II. A. Introduction:

II.A. (a) English Language: English language enjoys the pride of place and the unassailable prestige as an international language. It is acknowledged as the world's most important language in view of the geographical distribution of its speakers over the globe and the influence they wield in international affairs. Over 300 million people, who live in North America, British Isles, Australia, New Zealand, Caribbean and South Africa use it as their native language. About as many people especially in former British colonies use English as a second language for intranational purposes - as a 'lingua franca', say for instance, for governmental, commercial, social and educational activities. Besides, English is the most crazily sought after and prestigious foreign language for purposes of international communications viz. radio, television, commerce, trade, fashion, culture and a host of other things. "No language is more widely studied or used as a foreign language than English."¹

As a language of cultural transmission, science and technology, the importance and prestige of English is ever on the increase because of the cultural domination of its speakers. The proliferation of English on a global basis has resulted in the evolution of various regional standards such as British, American, Scottish, Canadian, Australian, African and Indian Englishes.

The international status and world-wide prestige of the present-day English is in sharp contrast with the humble and obscure beginning it had some 1500 years ago. English was the language of, so to say, nowhere if we trace its historic origins. English evolved from the fusion of various Germanic dialects which had been brought to England by the Germanic tribes - Angles, Saxons and Jutes migrating from North German forests. They invaded and settled down in British Isles at different stages from the year 449 A.D. The form of language that emerged from the inter-mingling of their dialects is known as Anglo-Saxon or Old English. In Old English, the language of the invading tribes was known 'Englisc' after the name of the Angles who were called 'Engle' in Old English. The land and the people were first called 'Anglecynn'. By 1000 A.D. the term 'Englaland' stuck to the land, and 'Englisc' to the language.

The span of Old English extended from 600 - 1100 A.D. In the year 1066 A.D. the Normans settled in England, an event which was to have great linguistic influence on English language. Consequent to the Norman Conquest, English was replaced by French, and English was reduced to the language of the ordinary people for the next 200 years. But by Chaucer's death in 1400 A.D., English emerged as the national language of England. This period, when English was

2. The dialects used by these Germanic tribes evolved from Proto-Germanic in I Century A.D. The Germanic branch itself is one of the several branches of the great family of languages called Indo-European, spread over Europe and Asia. According to scholars a reconstructed form of the Indo-European called Proto-Indo-European was spoken some 4, 5 thousand years B.C., which broke up into numerous dialects somewhere between 3000 - 2000 B.C. Neither Proto-Indo-European nor Proto-Germanic had a writing system. The Germanic branch split into three groups. East Germanic, North Germanic and West Germanic. English belongs to the Low German sub-group of the West Germanic.
reshaping itself grammatically and enriching itself in vocabulary, is called the Middle English period that roughly extended from 1100 - 1500. From the year 1476, when Caxton installed the printing press in England, English entered a new phase - the Modern English period. The new era of printing and the Renaissance gave a new face-lift and vigour for the national language. English became a powerful literary medium in the hands of Spenser, Milton and Shakespeare. The colonial expansion of XVI and XVII Centuries took English far and wide and eased its growth as an international language.

One of the remarkable phenomena noticeable about the English language during its comparatively short history of 1500 years is that it has undergone revolutionary and sensational changes unparalleled in the history of any other language. The changes did not take sudden strides. There were more remarkable and rapid changes noticeable between 1100 - 1300 than between 1700 - 1900 A.D. There has been changes at all levels viz. vocabulary, pronunciation and grammar. There has been prolific borrowing from languages like Latin, French and other modern languages so much so that/present-day English only 10% of the total vocabulary is purely native. In pronunciation, the main change that occurred is that the original Indo-European accentual system which was very flexible came to be fixed on the root syllable, and a stress accent, as against a pitch accent, came to be established. The sound system of the consonants underwent changes.

3. Authors like M.M. Bryant make a sub-division of the modern English period into (a) early modern English period (1500 - 1700 and (b) 1700 - to present day. According to her, the date of Old English period extends from 449 - 1100 A.D. She describes the period between 449-700 as the period of primitive old English. A.C.Baugh adopts the division into Old English (450 - 1150), Middle English (1150 - 1500), Modern English (1500 - to present day). Dona Worrall Brown et al. Old English (450 - 1100), Middle English (1100 - 1500), Early Modern English (1500 - 1700) and Modern English (1700 to present day).
as outlined by J. Grimm and K. Verner; and the value of vowels in stressed syllables changed systematically according to the law of change known as 'The Great Vowel Shift'.

Regarding the changes in English grammar which interest us more here W. Nelson Francis says, "In grammar, it changed from a largely synthetic language, depending principally on inflectional markers to indicate syntactical relations, to an analytic one, depending principally on word order and function words." Apart from other grammatical changes such as continuous present, creation of two-part verbs, etc. the most radical change that modified the grammatical structure of language was that English changed from a synthetic language as it was in Old English period to an analytic language which depends least on inflectional variations of its word classes. A.C. Baugh defines the analytic language as follows:

"Languages which make extensive use of prepositions and auxiliary verbs and depend upon word order to show other relationships are known as analytic languages. Modern English is an analytic, Old English a synthetic language." Margaret M. Bryant describes the course of the linguistic change in English language quoting the words of Henry Sweet: "Old English is known as a language of full inflections, Middle English a language of levelled inflections, and modern English a language of lost inflections."

In grammatical lore 'inflection' denotes a change made in the form of words in order to indicate their functions in a sentence.

6. Margaret M. Bryant, op.cit., p.38.
and to denote the relationships between words in a syntactical structure. The original Indo-European had a very elaborate system of inflectional morphology with as many as eight cases, although by Old English time, only four of them survived. Modern English, though it preserves the inflections of pronouns, has retained only two forms in nouns viz. the general uninflected form and the genitive.

When English changed from a synthetic language to an analytic language, the inflectional endings which marked the grammatical functions were gradually replaced by prepositions, word order and other periphrastic devices, as is shown in the following examples:

1. Pater dedit filio librum
   The father gave the son a book.
   The father gave the book to the son.
2. Dux inimicum gladio interfecit.
   The leader killed the enemy with the sword.
3. Timor mortis.
   Fear of death.
4. Leo occidit vulpem/Vulpem occidit Leo.
   The lion killed the fox.

In sentence No.1, the inflectional ending 'o' shows that the noun 'filius' has the function of indirect object and the ending 'm' indicates that the noun 'liber' is the direct object. In Modern English, these functions are indicated by fixed word position viz. SVOO or by a preposition +0. In sentence No.2, the function of instrument is indicated by the 'o' ending (gladio). In Modern English, this instrumental function is indicated by the preposition 'with'. In sentence No.3, the dependence relation is indicated by

7. In the matter of inflection, Old English bore close similarity to Latin and Greek.
genitive case (mortis). In Modern English, the same relationship is denoted by the 'of' preposition. In the last example 'Leo occidit vulpem' and 'Vulpem occidit leo' mean the same thing. The position of words can be changed without prejudice to the meaning because the ending of the words denotes the functions. In English the order of words in "The lion killed the fox" cannot be changed without substantial change of meaning. The device of inflection is substituted by fixed word order in Modern English.

II.A(b) Origin of prepositions: The word class of prepositions qua prepositions has a relatively recent origin. Nevertheless the functions of what we now call 'prepositions' were known right from recorded linguistic history. The Indo-European languages made prolific use of prefixes and suffixes for this purpose. They specified or modified the meaning of the root word as to some aspect of space, time, manner, etc. They added a new dimension to the root meaning. This practice of prefixation of elements to modify or restrict the meaning of the root word is quite common even in modern English as in:

1. bedridden Cn. p.140  
2. overflow Cn. p.206  
3. daydreamed Cn. p. 63  
4. homecoming Cn. p.130

Simple juxtaposition of base forms was unusual at the early stage of the Indo-European. Those prefixes were once words with full meaning. Morris Swadesh says, "In fact, most of the prefixes were once independent adverbs that came to be joined to their verbs."

Joseph Wright et al. give the following list of such prefixes used in Old English with these words of introduction: "Some of the forms given as prefixes below are in reality independent words forming the first elements of compounds."\(^8\)

---

æf = off; an- = on; and- = on; bi- = by; fore- = before;
ge- = together; in- = in; mid- = with; ofer- = over; sam- = together;
to- = to; twi- = two; purh- = very; under- = under; üp- = up;
út- = out; wan- = lacking; wiper- = against; ymb- = around. All
these prefixes are the stressed forms of the same items used as
prepositions in weak form.

But in Germanic languages, the prefixes turned out to be not
so productive because of the Germanic practice of placing the stress
on the root syllable. This happened with the Norman conquest
(1066 A.D.) and since. Having lost stress, the prefixes broke off
and began to appear as particles in a postverbal position still
connected with the verb in meaning. This is the origin of the
phrasal verbs in Modern English. These particles were once adverbs
and were stressed. But later, these particles stood in compromising
position as to their loyalty now to the preceding verb, now to the
following noun which was inflected for case as required by the verb.
Such ambiguous structures still exist in language, for instance

1. see / to it  & see to / it
2. look / at the picture & look at / the picture

Gradually the loyalties clearly shifted and the particles got
themselves attached to the following noun. It was the Greek gramma-
rian Dionysius Thrax (circa 100 B.C.) who first called these
particles in prenoun position 'preposition'. Because of their
position before a noun, he called them 'prothesis' in Greek.

C.T. Onions describes the shift of function of the adverb particles
as follows: "But in the course of time, the adverb lost its close
connection with the verb and became linked to the noun, ultimately
taking its position before it and governing it in a certain case."\textsuperscript{10} The preposition assumed the role of signalling the syntactic function of the noun or noun-equivalent that follows it and denoted in what relationship that noun stands in respect of the activity denoted by the verb.

Regarding the origin of the prepositions Louis H. Gray says, "...adverbs, prepositions and (probably) most conjunctions are originally nothing more than stereotyped cases of nouns and adjectives."\textsuperscript{11} This throws light on the common origin of adverbs and prepositions. According to William Dwight Whitney, in respect of form, the oldest prepositions were, and some still are, identical with adverbs. As prepositions they had the function of "aiding to determine the noun-case."\textsuperscript{12} which functioned as adjunct to the Verb. The existence of both constructions side by side corroborates his position as in:

\begin{center}
\textit{In oppidum ire} & \textit{Roman ire}
\end{center}

J. Vendryes makes the same point when he says that in Latin prepositions "...frequently reinforced case inflections."\textsuperscript{13} In the opinion of William Dwight Whitney, therefore, the development of prepositions qua prepositions as a separate class and their association with nouns is a later development. He says, "Prepositions in our sense of the term, are of yet more recent origin, created a separate part of speech by the swinging away of certain adverbs from apprehended relation to the verb, and their connection in idea with the noun-cases which their addition to the verb had caused to be construed with it."\textsuperscript{14}

\begin{flushright}
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\end{tabular}
\end{flushright}
That the prepositions were originally adverb particles maintaining their allegiance to the verb is further evident from the fact that in certain instances, the prepositions appear at the end of an utterance with the verb, leaving the noun stranded. For example,

(i) Questions:

1. Then where has the darnel come from? Mt.13:27.
2. Whom else could he relate them to? Cn.p.38.

(ii) Relative construction:

1. It had never occurred to him to ask whom they were meant for. Cn.p.
2. The man she had come away with... Cn.p.115.

(iii) Wh-dependent clause:

1. You know where it came from. Cn.p.47.

(iv) Passive construction:

1. That bed had been slept on. Lk.12:39.
2. Let his house be broken into.

(v) Emphatic sentence:

1. This insult I can't put up with. Lk.12:30.
2. All these are things for the heathen to run after. Lk.12:30.

(vi) Accusative-infinitive construction:

1. No one but the Headman to fall back upon. Cn.p.105.
2. She is like gold to look at. Cn.p.57.
3. He was not getting any work to speak of. Cn.p.56.

(vii) When the verb after the infinitive marker is elided:

1. Or don't you want to? Cn.p.108.

(viii) In -ing clauses where the complement of the preposition is thematized:

1. This car is worth affording to.

The emergence of prepositions from adverbial particles in their new function is traced by John C. McLaughlin. According to
him the prepositions, their present prenounc position were once adverb particles attached to verbs, and they served "to alter in some way the force or meaning of the verb." He says, "A number of these particles, have, of course, taken up a prenounc position and are considered to be more immediately related to the noun than to the verb, thus constituting what we consider a prepositional phrase." C.T. Onion says that the line of demarcation between the preposition and the adverb is quite indistinct. According to him, the fact that prepositions often followed the noun in the early stages of the language and now occasionally, suggest the possibility of prepositions being developed out of adverbs. The following examples illustrate prepositions occurring after their noun complement:

1. him biforan = before him
2. no word hem bitwene + between them
3. objections notwithstanding
4. all the world over

I.A.(c) Prepositions in Old English: Old English was an inflected language and so, many syntactic functions were expressed by change in the form of nouns. But there were also prepositions and they had a role to play. In Old English, prepositions governed a noun in the genitive, dative or accusative case according to the requirement of the verb. Prepositions were fewer in Old English than in Modern English and their functions were restricted. Joseph Wright and Elizabeth Mary Wright give the following list of Old English prepositions.

17. C.T. Onions, op.cit., p.95.
18. Joseph Wright and Elizabeth Mary Wright, op.cit., p.305.
(i) Prepositions governing accusative: geond = throughout, during; geondan = beyond; underneopan = underneath; ymb = around, about; ymbūtan = about; ob = to, until; purh = through.

(ii) Prepositions governing genitive: andlang(es) = alongside.

(iii) Prepositions governing dative: æfter = after; ær = before; bī = by; binnan = within; fram = from; gehende = near; mid = together with; nāh = near; of = from; ongemang, onmang = among; oninnan = in; onufan = upon; tōforan = before, in front of; tomiddes = in the midst of; wipforan = before; wipūtān = outside, without.

(iv) Prepositions governing accusative or dative: æt = at, in, on; beforan = before; fore = before; behindan = behind; betweonan = between; tō = to, at; bufan = above; tōgeanes, tōgegnes = towards against; under = under; uppan = above.

(v) Preposition governing genitive or dative: to-weardes = towards.

(vi) Preposition governing genitive, accusative or dative: wip = against; innan = within.

Many of the simple prepositions were germanic in origin. The same particle was used now as adverb and now as preposition. When used as a preposition, it was followed by a noun in case suffix and therefore it was said that a preposition governed the case and reinforced the case function. As it happens in any spoken language the vowels in unstressed final syllables in Old English were weakened and gradually disappeared. The prepositions however, emerged more important to take up the functions of the case endings.

The gradual disintegration of the inflectional system and the corresponding extension of the prepositional system to take up
the grammatical functions of the former is clear from the following table:\textsuperscript{19}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Inflectional genitive (In per cent)</th>
<th>Periphrastic genitive (In per cent)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9th Century (end) - 10th Century</td>
<td>99.5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Later 10th - beginning of 11th Century</td>
<td>99.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11th Century</td>
<td>98.0</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12th Century</td>
<td>93.7</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13th Century (first half)</td>
<td>68.6</td>
<td>31.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14th Century</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>84.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As is clear from the table, there is a correlation between the gradual break-down of the inflectional endings and the increased use of prepositions to make up for the loss. The grammatical functions and relations once denoted by the case endings alone or aided by the prepositions began to be expressed solely by the prepositions. C.T. Onions describes the change in the status of prepositions thus: "... the result being that what seems to have been originally a more or less superfluous addition to an adverbial phrase ... has become a necessary connecting link between nouns and nouns or verbs and nouns."\textsuperscript{20} By Middle English period, prepositions emerged more important as a grammatical device. They assumed more functions and became tools to convey more shades of meaning.

In Old English, prepositions had a purely local meaning. Interestingly, when meanings other than space had to be conveyed English did not coin new prepositions for the purpose, but the existing ones were used in more than one meaning according to the

\textsuperscript{19} John C. McLaughlin, op.cit., p.247.
\textsuperscript{20} C.T. Onions, op.cit., p.96.
context. Thus the same particles were used to refer not only to space but time and a spectrum of other meanings. Thus they acquired various transferred and metaphorical meanings. Apart from prepositions of native origin, at a later stage some were borrowed from Latin (circa, pro, qua, re, versus, via), Scandinavian (fro), Norse (at, with) and French (sans, apropos, vis-a-vis). Nevertheless, the word class of prepositions is a closed class and new additions are very rare. Even when one appears it is not coined for the purpose, but it is the result of a rearrangement. A word with a full meaning, because of its use in stereotyped positions, loses its original meaning and becomes empty and later becomes a pure function marker. During the Middle English period, the existing prepositions acquired new meanings and a few came in as a result of analogical creation. In Modern English, prepositions have acquired a wide variety of functions. They stand for many meanings. Sometimes the same meaning may be represented by different prepositions. The meanings they stand for range from concrete to metaphorical and abstract. Some of the prepositions have strayed so far away from their original home that they have become like algebraic symbols and resist analysis; thereby making their study difficult even for the natives.

The prepositions, because of their versatile nature, have become very important in Modern English clause structure. As structural markers, they enjoy the pride of place as devices used to convey grammatical meaning. With their ability to convey metaphorical and the most abstract meanings, prepositions more than any other word class contribute to the beauty and idiomatic style of language.
II.A.(d) Definition of a preposition: Barbara M.H. Strang defines prepositions as "... the closed system of clausally-incorporated words of relationship."\textsuperscript{21} In general, we can say that the prepositions express relationship between two grammatical items, i.e. between the prepositional complement and some other part of the sentence. Jeanne H. Herndon defines preposition as "... a word used to show a relationship between a noun or pronoun and some other word in a sentence. The combination of preposition plus the noun or pronoun and any modifiers the noun or pronoun may have is called a prepositional phrase."\textsuperscript{22} When a group of words as a unit carries the functions of a single word we call it a phrase. The prepositional phrases take up the function of the single word adverbs. So their function is said to be adverbial.

According to Gleason, prepositions clearly mark the construction type called prepositional phrase. Prepositions exhibit great structural contrast, because substitution of one by another is attended by a change of meaning. They have one typical function and one place. Hence, they have a great role in signalling meaning. The function of signalling the structure belongs exclusively to the constituent class of prepositions. We can do without say, a noun in a piece of writing, but prepositions as a class cannot be sidelined. Prepositions have less meaning for themselves, but their involvement in grammar is more direct and therefore they uniformly occur in a material irrespective of the subject matter or style.

In the words of Dona Worrall Brown et al. "... a preposition is a function word used to introduce a noun or pronoun into a sentence by means other than inflection and in addition to word order."

The noun or pronoun thus introduced is called the object of the preposition and usually occupies a position immediately following it. S.H. Burton says, "A preposition is a 'relating' word. It relates either a noun or a pronoun or a noun equivalent to another word."  

II.A.(e) Prepositional phrases: The common grammatical rule is that prepositions do not occur in isolation, but only in a prenouns position. A preposition is always followed by 'a noun' or 'noun equivalent' as its object, and these together form the syntactic unit called 'prepositional phrase'. P. Maetzner says, "It seems to correspond in general to the nature of the preposition, as well as to its name, immediately to precede the substantive notion to which it is referred, and with which it coalesces proclitically into a whole by the accent." 25  

The minimum syntactic unit is a word. But words do not directly enter into the structure of a sentence. Words group themselves into larger units called phrases and from phrases complex sentences are built up by the process of subordination or coordination. In the structure of a sentence, phrases play a great role as constituent elements of a clause. The important types of phrases in English are noun phrases, verb phrases, adjectival phrases, adverb phrases and prepositional phrases. These phrases are generally named after the important word class that function as the pivot or head word of the phrase. But prepositional phrases are a class

23. Dona Worrall Brown et al., op.cit., p.73.  
apart and present special difficulties. Whereas the noun phrase, the verb phrase, etc. have a noun or verb respectively as their head word, a prepositional phrase has no head word which can substitute the whole phrase. Prepositional phrases are, therefore, called exocentric constructions. Exocentric constructions are non-headed constructions of the predication type in which neither of the constituent units can substitute the function of the whole structure. For example, in the phrase 'on the deck' neither 'on' nor 'deck' can function as the head and substitute the phrase.

In a prepositional phrase the preposition is followed by a noun or noun substitute as its complement or object as in:

1. ... to the seashore
2. ... because of what I have told you
3. ... by incurring the displeasure

The complement of a preposition is always a nominal i.e. a noun phrase, a nominal wh-clause, or a nominal -ing clause. But there are certain set phrases in which an adjective functions as complement of a preposition: (1) in private (2) of late (3) forever (4) at first, etc.

A preposition in turn can act as complement of another preposition, and, therefore, two prepositions appear in a sequence.

1. from behind a coconut tree
2. from outside the fisherman's caste
3. from among them he chose twelve

Some space and time prepositional phrases can be intensified by adverbs:

1. His stare...seemed to go right through her.
2. ... just after midnight.
Sometimes prepositions enter into correlative constructions with a conjunction or a preposition.

1. from the crest of one wave to another  
   Cn. p.52.
2. from the beginning of the world until now  
   Mt.24:21
3. between the sanctuary and the altar

Prepositional phrases play an important role in the structure of English sentences. Jeanne H. Herndon says, "The most common type of phrase in English is the prepositional phrases." Dona Worrall Brown et al. say, "Prepositional phrases are another means of enriching the meaning of a sentence through modification." With the help of prepositional phrases, we can express the idea more accurately and with more sophistication. The prepositional phrases have adjectival and adverbial functions. But their main role is adverbial, i.e. they are a word group that can occupy all typical adverb slots. They realize all types of adverbials, namely, adjunct, subjunct, disjunct and conjunct.

II.A(f) The stressing of prepositions: Particles such as, at, by, in, on, of, for, from, to, with, up, are used both as adverbs and as simple (monosyllabic) prepositions with the difference that they are always stressed when used as adverb particles. But they lose stress when used as prepositions as in:

Come 'in' (adv.)
They were 'plunged in' grief (p.)

On the other hand, polysyllabic prepositions are stressed:

They spoke about their rights

Nevertheless the monosyllabic prepositions receive stress in the following contexts:

(i) In coordination:
Travel 'to and 'from Madras.

(ii) When a stress shift is called for:
A: "Go to the library!"
B: "There is no room 'in the library."

(iii) When the complement of the preposition is no more stressed:
They took the shirt 'off me.

(iv) To avoid the stressing of a pronominal complement like 'it':
I don't believe 'in it.

In this connexion Randolph Quirk says, "Stressing monosyllabic prepositions has become rather fashionable, although some people regard it as annoyingly affected."28

II.B. Morphology (Form) of prepositions:

The present study is undertaken to analyse and describe the form, meaning and syntactic function of English prepositions. In form, prepositions bear close similarity with other word classes like adverbs and conjunctions.

II.B.(a) Prepositions and other word classes: The boundary between word classes is not, always, clear-cut. They more often than not overlap.

In form, prepositions bear closest similarity to adverbparticles and conjunctions. Grammarians usually distinguish between central prepositions and marginal ones. The central prepositions always have as complement a noun or noun phrase in the objective case, or wh-clause or -ing clause. For example,

1. He was surprised at her attitude.
2. He was surprised at meeting her there.
3. He was surprised at what she told him.

There are some participle forms (-ing, -ed) of verbs used as prepositions like, considering, barring, regarding, granted, etc. They have affinity with verbs and are called marginal prepositions.

(i) Prepositions and adverbs: These are two word classes that have closest affinities in form, function and meaning. According to Barbara M.H. Strang, "...they (prepositions) are really at one end of a continuum which has the central adverbs at the other, nearly all the one-word prepositions can also be adverbs, and in that case all we are distinguishing is that the same forms without object are adverbs, with object are prepositions - no more than the distinction we make between transitive and intransitive verbs."\(^\text{29}\) L.G. Alexander also makes the same point when he says, "Certain words, such as, in, off, up, function either as prepositions or as adverb particles. When such words are followed by an object, they function as prepositions; when there is no object, they are adverb particles."\(^\text{30}\) An adverb particle does not govern an object, and so is more closely related to a verb, and the particles are stressed unlike the prepositions.

In view of the multiple function of adverb particles, they fall under the following classes: (i) Preposition: where the particle is more allied to the following noun; (ii) Prepositional adverb: where the same item is not followed by an object, and (iii) Particles in a phrasal verb: in which the particle is allied to the preceding verb. This verb + particle combination can be (a) transitive or (b) intransitive.

---

These distinctions are illustrated by the following examples:

(i) Prepositions:
1. During the night a lot of dried fish was sold. Cn. p.42.

(ii) Prepositional adverb:
1. Above, the sea gulls hovered. Cn. p.52.
2. "... See, there are people about." Cn. p.49.

(iii) Particle in phrasal verb (a) transitive:
1. ... there was no one to look after her father. Cn. p.108.
2. ... I am going to put on weight now? Cn. pp. 57.

(b) intransitive:
1. "So should I also dress up like a young girl?" Cn. p.58.

As is clear from the examples, there is close functional similarity between prepositions and adverbs. Both have the function of limiting the force or application of the verb as to some circumstance of place, time, manner, degree, means, etc. The particle as adverb modifies the meaning of the verb in a general way as to some dimension of direction or location of the verbal action. But the particle as preposition in conjunction with a noun complement has the same function of modifying the meaning of the verb, but denoting more specific dimensions of the verbal action. In such functions, the only difference between a preposition and an adverb is, as George O. Curme puts it, "...the latter limits the force of the verb in and of itself, while the former requires the assistance of a dependent noun or some other word." 31 It may be noted that there are some P + noun or adjective combinations that function as closed-class adverbs as in

of course Cn. p.38 instead Cn. p.39 in a way Cn.73
indeed Mt.27:40 after all Cn. p.1) in turn Cn.92

(ii) Prepositions and conjunctions: Prepositions and conjunctions belong to the class of subordinators. Simple subordinators like 'after', 'on', 'before', 'since', 'till', 'until' are formally the same used both as prepositions and conjunctions. But the difference is that prepositions introduce complements that have a nominal function; and conjunctions introduce a subordinate clause as in

1. Go just before sun set.  
2. ... before you get married  
3. ... but you have kept the best wine till now!  
4. I shall sing until my throat will crack

'Than', 'like' and 'as' are items whose margin between prepositions and conjunctions is not clear. Randolph Quirk, however, says that in comparative constructions like

1. ... is mightier than I.  
2. The least in the kingdom of God is greater than he.  

The phrases 'than I', 'than he' are not reduction of 'than I am', or 'than he is', but a hyper-correct variant of 'than me' and 'than him'.

II.B(b) Simple prepositions: On the basis of morphology, English prepositions fall under two categories, i.e. simple and complex. Simple prepositions are those that consist of one word. They are again subdivided into monosyllabic and polysyllabic prepositions according to their different stress patterns:

(i) Monosyllabic prepositions: at, by, down, for, from, in, like, of, on, out, since, through, to, with, etc.

(ii) Polysyllabic prepositions: about, across, against, along, around, behind, between, within, without, etc.

II.B.(c) Complex prepositions: Complex prepositions consist of two or more words, and they are of two types: (i) two-word sequences (ii) three-word sequences.

(i) In two-word prepositions the first word which receives the stress is an adverb, adjective or conjunction, and the second word is a simple preposition like of, to, from, etc. Because of, instead of, according to, apart from, are some of the two-word prepositions.

(ii) Three-word prepositions are complex prepositions consisting of three words according to the pattern $P_1 + \text{Noun} + P_2$ as in:

- in front of
- in spite of
- in view of
- in case of
- in favour of
- on account of
- on behalf of

Complex prepositions bear similarity with free noun phrase sequence. Indivisibility, cohesiveness and partial loss of meaning of the noun are the characteristics that mark out complex prepositions from free noun phrase sequences. Some of the complex prepositions with 'of' as 'Preposition 2', in its structure have an alternative genitive construction, as in:

1. for Gangadattan's sake ( = for the sake of)  Cn. p.179.
2. on her behalf ( = on behalf of)  Cn. p.152.
3. on her account ( = on account of)  Cn. p. 99.

C.T. Onions makes the following classification of prepositions based on their form: 32

(i) Adverb particles: The oldest and the most frequent are the simple adverb particles like at, by, for, in, on, of, to, up, with, etc.

33. C.T. Onions, op.cit., p.94.
(ii) Adjectives: next, round, save, etc.

(iii) Present participles: concerning, during, etc.

(iv) Past participles: except, past.

(v) Compounds of prepositions or adverbs: into, without, out of.

In conclusion, considering the form of prepositions, we might say that the original home of prepositions is the class of adverbs. Most of them were adverb particles. To this class belong the prepositions of the preinflectional period. They were simple base forms like of (English), ab (German), apa (Sanskrit). Most of them became fixed in form at a very early date. Some are atrophied case forms of nouns and adjectives, a few are nouns petrified as such used in adverbial function, a few still are verbal forms. As adverbs, the particles were stressed. But as prepositions they lose their stress and come under the same breath group with the following noun. constituting with it the syntactic unit called 'prepositional phrase.'

II. C. Semantic Function (Meaning) of Prepositions

This section on 'Semantic function' deals with the meaning of prepositions. It may be said that in general, a preposition establishes a relation between two linguistic units i.e. between its complement noun and another part of the sentence. The relational meanings represented by prepositions are so varied and variegated that it is difficult to categorize them under clearcut labels. Of the various types of relationships that prepositions stand for, those of space and time are easily identified and described. There are yet a host of other relations such as those of instrument, cause, goal, origin, agent, means, source, stimulus, etc. The area of the uses of prepositions is so difficult that even an authority on
English language like Randolph Quirk, while dealing with prepositional meanings says, "So varied are prepositional meanings that no more than a presentation of the most notable semantic similarities and contrasts can be attempted here." It may be noted that most prepositions have both concrete and abstract or metaphorical meanings. Of these, concrete meanings are more obvious and easily detected. In the latter use, they are highly idiomatic and sophisticated and their meanings are most specialized and often elusive. First the prepositions denoting space relationships are dealt with.

II.C.(a) Prepositions denoting space: The following are the concepts expressed by prepositions denoting space.

(i) Positive position: The concept of positive position is expressed by the prepositions, at, in and on. They are associated with verbs of stative meaning such as be, stand, live, etc. as in:

1. All the boats were well out at sea. Cn. p. 49.
2. ... stood there in the shadow of the boat. Cn. p. 43.
3. A town that stands on a hill Mt. 5:14.

The prepositions denoting position 'at' and 'in' are used also with the verb 'arrive' and the verbal noun 'arrival' as in:

1. ... arrived at the sea front. Cn. p. 38.
2. On his arrival in Galilee. Jn. 4:45

(ii) Destination: The meaning of destination is conveyed by prepositions to, into, and onto. They accompany verbs of dynamic motion such as go, move, fly, etc.

1. ... brought a mass of dried fish to their hut. Cn. p. 23.
2. ... leave this district and go into Judea. Jn. 7:3.
3. ... hauled the boat onto the sand. Cn. p. 52.

The preposition 'on' is associated with surface and 'in' is associated with an area or volume.

1. ... it is on the stormy waves of the sea. 
2. In the kitchen she cooked some rice and curry.

'In' or 'at' is used for towns and villages:

1. ... went to every fishmonger in Alleppey.
2. ... festival of Ayilyam at Mannarsala.

Where sizeable territories are involved, the preposition 'in' is to be used:

1. There had been a great storm in mid-ocean.
2. ... as the serpent was lifted up by Moses in the wilderness.

Even with sizeable areas 'at' is used if their functional aspect is referred to or if treated as a limited area when compared to global distances.

1. Out at sea the nets were being gathered.
2. Palani looked up at the sky.

'Against' is used as a preposition of simple position or destination to mean 'touching the side', 'surface of', etc.

1. ... she leaned against his broad chest.
2. ... with a stone placed against it.
3. ... rolled a large stone against the entrance.

The preposition 'to' denotes completive movement in the direction of a place:

1. ... brought a mass of dried fish to their hut.
2. Jesus, ... withdrew again to the hills.

The preposition 'toward(s)' expresses movement that is not completed.

1. The boat was speeding toward mid-sea.
2. ... he saw Jesus coming towards him...
'Set out for', 'make for', 'leave for' also carry the idea of movement that is not completed.

2. ... he was making for Jerusalem. Lk.9:53.
3. ... they are to leave for Galilee. Mt.28:10.

(iii) Negative position or source: Negative position is expressed by prepositions, away from, from, off and out of.

1. Yet he kept far away from her life. Cn.p.192.
2. Can grapes be picked from briars? Mt.7:16.
3. "... would I go off the right path again?" Cn. p.161.

(iv) Relative position: There are two categories of prepositions that express relative positions (a) prepositions that denote a vertical relationship, such as, above, over, on top of, under, below, etc. (The prepositions 'above' and 'below', 'over' and 'under' are converse opposites.). The following examples may be considered:

1. He who comes from above is above all others. Jn.3:31.
2. ... the napkin which had been over his head. Jn.20:7.
3. ... the boat reappeared on top of the waves. Cn. p.212.
4. ... sat under the coconut tree. Cn. p.163.

(b) Prepositions that denote a horizontal relationship, such as in front of, behind, before, after, by, beside, with, near, near to, close to, next to, opposite, between, among, amid(st), around, round, about, etc. (The prepositions 'in front of' and 'behind' are converse opposites).

1. ... crossed her hands in front of her/bare breasts Cn.p.4,5.
2. Karuthamma...stood behind her mother. Cn.p.47.
4. All the world has gone after him. Jn.12:19.
5. By her side was Chakki. Cn.p.53.
6. ... the disciple whom he loved standing beside her. Jn.19:26.
8. Karuthamma was sitting near her mother. Cn.p.105.
9. John too was baptizing at Aenon, near to Salim. Jn.3:23.
10. When he came close to her. Cn.p.206.
11. ... my two sons here may sit next to you. Mt.20:21.

The prepositions 'near', 'near to', 'close to', 'next to' are interchangeable. 'Near (to)' and 'close to' are the only prepositions that admit degrees of comparison as nearer(to), closer to, closest to as in:

She felt closer to Palani. Cn.p.123.

R. Huddleston, therefore, says that the preposition 'near' has both prepositional and adjectival qualities. 36

'To' is optional after the preposition 'opposite'. Opposite (to) means 'facing'.

12. ... standing opposite the temple treasury. Mk.12:41.

'Between' denotes position in relation to a definite set of identified objects but 'among' relates to non-discrete, indefinite number of objects.

13. ... one on the right, one on the left, and Jesus between them Jn.19:18.
14. ... like lambs among wolves. Lk.10:3.

'Amid' and 'amidst' are prepositions which are more formal and apply to an indefinite number of entities. P. Maetzner is of opinion that the -s, -st endings may have appeared due to the assimilation of the particle to some other prepositions, or from the old genitive ending -es. 37

35. 'Beside' is a locative preposition. Its periphrastic form is 'by the side of'. But 'besides' is a non-locative preposition meaning 'in addition to'.
15. Amid the general wonder and admiration.

'Round' and 'around' denote surrounding position or motion.


17. The traders gathered around the boat.

'About' and 'around' have a vaguer meaning of 'in the area of' or 'in various positions in':

18. She is a grown girl gadding about the seafront.

19. ... all around him was mountain...

(v) Passage: Prepositions 'over', 'under', 'behind', 'across', 'through', past, etc. together with verbs of motion can express the idea of passage (i.e. movement towards, and then away from a place), as well as destination:

1. ... to ride his boat over the waves.
2. ... a long tongue was stretching under the water.
3. ... and made him walk behind Jesus.
4. ... came into the region of Judea across Jordan.
5. It furrowed through the water.
6. When he had gone past the waves

(vi) Movement with reference to a directional path: Prepositions 'up', 'down', 'along', 'across' and 'around' with verbs of motion express movement in relation to an axis or directional path. The prepositions 'up' and 'down' contrast in terms of vertical direction.

1. ... and led them up a high mountain.
2. ... tears running down her cheeks.

In idiomatic usage 'up' and 'down' are used in reference to a horizontal axis.

3. ... was led by the spirit up and down the wilderness
The preposition 'along' denotes 'from one end towards the other' or 'in a line parallel with'.

4. "I was just walking along the beach". Cn. p. 7.

(A) round is used when the directional path is an angle or a curve.

5. ...a silk scarf round his neck. Cn. p. 6.

(vii) Real or implied motion: 'Towards(s)' implies not only real motion, but also implied motion and 'in the direction of'.

1. The boat was speeding toward mid-sea. Cn. p. 46.

Prepositions 'to', 'into', 'over' are also used to mean implied motion.

1. Your messengers have been to John. Jn. 5:33.
2. ... these will be thrown into the blazing furnace. Mt. 13:42.
3. ... it wanders over the deserts. Lk. 11:24.

(viii) Orientation: The prepositions 'beyond', 'over', 'past', 'up', 'across', etc. can be used in a static sense of orientation. In this sense they imply a point of orientation from the speaker.

1. Some... went out fishing beyond the horizon. Cn. p. 65.
2. ... could be seen over the crest of still another wave. Cn. p. 211.
3. When he had gone past the waves. Cn. p. 203.
4. He went up the hill-side. Mt. 14:23.
5. ... came into the region of Judaea across Jordan. Mt. 19:1.

38. 's' in towards, etc. is a relic of the old genitive form. East, eastward, eastwards, home, homeward, homewards and upwards are adverbs corresponding to prepositional phrases 'towards east' 'towards home', etc. e.g. 1. Chakki went east to the market. Cn. p. 16.
2 Palani's boat was speeding south. Cn. p. 203. 3 ... the women who took the fish eastward to sell. Cn. p. 50. 4 When Chemban Kunju got home. Cn. p. 39.
(ix) Resultative meaning: Prepositions 'from,' 'out of,' 'over,' 'past,' etc. that have the meaning of motion, can have a static resultative meaning when combined with 'be' and denote the result of the motion as in:

1. ... they were not far from land.  

(x) Pervasive meaning: The prepositions 'along,' 'around,' 'over,' 'through' (especially when preceded by 'all') and 'throughout,' have a pervasive meaning (static or motional) as in:

1. This was a belief shared by fishermen all along the long, long coast.  

2. ... all around him was mountain, a circular mountain of water.  

3. By now the story was all over the seacoast.  

4. ... a general registration throughout the Roman world  

(xi) Use of space prepositions in metaphorical and abstract meaning: Several local prepositions have acquired a transferred meaning as illustrated below:

(a) in/out of: The prepositions 'in' and 'out of' have the abstract meaning of 'state', condition, and abstract inclusion.

1. He was in a bad way.  

2. She said it out of despair.  

(b) into/out of: The prepositions 'into' and 'out of' have the abstract meaning of condition or circumstance.

1. Palani began to get into trouble.  

2. Out of breath, she said.  

(c) in/on: The prepositions 'in' and 'on' carry the abstract meaning of membership, participation, etc.

1. Trust in God always; trust also in me.  

2. The villagers came... in groups.
(d) above/below/under: The prepositions 'above' and 'below' have the metaphorical meaning of abstract level as in:

1. He who comes from above is above all others. Jn.3:31.

The preposition 'under' has the abstract meaning of subjection, subordination, process, etc. as in:

1. She was under the impression that he had some interest. Cn.p.17.
2. Chemban Kunju's troubles were under control. Cn.p.41.

(e) from/to: The prepositions 'from' and 'to' have the abstract meaning of 'originator' and 'recipient' respectively:

1. She did not expect such words or treatment from Chakki. Cn.p.60.

(f) beyond/past/over: The prepositions 'beyond', 'past' and 'over' have an abstract resultative meaning:

1. It is because my revelation is beyond your grasp. Jn.8:43.
2. Anguish and dismay came over him. Mt.26:38.

(g) between/among/amongst: The prepositions between, among, amongst indicate abstract relation between participants:

1. What else there was between her and Pareekutti. Cn.p.201.
2. Of what caste was he among fishermen? Cn.p.76.

(h) through: The preposition 'through' has the abstract meaning of perseverance, endurance, etc. as in:

1. ... let her baby suffer what she had to go through. Cn. p.159.

(i) 'over' and 'under' act as intensifying prepositions meaning 'more than' and 'less than'.

1. Bethany was just under two miles from Jerusalem. Jn.11:18.

(j) 'on top of' has the meaning 'besides' or 'in addition'.

(k)to: When the preposition 'to' functions as an infinitive marker, it may be considered as a metaphorical use as in:

1. He went to work everyday. 
2. ... he sets to work with the sickle.

II.C(b) Prepositions denoting time: The temporal use of prepositions is frequently a metaphorical extension of the spatial prepositions. Temporal reference is made by an extended application of the same space prepositions. Prepositions with place reference are the most concrete items. Their time reference is comparatively an abstract function.

(i) Time position: (at, on, in, by)

The prepositions 'at', 'on' and 'in' indicate time position and they are counterparts of space prepositions of positive position. In time reference, they admit two dimensions, i.e. (1) point of time and (2) period of time.

at: The preposition at is used to refer to points of time and holiday-periods as in:

1. Yesterday at one in the afternoon the fever left him. Jn.4:52.
2. ... and at harvest-time. Mt.13:30.

'At' can be used also for periods of time when they are conceived of as points of time as in:

1. At night he would sing. Cn. p.147.
2. At the festival season. Mt.27:15.

'on' is used for referring to days as periods of time as in:

1. On the first day the haul was small. Cn. p.69.
2. You are not allowed to carry your bed on the Sabbath. Jn.5:10.

'in' or 'during': For periods longer or shorter than a day the preposition 'in' or 'during' is used:

1. In the afternoon Palani returned from the sea. Cn. p.116.
2. But during the ceremony she again lost consciousness. Cn. p.104.
There is a special use of 'on' with a complement referring to a part of day:

1. Early on the Sunday morning.  
   Jn.20:1.

   But 'in' is normally used to refer to a period shorter than a day:

1. ... gets up in the morning.  
   Mk.4:27.

2. ... which lasted till three in the afternoon.  
   Mk.15:33.

The phrase 'at night' is used in the meaning 'during the night'.

1. ... her soul will peep into her husband's bedroom at night.  
   Cn.p.168.

2. But at midnight a cry was heard.  
   Mt.25:6.

'By' is used in idioms like 'by day' and 'by night' which may be replaced by 'during the day' and 'during the night':

1. Nicodemus came to Jesus by night.  
   Jn.3:1.

(ii) Measurement of time into future: 'In' is used in measurement of time for a span into the future computing from the present time. If it is span into the past, a postposed adverb 'ago' is used:

1. In a few days the boat...arrived at the seafront.  
   Cn.p.38.

2. I can rebuild it in three days.  
   Mt.26:61.

3. We built this house a long time ago.  
   Cn.p.170.

In measuring forwards from a point of time in the past, the following types of constructions are used:

1. In all those years this was the first time that he had sat at home.  
   Cn.p.160.

2. What has happened there in the last few days?  
   Lk.24:18.

(iii) Duration: Duration is expressed by prepositions 'for', 'during' 'over', '(all)through', 'throughout'.

1. ... that had crippled her for eighteen years.  
   Lk.13:11.

2. ... during the respite after supper.  
   Cn.p.186.
'For' enters into idiomatic constructions like forever, for good, for years (and years) for long, etc. as in:

1. He shall live **for ever**.  
   Jn.6:51.
2. He would love her **forever**.  
   Cn. p.207.
3. The light is among you still, but not **for long**.  
   Jn.12:35.

'Over','(all)through', and 'throughout' have durational meaning parallel to their local pervasive meaning.

1. This was a belief **over** hundreds and hundred years.  
   Cn. p.129.
2. ...keeping watch **through** the night over their flock.  
   Lk.2:8.

The correlative phrases 'from...to', 'until', 'upto' express duration.

1. ... fourteen generations in all **from** Abraham **to** David,  
   fourteen from David until the deportation.  
   Mt.1:17.

But if 'from' is dropped from these phrases, then only , 'until', 'till', 'upto' and 'through' can be used:

1. **Until** that moment she never had such a fear.  
   Cn. p.96.
2. I have had a decent life **till** now.  
   Cn. p.176.

'To' and 'till' are interchangeable in examples like

1. ... who holds out **to the end** will be saved. (= till the end).  
   Mt.24:13.
2. ... I am with you always, **to the end of time**.  
   (= till the end of time) Mt.28:20.

The preposition 'from' denotes the starting point and 'upto' denotes the end point.

1. "May I go east to sell fish **from** tomorrow onward?"  
   Cn. p.150.
2. ... **From** now on, five members of a family...  
   Lk.12:52.

'Till' and 'until' are associated with durative verbs (i.e. denoting a period of time). But 'by' (denoting an end point) cooccurs with momentary verbs.

1. Nallapennu waited for him **till** evening.  
   Cn. p.60.
2. ... which lasted **until** three in the afternoon.  
   Lk.23:44.
3. **By** morning he had reached Karthikappalli market.  
   Cn. p.164.
In negative contexts, 'until' and 'till' can go with both durational and momentary verbs:

1. ... the like of which had not been seen till then. Cn.p.156.
2. ... distress such as never has been until now. Mk.13:19.

With positive predication 'till'/'until' specify a terminal point (e.g.1,2) whereas in negative predication they specify a starting point (e.g.3,4):

1. Until now she had been afraid of life. Cn.p.201.
2. Till then there had been a standing feud between them. Lk.23:12.
3. She had never experienced such a feeling until then. Cn.p.5.
4. Until then they had not understood... Jn.20:9.

The prepositions 'after', 'before', 'since', 'till', 'until' are followed by either (i) a temporal noun phrase (e.g.1), (ii) a subjectless -ing clause (e.g.2), or (iii) a deverbal noun or a noun phrase interpreted as equivalent to a clause (e.g.3,4).

1. After several days they had collected only seventy rupees. Cn.p.87.
2. A small feast the day before the launching of a boat. Cn.p.42.
3. After food he went out to the seashore. Cn.p.74.
4. Since the foundation of the world. Lk.11.51.

The preposition 'for' is used to express a stretch of time.

1. ... things that had been planned for a whole life time. Cn.p.153.
2. ... a man who had been crippled for thirtyeight years. Jn.5:5.

The preposition 'between... and' refer to periods identified by their starting point and end point; but does not refer to the whole time span as from...to/till does:

1. Between three and six in the morning he came to them. Mt.14:25.
2. ... from the blood of Abel to the blood of Zechariah. Lk.11.51.
3. ... such as has never been from the beginning of the world until now. Mt.24:21.

The preposition 'between' is used to indicate intervals between similar objects or events.

1. ... she said between sobs. Cn.p.130.
'By' refers to the time at which the result of an event is in existence.

1. By afternoon Karuthamma had become a mysterious figure. Cn.p.115.
2. Sir, by now there will be a stench. Jn.11:39.

(iv) Absence of preposition: When a PP is used in an adverbial function as part of VP, the preposition is sometimes dropped and the noun complement alone takes up the adverbial function. This happens in the following cases:

(a) When verbs incorporate the prepositional meanings: When a verb contains in itself the meaning of a preposition, then it is possible to omit the preposition and then the verb becomes transitive with a direct object as in:

1. He must fight the current. Cn.p.205.
2. ... enter the kingdom of Heaven. Mt.18:3.

Nevertheless there is difference in the two constructions. The presence of a preposition brings with it the notion of continuity, thoroughness or process of the action denoted by the verb.

1. ... to escape from the coming retribution? Mt.3:7.
2. The first fisherman fought with the waves. Cn.p.7.
3. The traders gathered around the boat. Cn.p.53.

(b) In 'point in time' expressions: Prepositions of 'time-when' (at, on, in) are omitted before the deictic words such as 'last', 'next', 'this', 'that', and before the quantitative words 'some' and 'every'.

1. ... one day all the boatmen took a day off. Cn.p.75.
2. Next morning Chembankunju went to see the Headman. Cn.p.41.
3. ... this year it should be at the Nirkunnam seafront. Cn.p.65.
4. ... the fires were lighted in the kitchen that night. Cn.p.65.
5. They were having quarrels every day. Cn.99.
Temporal nouns that contain within themselves the meaning of elements like 'this', 'last' and 'next' also drop prepositions before them:

1. "Today they have come to our seashore. Tomorrow we shall have to go to their seashore", he said. Cn.p.74.
2. "Tonight you will all fall from your faith." Mt.26:31.

(c) In frequency expressions: Preposition is omitted in frequency phrases as in

1. He said it the third time. Cn.p.105.
2. She wanted to do that everyday. Cn.p.51.

(d) Duration expressions: The preposition 'for' is often absent in phrases of duration when used with a stative verb.

1. ... he has been there four days. Jn.11:39.
2. ... stay awake with me one hour? Mt.26:40.

Preposition is necessarily absent in phrases which begin with 'all' or 'whole' as in:

1. "Why are you standing about like this all day? Mt.20:6.
2. It rained heavily all night. Cn.p.72.
3. ... who have sweated the whole day long. Mt.20:12.

If the verb is dynamic and therefore the action is not continuously co-extensive with the period specified, the preposition is obligatory.

2. For years, he had fought the furies of nature. Cn.p.156.

(e) The preposition is obligatory in clause initial position.

1. For a second Karuthamma felt everything going dark. Cn.p.48.
2. For a little longer I shall be with you. Jn.7:33.

There are some other instances when the preposition is omitted and the complement noun assumes the adverbial function.

2. ... leave their village bag and baggage. Cn.p.34.
3. They were the same age.  
4. Her father wasn't home.

II.C.(c) Prepositional meanings other than those of space and time: The boundary of prepositional meanings is often fuzzy. Their functions more often than not overlap and clear-cut semantic areas are hard to assign. In this connection, Randolph Quirk says, "Fields of prepositional meaning are notoriously difficult to classify, and in some cases it is better to think of a range or spectrum of meaning, first as a single category, then as broken up into separate overlapping sections." He suggests two such classes, viz. (c₁) The cause-purpose spectrum which includes the semantic function of cause, reason, motive, purpose, destination and target; (c₂) The means-agentive spectrum with the semantic functions of manner, means, instrument, agentive and stimulus, accompaniment, support, opposition, etc.  

(c₁) The cause-purpose spectrum:

Cause-reason-motive: These functions are represented by the prepositions, 'because of', 'on account of', 'for', 'from', 'out of', 'through'. The prepositions in question express either material cause, or psychological cause, i.e. the motive:

1. Because of this we believe.  Jn.16:30.
2. They were having quarrels everyday on account of her.  Cn.p.99.
3. ... to send her away from the seashore for some reason.  Cn.p.114.
4. He healed many who suffered from various diseases.  Mk.1:34.
6. Through that transaction he was ruined.  Cn.p.192.

The preposition 'for' is found in such expressions as 'for fear', 'for joy', 'for sorrow', etc.

1. ... for fear of being banned from the Synagogue.  Jn.12:42.
2. ... leapt for joy.  Lk.1:44.

Purpose, intended destination: 'For' is used to express purpose:

2. ... ripe for the harvest. Jn.4:35.

'For' is used with verbs such as 'run', 'start', 'head', 'leave', 'set out' and 'make' to express intended destination:

1. ... they started for home. Lk.2:43.
2. ... he set out for his father's house. Lk.15:20.

On the other hand 'to-phrases' would imply that the destination will certainly be reached:

1. Go to the village opposite. Mt.21:2.
2. ... Jesus withdrew privately by boat to a lonely place. Mt.14:13.

Target, Recipient, Goal: These semantic functions are realised by the prepositions 'for', 'to' and 'at'. When 'for' is followed by noun phrases denoting persons or animals, it expresses the meaning of intended recipient.

1. Panchami had cooked a meal for him. Cn.p.139.
2. Chemban Kunju had found a boy for his daughter. Cn.p.74.

The intended recipient expressed with a 'for phrase' can often be equated with an indirect object.

1. Panchami had cooked him a meal. (01)
2. Chemban Kunju had found his daughter a boy. (01)

'for' expresses an intended recipient who may or may not receive the object, whereas the preposition 'to' expresses an actual recipient.

1. ... it was the time to return the money to Pareekutti. Cn.p.66.
2. Will you return every anna to him? Cn.p.42.

The preposition 'at' in 'verb + at' combination, in which the prepositional phrase is complement to the verb, expresses intended goal or target as in:

2. It was aimed at those who were sure of their own goodness. Lk.18:9.
In this use of 'at' in constructions such as charge at, point at, stare at, etc. some idea of aim is implied and the intended goal is not necessarily achieved. This may be contrasted with the direct object construction which denotes the actual attainment of the goal.

2. The sharks charged the boat with their tails. Cn.p.7.

'At' often carries the meaning of hostility, and the complement is a mere target of abuse:

2. They picked up stones to throw at him. Jn.8:59.

Source, origin: Source and origin are expressed by the preposition 'from'. In this sense 'from' is the converse of 'to'.

1. Let us borrow the rest from Kochumuthalali. Cn.p.18.
2. Can grapes be picked from briars or figs from thistles? Mt.7:16.

'From' is used to denote the place of origin.

1. From Trikkunnappuzha came the bridegroom's party. Cn.p.100.
2. ... they met a man from Cyrene. Mt.27:32.

(c2) The means-agentive spectrum:

Manner: Manner can be expressed by the prepositions 'like', 'with', 'in...manner', etc.

1. No one could speak like this. Jn.10:21.
2. He would walk along the beach with his head bent. Cn.p.190.

With transitive or intransitive verbs 'like' has the meaning of 'in a manner resembling' (e.g. 1, 2); but with copular verbs, its meaning is merely that of semblance (e.g. 3, 4).

1. From her hiding place she sprang like a tiger. Cn.p.35.
3. That fisherman and his wife are like a young couple Cn.p.57.
'Unlike' is used to indicate negative resemblance.

1. Unlike the teachers of the law, he taught...

whereas 'like' denotes resemblance 'as' refers to actual role.

1. ... they continued to live as husband and wife.
2. You will sit as judges of the twelve tribes of Israel.

'Manner-phares (e.g.1 & 3) and 'manner-adverbs' in -ly (e.g. 2 & 4) are generally interchangeable.

1. With great care she served him food.
2. The money that Chemban Kunju had put away carefully.
3. ... said firmly but with modesty.
4. Manage modestly with what you have.

Means and Instrument: The functions of means and 'instrument' are expressed by 'by', 'with', 'without'. 'By' expresses the meaning of 'by means of'.

1. You will recognize them by the fruits they bear.
2. You yourself helped by carrying the fish to sell.

The mode of transport is expressed by a 'by-phrase'.

1. Jesus withdrew privately by boat to a lonely place.

'With' conveys instrumental meaning.

1. Electric lights would be set up with a generator.
2. ... he sets to work with the sickle.

'Without' is the negative of 'with'.

1. ... sat listening to it without expression or malice.
2. ... he never spoke to them without a parable.

Instrument and Agentive: The prepositions 'with' and 'by' express the meaning of instrument and agentive respectively.

1. She covered her ears with her hands.
2. Wiped his feet with her hair.

The 'agentive' function is denoted by a 'by-phrase' which is often omitted.

1. He was greeted with bad news.
2. This son of Man must be lifted up.
The agentive is the initiating cause and is typically animate and usually personal:

1. ... who loves me will be loved by my father. Jn.14:21.
2. ... a decree was issued by the Emperor Augustus. Lk.2:1.

'By-phrases' are also used with inanimate.

1. ... she was tormented by doubt. Cn.p.131.
2. You have already been cleansed by the word. Jn.15:3.

A by-phrase may also express an instrument.

1. All who take the sword die by the sword. Mt.26:52.
2. She stood half hidden by the kitchen door. Cn.p.116.

But there is a difference in meaning between a 'by-phrase' and 'with-phrase' when they are used to denote instrument. The 'by-phrase' excludes a human agency (e.g.1), but 'with-phrase' always suggests a human agent (e.g.2).

1. ... she was tormented by doubt. Cn.p.131.
2. His feet were wetted with her tears. Lk.7:38.
(The example suggests a human agent who wetted his feet with tears).

Both agentive and instrument denote the semantic role of an agency. But we make a distinction between an animate agent instigating or causing the action and the inanimate instrument which an animate agent uses for the execution of an action.

'By-phrase' often occurs as a postmodifier and it involves a subjective relationship.

1. ... to save me from arrest by the Jews. Jn.18:36.

The preposition 'through' implies intermediacy as in:

1. ... the law was given through Moses, grace and truth came through Jesus Christ. Jn.1:17.

Instrumental meaning is associated with a passive structure (e.g.1). But the meaning of 'means' is the only one possible in the active form (e.g.2):
1. You have already been cleansed by the word. Jn.15:3.
2. ... to live by the riches of the sea. Cn.p.160.

Stimulus: The relation between an emotion and its stimulus is expressed by 'at' or 'by':

1. Karuthamma would be so upset at what she said. Cn.p.90.
2. ... happy at the prospect of the new prosperity. Cn.p.18.
3. They were not frightenened by the boat. Cn.p.205.
4. Pareekutti was startled by her accusation. Cn.p.17.

The noun-phrase following 'at' is like a semi-agent. Some other prepositions with a semi-agent function also can express the idea of 'stimulus':

1. You are worried about your boat. Cn.p.154.
2. ... he had some interest in the women. Cn.p.17.

When the stimulus is a person or object (and not an event) BrE makes use of 'with' rather than 'at'.

1. Is Karuthamma angry with me? Cn.p.43.
2. ... why are you indignant with me. Jn.7:23.

Accompaniment: The function of accompaniment is called 'the comitative function' and is expressed by the prepositions 'with' and 'along with'. When 'with' is followed by an animate complement it has the meaning 'in company with' or 'together with':

2. ... Jesus walked along with them. Lk.24:15.

In the comitative function 'without' means 'unaccompanied by':

1. No single thing was created without him. Jn.1:3.
2. ... the burial had to take place without Karuthamma. Cn.p.141/142.

'With-phrase' is used also to denote 'accompanying circumstance':

1. The sea smiled, with little waves curling up. Cn.p.43.
2. ... Jesus was left alone, with the woman still standing there. Jn.8:9.
Support and opposition: The prepositions 'for' and 'with' denote the idea of support (= in favour of) and 'against' denotes opposition:

1. There is another who bears witness for me. Jn.5:32.
2. He who is not with me is against me. Lk.11:23.

'With' can also convey the idea of opposition.

1. ... to argue with Palani. Cn.p.129.
2. The boat was battling with a head-wind. Mt.14:24.
3. ... fought with the waves and currents of the sea. Cn.p.7.

When the verb itself contains the idea of opposition the preposition 'with' is omitted.

1. ... he had fought the furies of nature. Cn.p.156.
2. He must fight the current. Cn.p.205.

(c3) Other prepositional meanings:

(i) Relations indicated by 'of': 'Of' is one of the most common prepositions and has the greatest frequency of occurrence and the widest range of meanings. Speaking about the preposition 'of' Frederick T. Wood says, "This is probably the most frequently used of all the English prepositions, and precisely because of that it is the one whose various uses and meanings are the most difficult to define and clarify."40 'Of' phrases occur as postmodifier and its function is adjectival, resembling the inflectional genitive which appears as premodifier as in:

1. ... the beautiful wife of Kandan Koran. Cn.p.38.

The following are some of the meanings expressed by 'of-phrases'.

Genitive relation/possession:

2. ... master of a house. Cn.p.118.

Subjective Relation:
1. The arrival of the baby.  
2. ... the attack of a shark?

Objective Relation:
1. ... his conception of happiness.  
2. ... launching of Chamban Kunju's boat.

Source/origin:
1. ... Joseph of Arimathaea.  
2. Mary of Magdala.

Concerning/about:
1. ... his idea of a good life.  
2. They were talking of Karuthamma.

To express a quality:
1. ... eat that kind of food.  
2. ... work of this kind.

In the meaning of 'part of the whole' (Partitive "genitive"):
1. ... the corner of her dress.  
2. ... my share of the property.

According to F.T. Wood, phrases with 'all of' and 'whole of' are not strictly partitive. Yet he considers them as having a partitive meaning.

Apposition:
1. ... this woman was caught in the very act of adultery.  
2. He couldn't bear to hear the name of Nirkunnam.  
3. Just the two of them.

In the meaning of associated/connected:
1. The passion of the early days.  
2. She had experienced the pain of love.

41 F.T. Wood, op.cit., p.56.
In the meaning of 'containing'/'consisting'/:

1. ... a cup of tea.  
2. ... a glass of water.

To express number, quantity, weight, measure, etc.:

1. The number of things they could have bought.  
2. They had made plenty of money.  
3. He had to start a lot of things.  
4. ... a basketful of fish.

To denote the meaning of 'from':

1. What was expected of her.  
2. Could one ask such questions of a mother?

In the meaning of 'having':

1. ... a man of his strength.  
2. I had nothing of real value.

To express 'material' out of which something is made:

1. She made a curry of onions.  
2. It wasn't a wall of mud or stone.

In the meaning of 'belonging to':

1. ... we are of the fishermen's caste.  
2. ... a good girl of your own community.

To express a quality or characteristic of a person:

1. ... that stranger of a woman.  
2. ... the glory of an aristocrat of a fisherman.  
3. He was not much of a singer.  

To express the notion of 'very':

1. ... the darkest of dark nights.

A superlative meaning:

1. In her heart of hearts.

To denote a point of reference in 'time' and 'place' expressions:

1. ... north of Alleppey.  
2. ... south of her home.
To introduce a specifying adjunct to a general notion:

1. ... the smell of raw shrimp.  
2. ... he had got bars of gold.

Group genitive: The group genitive construction consists of a singular noun followed by an 'of phrase' in which an inflected possessive pronoun occurs as the complement of the preposition 'of'. The pattern is 'N + of + possessive pronoun in genitive case as in:

1. ... a friend of mine.  
2. In similar constructions when the first noun is preceded by the demonstrative pronoun 'that', the phrase carries a meaning of contempt:

1. ... if that husband of mine.  
2. Will that father of yours do that?

To express the meaning of 'unaccompanied' or 'not assisted':

1. It could burst open of itself.

In expressions of age:

1. ... since the age of five.  
2. As a little girl of four.

To form closed-class adverbials in patterns 'of + noun/adjective':

1. of course.  
2. of late.

In superlative constructions:

1. The greatest secret of all.  
2. Which commandment is first of all?

'Of phrase' occurs as the obligatory complement of some verbs and adjectives and convey an objective relationship:

1. Chemban Kunju felt ashamed of his old house.  
2. I am reminded of Panchami.  
3. They will be afraid of losing the boat.  
4. ... a moment devoid of pain  
5. ... the rice was full of little stones.
6. ... a woman **conscious of** her sex.

7. Palani seemed **bereft of** love.

(i) Meaning of 'having': The meaning of 'having' is denoted by prepositions 'of', 'with', 'without' is the opposite of with. In the case of an abstract attribute the meaning of having is always expressed by a post modifying 'of phrase':

1. Being a **man of principle**.

2. ... a **man of honour**.

But in the case of concrete attributes a 'with' phrase is used.

1. ... a lovely piece of cloth **with gold borders**.

2. The man **with two shirts**.

In this sense of 'having' the negative of 'with' is 'without'.

1. ... **without** the Headman's approval.

2. ... he was **without** issue.

(ii) Concession: The meaning of concession is expressed by 'in spite of', 'despite', 'for all', 'with all', etc. as in:

1. **In spite of** all this.

2. Even **with** all those ugly tales.

(iii) Respect: 'With reference to', 'with regard to', 'as for', 'on', 'regarding', 'in respect of', 'about', 'as to' are prepositions denoting respect.

1. As **for this rabble**, a curse is on them.

2. ... his advice **on these matters**.

3. All this **about Jesus** of Nazareth.

4. ... argued **as to** which was their boat.

According to F.T. Wood, the preposition 'to' in the meaning of 'from the point of view of', 'so far as someone is concerned' expresses respect as in:

*However, 'all but' and 'nothing but' are not prepositions but intensifiers as in: 1. Until it was all but swamped. Mk.4:37.*
1. To Karuthamma, Pareekutti's song seemed to be mingling with it. Cn.p.205.

2. To Palani, Panchami was a dark shadow. Cn.p.197.

(v) Exception: 'except for', 'apart from', 'but*', 'except', 'all except', 'save', 'beyond' are the prepositions denoting exception:

1. Except for this man she had no one. Cn.p.116.

2. Apart from the innocent friendship of their childhood days. Cn.p.201.

3. Chembankunju had no one but the Headman to fall back upon. Cn.p.105.

(A PP with 'but' can also be separated from its noun head as in:
1. When they had nothing else to eat but rice soup and vegetables. Cn.p.68).

4. To whom can I say this except you, Mother? Cn.p.91.

5. ... sent for his workmen, all except Palani. Cn.p.154.

6. ... take nothing for the journey beyond a stick. Mk.6:8.

(vi) Addition: The meaning of 'addition' is expressed by 'besides', 'as well as' and 'in addition to'.

1. ... his rights as well as his dues. Cn.p.31.

(vii) Negative condition: 'But for' denotes negative condition. The preposition 'except for' denoting 'exception' is not to be confused with 'but for'.

1. But for you, it couldn't have happened. Cn.p.48.

(viii) Subject matter: The prepositions 'about', 'on', 'over' convey the meaning of 'subject matter' or 'concerning':

1. I know all about this girl. Cn.p.103.

2. He had a row with his family on that very subject. Cn.p.42.

3. ... there will be greater joy in heaven over one sinner. Lk.15:7.

In this meaning the preposition 'of' occurs with verbs like, know, tell, speak, talk, inform, etc. as in:

1. What do I know of pots and pans? Cn.p.120.

2. He also talked of Karuthamma. Cn.p.185.

* However, 'all but' and 'nothing but' are not prepositions but intensifiers as in: 1. Until it was all but swamped. Mk.4:37.

2. There is nothing but greed and wickedness. Lk.11:39.
There is a slight difference in meaning between 'think about' and 'think of'. The former means 'to consider something' and the latter means that 'something occurs to the mind'.

2. ... she thought of the house they planned to build. Cn.p.123.

(ix) Ingredient, material, substance: The preposition 'with' denotes the ingredient, and 'of', 'out of' and 'from' signify the material as in:

1. ... made a paste with the spittle. Jn.9:6.
3. ... a partition made out of the leaves of the coconut palm. Cn.p.15.

In denoting 'substance', 'with' appears in such pervasive expressions 'filled with', 'loaded with', 'covered with', etc. as in:

1. ... laughed until her eyes filled with tears. Cn.p.4.

(x) Standard: A norm or standard is expressed by 'for' and 'at' and is associated with a gradable adjective:

1. Why was this perfume not sold for thirty pounds? Jn.12:5.
2. ... sold herring at two herring for an anna. Cn.p.151.
3. ... at an unimaginable speed. Cn.p.208.

(xi) Reaction: The prepositions 'at' and 'to' denote the relation between an emotion and its stimulus:

2. Need you be surprised at that. Cn.p.47.
3. ... refused to answer one word, to the Governor's great astonishment. Mt.27:14.
4. He ... to the astonishment of all wrote down. Lk.1:63.

(xii) Interpretation of events: The preposition 'according to' is used to identify an interpretation of events:

(This use of 'according to' is different from its use in the meaning of 'in accordance with' as in:...
1. ... live your life according to custom and the law. Cn.p.161.
2. ... gave ... each according to his capacity. Mt.25:15)

(xiii) Comparison: Prepositions 'as' and 'than' express comparison.

1. The sea was still the same as ever. Cn.36.
2. A servant is not greater than his master. Jn.13:16.

(xiv) Role, in the capacity of: Role is expressed with the preposition 'as'.

1. As my son, you must accept her as your sister. Cn.p.137.
2. He would never accept her again as his daughter. Cn.p.115.

(xv) Resembling: The meaning of similarity is denoted with the
preposition 'like':

2. Like a machine, Karuthamma did mechanically. Cn.p.104.

II.D. Syntactical function of prepositional phrases:

The PP has a threefold function in grammatical structure,
namely:

(a) Postmodifier in a noun phrase.
(b) Adverbial in a verb phrase structure, with the functions of
adjunct, disjunct, subjunct and conjunct.
(c) Complement of (i) a verb, and (ii) an adjective.

(a) Postmodification of noun phrase: In English, a noun phrase can
be modified in two ways: (i) Premodification as in a 'kitchen sink',
'invited guests', 'small boat', etc. (ii) Postmodification by an
adverb particle or by a PP. Of these the postmodification by a PP
is the most common type used in English. The noun thus modified is
called 'the Head' as in:

1. What are we of the seafront to do then? Cn.p.34.
3. The man with two shirts. Lk.3:11.
Postmodification by 'of construction': It is the most frequent type of modification in English. The structure that results has the pattern \( N_2 \) of \( N_1 \).

1. The furies of nature.  
2. Lamb of God.  

In many cases the 'of construction' and a genitive construction \((N_1's \ N_2)\) alternate as in:

2. Pareekutti's music.  

But the grammatical status of these two types of constructions is not the same. There are some rules for the selection of either type:

(i) When the reference is indefinite, the genitive construction is not permitted.

1. If there is a man of peace there. (not* peace's man) Lk.10:6.  

But in a post-genitive construction, an indefinite reference is permitted as in:

1. Who wishes to be a follower of mine.  

(ii) When \( N_1 \) is a personal name or a noun with personal characteristic, the genitive construction is preferred.

1. Karuthamma's heart.  
2. A good fisherman's family.  
3. A robber's cave.  

With inanimate and concrete nouns the 'of construction' is required.

1. Shadow of a doubt.  
2. Streams of living water.  

Nevertheless, nouns denoting location and time have genitive construction.

1. Today's catch.  
2. One hour's work.
In partitive constructions of the quantitative and qualitative types, the 'of construction' is required.

1. Some of the people of Jerusalem.  
   Jn. 7:25.
2. Plenty of grass.  
   Jn. 6:10.
3. A kind of madness.  
   Cn.p.119.

In 'objective genitive' only 'of construction' is possible:

1. Conception of happiness.  
   Cn.p.171.
2. Fear of the Jews.  
   Jn. 20:19.
3. A man of honour.  
   Cn.p.189.
4. An offer of marriage.  
   Cn.p.31.

In 'subjective genitive' both 'of construction' and genitive construction are possible.

1. The protection of a fisherman. (= a fisherman's protection)  
   Cn.p.162.
2. The arrival of her husband. (= her husband's arrival). Cn.p.25.
3. The blessings of the mother. (= the mother's blessings). Cn.p.182.

In the above examples, the animateness of the subject (N₁) is a sure indication of the admissibility of the genitive construction. Therefore, a genitive construction is not possible in

1. A piece of land.  
   Lk.14:18.
2. Pain of love.  
3. Hair of your head.  
   Lk.21:18.

According to Randolph Quirk, unless there is an evidence to the contrary an 'of phrase' is to be interpreted as objective and a genitive construction as subjective. Therefore, the 'of construction' (N₂ of N₁) is obligatory or preferred in two instances. (i) When N₁ is inanimate and concrete (as in 1 & 2) and (ii) when an objective relation is expressed (as in 3 & 4).

1. Doctors of the Law.  
   Jn.8:3.
2. A flush of shame.  
   Cn.p.129.
3. Conception of happiness.  
   Cn.p.171.
4. Fear of the Jews.  
   Jn.20:19.
A postmodification structure is not to be confused with the appositive 'of phrase' as in:

1. The city of Jerusalem.  
2. Festival of Ayilyam.  

Postmodification with other prepositional phrases: Postmodification occurs also with other prepositions.

1. The story behind her unwillingness.
2. She wasn't a girl without family and everyone at Thrikkunnappuzha knew it.
3. Fishermen all along the long, long coast.
4. Anger against that poor fisherman.
5. Memories about those boats.
6. Pots for boiling the fish.
7. Buying a boat with the money from that gold.
8. Awakened the woman in her.
9. The people on his seafront.

In an analytic language like English, postmodification is an important means of clause structure expansion. The postmodification by PP is very common and they outnumber all other types of modification. Postmodification with a PP is a means of specifying, limiting or modifying the idea contained in the preceding noun head.

(b) The Adverbial Function of Prepositional Phrases: A linguistic unit offers two-fold consideration, namely (i) its form and (ii) function. As a result, there are such formal categories as noun phrase, verb phrase, prepositional phrase, etc. and functional categories such as subject, predicate, object, complement and adverbials. The adverbials are the most peripheral elements and by far more numerous. Although the adverbial function can be realised by various formal categories, such as (i) closed-class adverb
(ii) open class adverb phrase (iii) noun phrase (iv) prepositional phrase (v) verbless clause (vi) non-finite clause and (vii) finite clause, the realisation by prepositional phrases outnumbers all other types. The advantage PP over all other modification types is that a PP can express with more clarity and precision an idea which is only vaguely conveyed by a closed-class adverb. As adverbial a PP can function as any of the following subtypes:

i. Adjunct

* (a) Predication
* (b) Sentence

ii. Subjunct.

iii. Disjunct

iv. Conjunct

1. Now my soul is in turmoil. Jn.12:27.
3. Chakki was of the same opinion. Cn.p.49.

(a.i) obligatory and (a.ii) optional.

(a.i) Obligatory Predication Adjunct. Obligatory predication adjuncts closely resemble the object element and they are necessary for verb complementation.

(a.ii) Optional Predication Adjunct: An adjunct is optional if its addition or omission does not substantially change the relation

42. The obligatory predication adjuncts are similar to the complements of adjectives and prepositional verbs. In both instances there is complementation with an obligatory adjunct. This topic will be discussed later while dealing with the function of complementation by prepositional phrases. Cfr.p.93.
between the subject and the verb.

1. Panchami had been crying at Nallapennu's house. Cn.p.170.
2. I will raise him up on the last day. Jn.6:40.
3. We have never been in slavery to any man. Jn.8:33.
   (Obl.) (Opt.)

(b) Sentence adjunct: Whereas a predication adjunct is predominantly related to the verb or postverb elements, a sentence adjunct (also called a 'sentence modifier') is related to the sentence as a whole.

1. On this seafront, if our husbands die we do not run after another man. Cn.p.175.
2. With new determination she waited for a chance to talk to Pareekutti. Cn.p.83.
3. With these words, he spat on the ground. Jn.9:6.

ii. Subjuncts: Subjuncts have a subordinate role in comparison with other clause elements. Various types of subjuncts are realised by PP.

1. Wasn't it true? From his point of view, Yes. (wide orientation) Cn.p.178.
3. Of course, her beauty dazzles your eyes. (emphasisers) Cn.p.38.
4. Chemban Kunju felt for certain that wouldn't be so. (emphasisers) Cn.p.58.
5. It was not at all unusual for her. (minimisers) Cn.p.87.
7. He might as well stay with them. (additives) Cn.p.90.
8. In addition, they should appropriate a share. (additives) Cn.p.68.

iii. Disjuncts: Disjuncts have a superior role compared to other sentence elements. Disjuncts are semantically more detached. Their role is super-ordinate in the sense that their scope extends over the whole sentence. Disjuncts can be style disjuncts or content disjuncts
according as they contain the speaker's comment on the style or form of his saying, or a comment on the content of what is being said as in:

1. *In truth, in very truth* I tell you all. *(style dis.)* Jn.1:51.
2. *In fact* only the disciples who were baptizing and not Jesus. *(content dis.)* Jn.4:2.
3. You are, *of course*, a wise man! *(content dis.)* Cn.p.61.

iv. Conjuncts: Conjuncts serve to join independent units of an utterance. Conjuncts are related to the speaker's assessment of a connection between two linguistic units, and therefore, the meaning of a conjunct is to be sought beyond the grammatical unit in which they appear. Prepositional phrases realize all types of conjuncts.

1. "*For my part*, he said, "I find no case against him." *(listing)* Jn.18:38.
2. And *in the same way* the Son of Man is to suffer at their hands. *(listing)* Mt.17:12.
3. *In addition*, they should appropriate a share. *(reinforcing)* Cn.p.68.
4. *Above all*, she had been given away to one who had nothing. *(reinforcing)* Cn.p.137.
5. Eating their food with 'defiled' hands—*in other words*, without washing them. *(summative)* Mk.7:2.
6. *In that case* you better get out now. *(inferential)* Cn.p.185.
7. *Instead* he was greeted with bad news. *(contrastive)* Cn.p.39.
8. Not so with you: *on the contrary*, the highest among you must bear himself like the youngest. *(contrastive)* Lk.22:26.

'By the way', 'by the by' are transitional conjuncts. In 'by the way' (like in 'in a way') the substantive 'way' has become an empty word, and the PP means 'incidently'. In 'by the by' the second 'by' is used as a substantive. 43

The function of PP as adverbial is quite vital as far as the structure of English sentence is concerned. The function of adverbial

is to modify, specify or limit the meaning of the verb. The scope of a language would be very limited, and it would have been an uninteresting tool if it had at its disposal only closed-class adverbs. The PP are the most vigorous structures that step into the functional slots of closed-class adverbs. A preposition marks the function of a noun as a participant agent in the activity of the verb. The examples illustrate that a PP can represent all adverbial functions, namely, adjunct, subjunct, disjunct and conjunct. The adverbial function is by far the most typical function of the PP. As is clear from the study, the line of demarcation between these adverbial functions is not always very clearcut. The same form may appear in different functions. Their boundaries overlap. This phenomenon known as 'the functional shift' is very common in all languages.

(c) Function of Complementation by Prepositional Phrases: This section deals with the syntactic function of prepositional phrases as complementation of verbs and adjectives. In English, there are five types of construction, viz. modification, predication, complementation, subordination and coordination. Prepositional phrases play an important role in expanding phrase structures. Modification by prepositional phrases is one of the ways of expanding noun phrases and verb phrases. Another important type of construction is complementation. Prepositional phrases function as complement of (i) verbs and (ii) and adjectives.

(i) Prepositional phrases as complement of a verb: Prepositional phrases appear as complements for all types of verbs, namely, copular, monotonous, complex transitive and ditransitive, as in:
1. Pareekutti was in serious trouble. (copular)  
2. He is of age. (copular)  
3. She was longing for the wedding day to be over.  
   (monotrans \(V + P\))  
4. I rely on a testimony higher than John's.  
   (monotrans \(V + P\))  
5. Karuthamma was not being given away to someone else.  
   (monotrans phrasal \(V + P\))  
6. Called out to those who were late.  
   (monotrans phrasal \(V + P\))  
7. He would never accept her again as his daughter.  
   (complex trans.)  
8. Made up her mind to make him into somebody.  
   (complex trans.)  
9. Chemban Kunju entrusted Panchami to the care of Nallepennu. (ditrans.)  
10. He will take care of her. (ditrans.)

(ii) Prepositional phrases as complement of an adjective: Prepositional phrases function as complement to certain adjectives. In such cases the preposition is more closely related to the preceding adjective. Although adjectives can be complemented by 'that clause', 'what clause', 'infinitive clause', etc. complementation by PP are far more numerous and important stylistically. The following are some of the examples:

1. Ashamed of his old house.  
2. Waited for him full of anxiety.  
3. In a sea infested with sharks.  
4. Everybody was sorry about onething.  
5. Felt even more sorry for Karuthamma.  
6. He wasn't fit for work.  
7. There was plenty of grass there.  
8. They were afraid of the Jews.

II. E. Conclusion

We have dealt with phrases involving prepositions in English in respect of their form, meaning and syntactic function. In respect of form a prepositional phrase is a structure of 'preposition +
a noun phrase'. The prepositions that enter into such combinations range from simple prepositions like on, of, at, for, with, etc. to complex prepositions like, out of, close to, into, etc. and three word sequences such as in spite of, on account of, etc.

In their semantic function we have traced their clear meanings of space, time and a spectrum of other meanings such as cause, reason, instrument, means, agentive, stimulus, respect, etc. The abstract and metaphorical meanings of prepositional phrases also have been dealt with. Prepositions offer a wide variety of meanings and their form in itself is no clue to the meaning they carry. Their meanings are brought out in their use in different contexts. Although the prepositions have a primary concrete meaning, many have a variety of transferred and abstract meanings, so much so that a single form can stand for a host of meanings.

Syntactically prepositional phrases are an important and frequently used device for expanding kernel structures in English. Prepositional phrases have a three-fold function in a sentence structure, viz. as a modifier, adverbial and complement. In the function of as modifier, the prepositional phrase appears as part of a noun phrase. As adverbial, the prepositional phrase functions as a part of a verb phrase or, outside the clause structure as sentence modifier. Thirdly, as complement, the prepositional phrases function as complements of verbs and adjectives.

The main source of difficulty with regard to English prepositions is the dichotomy between their form and function. The meaning of prepositions is so much diversified that a single form has several meanings and the same meaning can be conveyed by different
forms. Another source of difficulty is the large variety of transferred and abstract metaphorical meanings that prepositions convey. The more abstract and symbol-like the prepositions appear, the more idiomatic the language becomes. Prepositions can be aptly compared to mathematical symbols like +, −, =, ×, etc. which stand for plus, minus, equal to, times, etc. A preposition like 'with' stands for meanings of nearness, agreement, accompaniment, possession, containing, having as a characteristic, same direction for as, at the time of, and even/the opposite meaning of 'in competition' or 'against'. This elusive and multiple function, and the capacity to carry even opposite meanings according to context are the hallmarks of English prepositions. This accounts for the difficulty in mastering the correct use of prepositions. Although the prepositional phrases are a difficult area in grammar for the foreign learners of English to master, the fact remains that prepositional phrases add much to the charm and felicity of expression with their versatile potential to express manifold shades of meaning and nuances of language.