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Prepositional Meaning in English and Kurdish

Asst. Prof. Abbas Mustafa Abbas (PhD)*

Dept. of English, College of Basic Education, University of Sulaimani

E-mail: dr.abbasmust67@yahoo.com

Asst. Prof. Paiman Hama Salih Sabir (PhD)

Dept. of English, College of Basic Education, University of Sulaimani

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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Corresponding Author: Abbas Mustafa , E-Mail: dr.abbasmust67@yahoo.com

Affiliation: college of basic Education - University of Sulaimani - Iraq

معنى حروف الجر في الأنكليزية والكردية

أ. م. د. عباس مصطفى عباس

قسم اللغة الإنكليزية, كلية التربية الأساسية, جامعة السليمانية

أ. م. بيمان حمه صالح صابر

قسم اللغة الإنكليزية, كلية التربية الأساسية, جامعة السليمانية

الخلاصة:	الكلمات الدالة: -
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 كلا اللغتين الإنكليزية والكردية والكشف عن مدى اشتراكها في بعض السمات المتشابهة أو إختلافها. ولتحقيق هدق الدراسة, حاول الباحثان تعريف حروف الجر, وتصنيفها وتقديم معانيها في الإنكليزية ومن ثم بالكرديات بالإعتماد على الأدبيات المتوفرة. وقد توصلت الدراسة الى عدد من النتائج التي تشير الى عدد من السمات المتشابهة وأخرى مختلفة, ولكن جوانب الشبه أكثر من جوانب الإختلاف.	حروف الجر المعنى الإنكليزية الكردية معلومات البحث تاريخ البحث: الاستلام: 12-10-2020 القبول: 3-11-2020 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 statuses.

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.

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:

Time: He went home *after/during/before* the lecture.

Place: She went *in/to/by/from* the house.

Logic: She went *because of/ in spite of* you.

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.

A N V P N

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* (Aitchison, 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 lose 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:

About	Around	Beyond	Near	Past	Under
Above	Before	By	On	Round	Up
Across	Behind	Down	Opposite	Since	Within
After	Below	In	Outside	Through	Without
Along	Between	Inside	Over	Throughout	

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)

	POSITIVE		NEGATIVE	
	direction	position	direction	position
DIMENSION-TYPE 0 (point)	<i>to</i> → ×	<i>at</i> ● ×	(<i>away</i>) <i>from</i> × →	<i>away</i> <i>from</i> × ●
DIMENSION-TYPE 1/2 (line or surface)	<i>on(to)</i> ↘ —	<i>on</i> — ●	<i>off</i> — ↗	<i>off</i> — ●
DIMENSION-TYPE 2/3 (area or volume)	<i>in(to)</i> ↘ □	<i>in</i> □ ●	<i>out of</i> □ ↗	<i>out of</i> □ ●

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:

Destination

Position

Nada went <i>to</i> Oxford.	As a result: Nada was <i>at</i> Oxford.
Nada climbed <i>onto</i> the roof.	As a result: Nada was <i>on</i> the room.
Nada dived <i>into</i> the water.	As a result: Nada was <i>in</i> 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*.PP.677-78)

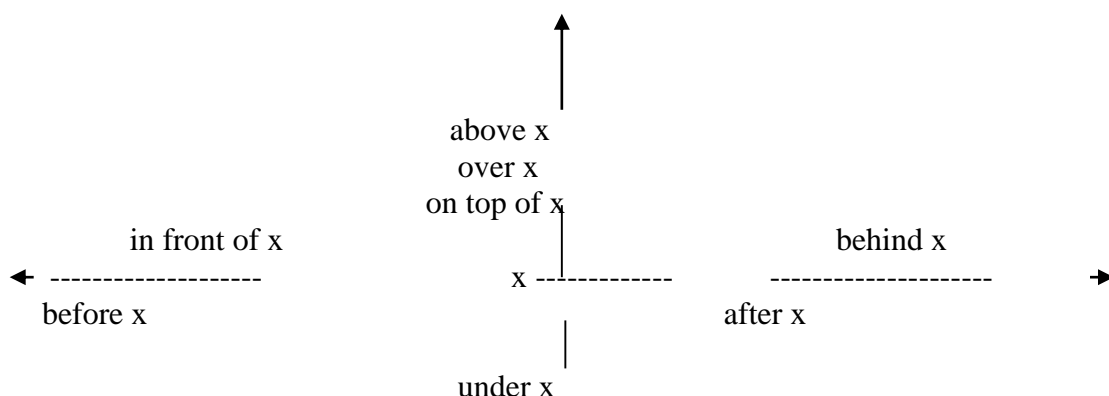
-She is *away from* school. ~ She is *not* at school.

-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.



below x
beneath x
underneath x
↓

Figure 2 (vertical and horizontal direction)

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:

Prepositional Adverbs

Overhead
Underneath (formal)
In front
On top
Above
Below
Behind
Beneath (formal)

Prepositions

Over
Under, underneath (formal)
In front of
On top of
Above
Below
Behind
Beneath (formal)

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*, *close 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 {*nearer(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.

(*Ibid.*P.680)

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.

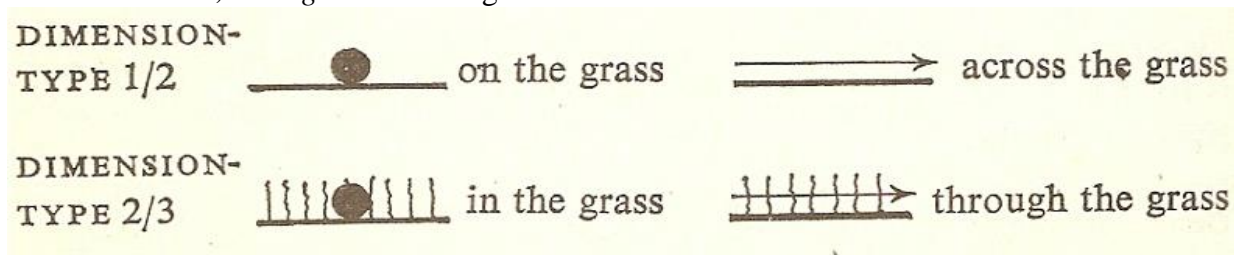
- He jumped *over* a ditch.
- Someone ran *behind* the goalposts.
- The ball rolled *underneath* the table.

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:



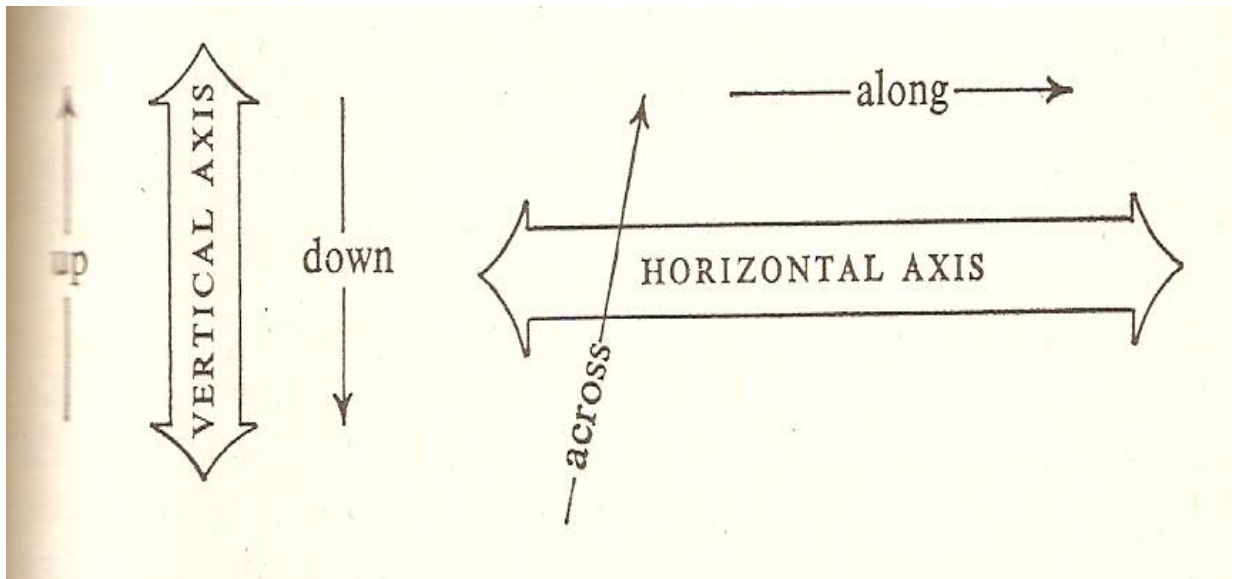
The upper pairs treat the grass as a surface, and therefore suggest short grass; the lower pair, by treating the grass as a volume, suggests that it has height as well as length and breadth—that is, that the grass is long. There is a meaning of *over* corresponding to *across* in this sense:

- 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 view point 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. [1]
- The horses are over the fence. ['Have now jumped over'] [2]

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*. [3]
- When you're *past the next obstacle, you can relax*. [4]

(*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	→	state, condition:	
		To be <i>in/out of</i> danger	to keep <i>out of</i> trouble
		To be <i>in/out of</i> office	to be <i>out of</i> a job
		To be <i>in</i> difficulties	amidst many trouble
enclosure	→	abstract inclusion:	
		<i>in</i> books/plays	<i>in/out of</i> the rare
		<i>in</i> a group/party	

Into/out of

destination → abstract condition or circumstance:
He got *into* difficulties/trouble/debt/a flight.
Can you get me *out of* this mess?

In/on

Position → membership, participation:
in the army
on the board/committee/project

Above/below/beneath

Vertical direction → abstract level:
to be *above/below* someone on a list

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*'), *betweenand* can be used in the more general sense of *during*:

-The office 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, î, bizwêni kûrt (e), şîş, 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 tozêkî *le* naneke xuard.
- 3) to indicate a part of something.
Le hemû kêkan nazm bedile.

4) to compare two things, two persons or more according their ability, kind, and characteristics.

Naz *le* Şuan zîrektre.

5) to indicate a person or something in a group.

Memuzîn *le* şakarî Ahmedî Xanîe.

4.3.1.1 *Le* with the postposition of (bizwênu ue, 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 deşî.

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 îş 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.

Be birakemda raspardekemtan bo denêrm.

Çayekem *be* pêwe xuardewe.

4.3.3 *Bo*

Bo is a dependent simple preposition. *Bo* is used:

1) to show a place.

Ewan defon *bo* serênar.

2) to indicate a movement of someone or something from one place to another.

Hemû mangêk name *bo* eu denêrm.

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 krîrwe.

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.

Min *bê* êwe naêm bo hewlêr.

4.3.5 *Ta* : *Heta*, *Takû*, *Tawekû*, *Hetawekû*

Ta is a dependent simple preposition. It can not 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.

Ême *ta* cemcemal roîstîn.

2) to show dimension.

Hawrê *hetaweku* laî awekewe cû.

4.3.6 *bizwenî kurt (e)*:

It is a dependent simple preposition. It is used:

1) to show a place.

Ewan geîstne qutabxane.

2) to show how an action happens.

Kabra krdîe 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* êwewe westabûm.

Ew *pêş* min hat.

Minaleke le *paş* bawkiwe deruat.

4.4.2 *Tenîşt* and *Beramber*:

Tenîşt and *Beramber* are used to show a place and the direction of a place.

Malekeman *tenîşt* baxekeie.

Dukanekeman *beramber* benzinxanekeie.

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.

-Karwanîekan *nizîk* nîwero geîstne awaî.

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* êwe 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 cume bazar.

-Min cum *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'.

(Ibid.P.63)

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;

English
He went home *after* the lecture.

Kurdish
Şwan *le* Duhok dejî.

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:

English
She is *in* the garden.
(‘in’ gives the meaning of place that
She is in the garden not outside)

Kurdish
Naz *le* baxekedaye.
(‘le’ gives the meaning of place).

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:

English
-My car is *at* the cottage. (place)
-I went to Hawler *at* 8:00 am.(time)

Kurdish
-Seyarekem *le* maleweye.(place)
-Ême *le* dwênêwe çauêrwantan
dekein.(time)

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

English
-Naz is *in the school*.
(‘in the school’ is a
prepositional phrase).

Kurdish
-Naz *le qutabxaneyê*.
(‘le qutabxaneyê’ is a
Prepositional phrase which is
called ‘grêî prîpozîşnî’ in
Kurdish language).

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:

<u>English</u>	<u>Kurdish</u>
-(<i>on</i>) Monday week.	-(<i>le</i>) hefteî dahatû.
-(<i>on</i>) the day before yesterday.	-(<i>le</i>) dûşemeda.
-(<i>on</i>) the next day.	-(<i>le</i>) mangî pêşûda.
-(<i>in</i>) the previous spring.	-(<i>le</i>) salî par.

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

<u>English</u>	<u>Kurdish</u>
-We stayed there (<i>for</i>) three months.	Ême <i>sê mang</i> le Duhokbwin.
	Ême <i>bo sê mang</i> le Duhok bwin.

*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:

<u>English</u>	<u>Kurdish</u>
-Nada climbed <i>onto</i> the roof.	- <i>Babê</i> to narom bo hewlêr.

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;

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

*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;

<u>English</u>
- <i>With</i> + adj + frequency: with regular frequency.
- <i>At</i> + adj + intervals: at irregular intervals.
- <i>On</i> + adj + occasions: on specific occasion.
- <i>From time to time</i> : we saw each other from time to time.

Kurdish

-Hemû salêk *le* boneî neûrozda pşûî resmîe.

-Hemû rojê Azad *le* beyanîeû ta nûero 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 heînêk* deroîn bo seîran.

-*Le hemû heînêkda* 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 çûme 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.

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