Prepositional Meaning in English and Kurdish

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Keywords:
Prepositional Meaning
English
Kurdish

Abstract
This study which is entitled “Prepositional Meanings in English and Kurdish”, is a comparative study which investigates the construction of prepositional meanings in both English and Kurdish languages, and sheds light at the aspects of similarities and/or differences of these grammatical components.

The aim of this paper is to demonstrate Prepositional Meanings in both English and Kurdish Languages, and clarify to which extent prepositional meanings share similarity and different aspects. To achieve the aims, the researchers try to define prepositions, categorize them and present their meanings in English and then in Kurdish depending on the available literature. As a result, a number of conclusions are arrived at which indicate that prepositional meanings share a number of similarities and differences in both languages. However, the aspects of similarity tends to be more than dissimilarity.

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الخلاصة:
إن هذه البحث هو دراسة مقارنة لمعاني حروف الجر في اللغتين الإنكليزية والكردية، وتحاول هذه الدراسة إلقاء الضوء على أوجه الشبه والاختلاف بين هذه المكونات النحوية.

تهدف الدراسة إلى بيان معنى حروف الجر في كل اللغتين الإنكليزية والكردية وكتشيف عن مدى اشترائها في بعض السمات المشابهة أو إختلافها.

وتحقيق هدف الدراسة، حاول الباحثان تعريف حروف الجر، وتصنيفها وتقديم معانيها في الإنكليزية ومن ثم بالكردية، بالإعتماد على الأدبيات المتوفّرة، وقد توصلت الدراسة إلى عدد من النتائج التي تشير إلى عدد من السمات المشابهة وأخرى مختلفة، ولكن جوانب الشبه أكثر من جوانب الاختلاف.

الكلمات الدالة: حروف الجر المعنى الإنكليزية الكردية

معلومات البحث:
تاريخ البحث: 12-10-2020
القبول: 2020-11-3
التوفر على النت

1. Introduction
This study is divided into five sections. The first section is an introduction, which includes the introduction itself, and gives general information about the research.

The second section, which is entitled “Essential Issues of Preposition in English”, deals with the definitions of preposition, word classes of preposition, the types of preposition and prepositional statues.

The third section deals with the prepositional meanings in Standard English. It includes the meaning of some prepositions, metaphorical or abstract use of place prepositions and the absence of preposition.

The fourth section consists of six points, which are all about prepositional meanings in Kurdish language. This section also deals with the different kinds of preposition and their meanings.

The fifth section is a comparative study of prepositional meanings in English and Kurdish. This deals with the similarities and differences between both languages. At the end, there is a conclusion and a list of bibliography.

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2. Essential issues of Preposition in English language

2.1 Definitions of Preposition

Crystal (2003:368) defines preposition as “a term which is used in the grammatical classification of words, referring to the set of items which typically precedes noun phrase (often single noun or pronoun), to form a single constituent of structure.”

According to Stageberg (1971:156) prepositions are words like of, in, and to which are usually followed by a noun, personal pronoun, or noun substitute called the object of the preposition. The unit of preposition –plus- object of preposition is called a prepositional phrase.

e.g. George sat between the two deans.

Hornby (2004:996) states that preposition as “a word or group of words, such as in, from, to, out of, and on behalf of used before a noun or pronoun to show place, position, time or method.”

Trask (1993:214) defines preposition as “a lexical category, or a member of this category, which typically combines with a noun phrase to make a larger constituent, a prepositional phrase, which in turn can typically occur inside a verb phrase or inside an N-bar.

According to Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, preposition is a word that is used before a noun, pronoun or gerund to show that words connection with another word, such as ‘of’ in ‘a house made of wood’, and ‘by’ in ‘we open it by breaking the lock’ (Longman group Ltd, 2002:1111).

Alexander (1993:284) defines preposition as "a word we use in front of nouns or noun phrases, pronouns or gerunds to express a relationship between one person, event, etc."

According to Eckersley and Eckersley (1997:277-78) prepositions are words used with nouns (or noun equivalent) to show the relation in which these noun stand to some other word in the sentence.

e.g. The horse is in the stable.
the preposition ‘in’ expresses the relation between horse and stable.

According to Biber et al (1999:74) prepositions are links which introduce prepositional phrases. As the most typical complement in a prepositional phrase is a noun phrase, they can be regarded as a device which connects noun phrases with other structures.

Leech et al (2001:410) defines preposition as "a word which typically goes before a noun phrase or pronoun”.

e.g. of the world, with the best friend, at a hotel.

Finch (2000:114) says prepositions are words which relate two parts of a sentence together where the relationship is typically one of time, place, or logic, as in the following examples:
2.2 Word Classes of Preposition:

2.2.1 Major Word Classes of Preposition:

English is sometimes considered to have four major word classes:
Noun (N), adjective (A), verb (V), preposition (P).

e.g. Big frogs swim under water.

Of these four major classes, nouns, verbs, and prepositions behave fairly differently
from one another, though adjectives are somewhat strange, in that they have some noun-
like qualities, and some verb-like ones. In Blessed are the brave, brave seems to have
become a noun. And in Mavis is asleep, asleep seems fairly verb-like, since it fits into the
same slot as sleeping in a sentence such as Mavis is sleeping (Aitcheson, 1992:59-60).

2.2.2 Minor Word Classes of Preposition:

Minor word classes are those belonging to grammatical, or function classes (such as
articles, demonstratives, quantifiers, conjunctions, and prepositions), which in any
language tend to include a small number of fixed elements. Function words in English
include conjunctions (and, or), articles (the, a), demonstratives (this, that), quantifiers (all,
most, some, few), and prepositions (to, from, at, with). To take one specific case, consider
the word (and). The essential feature of the word (and) is that it functions grammatically
to conjoin noun phrases (i.e., the woman and the man).

Any change in membership of such a class happens only very slowly (over centuries)
and in small increments. Thus, a speaker of English may well encounter dozens of new
nouns and verbs during the coming year; but it is extremely unlikely that the English
language will acquire a new definite article (or loss the current one) in the coming year (or
even in the speaker's lifetime) (Akmajian et al, 1995:21).

2.3 Types of Preposition:
2.3.1 Simple and Complex Prepositions:

Most of the common English preposition, such as ‘at’, ‘in’, and ‘for’, are simple, i.e. 
consist of one word. Other prepositions consist of more than
one word are called Complex. Most of these are in one of the following categories:

A) ADVERB or PREP+PREP: along with, as for, away from, out of, up to, etc.
B) VERB/ADJECTIVE/CONJUNCTION/ etc. + PREP: owing to, due to, because of,
etc.
C) PREP+NOUN+PREP: by means of, in comparison with, in front of, etc.

In the third type, which is the most numerous categories, the noun in some complex
prepositions is preceded by a definite or indefinite article, for example:
In the light of, as a result of, for the sake of, in the case of, etc.

(Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973:14)
2.3.2 Free and Bound Prepositions:

Free prepositions have an independent meaning; the choice of preposition is not dependent upon any specific words in the context.

Bound prepositions often have little independent meaning, and the choice of the preposition depends upon some other words (often the preceding verb).

Example:

A) Free preposition:
- She wants to play with one of the kids.
- Every morning in June, he uses to take a shower before going out.

B) Bound preposition:
- They have got to be willing to part with that bit of money.
- She confined in him above all others.

Although some prepositions can be both free and bound (as in the examples above), many prepositions are always or almost free: *above, across, against, among, before, toward, near, until*, etc., (Biber et al, 1991:74).

2.3.3 Post Posed Prepositions

Normally a preposition must be followed by its complements; but there are some circumstances in which this does not happen, either because the complement has to take first position in the clause, or because it is absent:

WH-Questions:
- Which house did you live it at?
- At which house is he staying? (formal)

Relative Clauses: the old house which I was telling you about is empty (about which I was telling you: formal)

WH-Clauses: What I’m convinced of is that the world’s population will grow to an unforeseen extent.

Exclamations: what a mess he’s got into!

Passives: She was sought after by all the leading impresarios of the day.

Infinitive Clauses: He’s impossible to work with (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973:144).

2.4 Prepositional Statues:

2.4.1 Prepositional Adverb:

2.4.1.1 Many word forms which are prepositions are also adverbs. They are called prepositional adverbs. Most of them are adverbs of place.
2.4.1.2 Prepositional adverbs are used to form phrasal verbs (e.g. take over, come on)

2.4.1.3 List of Common Prepositional Adverbs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>About</th>
<th>Around</th>
<th>Beyond</th>
<th>Near</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Under</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Above</td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>By</td>
<td>On</td>
<td>Round</td>
<td>Up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Across</td>
<td>Behind</td>
<td>Down</td>
<td>Opposite</td>
<td>Since</td>
<td>Within</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>Below</td>
<td>In</td>
<td>Outside</td>
<td>Through</td>
<td>Without</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Along</td>
<td>Between</td>
<td>Inside</td>
<td>Over</td>
<td>Throughout</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.4.1.4 Prepositions are usually in front of a noun phrase, whereas prepositional adverbs usually stand alone, without a following noun phrase. Compare:

E.g. (i) preposition: He stayed in the house.
    Adverb: He stayed in.

(ii) Preposition: The guests were standing around the room.
    Adverb: The guests were standing around.  
    (Leech et al, 2001:412)

2.4.2 Prepositional Phrase

2.4.2.1 A prepositional phrase is a group of words composed of a preposition the word(s) which follow(s) it (normally a noun phrase).

2.4.2.2 Like adverbs, a prepositional phrase expresses many different meanings such as place, time, reason, and manner.

E.g. we must discuss the matter {in private (prepositional phrase) or privately (adverb)}

2.4.2.3 Like adverbs, prepositional phrases are optional parts of a sentence: it can be omitted them if we like.

2.4.2.4 Forms of prepositional phrases:

Most common:

Preposition+ (i) noun phrase
    (ii) Pronoun

Less common:

Preposition+ (iii) Ing clause
    (iv) WH-clause
    (v) Adverb

E.g: (i) Here’s a letter from my son Philip.
    (ii) Come with me, please.
    (iii) This is an oven for baking bread.
    (iv) I was surprised at what they said.
    (v) From here, the road is very rough. 
    (Ibid, P.413)

Arnold (1985:189) states that a prepositional phrase consists of a preposition plus a nominal group, for example on the burning deck.
2.4.3 Prepositional Verb

2.4.3.1 A prepositional verb is a kind of phrasal verb (verb+preposition) which may be:
- non-idiomatic in meaning:
e.g. Look at this picture.
- idiomatic in meaning:
e.g. I can't explain what came over me.

Some grammarians maintain that we can't call prepositional verbs 'phrasal'. But if we say that a verb is phrasal when it has two or more parts, then it is difficult to argue that a verb like look at is not phrasal. Similarly, it is difficult to argue that, for example, came over, used idiomatically (as in the above example), is not a phrasal verb.

(Alexander, 1993:284)

2.4.3.2 The verb and preposition express a single idea.
e.g. She takes after help. (=resemble')
We've asked for help. (=requested')

(Ibid, P.415)

2.4.3.3 The verb and preposition are often together at the end of a sentence.
e.g. What are you listening to? 'I'm listening to the news.'
I don't know who this book belongs to.
It is sometimes awkward or impossible to separate the preposition from the verb.

e.g. To what you are listening?
I don't know to whom this book belongs. (ibid)

3. Prepositional Meanings in Standard English

Preposition expresses a relation between two entities, one being that represented by the prepositional complement. Of the various types of relational meaning, those of space and time are most prominent and easiest to describe systematically. Other relationships such as instrument and cause may also be recognized, although it is difficult to describe prepositional meanings systematically in terms of such labels. Some prepositional uses may be elucidated best by seeing a preposition as related to a clause, e.g.

The man with the beard ['the man who has the red beard']
My knowledge of Hindi ['I know Hindi']

(Quirk et al, 1985:673)

According to Eckersley and Eckersley (1997:278) it is almost impossible to give all the meanings that prepositions help to convey. Originally they denoted place or direction, e.g.
He works at the cotton factory.
The boys ran to school.

3.1 Prepositions Denoting Spatial Relations:
3.1.1 Dimension:
When a preposition is used to indicate a place, it can be done so in relation to the dimensional properties, whether subjectively or objectively conceived, of the location concerned.
1. My car is at the cottage.
   Here, the use of at treats cottage as a dimensionless location, a mere point in relation to which the position of the car can be indicated.

2. Our cottage is on that road.
   In this sentence, the road is viewed as a line [‘a long that road’], i.e. dimension-type 1. But on can also be used to denote an area as in [3] and [4].

3. There is some ice on that road.

4. There is a new roof on the cottage.

In [3] and [4], the road and the cottage are viewed as two-dimensional areas.

5. There are only two beds in the cottage.

In [5], the cottage is viewed as the three-dimensional object which in reality it is. The preposition in is also capable of being used with objects which are essentially two-dimensional, as in [6]:

6. The cows are in the field. (Quirk et al, 1985:673-74)

### 3.1.2 Positive Position and Destination: at, to, on, onto, in, into

Prepositional phrases of place are typically either adjuncts (relating an event or state of affairs to a location) or postmodifiers (relating some ‘object’ to a location). Between the notions of simple position (or static location) and destination (movement with respect to an intended location) a cause-and-effect relationship obtains:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Positive Position</th>
<th>Negative Position</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dimension-Type 0 (point)</td>
<td>to</td>
<td>(away) from</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dimension-Type 1/2 (line or surface)</td>
<td>at</td>
<td>from</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dimension-Type 2/3 (area or volume)</td>
<td>in</td>
<td>off</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Quirk et al, 1985:673-74
Nada went to Oxford. As a result: Nada was at Oxford.
Nada climbed onto the roof. As a result: Nada was on the roof.
Nada dived into the water. As a result: Nada was in the water.

A prepositional phrase of ‘position’ can accompany most verbs, although this meaning is particularly associated with verbs of stative meaning, such as be, stand, live, etc. The meaning of ‘destination’ generally accompanies a verb of dynamic ‘motional’ meaning, such as go, move, fly, etc.

In many cases (especially in colloquial English), on and in may be used for both position and destination when onto and into make an unnecessary emphasis on the combination of destination + dimension:
- She fell on the floor.
- He put his hands in his pockets.

(Ibid, P.675)

3.1.3 Source or Negative Position: away from, off, out of

There is a cause-and-effect relation with negative destination and position parallel to that of positive destination and position:
Nada drove (away) from home. ~ Nada is away from home.
The book fell off the shelf. ~ The book is off the shelf.
Tom got out of the water. ~ Tom is out of the water.

The negative prepositions away from, off, and out of may be defined simply by adding the word not to the corresponding positive preposition: away from [‘not at’], off [‘not on’], out of [‘not in’].

(Ibid, P.677-78)
- She is away from school. ~ She is not at school.
- The pen is off the shelf. ~ The pen is not on the shelf.
- He is out of the water. ~ He is not in the water

3.1.4 Relative Position: over, under, etc:

A part from simple position, prepositions may express the relative position of two objects or groups of objects. Above, over, on top of, under, underneath, beneath, and below express relative position vertically, whereas in front of, before, behind, and after represent it horizontally. Figure 2 depicts the relations expressed by above x, behind x, etc.
The antonyms above and below, over and under, in front of and behind are conversing opposite:
[The picture is above the mantelpiece. = The mantelpiece is below the picture.]  
[The picture is in front of the car. = The car is behind the bus.]

Over and under as place preposition are roughly synonymous with above and below, respectively. The main differences are that over and under tend to indicate a direct vertical relationship or spatial proximity, while above and below may indicate simply ‘on a higher/lower level than:
- The castle stands on a hill [above/over] the valley.
- Keep this blanket [over/above] you.
- The doctor and the policeman were leaning [over/above] the body when we arrived.

Underneath and beneath (formal) are less common substitutes for under, underneath, like on top of, generally indicates a contiguous relation:
- The police found the stolen money under/underneath the carpet.
- We placed the skis on top of the car.

The following prepositional adverbs or fixed phrases correspond to the preposition of position:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prepositional Adverbs</th>
<th>Prepositions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overhead</td>
<td>Over</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Underneath (formal)</td>
<td>Under, underneath (formal)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In front</td>
<td>In front of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On top</td>
<td>On top of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above</td>
<td>Above</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below</td>
<td>Below</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behind</td>
<td>Behind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beneath (formal)</td>
<td>Beneath (formal)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example:
Would you like to sit {in front? (Prepositional adverb) or in front of us? (Preposition) (Quirk et al, 1985:678-79)

3.1.5 Relative Destination: by, over, under, etc.

As well as relative position, the prepositions listed in 3.1.4 (but not, generally, above and below) can express relative destination:
- The bush was the only conceivable hiding-place, so I dashed behind it.
- When it started to rain, we all went underneath the trees.
  (Quirk and Green Baum, 1973:149)

3.1.6 Space: by, beside, with, near (to), close to, opposite.
Other prepositions denoting space are by, beside, and with:
- He was standing by/beside the door. ['at the side of']
- I left the keys with my wallet. ['in the same place as']

Beside is usually locative and besides a non-locative preposition:
-Beside Mary there stood a young man. ['at the side of']
-Besides Mary there were several other students in the hall. ['in addition to']

However, the preposition beside is often used, especially in AmE, to mean ‘in comparison with’, ‘apart from’. Unlike beside, besides may also be an adverb meaning ‘in addition’:
- She is intelligent. Besides, she is good-looking.

As a locative preposition, the simple preposition near meaning close to can be placed by the complex preposition near to:
- She was sitting near to me.

Near (to) and close (to) are the only preposition which inflect for comparison. Unlike the absolute form, nearer and nearest usually require to. Next always does so:
- She was sitting near(to), nearest(to), next(to), closer(to), closest(to) me.

Opposite means ‘facing’ and has optional to:
- Her house is opposite (to) mine.

(Quirk et al, 1985:679-80)

3.1.7 Space: between, among, amongst, amid, amidst.

Between relates the position of an object to a definite or exclusive set of discrete objects, whereas among relates to nondiscrete objects. Thus:
- The house stands between two/among farms.
- Switzerland lies between/among France, Germany, Austria, and Italy.
- He likes getting among people. ['likes mixing with']
- I saw Bill standing (in) between Mrs. Bradbury and the hostess.

(Fitikides, 2000:85) says that between is used for two only, while among for more than two.
(a) Between
Don’t say: There was a fight among two boys.
Say: There was a fight between two boys.
(b) Among
Don’t say: Divide the apple between you three.
Say: Divide the apple among you three.

Amid and amidst (which are both formal) mean ‘in the midst of’ and, like among, can apply to an indefinite number of entities:
- The deserted house stood amid snow-covered fir trees. <Formal>  

(Quirk et al, 1985:680)

3.1.8 Space: around, round, about.

Around and round refer to surrounding position or to motion:
- We were sitting (a) round the campfire.
- The spaceship is travelling (a) round the globe.
"About" and "around" often have a vaguer meaning of ‘in the area of’ or ‘in various position in’:
- The guests were standing about/around the room.
- There are very few taxis about/around here.

In AmE, about is rarer and more formal in this sense than around. In general, BrE often tends to use about or round where AmE uses around.

Relative position can also be expressed by prepositions which usually denote passage or path, e.g:
- The tree lay across the road.
- The road runs through the tunnel.

(Ibid. P. 681)

3.1.9 Passage: over, under, behind, etc.

With verbs of motion, prepositions may express the idea of passage (i.e. movement towards and then away from a place), as well as destination.
- He jumped over a ditch.
- Someone ran behind the goalposts.
- The ball rolled underneath the table.

In the second and third sentence, there is an ambiguity. In the third, it can be supplied either the meaning of ‘passage’ (= ‘the ball passed under the table on the way to some other destination’) or the meaning of ‘destination’ (= ‘the ball rolled under the table and stayed there’).

(Ibid. PP. 681-82)

3.1.10 Passage: across, through, past.

The sense of ‘passage’ is the primary locative meaning attached to across (dimension-type 1 or 2), through (dimension-type 2 or 3) and past (the ‘passage’ equivalent to by which may also, however, be substituted for past in a ‘passage’ sense). Note the parallel between across and on, through and in in figure 3:

The upper pairs treat the grass as a surface, and therefore suggest short grass; the lower pair, by treating the grass as a volume, suggests that it has height as well as length and breadth—that is, that the grass is long. There is a meaning of over corresponding to across in this sense:
- The ball rolled over/across the lawn.

(Ibid. P. 682)

3.1.11 Movement with Reference to a Directional Path: up, down, along, across, etc.

Up, down, along, across, and (a) round, with verbs of motion, make up a group of prepositions expressing movement with reference to an axis or directional path, as illustrated in figure 4:
Up and down contrasted in terms of vertical direction, e.g:
-We walked up the hill and down the other side.

Up and down are also used idiomatically in reference to a horizontal axis:
-I walked up and down the platform.
-She went up/down the road or up/down the coast.

Up and down here express the notion of ‘along’, and need not have any vertical implications.

Along denotes ‘from one end towards the other’ or ‘in a line parallel with’, e.g:
-We walked along the streets, just looking at people.
-I took my dog for a walk along the river.

Along contrasts with across (“from one side to another”) in terms of a horizontal axis:
-Be careful when you walk across a street.

With (a) round, the directional path is an angle or a curve:
-We ran (a) round the corner

Towards indicates both ‘real’ and ‘implied’ motion, ‘in the direction of’:
-We walked towards the old farmhouse.
-The window faces towards the south.

The concept of ‘implied’ motion also accounts for the use of other prepositions, e.g: to, over, and into:
-Is this the bus to oxford?
-She glanced over her shoulder.
-He spoke into the microphone

(Ibid.PP.682-83)

3.1.12 Orientation: beyond, over, past, up, across, etc.
Most prepositions which express relative destination, passage, and movement with reference to a directional path can be used in a static sense of orientation. This brings in a third factor a part from the two things being spatially related: via a point of orientation, at which (in reality or imagination) the speaker is standing.

*Beyond* (‘on the far side of’) is a preposition whose primary meaning is one of orientation. *Over, past, across,* and *through* combine the meaning of ‘beyond’ with more specific information about dimension, as described in 3.1.11:

- They live *across* the moors. [i.e. ‘from here’]
- The village is [*past the bus stop*] or [*through the wood*].

*Up,* *down,* *along,* *across,* and (*a*) *round* are used orientationally with reference to an axis in:

- Her office is *up the stairs.* [‘at (Or towards) the top of ….’; = upstairs]
- *down the stairs.* [‘at (Or towards) the bottom of …..’; = downstairs]
- There’s a hotel *across/along* the road. [‘On the other side/towards the other end of….’]
- We live just (*a*) *round* the corner.
- The viewpoint can be specified by using a *from*-phrase:
- He lives *up/down/along/across* the road *from me.*

(*Ibid.* PP.683-84)

**3.1.13 Resultative Meaning: *from, out of, over, past,* etc.**

Prepositions which have the meaning of motion, as in [1], can usually have also a static resultative meaning when combined with be, indicating ‘the state of having reached the destination’, as in [2]:

- The horses jumped *over* the fence. 
- The horses are *over* the fence. [‘Have now jumped over’]

Out of context, resultative meaning is not always distinguishable from other static meanings. Its presence, however, is often signalled by certain adverbs (*already, just, at last, (not) yet,* etc). Resultative meaning is characteristically found with negative prepositions *from,* *out of,* *etc,* or with prepositions of ‘passage’ such as *across,* *through,* and *past*:

- *At last we are out of the forest.*
- *When you’re past the next obstacle, you can relax.*

(*Ibid.* P.684)

**3.1.14 Pervasive Meaning: *over, throughout, with,* etc.**

*Over* (dimension-type 1 or 2) and *through* (dimension-type 2 or 3), especially when preceded by *all,* have pervasive meaning (either static or motional):

- That child was running (*all*) *over the flower borders.*

*Throughout* meaning (*all*) *through* is the only preposition whose primary meaning is ‘pervasive’:

- Chaos reigned (*all*) *through the house.*
- The epidemic has spread *throughout the country.*
Occasionally the ‘axis’ type prepositions of 3.1.11. are also used in a pervasive sense:
- There were crowds (all) along the route.
- They put flowers (all) around the statue.

With also has pervasive meaning in expressions such as the following:
- The ground was covered with snow.
- The garden was buzzing with bees.

*Ibid.* P.684

### 3.2 Metaphorical or Abstract use of Place Prepositions.

Many place prepositions have abstract meanings which are clearly related, through metaphorical connection, to their locative uses. Very often prepositions so used keep the groupings (in terms of similarity or contrast of meaning) that they have when used in a literal reference to place. This is often true for example of temporal usage.

One may perceive a stage-by-stage extension of metaphorical usage in such a series as (a) to (d):

(a) *in shallow water* [purely literal]
(b) *in deep water* [also metaphorical: ‘in trouble’]
(c) *in difficulties* [the noun is not metaphorical, but the preposition is.]
(d) *in a tough spot* ['in a difficult situation’; The preposition is analogous to that of (c), but another locative metaphor is introduced by the noun. The result is a phrase that could not occur in a literal sense, because spot would then require *at or on*].

Examples in relation to the literal meanings are the following: *in/out of; amid, amidst <both formal are rare>*,

- **Position**
  - To be *in/out of danger*
  - To be *in/out of office*
  - To be *in difficulties*
  - *in books/plays*
  - *in a group/party*

- **Enclosure**
  - *in/out of the rare*

- **Into/out of**
  - He got *into* difficulties/trouble/debt/a flight.
  - Can you get me *out of* this mess?

- **In/on**
  - *in the army*
  - *on the board/committee/project*

- **Above/below/beneath**
  - to be *above/below* someone on a list
Above/below [not: beneath] one’s income
Such behavior is beneath [not: below] him.
He is above [not: over] such behavior.
Above (the) average
Above suspicion

Under
Vertical direction                 subjection, subordination; process:
Under suspicion/orders/compulsion
He has a hundred people working under him.
The bridge is under construction.

Up/down
Movement on vertical axis movement on list or scale
move up/down the scale
climb up/down the social ladder

From/to
Starting point/destination originator/recipient
a letter/ present from Browning to his wife.

Beyond/past/over
resultative meaning; physical abstract:

belief
Beyond} endurance
Past } hope
recovery

Between/among/amongst
Relative position abstract relation between participants:
A fight/match between X and Y
We quarrel/agree among ourselves.
Relationship/contrast/affinity between two things.

Through
Passage perseverence, endurance:
She came through the ordeal. We put him through his paces.
We are through the worst.

(Ibid.PP.685-87)

3.3 Prepositions Denoting Time

A prepositional phrase of time usually occurs as:
-Adjunct: he came on Friday.
-Post modifier: the party on Friday.
-Prediction adjunct: that was on Friday.
But it can occasionally be itself the complement of a temporal preposition:
-A voice from out of the past.
The temporal uses of prepositions frequently suggest metaphorical extensions from the sphere of place similar to the metaphorical extensions discussed in 3.2

(Ibid. P.687)

3.3.1 Types of Time Prepositions are as follows:
3.3.1.1 Time Position

Three prepositions, at, on, and in, are used in expressions answering the question ‘when?’ and they reflect a concept of time as analogous to space. Thus at is used for points of time, where time is conceived as being ‘dimensionless’:
- The film will begin at 7:20 p.m.
- It is not only instants that can be so considered:
  - What are you doing at the weekend?
  - She last saw her parents at Christmas.

Where time is regarded as a period, the usual preposition is in, reflecting analogy with two-or three-dimensional space:
- In the evening, I listened to some Beethoven records.
- Where did he live in his childhood?
- I saw her in March/in 1988/in the following week.

But in expressions referring to days, the preposition is on:
- We can come on Monday or on any other day that you may prefer.
- The baby was born on July the twelfth.

So too with an interval that is specifically part of a day:
- On Sunday afternoon; on Thursday night.

(Greenbaum and Quirk, 1990:196-97)

3.3.1.2 Time Duration

For+ a period of time (three days, two weeks)
- I lived in London for a year.

(Murphy and Smalzer, 2002:200)

In answer to how long? We have above all phrases with for:
- We stayed in a rented cottage for the summer.

The same meaning, with some emphasis of the duration, can be expressed with throughout and all through. By contrast, during indicates a stretch of time within which a more specific duration can be indicated:
- During the summer, we stayed in a rented cottage for a month.

But with appropriate lexical support in the context, the difference between during and for (throughout, etc) can be neutralized:
- Try to stay alert throughout/during the entire ceremony.

Duration expressions with over carry the implication of a period containing some divisions or ‘fenses’. Thus one can stay overnight, over the weekend, over the Christmas period.
Duration can be specified by reference to the beginning and ending:
- The office will be open from Monday to Friday.
  While from......to corresponds to for (‘the office will be open for five days’), between ....and can be used in the more general sense of during:
- The will be open between Monday and Friday. (i.e. ‘for a period within the stretch specified’).

Duration specifying only a starting point or a terminal point is expressed by phrases with by, before, from, after, since, till, until, up to. For example:
- She will be here by Friday night.
- She will not be here before Friday night.
- I worked from eight o’clock (towards).
- I began working (at some time) after eight o’clock.
- I have been working since eight o’clock.
- He didn’t set out till/until Monday afternoon.
- You can stay here till/until up to lunch time.

Note the contrast in:
- We slept until midnight. (=We stopped sleeping then)
- We didn’t sleep until midnight. (=We started sleeping then)
  (Greenbaum and Quirk, 1990:197-98)

3.4 Absence of Preposition
3.4.1 In Time Expressions

In many cases, a preposition of time is absent, so that the time adverbial takes the form of a noun phrase instead of a prepositional phrase.
  (Quirk et al, 1985:692)

No preposition before expressions of time beginning next, last, this, one, every, catch, some, any, all.
- Since you next Monday.
- Come any day you like.
- The meeting’s this Thursday.
- The party lasted all night.
  (Swan, 1984:257)

In an informal style, we sometimes leave out on before the names of the days of the week. This is very common in American English.
- Why don’t you come for a drink (on) Monday evening?
  (Swan, 1995:439)

The preposition is usually optional with deictic phrases referring to times at more than one remove from the present, such as:
(on) Monday week.
(on) the day before yesterday.
(on) the day before yesterday.
in the January before last <BrE>
the January before last <AmE and BrE>
The preposition is also optional in phrases which identify a time before or after a given time in the past or future:

*(in)* the previous spring [*the spray before the time in question]*

*(at)* <BrE>  
the following weekend

*(on)* <AmE>  
(on) the next day

Thus, there are alternatives in cases like the following:
- We met on the following day/the following day.
- We met on that day/that day.

On the whole, the sentence without the preposition tends to be more informal and more usual.

Post modified nondeictic phrases containing *the* often have the preposition in BrE whereas it is optional in AmE:
- We met on the day/the day of the conference.
- We met *in* the spring/the spring <esp AmE> of 1983.

But without post modification, the preposition is always obligatory:
- We met *in* the spring. = We met the spring.

The preposition is usually present in phrases like the following when the word order *(next Sunday, last January)* is inverted <in BrE>  
(on) Sunday next  
(in) January last  

*(Quirk et al, 1985:693)*

### 3.4.2 In Frequency Expressions:

There is no preposition in frequency phrases like:
- *Every Sunday* we usually go for a walk.

Without a frequently indication such as *every*, the preposition is optional, and nouns denoting weekdays may be either singular or plural. The construction without a preposition is informal in style <esp AmE>:
- *On Sunday(s)*
- *Sunday(s)* we usually go for a walk.
- *On every Sunday*

- *Three times a week* we play darts.
- *At three times a week*

But other frequency construction always requires the preposition:
- *with* adjective*+ frequency: with regular frequency.*
- *at* adjective*+ intervals: at irregular intervals.*
- *on* adjective*+ occasions: on specific occasions.*
- *from time to time: we saw each other from time to time.*
- *at a/the rate of*+ noun: *at the rate of $20 an hour.*
-between/at+ each+ singular

-noun, or all+ plural noun: He had dropped the habit of drinking coffee at all hours. (Ibid. P.694)

3.4.3 In Duration Expressions:

For refers to a stretch of time.

The preposition is often absent in phrases of duration with a verb used with stative meaning:
-We stayed there (for) three months.
-The snowy weather lasted (for) the whole time we were there.
-(For) a lot of the time we just lay on the beach.

The preposition is obligatorily absent in phrases which begin with all, such as all (the) week, all day. But compare the synonymous whole:
-We stayed there all (the) week/ (for) the whole week/*for all week.
-I haven’t seen her all day.

However, the preposition is obligatory with dynamic verbs where the action of the verb is clearly not continuously coextensive with the period specified.

Compare:
-I lived there for three years/three years.
-I taught her for three years/?*three years.

Similarly:
-I haven’t spoken to her for three months/*three months.

The preposition is also required in initial position in the clause:
-For 600 years, the cross lay undisturbed.
-The cross lay undisturbed (for) 600 years.

Similarly, when they occur initially, the preposition is usually required in for phrases: for ages, for days, for years, etc. However, coordination in the time expression improves acceptability. Compare:
-For years
- (?) Years and years we have all been expecting this event.
-Years (Ibid. PP.694-95)

3.5 The Meaning of Some Prepositions

Over
1) It means ‘higher than’
-Flags waved over our heads.
2) It means ‘covering’ on the other side of, ‘across’ and from one side to the other.
-We put a rug over him.
-He lived over the mountain.
3) It means ‘more than’ or ‘higher than’ both can mean ‘higher in rank’.
-He is over me, would normally mean, he is my immediate superior, he supervises my work.
4) All over+ noun or pronoun can mean ‘in every part of’.
-He has friends all over the world.
5) In the combination of take plus a time expression following by over+ noun/pronoun; here over means ‘to do/finish’ etc.
-He took ages over the job. (He took ages to finish it)
-He doesn’t take long over lunch/to eat his lunch.

(Thomson and Martinet, 1986:99)

Above
It can mean ‘higher than’.
- The helicopter hovered above us.

Below
It’s preposition and adverb and means lower than with below there is usually a space between the two surfaces.
- They live below us. (We live on the fourth floor and they live on the third)

Under
Under means ‘lower than’ and it indicates contact.
- He put his letter under his pillow.

(Ibid.P.99)

Both below and under mean ‘junior in rank’ but he is under me implies that I am his immediate superior; but below doesn’t necessarily have this meaning.

(Ibid.P.100)

Beneath
It can sometimes be used instead of under, but it is safer to keep it for abstract meaning:
- He would think beneath him to tell lie. (unworthy of him)
- She married beneath her. (She married to a lower social class)

Beside
It means ‘at the side of’.
- We camped beside a lake.

Besides
It means ‘in addition or as well as’.
- I do all the cooking besides that I help Tom.
- Besides doing the cooking I help Tom.

Near
It means ‘not far from’.
- Mother Well is near Glasgow.

(Eastwood, 1994:294)

Next to
It means ‘directly at the side of’.
- We live next to the fish and chip shop.

Nearby
It means ‘not far away’.
- There is a post office near here/nearby.
Before
- It usually means ‘earlier’.
  -If you get home before me, you can make the supper. (Thomson and Martinet, 1990:82)

After
- It means ‘later in time’.
  -There should be a meeting after the class.

Opposite
- It means ‘on the other side from’.
  -People were standing opposite the theatre waiting to cross the road.

In
- It means ‘inside only’.
  -He is the tallest boy in the class.

At
- It means ‘inside or in the ground or just outside’.
  -At the station, he could be in the street outside.

Within
- It means ‘before the end of’.
  -I’ll come back within an hour. (Fitikides, 2000:8)

By
- It means ‘not later than’.
  -Can you be ready by 8:30? (= can you be ready at 8:30 or before, but not later?) (Bolton and Goodey, 2003:288)

3.6 Other Meanings of Preposition
A) Preposition can have Meaning other than Place or Time:

- We were talking about the weather.
  -Most people are against these changes. (= opposing)
  -You’d do anything for the sake of peace and quite. (In order to have)
  -I went to lecture on Einstein.
  -I am reading a book by Iris Murdoch.
  -It is up to you to make your own decision.
  -The party is right behind its leader. (= supporting)
  (Eastwood, 1997:290)

B) With have these Meanings:

- I went to the party with a friend. (= We are together)
  -Peter is the man with long hair. (He has long hair)
  -I’ll cut the wood with my electric saw. (Enthusiastically)
  -With people watching. I felt embarrassed. (Because people were watching)

C) Some Prepositions have the Same Meaning as a Conjunction:
- We decided against a picnic in view of the weather. (Because the weather was bad (Ibid.P.299).
D) Eight senses of over:
1. Position: A lamp hung over the door.
2. Destination: They threw a blanket over her.
3. Passage: They climbed over the wall.
4. Orientation: They live over the road. [“on the far side of”]
5. Resultative: At last we were over the crest of the hill.
6. Pervasive [static]: Leaves lay thick (all) over the ground.
7. Pervasive [motion]: They splashed water (all) over me.
8. Accompanying circumstances: We discussed it over a glass of wine.

(Quirk et al, 1985:685)

4. Prepositional Meanings in Standard Kurdish

4.1 A Preface about Kurdish Language:

Kurdish Language as English Language owns many rules and properties, but the difference between them is that unlike English Language, Kurdish Language is not cared about as it is necessary. This problem is because of those bad conditions that have faced Kurdish people in a way Kurdish writers have not been capable to find an opportunity to serve their language and make an investigation about it according to their ability.

In Kurdish Language the first book was published in (1928) by (Saeid Sidqy Kaban) under the name of (Muxteserî Serfu Nehuî Kurdî) which was able to serve Kurdish Language insufficiently.

4.2 Definitions of Preposition:

According to Ali (1958:144), preposition is a term which is used before a noun, pronoun or gerund to show that words connection with another word in the sentence.

Due to Muhammad (2003:47), preposition is one of the independent parts of speech that is used in the sentence. It is used to show the relationship of noun with the other parts of speech. Prepositions are often independent in the sentence. Prepositions in Kurdish Language are: bo, bê, le, ta, taku, heta, u, i, bizwêni kûrt (e), ş|îş, legel, and letek.

4.3 The Meaning of Some Preposition in Kurdish Language:

Prepositions can not be used independently. They give no meaning when they are alone, but they give meaning when they are used in the sentence. Each preposition has its own purpose and meaning, and the meaning of preposition changes according to the dialects and ages.

4.3.1 Le

Le is a dependent preposition; it can not be added to prefixes, suffixes and personal pronouns. Le can be used alone or with the suffixes such as (bizwênu we, da, fa) in the sentence. Le is used:
1) to show a place
   Şuan le Duhok dejî.
2) to announce a portion math of something.
   Naz tozêki le nanêke xuard.
3) to indicate a part of something.
   Le hemû kçekan nazm bedile.
4) to compare two things, two persons or more according their ability, kind, and characteristics.
   Naz le Şuan zirëktre.
5) to indicate a person or something in a group.
   Memužin le şakari Ahmedî Xanîe.

4.3.1.1 Le with the postposition of (bizwênu we, da, and ra):
   Le can be used with these postpositions (bizwênu we, da, ra) in the sentence.
   Le bazarewe ta fermangekem be pê roîstm.
   Masî le awda dejî.

4.3.2 Be
   Be is a dependent simple preposition. Like le, be can not be added to prefixes, suffixes, and personal pronouns. Be is used alone and with the suffixes such as (bizwenu we, da, ra) in the sentence. Be is used:
   1) to show how an action happens.
      Meşxel namekeî be juanî nûsîbu.
   2) to show quantity.
      Le Slêmanî genm be rbe defroşrê.
   3) to show time.
      Kirêkarekan be şew iš deken.

4.3.2.1 Be with the postposition of (bizwenu we, da, and ra):
   Be can be used with these postpositions (bizwenu we, da, ra) in the sentence.
   Ĉayekem be pêwe xuardewe.

4.3.3 Bo
   Bo is a dependent simple preposition. Bo is used:
   1) to show a place.
      Ewan deŕon bo serînar.
   2) to indicate a movement of someone or something from one place to another.
      Hemû mangêk name bo eû denêm.
   3) to show time.
      Qutabîekan bo beîanî amade debn.
   4) to change a situation.
      Le şaxekewe bo doleke.
   5) to show the target of doing something.
      Em xanuwem bo mindalekanm krîwe.

4.3.4 Bê
   Bê is a dependent simple preposition. Unlike the other prepositions, bê cuts off the relation of a noun with the other words in the sentence. Bê is used:
   1) to show a place.
      Hendêk le mirîşkekan bê kulane maunetewe.
   2) to show how an action happens.
      Qutabî bê qelem narwat bo qutabxane.
   3) to show the negation of doing something.
      Mîn bê èwe naĉm bo hewlêr.
4.3.5 Ta : Heta, Takû, Tawekû, Hetawekû

Ta is a dependent simple preposition. It cannot be added to prefixes, suffixes and personal pronouns. It shows the end of doing something in a sentence. Ta is used:
1) to show a place.
   Ėme ta čemčemal roîstîn.
2) to show dimension.
   Hawrê hetaweku laî awekewe çû.

4.3.6 bizwenî kurt (e):

It is a dependent simple preposition. It is used:
1) to show a place.
   Ewan geîştn e qutabxane.
2) to show how an action happens.
   Kabra krðî pele pel.
3) to show the changing of a situation from one point to another.
   Eu mnî krde westa.

(Abdullah, 1993:51-64)

4.4 The Meaning of the Nominal Prepositions:

4.4.1 Pêş and Paş:

Pêş and Paş are used to show a place and time.
Min le pêş ëwewe westabûm.

Ew pêş min hat.
Minaleke le paş bawkïewë deřuat.

4.4.2 Tenîstå and Beramber:

Tenîstå and Beramber are used to show a place and the direction of a place.
Malekeman tenîstå baxekeïe.
Dukanekeman beramber benzînxanekïe.

4.4.3 Nizîk and Dûr:

Nizîk is used to show a short distance from a person or thing.
Dûr is used to show a long distance from a person or thing.
-Hawînehewarî Ezmer nizîk Silêmanîe.
-Karwaniekan nizîk nîwero geîståna awai.

4.5 Double Prepositions (Complex Prepositions): Bebê, Lebo

They have the same meaning of bê and bo, but they indicate to the purpose of the action more strongly than bê and bo.
-Bebê ëwe sefer nakem.

(Ibid.PP.73-76)

4.6 The Function of Preposition in Replacing another Preposition:

Preposition can often be replaced by another preposition. For example:
-Min čume bazar.    -Min čum bo bazar.
In the two above sentences ‘e’ is replaced by ‘bo’.
-Sêwekem kirde dû beş.
-Sêwekem kird be dû beşewe.
In the two above sentences ‘e’ is replaced by ‘be’.

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5. Prepositional Meanings in English and Kurdish

5.1 Prepositions in English and Kurdish:

Preposition is an important part of speech in both English and Kurdish. It is defined in both language as a word which is used in front of nouns, noun phrases or gerunds to show a connection between one person, event, etc. For example;

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Kurdish</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He went home after the lecture.</td>
<td>Şwan le Duhok dejî.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2 Similarities and Differences of Prepositional Meanings in Standard English and Kurdish:

There are a number of similarities and differences of the prepositional meanings in both English and Kurdish:

5.2.1 Similarities of Prepositional Meanings in Standard English and Kurdish:

5.2.1.1 The Importance of Preposition in the Sentence:

In both English and Kurdish preposition has a main role in the sentence, which makes a sentence to be clearer for the reader. For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Kurdish</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>She is in the garden.</td>
<td>Naz le baxekedaye.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>('in' gives the meaning of place that She is in the garden not outside)</td>
<td>('le' gives the meaning of place).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.1.2. Prepositions can Denote Different Meanings:

In both English and Kurdish, prepositions can denote different meanings such as (time, place… etc), and this changes according to their position in the sentence. For example, the preposition of ‘at’ in English language and ‘le’ in Kurdish language can give the meaning of place and time:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Kurdish</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My car is at the cottage. (place)</td>
<td>Seyarekem le maleweye.(place)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I went to Hawler at 8:00 am.(time)</td>
<td>Œme le dwênêwe çaûerwantan dekein.(time)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.1.3. Producing a Prepositional Phrase:

In both English and Kurdish, preposition has a power to produce a prepositional phrase when it is followed by (adverb, noun, …..etc). For example

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Kurdish</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Naz is in the school. (in the school’ is a prepositional phrase).</td>
<td>Naz le qutabxaneye.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.1.4. Absence of Preposition in both English and Kurdish:
In both English and *Kurdish, sometimes a preposition can be optional especially with phrases referring to times, for example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Kurdish</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-(on) Monday week.</td>
<td>-(le) heftê dâhatû.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-(on) the day before yesterday.</td>
<td>-(le) dûşêmeda.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-(on) the next day.</td>
<td>-(le) mangî pêşûda.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-(in) the previous spring.</td>
<td>-(le) salê par.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Also in duration expression, sometimes preposition is often absent in phrases of duration with a verb used with stative meanings, for example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Kurdish</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-We stayed there <em>(for)</em> three months.</td>
<td>Ême sê mang le Duhokbwin.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ême bo sê mang le Duhok bwin.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: this point is hinted by us, because in Kurdish language there is no source about this point.

5.2.1.5. Complex Preposition:

In both English and Kurdish language, we have a complex preposition, for example, ‘into’ and ‘onto’ in English language, and ‘bebê’ and ‘lebo’ in Kurdish language:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Kurdish</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-Nada climbed onto the roof.</td>
<td>Babê to narom bo hewlêr.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.1.6. Metaphorical or Abstract Use of Place Prepositions in both English and Kurdish:

In both English and *Kurdish, place prepositions can be used metaphorically, for example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Kurdish</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-In deep water = in trouble</td>
<td>Azad le barêkî grandaye. =</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-In a tough spot = in a difficult situation.</td>
<td>Azad le kêşedaîe.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-John is <em>in difficulties.</em> (the noun is not</td>
<td>Naz le jêr gûmandaye.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>metaphorical, but the preposition is.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-He got <em>into</em> difficulties.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-The bridge is under construction.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: It’s found by us because in Kurdish language there is no source about this point.

5.2.1.7. Preposition is Obligatory in Frequency Expressions:

In both English and Kurdish language sometimes in frequency expressions, preposition is obligatory. For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Kurdish</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-<em>With</em> + adj + frequency: with regular frequency.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-<em>At</em> + adj + intervals: at irregular intervals.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-<em>On</em> + adj + occasions: on specific occasion.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-<em>From time to time:</em> we saw each other from time to time.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Kurdish
-Hemû salêk le boneî neûrozda pşûî resmîe.
-Hemû rojê Azad le beyanîêûe ta nîûero roman dexûênêtewe.

5.2.2. Differences of Prepositional Meanings in Standard English and Kurdish:

5.2.2.1. In Frequency Expressions:
In English Language there is no preposition in such a frequency phrases like:
-Every Sunday we usually go for a walk.
While in Kurdish Language preposition can be used and not be used:
-Hemû heînîek deroîn bo seîran.
-Le hemû heînîekda deroîn bo seîran.

5.2.2.2. The Replacement of Preposition by another Preposition:
In Kurdish language preposition can be replaced by another preposition while in English language preposition can not be replaced by another preposition. For example:

Kurdish
-Min çûmê bazar. Min çûm bo bazar.
‘e’ is replaced by ‘bo’.

English
-I go to the market.
-I go with the market.
‘to’ can not be replaced by ‘with’.

Conclusions

Dealing with this research, the following points are concluded:

1-Preposition is such an important subject that learners of English should have good background knowledge about it so as to avoid making mistakes in its use.

2-It is mostly usable because it is available in most of the sentences that can be uttered in both spoken and written language.

3-Preposition is an important part of speech in both English and Kurdish languages.

4-Preposition is defined in both English and Kurdish as a word that is used before a noun, pronoun, or gerund to show that words connection with another word.

5-In both English and Kurdish different uses of preposition give the various meanings in the context.

6-Preposition has a power to produce a prepositional phrase when it is followed by (noun, adverb, etc).

7-Sometimes a preposition can be optional in the two Languages.

8-Place preposition can be used metaphorically in both English and Kurdish.
9-In Kurdish language preposition can be replaced by another preposition while in English language preposition cannot be replaced by another preposition.

10-At the end it is concluded that in the two languages the common points are more than the different points.

References


