a classroom, a wide range of perspectives should be explored, and for this reason, presentations by pre-1960 linguists, Generative-Transformationalists, Stratificationalists, Tagmemicists, and other schools of linguistic theory are explored. The primary concern here is whether or not the presentation fits the selected criteria.

Pre-1960 Linguists

In general, linguists writing prior to the 1960's explore the externally-visible aspects of language. This is not automatically inappropriate for classroom use, since the students also are usually concerned with the visible aspects of language structure. The three

*The criterion of comprehensibility may, justifiably, have one interpretation for theoretical materials and another intepretation for materials intended for classroom use. It is the "classroom use" interpretation that is used here.

linguists examined here, however, take distinctly different approaches to the material that they discuss, and by doing this, they provide a range of ideas and information that would otherwise be unavailable. Jespersen, writing in the early 1900's, considered the grammarian's job one of investigating "the relations between the notional and the syntactic categories" (1924: 55), thereby relating the external world of form with the internal world of ideas. Fries, on the other hand, considered his task to be one of information gathering, simply recording and reporting usage (1940: 26-7). Writing for native speakers of English, Roberts attempted:

> ...first, to give some account of the grammatical forms used by educated Americans in the middle of the twentieth century; second, to explain the conventional grammatical terminology; third, to give some notion of the assumptions underlying the structure of the traditional grammar: how rules are arrived at, how definitions are made, how categories tend to overlap, how grammarians often disagree about terms and subdivisions, and so on. (1954: xv)

None of these avowed intentions is overtly incompatible with the goals of teaching English to adult speakers of other languages.

Jespersen

An examination of Jespersen's Essentials of English Grammar (1964) and The Philosophy of Grammar (1924) reveals that after presenting an argument in favor of including all cases of the uses of forms such as on, in, up, down, etc., within a single grammatical category, and supporting his argument with examples such as "he climbs up: and "he climbs up a tree" (1924: 88-9), Jespersen does not include a discussion of the composite category in his presentation of the essential principles of English grammar (or at least such a discussion is not included in the available edition of his English grammar).

In the section of this English grammar that deals with "word-classes," Jespersen states that "prepositions" exist, lists five of them (at, in, through, for, of), states that they serve the purpose of "indicating relations of various kinds," and demonstrates by means of examples that these "particles" can be used in different structures, although they are generally used as adverbs, prepositions or conjunctions, or some combination of these alternative uses (1964: 68-9).

In other sections of this grammar of English, Jespersen makes reference to prepositions only as adjuncts of other structures. He states that "prepositional groups" may be "predicatives" in a sentence (1964: 131). He discusses the absence of articles from many "set phrases" that are "prepositional combinations" (1964: 168). He indicates that a substantive can be more precisely identified by the addition of a phrase introduced by the preposition of: "the cleverness of the doctor" is more precisely definite than "the cleverness" (1964: 316-8).

In the sections of the grammar that deal with clauses, gerunds and infinitives, Jespersen makes mention of prepositions, but only to indicate their presence or absence in combination with the focal structure (1964: 320-373).

Jespersen's presentation of English prepositions fails to satisfy the criterion of completeness, since he does not, at any point, provide more than a few sample "prepositions." In addition, this presentation fails to satisfy the criteria of simplicity and definitional presentation, although this is quite deliberately done, since he relegates the function of providing definitions to a dictionary, and not a grammar: "it is quite right that dictionaries should account for the various

uses of at, for, in, etc., just as they deal fully with the various
meanings of the verbs put and set. But on the other hand prepositions
find their proper places in grammars in so far as there are 'general
facts' to be mentioned in connexion with them" (1924: 32).

Although Jespersen's presentation does satisfy some of the require-
ments specified here in Chapter I, it does not satisfy them all, and
for this reason, it must be judged to be unsuitable for classroom use
by adult students of English as a second language.

Fries

Classifying as "function words" those words that are used in
English to express ideas that would have been expressed by inflections
in Latin, Fries classifies what would be called "prepositions" in this
paper as "function words with substantives" (1940: 108-9). He further
explains that a "function word" is "a word that has little or no mean-
ing apart from the grammatical idea it expresses" (1940: 109), and
after investigating the multiplicity of meanings presented for these
words in a dictionary, asserts that the meanings that are found in the
dictionary "are not in each of these words in themselves but lie rather
in the whole context in which the words are used and depend upon the
meanings of the words that are brought into relationship by these func-
tion words" (1940: 113).

As a result of this contention that the words themselves have no
meaning, Fries does not even attempt to present any information about
the type of relationship that these function words might identify, and,
for this reason, his presentation fails to satisfy the criteria of
simplicity and definitional presentation.

Fries uses the word "particle"* to refer to the negative "not" (1940: 35, 147), discusses "adverb-prepositions" only by quoting sources that use this term (1940: 110, 113), does not discuss any of the forms that appear in his "function words with substantives" category under his "function words with verbs" category (1940: 128-98), and, by definition, excludes preposition-like elements that appear without nouns or noun substitutes from his "function words with substantives" category (1940: 108-27). This separation of function means that his presentation fails to satisfy the criterion of generality, since elements that are apparently similar are not classified in a single category regardless of grammatical function, but are instead classed soley according to grammatical function.

On the other hand, Fries does provide an extensive list of items that appear to serve a prepositional function, listing individual words, combinations that serve as "compound" function words, and even identifying three types of "compound" function words. His three types are expansions, such as "at the place of" as an expanded form of at, which take the form of a function word followed by a noun, which is followed by another function word (usually of, to or with); double function words such as into, unto, throughout, off from, over in and up till; and adjectives (usually participial) combined with the function word to such as according to and due to (1940: 114-8). By adding such forms to the consideration, Fries does satisfy the criteria of accuracy and completeness, and he could even be said to fulfill the requirements of the criterion of range, since he provides information about the use of

*"Particle" is used by some other linguists to refer to the preposition-like element that is used in combination with a verb (See Fraser, 1976).
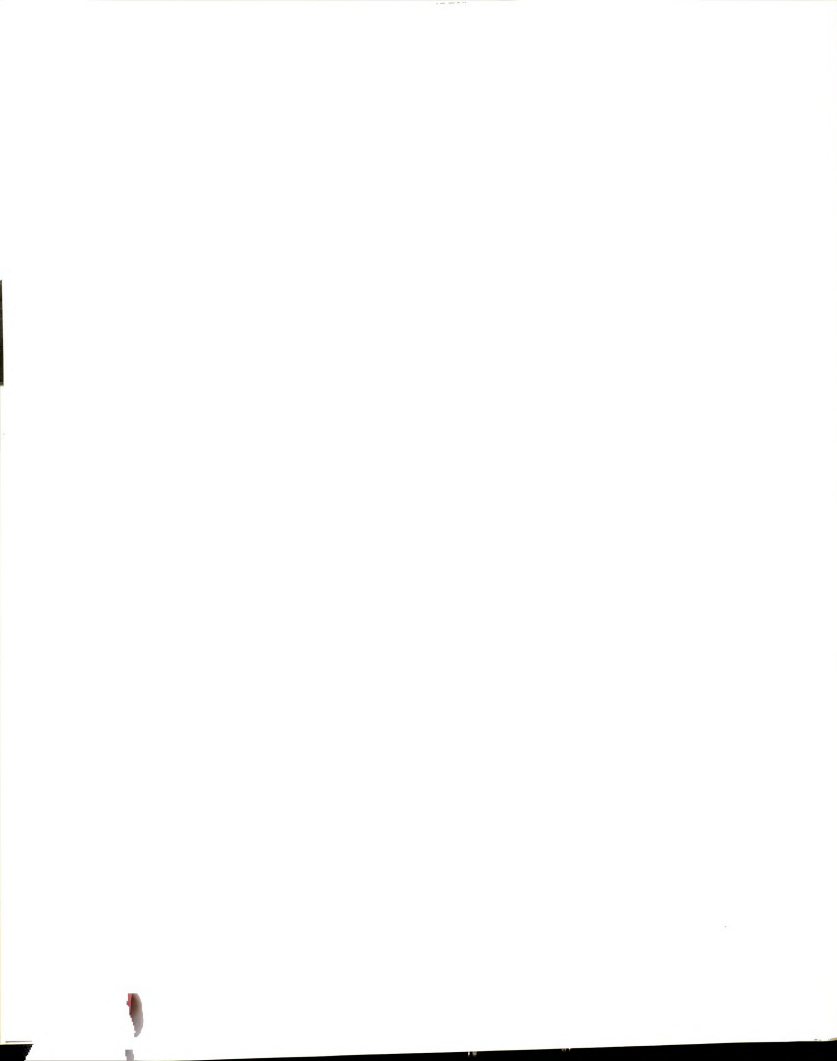
such forms in "Standard English" and in "Vulgar English" materials.

While the presentation made by Fries does satisfy the requirements of the criteria that could reasonably be applied to any description, explanation or presentation, his presentation does not fulfill the requirements of the criteria that relate to classroom use of a presentation on English prepositional forms. Since Fries' work does not provide for the criteria of generality, simplicity and definitional presentation, it must be rejected as inappropriate for classroom use.

Roberts

Understanding Grammar by Roberts (1954) is intentionally more of an explanation and justification of traditional grammar than an attempt to deviate from grammatical tradition (1954: xv). For this reason, Roberts takes the approach that "the preposition must be defined syntactically" (1954: 222), but he also admits that "most forms used as prepositions may also occur as other parts of speech" (1954: 222). He discusses "conglomerate prepositions," such as in front of, alongside, together with and in regard to, as well as simple one-word prepositions, and although he does not actually list the forms that he considers prepositions, he includes examples containing at, on, in, by, about, with, from, down, after, since, besides, over, behind, for, under, up, like, off, into, above, inside, out and during, as well as discussing particles like considering, including, pending and excepting (1954: 222-30). By doing this, Roberts satisfies the requirements of accuracy and completeness.

Discussions and comparisons of prepositions and adverbs, prepositions and adjectives, and prepositions and participles point to the

fact that these forms may be identical in appearance while being different in grammatical function. These discussions adequately fulfill the requirements of the criterion of generality, since they do represent an admission that the forms are identical in appearance, but they do not represent a fulfillment of the requirements of the criterion of simplicity, since no mention is made of the semantic similarity between two forms. For example, in citing "He went on" and comparing it to "He went on his way, Roberts concentrates on the similarity of form, and makes no mention whatsoever of the similarity in meaning (1954: 227).

In the only attempt made by Roberts to discuss the meaning of prepositions, instead of discussing the prepositions themselves, Roberts discuss the meaning of the complete prepositional phrase unit. He states that "no limits can be set to notional classifications" (1954: 226), and he identifies the phrase "on her finger" in the sentence "She wore a ring on her finger" as the notional classification of space (1954: 226). While this classification seems appropriate, it does not in any way distinguish the on of "She wore a ring on her finger" from in of "She wore a ring in her nose," even though the specific location indicated in the twe sentences is quite different. The classifications used by Roberts are too broad to be considered definitional, since they give no guidelines that would serve to distinguish one form from another. This failure to account for the differences between forms is equivalent to non-fulfillment of the requirement of providing a definitional presentation.

Generative-Transformationalist

While the pre-1960 linguists concentrate on the externally-visible forms of a language, the Generative-Transformationalists conjecture

that the perceptible forms of language are not the only concern of the
linguist. Although there is quite a variety of opinions and theories
subsumed under the label "Generative-Transformational," generally all
of the different theorists accept the idea that language can be described
by means of a set of basic structures and a set of alterations ("trans-
formations") that can be applied to the basic structures and to deriva-
tions from the basic structures. There is, as yet, no common agreement
on the nature and form of the basic structure, or on the nature and
form of the transformations to be applied to that basic structure and
its derivations. There is, quite frankly, not always common agreement
on the acceptability of the perceptible form ("surface structure").

Two general grammars of the English language (Jacobs and Rosenbaum,
Langendoen) and one work specifically concerned with the preposition-
like forms that appear in combinations with verbs (Fraser), by authors
who are considered transformationalists, are examined below.

Jacobs and Rosenbaum

It is suggested by Jacobs and Rosenbaum that "prepositions are
present in deep structures as features of nouns and that prepositions
are introduced into sentence structures by transformation" (1968: 141).
This is similar to the treatment of particles that they present, in
which particles are "represented as verb features that cause the appli-
cation of a transformation which introduces a particle segment into
the structure" (1968: 103). In both treatments, the prepositions and
the preposition-like particles, the form itself is used as a plus
feature of the noun or the verb. They differentiate particles from
prepositions:

> ...particles have been shown as distinct from prepositions, even though the words may be the same, because of a difference in syntactic functions between the two. The particle is more closely associated with the verb. We have suggested here that particles be represented as verb features in the deep structure. Prepositions, which are more closely associated with nouns, are represented as features of nouns in the deep structure. (1968: 106).

This amounts to a deliberate rejection of the identity of appearance that exists between prepositions and particles, and, as such, fails to satisfy the requirements of the criterion of generality.

Jacobs and Rosenbaum were writing for native speakers of English, and assuming that the readers would have a lexicon of English available to them (1968: 59), so they did not include any information about the prepositions or particles that would define the "meanings" of these forms. By including these forms as features of nouns and verbs, they implicitly classified them as items for which a native speaker of English would already possess some sort of definition. By not providing any sort of feature system for the prepositional forms, Jacobs and Rosenbaum fail to satisfy the requirement that the desired presentation provide some sort of definition, and, at the same time, their presentation fails to satisfy the requirement of simplicity (that items with similar semantic function be classified together). The sample sentences "The chemist shook up the mixture" and "The chemist walked up the street" are shown to be different, and no mention is made of their similarities (1968: 102).

Again for the apparent reason of writing for native speakers of English, Jacobs and Rosenbaum do not provide any information about the type or number of elements that may be classified as "prepositions" or as "particles," and use only a few items in their examples. Thus,

they fail to satisfy the requirements of the selected criteria of accuracy and completeness.

Langendoen

The English grammar that was written by Langendoen was written for native speakers of English, and was intended as a guide to be used in "exploring the structure of the language in which the students are already fluent, in a way that will lead them to an appreciation of its nature and a consequent respect for its proper use in the communication of thoughts, ideas and feelings" (1970: 5). Langendoen is concerned with semantics as well as with syntax, and he identifies the syntactic component of a grammar as "the rules of grammar that convert the representations of the meaning of sentences into their syntactic structures" (1970: 6).

In his treatment of English prepositions, Langendoen categorizes the various single-word prepositions of the English language in terms of the role that they play in conveying meaning. He identifies to, in and into as prepositions that are correlated with the role "result," but he also identifies to as correlated with "patient," "stimulus," "goal" and "movement," in as correlated with "location," and into as correlated with "movement" (1970: 86). This does fulfill the selected criterion of simplicity, since all items that serve the same semantic function are classified into a single category, but this presentation does not fulfill the requirements of the criterion of generality, since all forms that are identical in appearance are not classified into a single category.

This presentation of English prepositional forms does fulfill

the requirements of the criterion of accuracy (in that there are no
guidelines given that would direct the formation of unacceptable ut-
terances), of the criterion of comprehensibility (in that it is not
expressed in little-known or obscure symbols), and of the criterion
of range (in that the structures that it discusses are structures that
could be used in a wide range of real-life situations). However, it
fails to fulfill the requirements of the criterion of completeness (in
that it deals only with one-word prepositional forms), and of the cri-
terion of providing a definitional presentation (in that it does not
provide any means by which the forms that can be used to express one
of the roles [e.g., "location"] could be distinguished from one another).

Because this presentation does not satisfy the requirements of the
criteria of generality, completeness and providing a definitional pre-
sentation, it must be considered unacceptable for the desired classroom
use.

Fraser

Fraser deals exclusively with the verb-particle combinations that
exist in English, limiting his discussion to "a particular type of
verbal idiom, definable in terms of its syntact patterning" (1976: 34).
He also includes comments on structures that "pattern syntactically
very much like a verb-particle" (1976: 34), but he concentrates on
demonstrating the differences between "verb-particle combinations" and
these other structures, and not on demonstrating similarities. His
purpose is to "show that the distinction between a verb-particle com-
bination on one hand, and a verb-preposition and/or verb-adverbial
sequences on the other, can be maintained on the basis of their

syntactic patterning and without reference to their semantic interpretation" (1976: 1).

The forms that Fraser deals with cover expressions that can be used in a wide range of real-life situations, and the information that is presented shows no obvious inaccuracies or distortion, so his presentation can be said to fulfill the requirements of the criteria of range and of accuracy. In addition, his explanation does not depend on obscure symbols, but is presented in a clear and forthright manner, thereby satisfying the criterion of comprehensibility.

On the other hand, he does not deal at all with the simple, one-word prepositions, and he fails to indicate any relationship that they might have with the particles, so his presentation does not satisfy the criterion of completeness. Neither does he concern himself with the semantic properties of the forms that he discusses, either by providing definitions of some sort for the forms, or by classifying them according to their semantically similar properties, so his presentation does not satisfy the criteria of providing a definitional presentation or of simplicity.

Since his stated purpose is to demonstrate the syntactic differences between two categories of forms, he does not classify together all forms that are similar in appearance, and, consequently, does not satisfy the requirements of the criterion of generality.

Fraser's presentation does not demonstrate very many of the characteristics that were selected as appropriate for the classroom presentation of material on English prepositions and prepositional forms, so it must be considered inappropriate for this particular use.
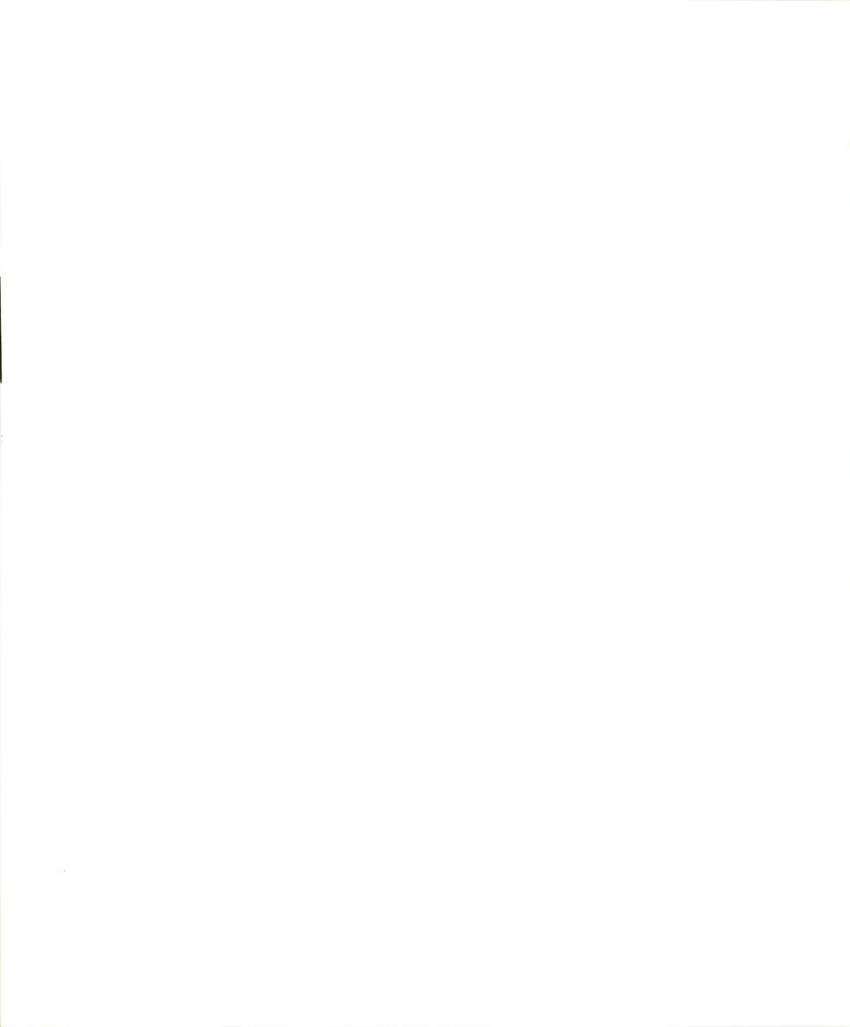
Stratificationalist

Concentrating on language as "the network of relations that exist between the components of meaning and the components of sound" (Bennett, 1968: 278), Stratificational grammarians contend that "the various kinds of elements within language are defined and distinguished wholly on the basis of their relationships to other elements" (Lockwood, 1972: 4). Thus, the content of an element depends on its relationship to other elements, and the definition of the relationships serves to define the element. No other definition is considered necessary.

Bennett explores the topic of English prepositions and prepositional forms from the perspective of the relationships existent between prepositions and other elements in an utterance, and among the various prepositions and prepositional forms.

By means of the various strata, Bennett establishes the similarity, as well as the differences, that exist between the two examples of the constituent _at_ in the sentences "He was standing at the door" and "He was looking at the door" (1968: 279). By so classifying items that are identical in appearance into a single category, Bennett's presentation does satisfy the requirments of the criterion of generality. He also shows that one-word elements such as _before_ can possess a relationship with multiple-word elements such as _in front of_ (1968: 283), and, by so doing, deals not only with a reasonably large number of simple prepositions, but also with complex prepositional forms, thereby satisfying the requirements of the criterion of completeness.

The example that Bennett cites, of the relationship in meaning between _before_ and _in front of_, is an example of the type of classification that could be expected to satisfy the requirements of the

criterion of simplicity, since the apparent similarity in the semantic function of these two elements is acknowledge by classifying them in a single category.

The information presented by Bennett does not seem to lead toward the formation of any ungrammatical or unacceptable structures, so it can be accepted as having fulfilled the requirements of the criterion of accuracy, and since this presentation deals with structures that can be used in a wide range of real-life situations, it can be said to have fulfilled the requirements of the criterion of range.

The two criteria that this presentation does not satisfy are the criteria of comprehensibility and of providing a definitional presentation. The closest that Bennett comes to providing a definitional presentation is to provide some indication that <u>on</u> is more definite and precise an indication of a "spatiotemporal." relationship than is <u>about</u> (1968: 290). It is possible that Bennett is more concerned with explaining the grammatical system than with explaining the facts of language that he uses as examples, and that he is assuming that a native speaker of English (or a competent non-native speaker) possesses a lexicon that would provide him with "definitions" for the language elements that are discussed. The major failing of this presentation, however, is in its comprehensibility. It is difficult to imagine how to present the following information to students who are in the process of learning the English language: "Thus, for instance, $\underline{to}^{s-t}$ and <u>till</u> are distinct at the level of sememes (since they differ in collocability) but they realize a single hypersemon (i.e. have the same cognitive meaning), and this hypersemon has two components of meaning: a locational component, present also in $\underline{at}^{s-t}$, and a directional component" (1968: 291). The

multiplicity of strata, as well as the diagrams of Stratificational linguistics, render this presentation virtually unintelligible and, therefore, inaccessible to quite a large number of native speakers of English, so it can probably be assumed that these native speakers would not be able to successfully convey the information contained in the presentation to a language student. For this reason, Bennett's presentation must be rejected for classroom use.

Tagmemic

Based largely on the ideas of Kenneth Pike, Tagmemic linguistics concentrates its attention on "those structures which make up the nucleus of the grammar system as a whole" (Pike, 1967: 473), searching among the observable structures of a language for the patterns of language behavior that exist, rather than the exceptional structures or unusual cases. The Tagmemicists "recognize as superior the grammar which sets forth the patterns of a language in the more straightforward and direct manner" (Longacre, 1964: 14).

One of the fundamental concepts of tagmemics is the "notion of structural levels arranged in explicit systemic hierarchy" (Longacre, 1965: 18). The hierarchical arrangement of structures does not really allow for overlapping of the use of particular forms, such as prepositional forms, in more than one type of structure, such as prepositional forms appearing in prepositional phrases and also appearing in adverbial positions. In the analysis of verb phrases in English, Pike and Pike cite the examples from Mixtec, which they translate into English as "the rabbit will go away" and "the rabbit will eat," but when they examine the structure of an English verb phrase, the adverbial away does not

enter into the analysis, being judged to be of a different hierarchical level (Pike and Pike, 1974: 175-89). What some grammarians call "particles," the preposition-like forms that appear after verbs in English but do not have noun or noun-substitute objects as they would if they were true prepositions, do not have a clearly-defined place in the grammatical presentations of tagmemics.

Of the types of relationships identified by tagmemics, the "relater-related" relationship, is the one that is used to identify prepositional phrases, but by the definition that is provided for this type of structure, adverbial particles are excluded from consideration, since a relater-related structure is defined as consisting of "two obligatory parts, neither of which may totally fill the slots that the two together fill" (Pike and Pike, 1977: 30).

While the presentations that are currently available may fulfill the requirements of the criterion of comprehensibility, they do not seem to fulfill any of the other criteria that were selected. By presenting only the information that pertain to the preposition-plus-noun phrases, the presentations implicitly assert that this type of phrase is the only type containing prepositions that exists in the English language, which is simply not true, and which is contradictory to the requirements of the criterion of accuracy. No list of "filler" items for the "preposition" slot is provided, and, therefore, the presentations fail to fulfill the requirements of the criterion of completeness. Since there are many situations that would be described in English by a verb-particle combination, and which could not be described by a prepositional phrase, these presentations fail to fulfill the requirements of the criterion of range.

Categorizations of forms are all based on grammatical function, so the presentations do not fulfill the requirements of the criterion of generality, and semantic function appears to be a subordinate consideration to the consideration of grammatical function, so the presentations do not satisfy the requirements of the criterion of simplicity. For the same reason, definitions are not provided for lexical items, and the requirement of providing a definitional presentation is not satisfied.

In general, the tagmemic presentations of information concerning prepositions and prepositional forms in the English language must be considered inadequate for classroom use, since they do not satisfy the requirements that were selected as essential for classroom presentation of grammatical information.

Case Grammar

Fillmore, in his discussion of English prepositional phrases (1966), is not directly concerned with the description of the elements that constitute a prepositional phrase, but, rather, with the nature of the phrase itself, taken as a linguistic unit. He includes several sample forms, but makes no attempt to identify the items that could be considered prepositions, and does not attempt to define, explain or categorize the prepositions that would be acceptable as constituents of a prepositional phrase. For this reason, his presentation of information about English prepositional forms does not satisfy the requirements of the criteria for completeness, generality, simplicity, or of providing a definitional presentation.

The information that he presents does not obviously lead to the formation of unacceptable or ungrammatical English structures, it

provides information that could be used in the formation of a multi-
plicity of English structures that would be useful in a wide variety
of real-life situations, and it is reasonably clear and understandable.
It thereby does satisfy the requirements of the criteria of accuracy,
range and comprehensibility.

Within the information presented by Fillmore, there are some com-
ments that are of interest, and that suggest that a more thorough
treatment of the subject by Fillmore might result in a presentation
that would fulfill the requirements of the selected criteria. In dis-
cussing the prepositions that could be used, Fillmore cites the examples
over, under, on and in, and identifies these items as "location prepo-
sitions" that "bring with them semantic information" (1966: 23). This
position is different from those grammarians who consider prepositions
as function words that do not contain any meaning in and of themselves
(Fries, 1940: 109).

In addition, the entire discussion presented by Fillmore concen-
trates on the comparison of the category "noun phrase" to the category
"prepositional phrase," and on a discussion of the relations "subject"
and "object" that may exist between these categories and the sentences
that contain examples of these types of phrases (1966: 19-20).
Fillmore's contention that "semantic rules do not need to be sensi-
tive to the grammatical functions 'subject' and 'object'" (emphasis
mine; 1966: 28) suggests, among other things, that prepositional
phrases are not as unimportant as some grammarians seem to think they
are.

Notwithstanding the interesting ideas raised by Fillmore, his
presentation of information concerning English prepositional forms

must be considered unacceptable for classroom use in the teaching of such forms, since it fails to satisfy so many of the selected criteria.

European (López)

In her presentation of a systematic description of Spanish prepositions, López satisfies the requirements of all of the selected criteria, but the presentation is not immediately useful for classroom material because the prepositional system that she investigates is Spanish, not English. It is presented here because it can serve as a guide in the preparation of a presentation on English forms.

There are no explanations or formulas that would obviously lead to the production of ungrammatical utterances, so the presentation by López can be considered accurate according to the requirements of the selected criterion. This presentation can also be considered to have fulfilled the requirements of the criterion of completeness, since López discusses complex prepositional forms, such as debajo, detrás, delante de, etc., as well as a large number of the simple forms such as bajo, tras and ante (1970: 144).

López employs several different methods to explain the ideas that she is attempting to present, but her explanations depend heavily on straightforward descriptions that are phrased in non-technical language and on graphic displays that employ dots, arrows and lines (1970: 143). Because she does not use any obscure terminology or little-known symbols, López successfully provides a presentation that satisfies the criterion of comprehensibility.

Recognizing that prepositions serve a variety of functions, López analyzes their functions from the standpoints of movement as opposed to

location (1970: 49), of time as opposed to place as opposed to manner

(1970: 63), and from the standpoints of strength of meaning, dependency

of meaning, and weakness or emptiness of meaning (1970: 44-5). By so

doing, López covers a variety of prepositions, and a variety of uses,

and thereby guarantees that the information she presents can satisfy

the criterion of range, in that it covers forms that would be accept-

able in a wide range of real-life situations.

She presents definitions for the prepositions that she studies,

both in words and in diagrams. For example, sobre is defined as

"contacto, approximación; superficialmente; distancia, exceso; después"

(1970: 141) and is also defined by means of three diagrams (1970: 142):
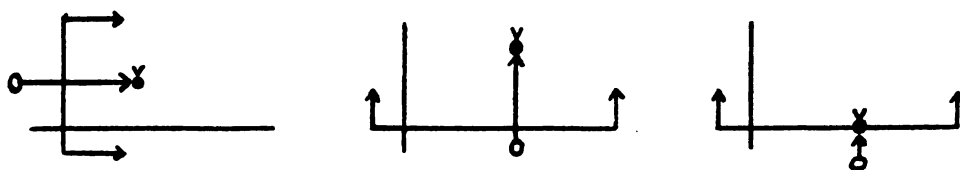
Figure 3. Locational Possibilities for Sobre (López, 1970: 142)

Each preposition is then further defined by means of the oppositions

that it can be used to represent. Sobre is compared to bajo (1970:

141), to a (1970: 173), to de (1970: 186), to en (1970: 192-3) to

hacia (1970: 197), and to contra (1970: 202). This presentation satis-

fies the requirements of the criterion of providing a definitional

presentation.

In addition, this presentation by López satisfies the requirements

of the criterion of generality, in that all forms that appear to be the

same are classed in a single category. Antes, ante, delante and delante

de are all classified together, as are bajo, debajo and debajo de (1970:

144). Preposition-like forms that appear as affixes to words are also

included in this description: engomar is described as a converted form

of "poner goma en papel" (1970: 88). All forms that appear to be the same are classed into one category and discussed, regardless of their grammatical function, although their grammatical function is also discussed.

Forms that appear to serve the same semantic function are also classed into a single category, and discussed, both in words and in pictorial presentations. For example, desde is defined as indicating movement away from an initial point, with the time and the point of view of the speaker both travelling together, hasta is defined as movement of time or in space toward a limit, with the time and the speaker moving together, and hacia is defined as movement toward a point that is not necessarily the limit of the movement, and these definitions are supplemented by the following diagrams:

Figure 4. Comparison of Desde/Hasta/Hacia (López, 1970: 143)

This type of presentation accounts for not only the similarities, but also the differences that exist among the forms that appear to serve the same, or similar, semantic function.

The presentation by López appears to be quite adequate in fulfilling the selected criteria, but it is--unfortunately--concerned with Spanish and not with English prepositional forms.

Semantics

While many grammarians have eliminated a consideration of meaning from their considerations of structure (Fries, Roberts, etc.), some linguists have concerned themselves primarily with meaning in language.

While semantics has been defined as being a "part of a linguistic description" of a language (Katz and Fodor, 1963: 472), it has also been viewed as that part of the description that remains after the grammarians have done their job (Katz and Fodor, 1963: 472), although this view may subsequently have been revised. Some semanticists have argued that syntax and semantics cannot, in reality, be separated from each other, but must be considered together (Green, 1974: 32-3).

Without attempting to resolve the issue of whether syntax and semantics are really joined or separate, one can still investigated the work of semantics that is relevant to an investigation of English prepositional forms.

Leech resorts to a non-technical description of semantics as a study of meaning in languages (1969: 5), and attempts a preliminary description of how the English language conveys meaning.

In the discussion of the concept of "place," Leech deals with some English prepositions and prepositional forms. He deals not only with the static concepts of place, but also with the dynamic concepts, "dealing with movement with respect to location" (1969: 159).

Most of the criteria that were selected are satisfied by Leech's description. He does not present any formulas or rules that would lead to the production of obviously unacceptable utterances, and there-fore satisfies the requirements of accuracy. He concerns himself with complex as well as simple prepositional units, dealing with over, under, in front of, behind, to the left of, and to the right of (1969: 167), as well as dealing with groups such as at, on and in (1969: 161), thereby satisfying the requirements of the criterion of completeness. Although he presents some information in somewhat difficult formulas,

such as:

$$By:\rightarrow PLA \cdot \emptyset' \langle \theta' \cdot \rightarrow PROX \cdot \theta'' \langle \theta'' \cdot \leftarrow PLA \cdot \emptyset \rangle\rangle$$

(1969: 166), he also presents readily intelligible descriptions in normal, everyday, non-complex language, and he presents diagrammatic information:
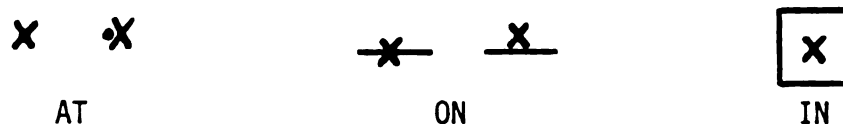
Figure 5. Diagram of At/On/In (adapted from Leech, 1969: 161)

The description presented by Leech is easily understood, fulfilling the requirements of the criterion of comprehensibility. By means of these formulas, diagrams and other explanations, Leech presents definitions of the prepositions that he discusses, thereby fulfilling the requirements of the criterion of providing a definitional presentation, and he also classes all forms that serve the same semantic function together, since his entire description is based on conceptual distinctions. For example, at, on and in, while being concerned with location, are also concerned with dimensionality, and are therefore classed together (1969: 161), and away from, off and out of, all being concerned with location, are also concerned with expressing the negative of the relations that are expressed by at, on and in, so all six of these units are considered together, with subgroupings of the positive and negative relationships.

Leech's presentation fails to fulfill the requirements of the criteria of generality and of range, since his presentation does not concern itself with forms that are identical in appearance to the prepositions that he does discuss, but which are not expressions

indicating physical location. Following the information given by Leech, one would only be able to formulate utterances that pertain to physical location, and not the wide range of real-life situations that are, in fact, expressed by these forms.

Summary of Examination of Available Presentations

In general, the available presentations do not satisfy the selected criteria, and the pedagogical presentations satisfy the criteria less than the theoretical presentations. The only presentation that satisfies all of the criteria is the presentation of information about Spanish prepositions, and the information is not directly useful for teaching English prepositional forms, since the Spanish prepositions are not exact equivalents of the English ones, and cannot be used in the same variety of grammatical structures.

Figure 6 (p. 55) shows the information about which presentations fulfill each of the criteria. From this, it can easily be seen that no presentation, of the presentations that are investigated, succeeds in satisfying the requirements of all of the selected criteria. The appropriate conclusion, therefore, is that none of these presentations of information can be considered adequate for classroom use in the teaching of English prepositional forms to adult second-language learners.

	ACCURACY	COMPLETENESS	COMPREHENSIBILITY	RANGE	GENERALITY	SIMPLICITY	DEFINITIONAL PRESENTATION
PEDAGOGICAL: GENERAL							
Crowell	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓
Krohn	✓	✓					
Danielson/Hayden	✓			✓			✓
Praninskas	✓		✓	✓			
Ebbitt/Ebbitt			✓	✓			
Klammer							
PEDAGOGICAL: TOPICAL							
Heaton	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓
Bruton	✓	✓	✓	✓			
THEORETICAL							
Structuralist							
Jespersen	✓		✓	✓	✓		
Fries	✓	✓	✓	✓			
Roberts	✓	✓			✓		
Generative-Transformational							
Jacobs/Rosenbaum	✓						
Langendoen	✓		✓	✓			
Fraser	✓		✓	✓			
Stratificationalist	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Tagmemic	✓		✓				
Case Grammar	✓			✓			
European: Lopez	✓*	✓*	✓*	✓*	✓*	✓*	✓*
Semantics	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓

Figure 6. Satisfaction of Selected Criteria by Examined Presentations

*Spanish (not English)

CHAPTER III

PROPOSED ALTERNATIVE PRESENTATION

Although none of the examined presentations are judged to be adequate for the classroom presentation of information concerning English preopositions, some of the concepts contained in these presentations fit the criteria, and appear to be elements that would enhance a presentation designed specifically for classroom use.

Other concepts do not seem to be appropriate in the form in which they were originally presented, but do seem to be potentially adaptable for use in the planning of a classroom presentation. In particular, adapting elements of the presentation by López, in order to derive a presentation that would concern English, rather than Spanish, prepositions, seems to be a potentially fruitful area of endeavor, since the presentation by López is evaluated as adequate with reference to the selected criteria for a classroom presentation.

The framework for the proposed presentation is examined below, followed by an examination of the manner in which individual prepositional forms may be integrated into this framework.

Framework for the Proposed System

The framework of the proposed system for the presentation of information about English prepositional forms does not depend exclusively on any single concept. Instead, it is derived from an interweaving of a number of different concepts. Five primary concepts are involved in

this interweaving: 1) the systematic nature of prepositional forms, 2) the meaningfulness of prepositional forms, 3) the primacy of spatial relationships, 4) the dimensionality of the point of reference, and 5) the opposition of location and motion.

Systematic Nature

Central to the presentations of Leech (1969) and López (1970) is the concept that prepositional forms are systematic, rather than the illogical, idiosyncratic elements discussed by Ebbitt and Ebbitt (1977). The observable evidence that native speakers of a language do not often disagree about which preposition is appropriate in a given context supports the idea that prepositions are systematic, and that the system is logical. It must be remembered, however, that the logic of the system could easily be the unsophisticated logic of an ordinary individual, and is not necessarily the polished and sophisticated logic of a philosopher. It must also be noted that the logic of a system may not be readily observable to "outsiders" (e.g., the child beginning to acquire the language, the foreign language learner).

Both Leech and López make use of the concepts of spatial relations, dimensionality and the opposition of location and motion to support the contention that prepositions are systematic, since they both define many prepositions in terms of these concepts.

Without endeavoring to prove that prepositions are indeed systematic, this presentation will accept this concept as a "given," and be based on it as a primary and fundamental assumption.

Meaningfulness

One of the concepts about which there are diametrically opposing viewpoints is the concept of meaningfulness of prepositional forms. Fries contends that prepositions are meaningless in and of themselves, and that they derive their meaning from the contexts in which they can be found (1940:113).

In opposition to this opinion is the view that prepositional forms are meaningful, which is an opinion that has been expressed by several different linguists (Langendoen, 1970:6; Fillmore, 1966:23; Leach, 1969; López, 1970). It would seem reasonable to assume that prepositional forms do have meaning by themselves, since a single word answer to an information question such as "Where did you go?" can be a prepositional form (e.g. "Out"). If the prepositional form did not have any meaning, it would seem wholly unreasonable to select it as the answer to an information question.

This presentation, therefore, will be based on the assumption that prepositional forms do have meaning in and of themselves.

Primacy of Spatial Relationships

It is the contention of López that the spatial relationships are primary, and that temporal and other types of relationships are derived from the extension of these spatial relationships be means of analogy or imagination (1970:132). Leech also bases his examination of the meanings of prepositional forms on the spatial relationships that can be expressed (1969:159-201).

Certain types of relationships do, in fact, seem to be applicable to a wide variety of situations. The concept of equivalence does not

seem to be one that is severely limited in its application, since it appears to be applicable to location, mass, volume, density, intensity, color, quality, etc. There are also variations on the concept of equivalence, and these variations seem to share the same range of applicability, such as the concepts of non-equivalence and of approximate equivalence.

Other concepts that appear to have a wide range of application are the concepts of superiority, inferiority, conjunction, disjunction and reciprocity, as well as the concept of there being no identifiable relationship at all between two or more entities.

Slightly more complex concepts, and perhaps even concepts of secondary importance, are the concepts of approaching (with or without attaining) equivalence, and withdrawing from equivalence.

These concepts, the spatial relationships that they represent, and the temporal and figurative relationships that can be derived from them, form the backbone of the system of relationships that is used in this presentation of prepositional forms.

This set of concepts, fortunately, lends itself to expression by means of mathematical symbols:

$=$	equivalence
$\neq$	non-equivalence
$>$	superiority ("greater than")
$<$	inferiority ("less than")
$\approx$	approximate equality
$+$	conjunction
$-$	disjunction
$\rightleftharpoons$	reciprocity
$\emptyset$	no relationship ("zero")

B→A   approaching equivalence

AB→   withdrawing from equivalence

Since these symbols are understood by a large number of people from all parts of the world, provided that these people have had some formal education in mathematics and/or the sciences, they are quite useful in teaching educated adults about the concepts expressed by lexical items in the English language (or, for that matter, any language). It is possible that they would not be useful at all in teaching individuals who have had no education at all, or in teaching people who had not studied mathematics, but the simplicity of the symbols and the small number of symbols used are advantages of this set of symbols. The use of these symbols also avoids the potential confusion that can be caused by defining terms within a language by means of that same language. In a classroom, there is often the possibility that the definition will be understood less than the term being defined.

For the theoretical reason that these concepts appear to be quite basic, and for the practical reason that the concepts can be symbolized by forms that are likely to be understood by a large number of potential language students, the system of prepositional forms presented here is based on this set of concepts, and the concepts are expressed by the symbols shown on page 59 and above.

Dimensionality of the Point of Reference

While Praninskas only hints at dimensionality as a factor in the definition of at/on/in (1975:119), Leech overtly identifies dimensionality as the primary factor in distinguishing among these three forms (1969:159). Leech does overtly add dimensionality to his discussion of other prepositional forms, and he does generally use at, on or in

to define the other forms, thereby explicitly conveying the idea that dimensionality is a concept that can be applied to virtually all of the commonly-used forms.

In the learning of geometry, the concepts that a point has no dimensions, and that a line is one-dimensional, seem to be difficult concepts for students. The concepts of a plane having two dimensions, and of a solid having three dimensions do not seem to be as difficult to understand. The difficulty involved in learning the mathematical concepts concerning a point and a line imply that the "natural" and "unschooled" perception of these figures is not the same as the mathematical perception of them. The absence of equivalent difficulty in learning the mathematical concepts of a plane and a solid implies that the "natural" and "unschooled" concepts of these figures are reasonably close to the mathematical concepts of them. The mathematical symbols used to represent the relationships (pp. 59-60) seem to be as easy to teach (in many cases) as the symbols for a plane and for a solid, ostensibly because they represent relationships that are readily apparent in the real world, just as a plane and a solid represent geometric forms that are readily apparent in the real world. The conclusion from this seems to be that, if dimensionality is to be used in order to present information about prepositional forms, then dimensionality should probably be used in the "natural" or "unschooled" sense, thereby capitalizing on the information about the real world that people would possess even if they had not had any training in mathematical concepts.

Dimensionality is used as the basis for this presentation of information, but it is interpreted in a manner that would make a point

a one-dimensional figure, a line or a plane a two-dimensional figure, and a solid a three-dimensional figure. In addition, dimensionality is applied to all prepositional forms, and not solely to at, on and in.

It is necessary to emphasize that "dimensionality," as it is used here, does not refer to the actual physical properties of an entity, but to the speaker's perception of an entity. As a result, the speaker may disregard irrelevant properties, or two different speakers may have two different perspectives. For example, a street corner may be viewed as one-dimensional by a speaker who perceives that corner as the point of intersection, and the same corner may be viewed as two-dimensional by a speaker who focusses on the two streets that form the corner.

Opposition of Location and Motion

The concept that some prepositional forms indicate location while others identify location as the result of motion or in combination with motion, is introduced into Leech's presentation in the discussion of over and under (1969:168). This concept is also discussed by López, and used in the differentiation of similar forms (1970:134).

Although the concept "motion" would have to be interpreted to mean more than translocation, it does appear to be applicable to the interpretation of prepositional forms. If "motion" is interpreted to mean activities such as walking, running, flying, etc., and is also interpreted to mean any activity that requires energy expenditure, then "motion" does seem, intuitively, to be in contrast to "location" (as a concept of any activity that does not require energy expenditure).

According to this interpretation, activities such as "receive" would be classified as "motion" as much as activities such as "give".

This does not appear to be inconsistent with the usage of other lexical items in the English language. "Think," which is not an activity that requires observable changes in location, does appear to be conceptualized as an activity that requires changes in "intellectual location," and can often be interpreted as a process rather than a state, whereas "holding an opinion" appears to be interpretable as static, and when "think" is equivalent to "hold an opinion," then "think" must be interpreted as static condition rather than as activity. For example, one may be asked to express what one thinks <u>about</u> a particular situation, but one is asked to think a problem <u>through</u> (in order to arrive at a conclusion or answer).

"Location," with the meaning of physical, perceptible position, and with the meaning of status or state, is used for this presentation as the opposite of "motion," which is used to mean either observable changes in location, or changes in status or state.

Inclusion of Syntactically Different Forms

These five concepts form the "theoretical" basis for this presentation, but a decision must also be made about what items to include in the group of forms to be labelled "prepositional forms."

Several grammarians comment about the difficulty in distinguishing between adverbials and prepositions. They either state or imply that the primary difference between a preposition-like form that is used as an adverb and a preposition is the syntactic function of the element (Jespersen, 1964:68-9 and 88-9; Crowell, 1964:280; Roberts, 1954:222). If the only readily-apparent difference between these two forms lies in their syntactic function, then it would also be reasonable to assume

that any person who was not consciously concerned with syntactic function--presumably the majority of the people who study a language in order to use it as a tool, as opposed to those who study language in general or a particular language out of interest in that language--would also be unable to distinguish a preposition-like form that was adverbial from a preposition-like form that was a preposition. Since this presentation is intended for use by individuals who may or may not have an awareness of or a sensitivity to syntactic function, it would seem reasonable to use the "lowest common denominator" in the presentation, and essentially disregard syntactic function as a crucial distinguishing element.

Disregarding syntactic differences would result in a presentation that would account for a preposition-like item in any syntactic environment, including the "two-word verbs," or idiomatic expressions. Not only would such a presentation classify the up of "He blew up the building" in the same category as the up of "He climbed up the ladder," but it would also have to include up in such words as uppity, upward, uphill, upright, upkeep, uprising, buildup, close-up, set-up, makeup, comeuppance, and letup, and it would have to include up in expressions such as "He's not up yet." It should probably also include up in series with other prepositions, as in "He climbed up out of the hole" and "The prices ranged up to $100."

This type of grouping is not entirely without precedent among grammarians. In addition to mentioning that adverbial forms often appear to be the same as prepositions, grammarians have discussed "conglomerate" prepositions such as throughout, in front of, out of, together with, etc., (Roberts, 1954:223), and have discussed preposition-like prefixes as being related to prepositions (López, 1970:87-92).

In this presentation, each unit is interpreted as having meaning, in contradiction to the perspective that prepositions are meaningless elements, and the assertion that the preposition-like units have meaning in themselves is supportive of the idea that syntactic differences may be disregarded in the presentation of information about pr positions and preposition-like forms. The meaning that is contained in the unit (or which the unit represents) acts as the unifying factor. In this presentation, therefore, syntactic differences are considered secondary, and the unity of meaning is considered primary.

Indications of Relationships

Prepositions are generally accepted as the indicators of relationships. Differences of opinion arise among grammarians over the meaningfulness of the prepositional element, or over the nature of the relationship that is specified, but seldom over the question of whether or not prepositions do mark relationships.

It would seem reasonable to assert that, if there is a relationship being marked, then there must be two explicit elements (at least) that function as the related elements. This could very possibly be the origin of the insistence on accepting as prepositions only those items that have an overtly represented object (Klammer, 1977:109; Roberts, 1954:222; Pike and Pike, 1977:30).

This is not consistent with the real world. In many cases, it is possible to observe an action while being ignorant of its origin or of its goal. It is, for example, possible to see someone running without knowing where the runner came from, or where he intends to end up. It it also possible, grammatically, to have sentence elements that either

take an object or do not take an object, depending on the context: It is possible for a person to _eat_, or to _eat breakfast_.

This may lead to the conclusion that a relationship may be visible, while the elements that form that relationship are not visible, and it would then seem reasonable to mark the relationship with a preposition, and, at the same time, to have no object of the preposition. The pedagogical grammarians focus on the object of the preposition, to the exclusion of the other element in the relationship (Crowell, 1964; Krohn, 1971; Danielson and Hayden, 1975; Praninskas, 1975; Ebbitt and Ebbitt, 1977; Klamer, 1977), as do most of the theoretical grammarians (Jespersen, 1964; Fries, 1940; Roberts, 1954; Jacobs and Rosenbaum, 1968; Langendoen, 1970). Four of the grammarians do pay some attention to the other element in the relationship (Bennett, 1968; Pike and Pike, 1977; Fillmore, 1966; López, 1970), but not one of them arrives at any conclusion concerning the nature of the element that forms the relationship when paired with the object of the preposition.

For the purposes of this presentation, referring to the noun or noun substitute that follows the prepositional element as the object of the preposition is acceptable, provided that it is understood that this "object" may be deleted when the information is known or when the exact nature of the object is unknown, and therefore unspecifiable. This type of strategy seems to be what motivates the construction of sentences such as "I ate late last night." There is no expressed object for the verb _ate_, although _eat_ generally can be understood to have an object. The speaker (presumably) knows what the object of _eat_ is, but the listener also knows at least the pertinent characteristics of the

object. In much the same way, one might also say that a person "took

his hat off," deleting the object of the preposition "off" because it

is known information. One can say (to the distress of some prescriptive

grammarians), "I didn't know where he was running to," choosing the prep-

osition to under the assumption that the action of running has a specific

location as its goal, even when the content of the utterance makes it

clear that the exact nature of that goal is unknown to the speaker. In

much the same way, one can say that a person "runs around." "Running,"

which could be expected to be a goal-directed activity, does not seem to

the speaker to have a specific goal. At the very least, the speaker

does not know the exact nature of the object of the preposition around,

and therefore does not overtly express any object: the speaker per-

ceives of the action as being figuratively circular, neither approach-

ing nor regressing from any specific goal. In these cases, when the

object of the preposition is not expressed because it is know to the

listener or because its exact nature is unknown to the speaker, the

choice of prepositions would depend on the speaker's perception of the

nature of the unexpressed object of the preposition.

For this presentation, the other element that is involved in the

relationship is called the "subject" of the relationship, for the fol-

lowing reasons: 1) this does not require the introduction of any new

terminology, but simply puts to a different use a term that most of the

students would already know; 2) the relationship appears to be quite

strong and is conveyed through a third element, similar to the strong

relationship that exists between the subject and object of a sentence

and that is identified through the verb form; and 3) the first element

appears to be obligatory, much as the subject of an English sentence

appears to be obligatory, while the object of the preposition can be deleted, much as the object of a sentence can be deleted, as shown above. There is,however, no strong evidence to indicate that the "subject" of a prepositional phrase must be a noun phrase, as is generally the case for the subject of a sentence.

The "subject" of a prepositional phrase may depend on context and on meaning more than on form or structure. In "He hit the ball over the fence," ball appears to be the subject of over the fence, but in "He was hitting the ball in the garden," the subject of in the garden appears to be he rather than the ball. While it is possible to determine, on the basis of native speaker intuition, what the subject of a particular prepositional phrase may be, it seems to be difficult to provide a formula that would allow for identification of the subject of any and all prepositional forms or phrases.

The primary considerations in the selection of a preposition for a particular utterance appear to be the relationship that the speaker wishes to express, and the speaker's perception of the form of the object of the preposition, whether or not that object is overtly expressed in the utterance. For this presentation, the other element in the relationship that is expressed by a prepositional form is called the "subject" and the element that has traditionally be called the object of the preposition is called the object of the preposition, and the label "object" is used even when this form is not overtly expressed.

Summary: Framework for the Proposed System

As discussed in this section of this chapter, this proposal for a presentation of information concerning English prepositions is based on

the assumption that prepositional forms are systematic. It also is based on the assumption that prepositional forms are meaningful in and of themselves, since it is this meaning that is used to systematize the forms. Spatial relationships are considered of primary importance, with the dimensionality of the point of reference (object of the preposition) as one type of distinction, and the oposition of location (status) and motion (activity) as another crucial distinction. Eleven different relationships are examined: equivalence, non-equivalence, superiority, inferiority, approximate equality, conjunction, disjunction, reciprocity, no relationship, approaching equivalence and withdrawing from equivalence. These relationships are examined to determine if they represent the same type of relationship only in prepositional phrases, or if they can be extended to cover preposition-like forms in other syntactic environments. The term "object" is applied to the element that has traditionally been labelled the "object of preposition," but it is applied even in cases where no object is overtly expressed, and the term "subject" is used to identify the other element in the relationship with the object.

Integration of Prepositional Forms into Framework

Into this framework fit many of the simple, one-word prepositional forms of the English language, and some of the compounded or "conglomerate" prepositional forms. A chart (formulated by the writer) which shows the arrangement of the factors that have been discussed, and the placement of English prepositional forms with reference to these factors, appears on the following page (Figure 7, p.70), and the discussion of sections of this chart appears on the pages following this chart.
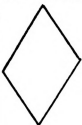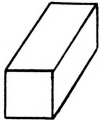
GENERAL FORM OF O		ONE DIMENSIONAL	TWO DIMENSIONAL		THREE DIMENSIONAL
Specific Form of O		point	line	plane	solid
ACTIVITY OR STATE OF S	RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN S & O				
Location	S = 0	AT	ALONG	ON	INSIDE
Motion					IN
Location	S ≠ 0	(not at)	OFF		OUTSIDE
Motion		AWAY			OUT
Location	S > 0	ABOVE	BEYOND	OVER	
Motion		UP	PAST	ACROSS	THROUGH
Location	S < 0	BELOW	BENEATH	UNDER	
Motion		DOWN			
	S ≈ 0	ABOUT	ALONGSIDE	BESIDE(S)	AROUND
Location	S →0	BEFORE	UNTIL	IN FRONT OF	NEAR
Motion		TO	TOWARD	ONTO	INTO
Location	O S→	AFTER	SINCE	BEHIND	//FAR//(?)//
Motion		FROM	AWAY FROM	OFF OF	OUT OF
	S — 0	OPPOSITE	AGAINST		
Location	S + 0	OF	BY	FOR	
Motion		WITH		DURING	THROUGHOUT
	S ⇌ 0	/////////	BETWEEN	AMONG	WITHIN
	S Ø 0	EXCEPT	APART FROM	ASIDE FROM	WITHOUT

Figure 7. Chart of Prepositional Relationships

The discussion is divided into sections according to the types of relationships (equivalence, etc.), and according to "location" and "motion" for those relationships where these factors appear to be most relevant. Each discussion includes the author's conception of the meaning of the relationship category, and a discussion, with examples, of the prepositional forms that the author feels belong in the category. An attempt is made to include compounded words and two-word verbs, as well as prepositions, in these discussions.

There are some phrases that do not appear to fit the categories that are described, and they could be clues of misplacement in the presentation, or they could be frozen forms that have remained in the language as idioms while the prepositional forms that they contain changed over time. A phrase such as against the wall ("The ladder was leaning against the wall") does not seem to fit the category of "disjunction" as well as against the dictator does in the sentence "The rebels fought against the dictator."

Equivalence: At, Along, On, In, Inside

One of the most directly visible relationships that two entities may have is that of equivalence of location. Whatever the "subject" of the relationship may be, if two entities are located in the same place, at is used if the object of the preposition is a point, along is used if the object of the preposition is a line, on is used if the object of the preposition is a plane, and in is used if the object of the preposition is a solid. "At the corner" is used when the corner is conceived of as a point, perhaps the intersection of two streets, similar to the way that a mathematician would plot a point on a graph by showing it as the intersection of two lines. "On the corner" can be used

when the corner is visualized as a plane or a surface formed by the concrete of the sidewalk, the length and width of the plane being formed by the two streets that cross each other. "In the corner" requires a three-dimensional figure in order to be the appropriate mode of expression. A box, a room, a hall, a cabinet, a desk drawer, or anything that has a corner that is formed by the intersection of three planes, is appropriately accompanied by in.

"In the desk" is used to refer to an item that is contained within a three-dimensional space, usually a desk drawer. "On the desk" refers to an item that is located on the surface of the desk, usually the top planar surface (and the third dimension of the desk is irrelevant here). "At the desk" refers to the desk as a point in space, collocating the subject and the object at the same point in space (and the dimensionality of the desk is completely irrelevant here).

Two different prepositional forms may be used when the reality of a physical situation permits viewing that situation from two different perspectives. At a corner and on a corner may both be used in reference to a street corner, which is formed by two streets, and which is also the point of intersection of the two streets. At church and in church may both be used to describe the same situation, at being chosen when the speaker views "church" as a point in space that functions as a specific location, and in being chosen when the speaker views the church as being a building, which is three-dimensional.

Along is generally used with reference to fences, the side of a house, a property line, or some other entity for which linearity is the salient characteristic. "There is parking along the street," "There is
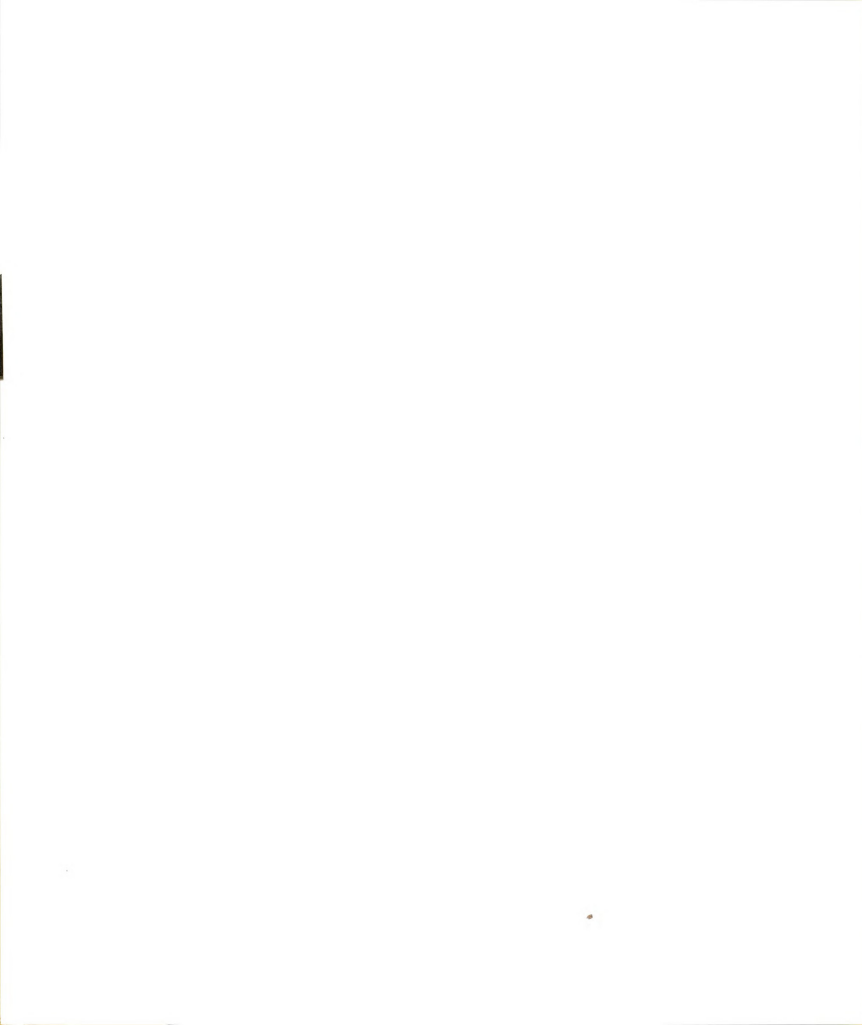
parking _on_ the street," "There is parking _in_ the street," all describe the same physical situation, but _along_ the street suggests that there are quite a few parking places, running the length of the street.

Inside appears to be appropriate only when clearly-defined limits exist, such as the walls of a building, room, garden, etc. It imples containment, and for at least some native speakers of English, it is most appropriately used with verbs that refer to states rather than to motion. For some native speakers, "to walk _inside_ a room" means that the motion is wholly contained within the limits imposed by the walls of the room. This would represent a contrast for these speakers between motion from a position external to the room that ended in a position that was internal to the room (expressed by _into_). For these speakers, also, _in_ can be used to describe either situation, or can be used when the location does not have specific and confining limits. This could suggest that _inside_ may be an emphatic form of _in_, conveying no more information than would be conveyed by _in_, but rather, emphasizing certain perceptible aspects of the situation that is being described.

In standard varieties of American English, giving directions is generally done with _at_ when a specific house number is used (_at_ 211 Main Street), with _on_ when a two-dimensional measurement is used (_on_ the 800 block of Main Street), and _in_ is generally used only when the city or a neighborhood is the description that is given (They are _in_ New York; They live _in_ the student ghetto).

Location in time as well as in space can be done by means of these three prepositions. Simple units of time that specify the hour and minute, apparently are conceptualized as points in time, and it is

customary to say <u>at</u> 3:00. More complex units, such as specific dates or days of the week are apparently construed as two-dimensional, or at least as being less simple than a point in time, since they are customarily preceded by <u>on</u> (<u>on</u> the 27th of September; <u>on</u> Friday). Units of time that are more complex than days are generally preceded by <u>in</u> (<u>in</u> September, <u>in</u> 1978, <u>in</u> the twentieth century).

Expressions such as <u>in an hour</u> and <u>inside of an hour</u> are not inconsistent with this analysis, since an hour can be perceived as a solid unit of time, and <u>in an hour</u> generally means at the end of a sixty-minute period, while <u>inside of an hour</u> generally implies that the activity will be contained within the limits of one minute from the time of speaking until sixty minutes from the time of speaking, and while the activity may cease after only a few minutes, its maximum duration will be one hour. On the other hand, expressions such as <u>in an hour</u> and <u>in a minute</u> may be considered confounding data in this analysis, since they generally refer to the end of the time period, and not to some time within the limits of the stated time period.

In addition to time, <u>at/on/in/along/inside</u> may be used to express some imaginative or figurative concepts. One could say that a speaker was <u>at</u> a specific point in his lecture, that the lecture was <u>on</u> a certain topic, that the topic was <u>in</u> a certain field of study. One may also say that another lecturer expressed ideas that were <u>along</u> the same lines of thought. <u>Inside</u> does not appear to be a possible choice when the object of the preposition does not have recognizable sides or limits. In fact, <u>inside</u> appears to be quite restricted in use, since it cannot be used for expressions such as *<u>inside</u> a field of study, or at least

is not commonly used in such a phrase. In the intuitive analysis of the author, *inside a field of study does not seem to be grammatically unreasonable but it does seem to be unacceptable. Inside frequently occurs in the expression inside out, where it appears to have the character of a noun rather than that of a preposition or adverb, and this expression is one of the few instances where inside might be given a figurative meaning.

The expression inside out, which can also be viewed as a series of prepositional forms appears to contain the same semantic import that is conveyed by the prepositional use of inside. One can say that someone is inside the house, or talk about the inside of a house, and while these are obvious changes in the grammatical function of the word inside, they do not appear to convey significantly different meanings. One can talk about what one "feels inside," and seldom, if ever, does one overtly express any object of the preposition inside. In this case, the unmentioned object would appear to be figurative in nature, but it also appears to be quite difficult to express by means of any particular, customary expression.

In comparison to the usage of inside, the prepositional forms at, on, and in may combine more freely with other prepositional forms, either in separable sequences, or in apparently inseparable combinations.

Since a large number of students say that they have been taught never to use more than one preposition, and since students appear to have considerable difficulty in distinguishing acceptable sequences from unacceptable sequences, it is helpful for the student to be given

information about potential sequences of prepositional forms. For example, <u>at</u> can appear in sequences such as <u>at about</u>, <u>at around</u>, <u>at above</u>, <u>at below</u>, <u>at over</u>, <u>at under</u>, <u>along at</u>, <u>on at</u>, <u>inside at</u>, <u>in at</u>, <u>outside at</u>, <u>out at</u>, and <u>over at</u>. When <u>at</u> appears first in the sequence, it appears to indicate that the following items will be indicators of location, either physical or figurative: He will come <u>at about</u> 6:00; The temperature stabilized <u>at about</u> 60°; These items can be purchased <u>at under</u> one half of the regular price. When <u>at</u> appears second in the sequence, it appears to be an indicator of location as well, but the items that follow it are more specific (less approximate) than the items shown above with <u>at</u> appearing first in the sequence: That TV show comes <u>on at</u> 6:00, You'll find him <u>in at</u> the bar; I was <u>over at</u> my friend's house. These sequences of prepositional forms are not structurally the same. "The TV show is <u>at about</u> 6:00" is structurally similar to "The TV show is <u>at</u> approximately 6:00," but "The TV show comes <u>on at</u> 6:00," the <u>on</u> seems to be related to <u>comes</u> more than to <u>at 6:00</u>. Since the types of potential sequences may be dependent on the meanings expressed by the prepositional forms, it seems relevant to discuss at least the possible acceptable sequences.

<u>On</u> appears to combine sequentially as freely as <u>at</u>, or possibly even more freely: You have the coat <u>on inside out</u>; Come <u>on down out of</u> there; He went <u>off on</u> a wild goose chase; We'll be <u>down on about</u> the 24th; She is here every day <u>except on</u> Wednesday; etc. In these examples, and in the many other examples that can readily be constructed, <u>on</u> regularly appears to convey approximately the same meaning, although it is quite difficult to capture the "definition" of <u>on</u>.

In also appreas in sequences quite frequently: Come on in out of the rain; I'll be in with the doctor in about a minute; He is outside over in the park; She'll be around in an hour; etc. Again, in appears to convey a consistent meaning, and that meaning appears to be acceptable in combination with the meanings of some of the other prepositional forms. In expressions that denote non-physical entities, in appears to be the choice that is more commonly acceptable than inside: in common, in white, in pain, in power, in possession, in preference, etc. Presence is regularly expressed by in appearing alone, but not by inside unless "sides" or limits are discernible: He is in the park, He is inside the park; They sat down in the classroom, They sat down inside the classroom; All of the people in the room were enjoying themselves, All of the people inside the room were enjoying themselves; All of the students in the class were there (but not *All of the students inside the class were there); We voted in the last election (but not *We voted inside the last election); The doctor is in today (but not *The doctor is inside today, as a statement of the presence, as opposed to the absence, of the doctor).

The phrases in which the prepositional form appears alone, with no accompanying object, can be classified into two distinct types of meaning categories: unexpressed object and unexpressible object. For the unexpressed object category, at does not appear to have any readily accessible entries, but on, in and along do. If one says "We were just walking along," the object is not expressed, but it is understood to be some sort of path, street, roadway, sidewalk or route, all of which are essentially linear. The exact identity of the location of walking is

not stated, very possibly because it is unessential information. The implications of this type of statement are often that the walking had no specific goal, or that it was not hurried. The general purposes of "walking along" seem to be to pass time, to get exercise, or some other activity that does not have a defined point in space or time as its goal. The configuration of the location in which the action takes place is provided by the prepositional form, which appears to be specific enough to convey the communicative intent of the speaker. If one says "He kept his hat on," or "He put his clothes on hurriedly," there is no object that needs to be expressed, since the object location of the activity is well-known and obvious. In the case that the activity is not directed toward the obvious location, it seems necessary to overtly express the object: "He put his hat on the chair," or "He put his clothes on the hangers hurriedly." If one talks about settling in to a new house or apartment, one generally does not have any obvious need to express the object of the prepositional form in: "I need a week to get settled in." The meanings conveyed by the prepositional forms do not seem to be significantly different from the meanings that such forms would have in a grammatically-defined prepositional phrase.

In the case that the nature of the object of the preposition is not known precisely, but some pertinent characteristics of the object are known, the object may be unexpressible, for the simple reason that no expression exists (or is known to the speaker) that would serve to clearly identify the object to the listener. In these cases, the pertinent characteristics appear to be the means by which a preposition is selected. In the current expression "where it's at," the implications

are that whatever "it" is, "it" is expected to have a precise location, and a location that is not everly extensive. If one talks about "helping someone along," one does not have any apparent travel location in mind, but one conveys the image that the motion is linear, in the way that time, life, and some other such concepts are considered linear. On also can be used to convey the image of passage along a route or path, even in phrases like keep on and go on, expecially when they are followed by no object or by an implicit verbal expression: "He was doing a good job, so I told him to keep on." When the expression "hand in" is used, one can get a mental image of a reasonably large number of distinct items that are collected together in one location, thereby forming a larger unit, which is complex by virtue of being composed of a multlplicity of component parts. The exact nature of the entity that is created is quite difficult to express by means of any simple, readily-accessible expression in the English language.

It seems reasonable to assert that there are entities that exist but that are not easy to express in a given language. For example, the French chez does not have any simple and readily-accessible equivalent in the English language. In addition, it is a common human experience to have an idea, but not know how to express that idea in words. Given that vocabulary in a language seems to depend on common agreement concerning meaning, it is possible to conceive of common agreement about the difficulty in expressing a concept. In the case of reference being made to such items, no name (simple, readily-accessible expression) would need to be created to fill the lexical "gap" in the language. With the "subject" of the prepositional form being stated, and the

prepositional form being stated in order to identify the relationship that is being expressed, it would seem that the hearer has been given adequate semantic information by the speaker.

In summary, equivalence of location, whether that equivalence is the result of motion, or simultaneous with motion, or simply expressed without any reference to motion, can be expressed in standard varieties of American English by at, along, on, in and inside, depending on the observable shape or the hypothesized shape of the stated or the unexpressed object of the prepositional form.

Non-Equivalence: Away, Off, Out, Outside

In contrast to the relationship of equivalence of location, is the relationship of non-equivalence of location, expressed by means of away, off, out and outside.

Because a point is a specific, but very limited, location in space, most entities will be non-equivalent in location to any given point, and equivalence of location will be the exception rather than the rule. For this reason, it seems reasonable to conjecture that the English language can express non-equivalence of location simply by negating the equivalence-marking prepositional form, rather than by using any specific form, as in the following sentence: "They were throwing stones, but not at the puddle of water." Since this is not really a special form, or even one created by combining elements, it is not included in the list of forms, but it does seem to be able to function as the opposite in meaning to the form at, when at is used to express equivalence of location.

Although it is not strongly prepositional in grammatical function, away seems to function as the opposite of at, when at is used to express equivalence of location as the result of, or simultaneous with, some motion. It appears to be primarily adverbial in grammatical function, as in the following sentences: She took the book to her room/She took the book away. Away functions in the example here in almost exactly the same way as the prepositional phrase to her room, but it can also function in a manner that is similar to the functioning of the preposition-like particles: She took away the book. This interposition between the verb and the direct object of the sentence cannot normally be found with prepositional phrases that function as adverbials. Away can be used as a one-word expression of location, in the same way that in and out can: The doctor is in./The doctor is out./The doctor is away. In most cases where a noun or a noun substitute follows away, away appears in combination with from, to form the compound prepositional unit away from, which will be discussed under the category of "Withdrawing from Equivalence (Motion)" (pp. 103). Since away does appear to contrast in meaning with at, it will be considered the opposite of at, expressing non-equivalence of location as a result of motion or simultaneous with motion, but it must also be noted that away does not function as universally as at does, since it does not appear alone before a noun phrase or a noun substitute.

Two-dimensional non-equivalence relationships all seem to be expressed by the preposition off, or by the negation of the prepositional form along and on, which serve to represent equivalent-location relationships. The on/off contrast appears quite frequently in everyday

life, and this frequency of occurrence implies that the relationship of opposition that these two forms have with each other is quite strongly-felt by speakers of English.

Three-dimensional non-equivalence relationships are expressed by forms that are parallel to the forms used to express three-dimensional equivalence relationships. In contrast to in, is the form out; in contrast to inside, is the form outside. Out appears to be as generally acceptable for expressing most non-equivalence relationships as in is for expressing most equivalence relationships. Outside appears to be slightly more commonly used in a figurative sense than inside can be, expecially with reference to some entity, concept or situation that is external to the speaker. If one refers to the "outside world," one is generally not making reference to that world which can be found in a location that is external to an observable three-dimensional object, but, rather, one is generally referring to some entity or concept that is not at all felt to be related to the speaker. This is parallel, but in contrast, to the concept that one's feelings and abilities are located somewhere inside of one.

This category of forms does not seem to be productive of a wide range of figurative expressions. Away, off and out cannot be used to express time relationships that are opposite to those expressed by at, on and in. Most of the expressions that use the form off are expressions that refer to insanity, unworldliness, or some situation that could be viewed as other than the normal human condition. Expressions such as "He is out of his mind" are different from the following off expressions in that they use a double-prepositional unit: "He is off

his rocker," "That idea is <u>off</u> the wall," "He has been <u>off</u> his feet for a while," and "He has gone <u>off</u> the deep end." To break away from the use of addictive drugs is "to get <u>off</u> drugs," but addiction could be considered the norm while it is present. Figurative usage in expressions that function grammatically as prepositional phrases is quite uncommon, but, at the same time, figurative usage in two-word verbs and in elliptical expressions appears to be much more common.

Combination of these forms with other prepositions appears to be almost the rule rather than the exception to the rule, and <u>off of</u> and <u>out of</u> appear to be more common than <u>off</u> and <u>out</u> used alone, in the same way that <u>away from</u> appears to be more common than <u>away</u> alone. <u>Outside</u> is used often without an accompanying preposition when it refers to physical location, and with an accompanying preposition when it refers to a figurative location: "He was standing <u>outside</u> the house"; "He doesn't care about anything <u>outside of</u> his work." Triple prepositional units such as <u>in out of</u>, <u>out into</u>, <u>in off of</u> and <u>out onto</u> are quite commonly used, and they appear to be combinations of an elliptical unit (either due to foreknowledge or to the inexpressibility of the object) and an expressed-object phrase. For example, in the expression "He doesn't know enough to come <u>in out of</u> the rain," it appears that the object of the prepositional form <u>in</u> is expressed (perhaps even unexpressible), but that "the rain" functions as the object of the prepositional form <u>out of</u>.

The figurative expressions that use <u>away</u>, <u>off</u> and <u>out</u> in combination with a verb appear to be of both different elliptical types. In an

utterance such as "He couldn't get away because the handcuffs were too effective," it appears that there is an object to away that would refer to the captor or the place of captivity, but in the utterance "We went to the mountains to get away," the object of away could be either some specific situation, or "everything," or some inexpressible entity. When one uses an expression such as "the effects of the drug wore off," while there is no explicit object to the prepositional form off, it can be understood that the taker of the drug would be the "location" from which the effects of the drug departed. In a phrase such as "the attorney tried to throw off the opposition by introducing irrelevant information," the object of the preposition off is a little more difficult to define, although it does seem, intuitively, to be quite clear. In an expression like "He wanted to find a girl to take out," the object of out appears to be some kind of reference to "his" place of residence, but in the phrase "think out that problem," the object of out, while it seems to be clear, is quite difficult to summarize or paraphrase.

The prepositional forms off and out seem to convey general meanings of completion, termination, disappearance and removal. The difference between "to clean the table" and "to clean off the table" does not seem to be particularly great, except perhaps that the phrase with off implies as a three-dimensional space, and one may say that a person is at church or in church, depending on the persepective that is chosen by the speaker.

Above, beyond and over are not generally used in order to specify a point in time, but over may be used to specify an amount of time that is in excess of a stated amount of time, such as "He worked over two

hours," with the meaning that the time expended exceeded two hours. It is also possible to use _beyond_ when referring to a time as a type of limit: "You will not be permitted to stay _beyond_ the first of the month." It does not appear to be possible to talk about an amount of time with _beyond_: "*He worked _beyond_ two hours," if it is acceptable at all, appears to mean that he exceeded a two-hour limit. While _over_ appears to be used with amounts, it does not appear possible with amounts that are clearly limits: "*You will not be permitted to stay _over_ the first of the month."

In other types of figurative uses, _above_, _beyond_ and _over_ appear to be differentiated by the complexity of the object of the preposition, with _above_ generally being used with specific points, _beyond_ with limits, and _over_ with complex units. It appears to be acceptable to say that a temperature reading was _above_ 50° but not acceptable to say that a temperature reading was _over_ 50°. It appears to be acceptable to say that the termperature of a room is _over_ 50° or _above_ 50°, but the temperature of a room could be considered the all-inclusive comfort level of the room, or it could be considered the reading on a thermometer. With temperature, _beyond_ seems most appropriate when referring to an increase or decrease in temperature that is in excess of the limits of comfort: It appears to be acceptable to say that the temperature went _beyond_ $100^\circ F$, although even this seems a little awkward.

One generally would use _over_ with reference to weight, saying that a person is 20 pounds _over_weight, but _above_ and _beyond_ do not seem to be acceptable in this context. When a person has taken on an excessive amount of work, or has taken on work that demands more

time or skill than that individual possesses, one can say that the person is "over his head," but it does not appear to be acceptable to say that the person is "*above his head," or "*beyond his head." While it is acceptable to say that something is "beyond the limits of human decency," it does not appear to be acceptable to say that something is "*above the limits of human decency" or "*over the limits of human decency." When one says that something is "beyond belief," one is not generally saying that that something is more than belief, but that it exceeds the limits of credibility. To say that someone is above suspicion or above bribery appears to be a statement that the person's character is such that it would not allow for the collocation of suspicion and bribery with that individual. To say that a person is beyond suspicion may imply that the person has already undergone some sort of test, and that any suspicion that might have been present before no longer is present. *Over suspicion does not seem to have any recognizable meaning.

Common, almost fomulaic expressions such as over and above and above and beyond, imply that there is some difference among these forms, which would justify their being conjoined by and, but they appear to be emphatic forms, and can also be interpreted as forms that are similar enough in meaning to amplify and intensify each other's meanings. Other combinations are possible, with other prepositional forms, but to say that a stock was selling at above the normal rate appears to be more acceptable than to say that the stock was selling *on above the normal rate or *in above the normal rate, or to say that the stock was selling *at beyond the normal rate, or *at over the

normal rate. On, especially in the figurative use meaning to continue an already-started activity, appears to be most acceptable with beyond and over, rather than with above: "The meeting went on beyond the regular adjournment time"; "I told my friend to come on over."

When above appears in combination with a verb, but with no expressed object of the preposition, it most often appears to be an omission of an inexpressible entity: "I could hear footsteps on the floor above." In this example, the speaker would presumably mean the floor that was above him or her. Above can also be used as a reference to the deity, to some superior force, or to heaven, as the residence of a supreme being: "A voice from above inspired him to act"; "These orders are from above."

When beyond is used without an object, it generally refers to the location just mentioned or to a reference point that the speaker has made explicit: "From the mountaintop, you could see the valley beyond"; "We were discouraged because we could see only sand and nothing beyond." Beyond does not seem to be used when no object is overtly expressed or referred to, such as in "verb-particle" combinations.

Over seems to imply a complete change of position, whether it be the progression from one specific point to another, such as in the expressions come over, drive over or jump over, or the total coverage of a surface, such as in the expression freeze over, cover over, spread over or think over, or the completion of an activity, such as the statements that the meeting, play, storm, etc. is over, or even movement away from an upright position (fall over, tip over, push over). Over also may be used in elliptical expressions, usually of the type where the object is obvious but unexpressed: "The fence

was high so he helped the young children <u>over</u>"; "We could hear airplanes passing <u>over</u>."

While there may be figurative meanings attached to compounds formed with <u>above</u> and <u>over</u>, the basic meanings of <u>above</u> and <u>over</u> do not appear to be altered by the act of combining: <u>overhead</u> still essentially means in a location that is superior to the location of one's head; <u>above-board</u> is essentially the opposition in meaning to "under the table," in the sense that an action that would be described as <u>aboveboard</u> would not be covert or hidden, or would have no reason to be performed in a covert or hidden fashion.

Superiority of Motion: Up, Past, Across, Through

A final superiority of location that is connected with, or that is the result of, motion, can be expressed by <u>up</u>, for locations that are specific and can be compared to a point, by <u>past</u>, for linear progression or for motion that exceeds a limit, by <u>across</u>, for collocation on opposite sides of a plane or for motion that progresses past the side boundaries of a plane, and by <u>through</u>, for motion that progresses from one side of a solid figure to the other side.

<u>Up</u> generally refers to motion of some kind that results in an increase in elevation, such as climbing <u>up</u> a ladder, <u>up</u> a mountain, <u>up</u> a wall, but such motion does not usually cover a very extensive area, being limited to a path, walkway or the treads of a ladder. One can also use <u>up</u> to express the idea of a location of increased elevation that is the result of motion: "The cat is <u>up</u> the tree." <u>Past</u> is used to express motion that proceeds beyond the stated limit: "The parade went <u>past</u> the house." <u>Past</u> can also be used to express location at a distance that is greater than another distance: "The pizza shop is

past the bus station." In this last example, it is usually necessary to specify direction of motion, such as "heading west on Grand River Avenue." _Across_ is used to express movement that proceeds from one side of a planar boundary to another: "They walked _across_ the street." _Across_ can be used to express the location of one entity that is on a planar boundary that is opposite to another: "His office is _across_ the hall from mine." _Through_ is used to express motion from one boundary of a solid to another boundary: "He made his way _through_ the room." _Through_ can also be used to express location that is the result of motion, or that can be reached by means of motion: "You'll find his office _through_ the second door."

With points of time, usually hours (and not more specific than a half-hour or quarter-hour measurement), _past_ can be used: "It was _past_ three before we got there." The non-specific nature of the time implies that the time is being considered a limit or boundary, rather than the point-like measurement "it is 3:10 P.M." _Across_ and _through_ appear to be able to be used with units of time such as years, decades, centuries, etc.: "_Across_ the years I have watched the town change"; "This knowledge has been passed down _through_ the centuries."

In other figurative uses, _up_ appears to be restricted to specific locations: "That job was right _up_ his alley"; "He had made the wrong choice and found himself _up_ a creek." _Past_ seems to be used to express the exceeding of discernible limits: "He was _past_ caring about any-thing." _Across_ and _through_ seem to appear more with verbs in verb-particle combinations than to appear in prepositional phrases with expressed figurative objects: "We became acquainted _across_ the dinner table"; "We met _through_ a mutual friend."

In verb plus prepositional form combinations, _across_ and _through_ seem to be most commonly used in combination with verbs of motion or successful achievement, such as _come_, _go_ and _get_. To come _across_ with something is to produce that something at an appropriate time and place, and this is essentially the same as the interpretation of to come _through_ with something. To come _across_ or to get _through_ to someone means to be able to convey an idea or a belief in such a way that it is accepted by the listener. In many of these figurative uses, the unstated object of the preposition appears to be an indefinable concept: What is the "territory" that one must traverse in order to make another person understand an idea? What is the nature of the territory that one must cross in order to be able to produce a needed entity at an appropriate time and place, and to a needing person?

Past appears to be limited primarily to use in contexts that make the unexpressed object of the prepositional form somewhat obvious in nature: "We watched the parade as it went _past_"; "He wanted to join us then, but the time for such an action was already _past_."

_Up_ appears to be able to express either increase in quantity or in quality, or a completive type of meaning. In quite a few of the cases in which _up_ is used in combination with a verb, _up_ can be considered a superfluous element, the addition of which adds nothing but emphasis to the meaning of the utterance. To fill _up_ a glass is not semantically different from to fill a glass; to light _up_ a room does not appear to be significantly different from lighting a room; to wrap _up_ a package does not seem to be at all different from wrapping a package. Substituting the word "completely" in many of these expressions provides an indication of the type of information that is conveyed by the

addition of the word up. The "increase" that is expressed by the
addition of up to a verbal entity could be the kind of increase that
begins with non-existence and ends with existence: to "bring up" a
topic in a conversation is to introduce that topic when it was not
previously in the conversation; when something "rises up," it can be
thought to have appeared, and to have not been present or visible prior
to the time being considered. Up appears to be extremely common in
usage, and to have the potential for being combined with an extremely
large number of items. It seems to have a restriction in that it does
not usually combine with forms that have any implications of decrease
or disappearance. "*To descend up" does not appear to be possible, but
a combination like "to raise up," while it may include a redundant item,
is possible. In some expressions, up and down appear to be interchange-
able: "to go up a street" is the same for some speakers as "to go down
a street," unless the direction of motion includes an incline or grade
of some sort, in which case, up must be used with reference to the in-
creasing elevation and down must be used with reference to the decreas-
ing elevation.

Up appears quite freely in sequential combinations with other prepo-
sitional forms. "He was standing up at the front of the line" implies a
superior position; "There were a lot of flowers up along the fence" im-
plies that the flowers were not very far away from the fence; "She was
sitting up on a tree limb" seems to designate a greater-than-normal
altitude of the location; "We couldn't see what was happening up in
the control room" implies that the control room was at a higher alti-
tude than the speaker. These sequences, and many others, seem to be
possible both with a "literal" meaning of increase or quantitative

superiority (as well as qualitative superiority), and with a figurative meaning of completion ("We finished <u>up in</u> an hour"/"to fill <u>up on</u> gas").

<u>Past</u>, <u>across</u> and <u>through</u> do not seem to combine as freely as <u>up</u> does, and a large number of compounded words exist that contain <u>up</u> rather than any of the other forms in this category. <u>Upstairs</u> can function as either an adverb of location or as a noun. <u>Upward</u> can function as either an adverb of location or as an adjective. <u>Uplift</u> can function as either a verb or a noun. In these forms, and in virtually all other similar forms, <u>up</u> seems to have the augmentative or completive properties that are conveyed by <u>up</u> as a preposition or as the prepositional form of a verb-particle combination.

Inferiority: Below, Down, Beneath, Under

In opposition to the indicators of superior location, <u>below</u> indicates inferiority of location, <u>down</u> indicates inferiority of location as the result of, or in combination with, motion, both of these forms (<u>below</u> and <u>down</u>) operating in conditions where the expressed or unexpressed object of the preposition can be imagined as a point. <u>Beneath</u> functions as the marker of inferior position with respect to a line or a limit, and <u>under</u> serves as the marker of inferior position to a planar or solid entity.

In describing the location of a book, for example, one might say that the book was located on the shelf <u>below</u> the dictionary, but if giving directions to another person who was looking at the higher rather than the lower shelves, one would tell the person to look <u>down</u> one shelf. It sounds odd to say that the book would be <u>beneath</u> the dictionary (although this may sound perfectly natural to some speakers of English), but it sounds natural to say that the book is <u>under</u> the

dictionary, especially if the books are lying on their sides, rather than their edges. In a library, in which category markings might be expected, telling the person to look <u>below</u>, <u>beneath</u> or <u>under</u> the non-fiction category label all seem to be possible, but, as with other prepositional forms, this could be the result of being able to per-ceive the label as a point, a limit or as the boundary of a category, when a category is conceived of as a multidimensional or complex entity.

In figurative usages that concern time, <u>under</u> appears to be the only one of these forms that can be used, and it appears to be used only with amounts of time: "They did the job in <u>under</u> two hours." In referring to temperature, to say that the temperature was <u>below</u> 20° is to approximately locate the temperature with reference to a specific reading, but to say that the temperature was <u>down</u> 20° is to mark the amount of decrease that occurred over a given time, or to mark the dis-crepancy between an expected and an achieved temperature. It is also possible to say that a temperature is <u>under</u> 20°, but this could be the result of the perception of temperature not only as a measurement on a specific scale, but also as a manner of expressing the presence or ab-sence of comfort in a given environment.

Other figurative expressions using <u>below</u>, <u>down</u>, <u>beneath</u> and <u>under</u> include expressions such as "<u>below</u> par," which seems to have been taken from sporting terminology as a whole, and adapted for use in describing physical state. "Par" has been adapted from the meaning of a normal or average score to the meaning of feeling normally good; as a score, par is given a numerical value, and <u>below</u> is appropriate with it as a point on a scale of scores. Saying that someone is "<u>under</u> the weather" expresses the same essential meaning as "<u>below</u> par," but weather is not something

that can be conceived as easily as a point.

The preposition <u>down</u> appears to have completive implications that are similar to those conveyed by <u>up</u>, but <u>down</u> appears to convey negative connotations that are not usually present when <u>up</u> is used. <u>Down</u> also conveys the ideas of decrease in quantity or quality and of decomposition. To break <u>down</u> something is to reduce a complex unit to its component parts, and to slow <u>down</u> is to cause a decrease in velocity. <u>Below</u> and <u>beneath</u> do not appear as commonly in verb-particle units as do <u>down</u> and <u>under</u>, and none of these four prepositional forms appears as frequently in verb-particle combinations as do the indicators of superiority of position, <u>up</u>, <u>over</u>, <u>across</u> and <u>through</u>.

As markers of location, <u>down</u> and <u>under</u> appear to be different enough in meaning that they can be combined with each other, as well as being combined with various other units, to arrive at a precise definition of location or motion: "He went <u>down under</u> the house to check the flooring"; "They couldn't get <u>out from under</u> the oppressor"; "They came <u>down out of</u> the loft"; "She climbed <u>down into</u> the deep hole."

Many of the compounded words that are formed with <u>under</u> do not seem to be closely related to the meaning of <u>under</u>: understand, undergo, undertake. Others have a clear relationship with the meaning of <u>under</u>: underrate, underrun, underestimate, underscore. The compounded words formed with <u>down</u> generally appear to have a discernible relationship with the meaning of <u>down</u>: downturn, downgrade, rundown, brokendown, downhearted, etc. Neither <u>below</u> nor <u>beneath</u> seems to be very productive in terms of compoundings.

Approximate Equivalence: About, Alongside, Beside(s), Around

For expressing approximate equivalence, <u>about</u> can be used when the point of reference is a point, <u>alongside</u> can be used with reference to parallel location or location near a line, <u>beside</u> can be used with reference to a plane (<u>besides</u> is generally considered more appropriate when used with additive or exceptive meanings, but it is also commonly interchanged with <u>beside</u>), and <u>around</u> can be used to express approximate equality of location with reference to a solid figure, often something circular in shape.

<u>About</u> is not commonly used in contemporary standard American English to express physical location that is approximately equivalent, but it is used to express figurative location that is approximately equivalent, and it is used with numerical values, to express approximate equivalence. It appears to be quite common to combine <u>about</u> and <u>at</u>, rather than using <u>at</u> alone, to more precisely express a physical location: "I was <u>about at</u> the finish line when he overtook me." <u>About</u> can be used to express approximate time or percentages: "They'll start <u>about</u> 5:00"; "We had the support of <u>about</u> 50% of the voters." Figurative location that is approximate can be rendered by <u>about</u>: "He was <u>about</u> as conservative as anyone could be."

<u>Alongside</u> appears to be used most commonly with figures that are linear or with motion along parallel paths: "The flowers were planted <u>alongside</u> the road"; "He pulled <u>alongside</u> the truck."

<u>Beside</u> appears to convey the idea that the approximate location does not extend beyond the boundaries of a plane: "There was a garage <u>beside</u> the house"; "There was an apple lying <u>beside</u> the pear." There is no implication that the entity that serves as the object of the

preposition is surrounded by the other entity, even if both are three-dimensional figures. The three-dimensional character of the objects is not the pertinent characteristic in the relationship.

Around, on the other hand, allows the location to extend in any direction, and even to surround, the object of the preposition: "There were apples around the tree"; "The flies were buzzing around the picnic basket"; "They have a fence around their yard." In this last example, the implication is that the fence is on all four sides of the yard area, which would not be the implications of "They had a fence beside (or alongside) their house," which would give one the mental image of a fence on one side of the house.

Alongside and beside do not appear to be commonly used in figurative expressions, and when besides is used, it usually carries the meaning "in addition to."

Around does not appear to be commonly used in figurative expressions with an explicit object of the preposition, but it is commonly used with verbs, usually with the implications of non-directed activity: "He went around town looking for a job"; "They hung around at the drugstore"; "I'll do that when I get around to it." Around can also be used with numerical values, such as time, temperature and percentages: "Around 50% of the old employees are due to retire"; "The temperature was around 80 all day"; "He said we could meet around 5:00." This could be considered a partially figurative usage, in that a percentage represents a group as well as a numerical value assignment, a temperature can represent a level of comfort, or an ambiance, as well as a point on a scale of measurement, and time, especially a specific time, can be viewed from before, during or after, as well as being viewed as

a specific point.

The precise difference between _about_ and _around_, used with reference to time expressions, is hard to capture. While it is possible to say "This growth continued _about_ a century," it sounds quite odd to say "This growth continued _around_ a century." At the same time, however, it sounds equally good to say "This growth continued _for about_ a century" and "This growth continued _for around_ a century." Apparently, both _about_ and _around_ can be used to convey the concept of approximation, and both are acceptable in most contexts.

About and _around_, with the meaning "approximately," can be combined sequentially with other prepositions: "The bill came _to around_ $50" or "The bill came _to about_ $50." _Around_, with the meaning of non-directed activity, can be combined with _toward_, _until_, _to_, _with_, _beside_, and others: "They were ambling _around toward_ the river"; "They hung _around until_ closing"; "He never gets _around to_ doing that"; "They wandered _around with_ whoever was free"; "He goes _around with_ a bad crowd." In some dialects of English, _about_ can be used in these contexts, but in other dialects, it might be unacceptable.

While _about_ and _around_ may not be as precisely limited as this description would imply, they do both convey the meaning of approximate equality, both in physical location and in figurative location.

Approaching Equivalence (Location): Before, Until, In Front Of, Near

The prepositional forms in this category convey the idea of the subject of the preposition being located elsewhere, but undergoing a change, or subject to the possibility of a change, that would result in the collocation of the subject and the object. These prepositions include two

that are primarily, but not exclusively, used with reference to time. The passage of time is one-directional, so that anything that is located in such a way as to approach a mentioned time must occur prior to that time. <u>Before</u> introduces an object that is specific and defined, and that exists essentially as a point: "<u>Before</u> 3:00, we were ready to leave" or "We had to pack <u>before</u> leaving." Even when it is used to introduce a sentence <u>before</u> locates one activity prior to another in time: "We got dressed <u>before</u> they arrived." <u>Until</u> does not locate an activity at one point, but rather, indicates that the activity continued over a period of time, the end limit of which is expressed by the object of the preposition: "I doodled <u>until</u> they were ready to leave"; "I didn't get up <u>until</u> noon"; "They drove <u>until</u> they found a gas station." In these examples, the nature of the object of the preposition is not linear, but it functions as the limit for the described activity.

Before and <u>until</u> can also be used in expressions other than time: "It's the first house <u>before</u> the tracks" and "Keep going straight <u>until</u> the tracks, then turn right." In these examples, the tracks are a point of reference, serving as a point of comparison from which the "first house" can be measured in the sentence with <u>before</u>, and serving as the limit for the activity in the sentence with <u>until</u>.

It seems unlikely that <u>until</u> could be used with an unexpected object, since the setting of a limit requires the expression of that limit, but <u>before</u> seems to be used without an expressed object when that object would be "now" or when the object is obvious from the context: "He bought her a present, even though he had never done that <u>before</u>" or "I've neven been to Niagara Falls <u>before</u>." Neither <u>before</u> nor <u>until</u> combine freely with verbal units, in verb-particle combinations,

except for limited-usage expressions such as "to go _before_ a judge or court of law."

In front of and _near_ do not generally refer to time, but to physical location of the subject with reference to the object. _In front of_ refers to the single plane that is facing the speaker, or to the single plane that is considered commonly to be the "front" of the object of the preposition. _Near_ can refer to any plane or to all planes, regardless of orientation of the speaker or the entity.

Both of these units can be combined sequentially with other prepositions, in order to define location precisely: "He's _out in front of_ the building" or "He's _up near_ the building."

Neither _in front of_ or _near_ combine freely with verb units in verb-particle combinations, but _near_ can be used without an object, and _in front_ (without _of_) can be used without an object, when the object is obvious or has already been expressed: "He's standing right out _in front_" or "The squireel was too afraid to come _near_."

Near is also used to mean "approximately" when combined with numbers or with concepts that are usually not approximate: "She got _near_ 50% of the votes" or "It was a _near_ miss." _Near_ also can be used as a verb that means "to approach": "As they _neared_ the corner, they slowed down."

Approaching Equivalence (Motion): To, Toward, Onto, Into

The forms in this category are used with subjects of the prepositions that are located other than with the object of the preposition, but that undergo motion or change that is expected to result in equivalence of the location of the subject and the object of the preposition.

<u>To</u> is used for objects that can be conceived of as a point, <u>toward</u> with objects that are linear or that function as the limits of motion, <u>onto</u> with planar objects or with surfaces, and <u>into</u> with three-dimensional or complex units that are the object of the preposition.

<u>To</u>, <u>onto</u> and <u>into</u> imply attainment of the objective, in that the subject not only approaches the object, but achieves collocation with the object of the preposition. <u>Toward</u>, while it conveys approaching the object, does not presuppose attainment of the object.

In general, these forms do not appear without an object, with the exception of a few verb-particle combinations with <u>to</u>: "To come <u>to</u>" may be considered an elliptical expression, with the unexpressed object being "consciousness." <u>To</u> also functions as a grammatical marker, indicating the indirect object (usually a human being or animate being), and marking the infinitive form of a verb. When contrasted with <u>for</u>, <u>to</u> serves to mark the goal of an activity, and <u>for</u> marks the purpose or reason for the activity: "We decided <u>to</u> save money <u>for</u> a vacation." <u>To</u> is also used to mark verbal character of deleted information: "He doesn't buy anything he doesn't need" versus "He doesn't buy anything if he doesn't need to."

The most active of these forms is <u>to</u>, but they are all commonly used in both everyday speech and formal speech and writing.

Withdrawing from Equivalence of Location: After, Since, Behind, (Far?)

There does not seem to be a prepositional form that contrasts with <u>near</u>, but when a contrast is desired, <u>far</u> is generally the form that is selected, so it has been included as a questionable contrasting item, but will not be considered a prepositional form.

The three prepositional forms in this category are _after_, _since_ and _behind_, with the first two of these functioning primarily, but not exclusively, as markers of time. In contrast to _before_, _after_ locates the subject subsequent to the object of the preposition, with the object a point in time, specific and definite in nature. In contrast to _until_, _since_ marks the beginning limit of an action, and assumes that the action continues indefinitely subsequent to this beginning point or limit.

Similar to _before_ and _until_, both _after_ and _since_ can be used with overt expressions of time, with actions or activities that function as markers of time; _after_ can be used with locations: "He came _after_ 3:00"; "We left _after_ we had finished packing"; "They have been ready to leave _since_ 3:00"; "They have been arguing _since_ they heard about the accident"; "Theirs is the first house _after_ the tracks."

As with _before_, _after_ can be used to express rank or precedence, which is not markedly different from the precedence of time: "_After_ liberty, there is nothing more I could want."

Both _after_ and _since_ can be used in elliptical phrases, when the object is not expressed because it is obvious or because it has already been mentioned: "We waited for the tirade that always came _after_"; "He studied then, but he hasn't studied _since_"; "I used to see him quite often, but I haven't seen him _since_."

Since does not appear to be used with verbs in verb-particle combinations, but _after_ appears in a few combinations. "To go _after_ someone" could be interpreted to mean following someone by chance, following someone deliberately, or attacking someone: "B goes _after_ A in the alphabet"; "He had dropped his wallet, so I went _after_ him

to return it"; "He had surprised a burglar, who went <u>after</u> him with a knife."

In preposition sequences, <u>after</u> appears to be most commonly followed by <u>about</u>, <u>around</u> and <u>up to</u>: "<u>After about</u> an hour, we left"; "<u>After around</u> a week, they began to look for him in earnest"; "<u>After up to</u> seven hours of waiting, we were all impatient." <u>Since</u> can be followed by <u>about</u>, <u>around</u>, <u>before</u> and <u>after</u>: "I haven't seen him <u>since about</u> (<u>around</u>) an hour ago"; "He hasn't been here <u>since before</u> the war"; "No one has seen him <u>since after</u> the performance."

<u>Behind</u> does not generally refer to time, but to physical location, referring to that side or plane of a figure that is out of the range of vision of the speaker, or that is commonly considered the "back" of a figure. The object of the preposition generally represents an obstacle or barrier to vision, and is located between the subject of the sentence and the subject of the preposition: "I couldn't see him because he was standing <u>behind</u> a partition."

<u>Behind</u> can be used in elliptical phrases, when the object of the preposition is known or has already been mentioned, but it does not appear to be commonly used in combination with verbs to form verb-particle structures: "He didn't want to look back at the pursuers coming up <u>behind</u>." <u>Behind</u> appears to be able to function as a complete description of location: "They hit him from <u>behind</u>." In this example, <u>behind</u> may be functioning as an elliptical phrase, and it would sound redundant, but not strange, to add an object after the <u>behind</u> in the previous example.

Withdrawing from Equivalence (Motion): From, Away From, Off Of, Out Of

When the subject of the preposition is in motion or is undergoing change, so that the subject and the object end up in non-equal locations, and the subject is engaged in motion or change that increases the differences between them, from may be used with reference to a point or to a specific and well-defined object, away from may be used when the object is linear or serves as a limit, off of may be used when the object is a surface or a planar entity, and out of may be used when the object is solid or of complex character.

Both off of and out of seem to be virtually identical to off and out, with the exception that off of and out of cannot be used without the object of the preposition, in the same way that onto and into cannot be used unless the object of the preposition is expressed. In examining the component elements of these prepositional forms, on and in are used to express equivalence of location, and off and out are used to express non-equivalence of location; to these forms, to is added (to on and in), and to alone is used to express approaching equivalence, and of is added (to off and out) and of is used to express conjunction of location (p. 106). In all of these cases, the resultant equivalence or non-equivalence is mentioned first, followed by the original state of approaching equivalence or of conjunction of location. Without mentioning the original place in which the approach or conjunction was true, there is little point in expressing the concept of approach or conjunction (one would not say "the cat got out of"). These forms, then, rather than expressing unique concepts, express combinations of concepts that can be isolated from each other and expressed separately.

<u>Away from</u> is also a composite form, being the combination of <u>away</u> as an expression of non-equivalence of location as a result of motion or change, with respect to an object of the preposition that is specific enough to be considered a point, and <u>from</u>, as an expression of withdrawing from equivalence or conjunction of location.

The only truly independent member of this category is <u>from</u>, the expression of withdrawing from equivalence or from conjunction of location. <u>From</u>, like the other forms that express approach to or withdrawal from equivalence or conjunction of location, cannot generally be used without an expressed object of the preposition. What follows <u>from</u> can be either a noun phrase that indicates location, or a prepositional phrease that indicates location: "He got up <u>from</u> the chair" or "He got up <u>from</u> in the chair." <u>From</u> can often serve as a substitute for <u>off of</u> or <u>out of</u>, but <u>from</u> sounds awkward when used in combination with them: "He jumped <u>off of</u> the cliff" or "He jumped <u>from</u> the cliff"; "She came <u>out of</u> the other room" or "She came <u>from</u> the other room"; *"He jumped <u>from off of</u> the cliff" or "She came <u>from out of</u> the other room." <u>From</u> feels most appropriate when it follows <u>away</u>, <u>up</u> or <u>down</u>: "He came <u>away from</u> the door"; "He came <u>up from</u> the basement" and "He came <u>down from</u> the attic." <u>From</u> also seems most appropriate when it is followed by some simple prepositional form that indicates position, such as <u>along</u>, <u>on</u>, <u>in</u>, <u>above</u>, <u>beyond</u>, <u>over</u>, <u>below</u>, <u>beneath</u>, <u>under</u>, etc.: "Those flowers are <u>from along</u> the fence"; "Take the glass <u>from on</u> the table"; "The water was dripping on them <u>from above</u> their heads" and "The new settlers came <u>from over</u> the mountains." <u>From</u> can also be found more or less in tandem with <u>to</u>, to express both origin point and goal of activity, motion or change: "They walked <u>from</u> Detroit <u>to</u> Lansing"; "They

looked it over _from_ beginning _to_ end"; "The temperature went from 80° _to_ 60° in less than an hour."

From, as the only independent (uncombined) member of this category, is the basic marker of withdrawal from equivalence or conjunction of location.

Disjunction: Opposite, Against

The forms _opposite_ and _against_ are expressions of disjunction in that they express the lack of combination, the separateness, the distinction or the alternative character of the subject and the object of the preposition. _Opposite_ appears to be the form that is used in one-to-one relationships, such as in "He sat _opposite_ me at the table" or "They live _opposite_ the theater." Given two parallel lines, such as the curbs of a street, _opposite_ expresses location of the subject on one side, and of the object on the alternative side. _Against_ implies a more complex sort of distinction or separation: "The people fought _against_ the army" or "I am _against_ his re-election."

The implications of these two forms are not that there is no relationship that exists between them, but that the character of the relationship is adversarial, or one of distinction of character.

It is difficult to incorporate _against_, in expressions such as "the ladder was _against_ the house" into the proposed prepositional description, unless one interprets them to mean that the house and the ladder were separate entities, only momentarily collocated, or unless one visualizes some sort of opposition of physical forces.

Conjunction (Location): Of, By, For

The forms _of_, _by_ and _for_ express the conjoining of the subject and the object of the preposition. _Of_ is used to express the conjoining of

two specific, definite, point-like entities, <u>by</u> is used to express the conjoining of two entities that are linear (or joined by means of some linear property), or to express the conjoining of two entities over time (as a linear background) or duing the process of motion or change, and <u>for</u> is used to express the conjoining of two complex or multi-dimensional entities: "A desk made <u>of</u> wood," "A desk made <u>by</u> hand," and "A desk made <u>for</u> office use." These prepositional forms do not convey the same idea that is conveyed by equivalence forms, since they only state that the two entities are together in some way, or have some type of non-adversarial relationship with each other.

<u>Of</u> is commonly used to indicate possession, ties of locational or familial origin, or description by means of salient characteristics: "That is a book <u>of</u> mine" (essentially equivalent to "That is my book"), "He is a long-time resident <u>of</u> this city," "This is Bill Jones, <u>of</u> the Joneses from (of) Hill Creek," or "He is a man <u>of</u> few words."

<u>By</u> is commonly used to express mode or manner of production ("made <u>by</u> hand"), mode or manner of transportation ("<u>by</u> bus, <u>by</u> car"), acciden-tal, proximate collocation ("He sat <u>by</u> me on the bus"), and the agent by whom (or by which) an action was performed or executed ("He was criticized <u>by</u> his boss" or "He earned his money <u>by</u> working").

<u>For</u> is commonly used to express the reason or purpose that causes an action ("He did it <u>for</u> money"), the recipient of the benefits of an action ("He did it <u>for</u> his sister"), the substitute employment of an item to serve a temporary purpose ("He used the paperweight <u>for</u> an ash-tray"), or the entity that is offered in exchange for another ("I'll trade this marble <u>for</u> that one of yours").

<u>Of</u> and <u>for</u> are not generally used without an expressed object of

the preposition, and when <u>by</u> is used without an object of the preposi-
tion, the object is usually the speaker or some previously-mentioned
location: "I saw him run <u>by</u>" or "The policemen wanted to make sure that
he didn't slip <u>by</u>." "To get <u>by</u>" with the meaning of "to survive ade-
quately, but without comfort or convenience or with the meaning of "to
perform adequately well, but not in a superior or commendable manner"
is one of the few verb-particle combinations that can be formed with
the preposition <u>by</u>. <u>Of</u> and <u>for</u> do not seem to be commonly used in verb-
particle units.

Conjunction (Motion): With, By, During, Throughout

<u>With</u> is used to indicate the conjoining in location, during the
process of motion or change, or over time, of two separate and dis-
tinguishable entities. To say that one person is <u>with</u> another is not
to say that they are friends, or that they are socially connected to
each other, but only to make an observation about their conjunction in
a place or at a time. <u>By</u>, as was discussed in the section before
(p. 106), can be used to express conjunction of location over time or
with motion, as well as simple conjunction of location. <u>During</u> ex-
presses conjunction at at least one time within the stated period of
time, or conjunction with at least one aspect of a stated activity:
"Loud noises were made <u>during</u> the performance" or "<u>During</u> the ride,
we got jostled regularly." <u>During</u> identifies the limits of the activ-
ity, and the limits between which the conjunction occurred, but it does
not indicate that the conjoining was continuously present inside of
those limits, nor does it indicate precisely the point or points at
which the conjoining took place. <u>Throughout</u> (which appears to be a com-
bination of the meaning of <u>through</u> plus the completive aspect of the

form out), not only sets the beginning and ending limits of an action or activity, but also indicates that the conjunction was at all points, and in all aspects of the activity or action: "Loud noises were made throughout the performance" or "Throughout the ride, we got jostled."

Except for the cases noted above with by (p. 106), with, during and throughout do not generally occur without an expressed object of the preposition, and they do not generally occur with verbs in verb-particle units. In some dialects of English, "come with" or "go with" can be used without an object, and they are assigned the meaning "accompany."

Reciprocity: Between, Among, Within

The concept of "reciprocity," when applied to a single entity, is often expressed by a reflexive form ("He talked to himself") rather than by a prepositional form. Between is used to express reciprocity between two points, units or entities. This could be the reciprocity of mutual activity ("The talked about it between themselves"), or the existence of distance (literal or figurative) separating each of two entities from a third entity ("The rock was between the two trees"). When the two entities that enter into this relationship are not of the same kind, they are generally both mentioned after the preposition between, and connected to each other by and: "The car was parked between the lamppost and the fireplug." Among appears to be used to express reciprocity or the existence of distance with more than two units, but it also implies that the activity occurs along a single plane, and does not extend into all dimensions: "They talked among themselves" (not to other people who were not part of the group) or "There was disagreement among the rank and file of the workers" (but not at other levels, such as

management). <u>Within</u> appears to express reciprocity or the existence
of distance at all levels, and including all dimensions: "They wanted
no spies <u>within</u> the group" or "There was dissatisfaction <u>within</u> the
company."

Between, among and <u>within</u> all seem to be used both for expressing
physical location and for expressing figurative location. They do not
generally appear without an object, and are not generally used in the
formation of verb-particle units, with the exception that <u>within</u> can be
used as a slightly-more-formal synonym for <u>inside</u>, and, in this meaning,
can be used without an object in the same contexts in which <u>inside</u> can
be used without an object: "He kept all of his secrets <u>within</u>" or
"They were accustomed to hiring from <u>within</u>."

No Relationship: Except, Apart From, Aside From, Without

In the final category of prepositional forms are the items that
are used to indicate that no relationship exists between the subject
and the object of the preposition. Generally, they are used in con-
texts where a relationship might be expected to exist, and they mark
the fact that the expected relationship does not exist. <u>Except</u> is used
when the object of the preposition is uni-dimensional, specific or
point-like in nature: "Everyone <u>except</u> Bill came to the party" or "He
answered everything <u>except</u> the question." <u>Apart from</u> appears to be
used when the object of the preposition is more complex than a single
unit, and the subject of the preposition is a single unit: "He was
standing <u>apart from</u> the crowd" or "He never had any interests <u>apart
from</u> his family." When both entities are complex, <u>aside from</u> seems to
be more appropriate: "<u>Aside from</u> what I told him, he knows nothing."

Both <u>apart from</u> and <u>aside from</u> are composite forms, and they appear to be interchangeable for some speakers of English, or to be more formal than <u>except</u> and <u>without</u> (rather than different from <u>except</u> and <u>without</u> in meaning or application), and it is difficult to justify too rigid a distinction being made between them. <u>Without</u> suggests the exclusion of one entity or individual from a group, or the exclusion of a character- istic or trait from the makeup of an individual or a group: "They didn't want to leave <u>without</u> Bill"; "He left <u>without</u> warning"; "He is completely <u>without</u> compassion"; or "The are <u>without</u> the funds they need to pursue their programs."

<u>Without</u> is the only one of these forms that appears to be used without an expressed object, and <u>without</u> commonly appears in the verb- particle combination "do <u>without</u>," meaning to lack.

<u>Except</u> and <u>without</u> can often be used in similar contexts, but they do not convey the same meaning: "He didn't want to go <u>except</u> to talk to them" implies that "he" did not want to go unless it were possible to talk to "them" and "He didn't want to go <u>without</u> talking to them" implies that he did not want to depart until after he had had an oppor- tunity to talk to them. "He couldn't do anything <u>except</u> talk" implies that his only competence was talking, but "He couldn't do anything <u>with- out</u> talking" implies that he was able to do things, but his actions were always accompanied by talk.

CHAPTER IV

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

Since the available grammatical descriptions do not seem to be
adequate for classroom use, and alternative presentation of information
concerning English prepositional forms is developed for this use, and
the framework for the system, and the means by which the various prepo-
sitional forms could be integrated into this framework, is explored.

The available grammatical descriptions, both those designed for
use in the classroom and those designed for theoretical use, are judged
on the basis of the seven criteria that are selected as the essential
characteristics that would be necessary for a description that could be
put to use in a classroom. The alternative proposal (pp. 56-110) is
evaluated below on the basis of these criteria, to determine the
degree to which it conforms to the requirements of the criteria.

Conformity of Proposed System to the Selected Criteria

The seven criteria that are proposed as essential for a presenta-
tion of grammatical information that could be used in adult second-
language classroom are accuracy, completeness, comprehensibility, range,
generality, simplicity and providing a definitional presentation. Each
of these criteria is examined to determine whether or not the alterna-
tive proposal complies with the requirements of these criteria.

Accuracy

The criterion of accuracy stipulates that the description must not distort the functioning rules of the language, in that the guidelines that it presents for the formulation of utterances must not produce obviously ungrammatical utterances, and in that it must not contain inaccuracies in the most general information.

As far as the writer can detect, this presentation does not include guidelines that would misguide the language learner and induce the production of ungrammatical utterances, nor does it contain inaccuracies in the most general information.

It is true that this presentation does not include all possible occurrences of the prepositional forms (e.g., "The ladder was <u>against</u> the wall"), but at least some of these occurrences appear to be forms that are idiomatic in nature, and although very possibly they were systematic at some time in the past, even though they do not appear to be consistent with the proposed system presented here.

Completeness

The criterion of completeness requires of a description that it contain information about at least twenty of the simple prepositional forms and that it contain information about composite as well as simple forms.

This presentation addresses itself primarily to the consideration of simple prepositional forms, and views the composite and phrasal prepositional forms as entities that can, in general, be derived by application of the guidelines for interpretation of the simple forms. In the case of some forms that are composites, but which have been

included in this presentation, an analysis is provided to demonstrate how composite units can be understood by the analysis of the component parts (cf., p. 103, off of, out of, into and onto).

Phrasal prepositional forms that are combinations of nouns or adjectives and one or more prepositional forms can also be understood by means of an analysis of their component parts.

This presentation covers fifty-three prepositional forms, forty-five of which are one-word items, and provides some information about the formation and analysis of composite forms in that composite forms such as into, off of, etc. can be understood by adding together the separate forms' meanings. This presentation appears to fulfill the requirements of the criterion of completeness.

Comprehensibility

The criterion of comprehensibility demands of a presentation that it be intellectually accessible to a language teacher, that it not use intricate symbol systems, and that it not use uncommon or little-known symbol systems.

This presentation is based on common mathematical symbols, and on symbols used in various scientific fields, as well as on geometric forms that are interpreted in their "unschooled" meaning rather than in mathematically-defined meanings.

To all appearances, this presentation would be accessible to anyone who possessed a basic knowledge of some of the common symbols, and the ability to understand figurative applications of these symbols. There is no special terminology, with the exception of several commonly-known grammatical terms which have been extended in their application.

In the estimation of the writer, this presentation adequately fulfills the requirements of the criterion of comprehensibility.

Range

The "range" of a presentation would be the diversity of the types of real-life situations to which the presented structures would be appropriate. The criterion of range specifies that the structures that are included should be ones that are useful in a wide range of styles or of varieties.

While some notice has been given to structures that may be acceptable in limited contexts and situations, the primary focus of this presentation is those common forms that are used in almost all levels of communication in the English language. Uncommonly-used forms have been avoided, and expressions that are generally found in extremely formal speech have been largely ignored.

To all appearances, this presentation fulfills the requirements of the criterion of range.

Generality

The criterion of generality stipulates that all forms that are identical in appearance should be classed together, regardless of difference in grammatical function, and regardless of apparent difference in meaning.

This presentation attempts to fulfill the requirements of this criterion by classing together the literal and figurative phrases in which prepositional forms appear, the adverbial usages of prepositional forms, the prepositional forms that appear in combination with verbs in what are called verb-particle combinations, and the prepositional

forms that are used to form part of compounded words.

In addition, this presentation makes every attempt to indicate how forms such as _in_, _inside_, _into_ and _within_ are related to each other, since they all contain an element that appears to be identical, and this presentation attempts to demonstrate the similarities among such forms as _to_, _toward_, _onto_ and _into_, since they all contain an element that appears to be identical.

Every attempt is made, either in the explanation of the categories, or in the format of the summary chart, to class all forms into categories that demonstrate the similarity in meaning that may exist among forms that are identical in appearance, as well as the difference in meaning that may exist among such forms.

Simplicity

The criterion of simplicity demands that the presentation group together all items that appear to serve a similar or identical semantic function.

In this presentation, not only do all "_in_" forms appear in a single class (with the exception of _in front of_), but also, in the body of the explanation, an attempt is made to show that forms such as _about_ and _around_ may be interchangeable (p. 97) and that forms such as _off of_ and _out of_ can be replaced by _from_ (p. 104). This, it would seem, satisfies the criterion of simplicity, in that it classes together those forms that appear to serve a single semantic function (even when such forms are not identical in appearance).

Definitional Presentation

The criterion of providing a definitional presentation requires that the description provide some type of guide that will aid students in understanding the concepts that English-speaking people associate with the prepositional forms that they use.

This presentation attempts to provide symbols that are likely to be understood by adult students from a variety of different backgrounds, and to use line drawings and geometric shapes, rather than words, to give information about the meanings of prepositional forms. This presentation also attempts to make use of oppositions that are likely to be known and understood by adults from a variety of cultural backgrounds.

The presentation is organized on the basis of meaning, rather than grammatical function, in the hope that this type of organization would also help the students in understanding the concept-form correlations that appear to be being used by native speakers of English.

For this reason, it appears that this presentation fulfills the requirements of the criterion of providing a definitional presentation.

Conclusions Concerning the Proposed Alternative Presentation

Inasmuch as this presentation does seem to fulfill the requirements of the selected criteria, the presentation is acceptable for use in an adult second-language classroom. The writer, as a native speaker of English, feels that the system essentially captures the concepts that are conveyed by the prepositional forms in English.

This presentation is not sufficient, in and of itself, for classroom use, but must be supplemented by carefully-prepared materials that both elaborate on the concepts that are summarized in this presentation,

and that guide the students toward a full understanding of at least
the most-commonly-used of the prepositional forms. It is the writer's
opinion that students learn language information by attempting to use
the forms that they study, and not simply by being given presentations
of information about those forms.

This presentation of information about English prepositional forms,
while it has been carried far enough to form the basis for the produc-
tion of classroom materials, has not been carried far enough to justify
itself theoretically. This, however, is the province of theoretical
linguists, and would not be of particular benefit to a language teacher
or to language students.

Suggestions for Empirical Research

As was stated earlier (p. 4), the only true test of the adequacy
and appropriateness of instructional materials is empirical research.
Prior to research, however, must come the formulation of materials
that capture the essence of the concepts contained in this presentation
of information.

Once these materials have been formulated, it would be possible to
set up a research plan that would allow for a comparison of the perform-
ance of students who had used these materials and students who had used
materials that were different in content, or in format, or in both,
from the materials that were based on this presentation.
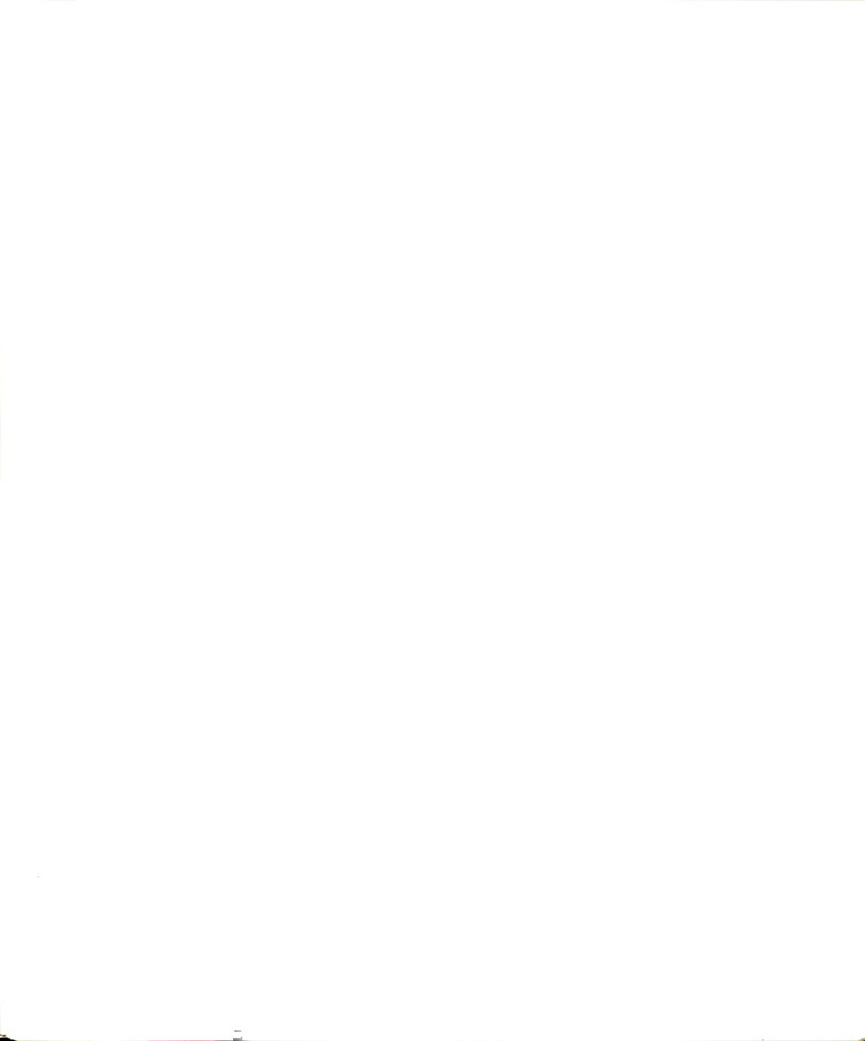
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