



UNIVERSITAT JAUME I

*Contrasting the Polysemy of Prepositions in English and
Albanian*

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Contrasting the Polysemy of Prepositions in English and Albanian

Report submitted by **Ardian Fera** in order to be eligible for a doctoral degree
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DEDICATION

TO MY BELOVED PARENTS RESTING IN PEACE AND

TO MY TWO LITTLE DAUGHTERS, ESTREA AND NEJMIA WHOM I LOVE SO MUCH

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Abstract

Learning a foreign language has become quite trendy today no matter how good or bad you write or speak it. Certainly, everyone is concerned in providing and interpreting simple words in different collocations in the most possible authentic way. However, committing errors is unavoidable. The nature of errors is quite miscellaneous, but I think the most crucial, of course, are errors committed when you are not aware of the exact meaning (definition) or its *semantics*, and especially when the word is *ambiguous*. Thus, it is very significant to understand how the meaning of a word is conveyed and how it can be perceived. Interactive communication when we convey those words to each other reveals a scope of language known as *interference* or *transfer* and like in many other scopes studies have been carried out by many scholars in order to find the ways how to correct the errors committed not deliberately. Prepositional errors are the most frequently committed among English learners (L2). Therefore, studying them and doing a research on their use and transfer is a very useful work. It has been proved that error commitment in a sentence happens because of prepositional occurrence. Thus, studying them remains an ordeal. To be plain, not much research or study has been done towards prepositional contrast between English and Albanian, however, there is a positive trend lately with scholars and linguists not only in Albania but scholars and linguists abroad too. I am optimistic that this trend will continue into the future.

Abbreviations

CA:	Contrastive Analysis
CAH:	Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis
EA:	Error Analysis
EFL:	English as a Foreign Language
ELT:	English Language Teaching
ETP:	English Test Paper
FL:	Foreign Language
GTG:	Generative Transformational Grammar
L1:	First Language
L2:	Second Language
ME:	Middle English
NL:	Native Language
NP:	Noun Phrase
OE:	Old English
PP:	Prepositional Phrase
PP:	Pseudo-Passives
SL:	Second Language
TL:	Target Language
UG:	Universal Grammar
VP:	Verb Phrase

List of Tables

Table	Number of words and rate	Table 1	page	59
Table.....	Number of words and rate	Table 2	page	60
Table.....	Number of words and rate	Table 3	page	62
Table.....	Number of words and rate	Table 4	page	63
Table.....	Number of words and rate	Table 5	page	64
Table.....	Number of words and rate	Table 6	page	65
Table.....	Number of words and rate	Table 7	page	66
Table.....	Number of words and rate	Table 8	page	67
Table.....	Number of words and rate	Table 9	page	68
Table.....	Number of words and rate	Table 10	page	69
Table.....	Number of words and rate	Table 11	page	70
Table.....	Number of words and rate	Table 12	page	71
Table.....	Number of words and rate	Table 13	page	72
Table.....	Number of words and rate	Table 14	page	73
Table.....	Number of words and rate	Table 15	page	74
Table.....	Number of words and rate	Table 16	page	75
Table.....	Number of words and rate	Table 17	page	75
Table.....	Number of words and rate	Table 18	page	76

CONTENTS

0. IntroductionI

The Aim of the Study: for the students; for the readers

1. Chapter I. Language transfer.....1

1.1. *Types of Transfer*.....2

1.2. *Positive transfer*.....3

1.3. *Negative Transfer*.....5

1.4. *Contrastive Analysis*.....8

2. Chapter II. Contrastive Analysis and Language Transfer Theory17

3. Chapter III. Linguistic Characteristics of English and Albanian Prepositions.....28

3.1. *Morphology and Morphological Characteristics of Prepositions in English and Albanian*.....30

3.2. *Syntax and Syntactic Properties of Prepositions in English and Albanian*.....31

3.3. *Lexicon and Prepositions in English and Albanian*.....40

3.4. *Semantics and Prepositions in English and Albanian*.....44

4. Chapter IV. Indo-European Stratum of English and Albanian Prepositions.....56

4.1. *Indo-European Stratum of English Prepositions [after, at, for, in, mid, of, ofer, on, to, under, ymb, etc.]*.....58

4.2. *Indo-European Stratum of Albanian Prepositions [para (=fora), në, prapë (of), mbi/mbë (=ymb), etc.]*.....71

5. Chapter V. Defining Ambiguity as a Notion and a Concept.....	77
6. Chapter VI. Ambiguity of English and Albanian Prepositions in Sentences.....	88
7. Chapter VII. Ambiguity in Lexical Semantics.....	103
8. Chapter VIII. Classifying Ambiguity.....	124
8.1. <i>Lexical Ambiguity.....</i>	<i>126</i>
8.2. <i>Structural (Surface and Deep Structure) Ambiguity.....</i>	<i>131</i>
9. Chapter IX. The Contrastive Analysis of the English – ING Clause as Prepositional Complement and Its Albanian Correspondents.....	143
10. Chapter X. Categorization of the Differences, Similarities and Identities between the English –ING Clause as Prepositional Complement and Their Albanian Correspondents.....	153
11. Chapter XI. How can standard Albanian help students in using English prepositions?.....	164
11.1. <i>Difficulties in Learning English Prepositions.....</i>	<i>164</i>
11.2. <i>Prepositional Errors.....</i>	<i>167</i>
11.3. <i>Substitution.....</i>	<i>172</i>
11.4. <i>Addition.....</i>	<i>174</i>
11.5. <i>Omission.....</i>	<i>176</i>
12. Chapter XII. Study Strategies and Additional Supportive Research Data	179

13.	Chapter XIII. General Conclusions	198
14.	Chapter XIV. Resumen	201
15.	References	206
16.	Appendixes	217

0. Introduction

The Aim of the Study: for the students; for the readers

For years and years now students worldwide and learners of a foreign language (L2), encounter various and difficult grammatical and lexical difficulties which affect their general abilities in using a language properly and sufficiently. Scholars and linguists on the other side have always tried to simplify and clarify at the same time learners' dilemmas coming forth while improving the gaps discerned throughout the learning process. Learning a foreign language requires devotion, patience and time above all. Taking all of these into account and as a doctorate student I decided to concentrate my study on the scope of language transference, prepositions, semantics and ambiguity, for the only reasons that students so much like the learners of English language (L2), face difficulties and what's more, overcoming them seems to be a real and challenging task or commitment. Either students or just learners of a second language (L2) try to interpret or adopt words from a foreign language (English in our case) in the simplest way that it may be, which is nothing but a literal interpretation, word by word interpretation. This, of course on different occasions poses irrelevance because of linguistic discrepancy either lexical or grammatical and the student or the learner will use a word at random or an approximate one that may best fit the sentence according to him, at least. Imagine the clause *U larguan herët* in Albanian language, which in English can be interpreted as *left early*. Anyone may simply ask; who left early? Implicitly, all this refers to *language transfer* where the subject is necessary in English language but not in Albanian one, because the verb itself denotes person (subject) when conjugated. Learners of English (L2) leave out the subject because of literal interpretation from Albanian language. Of course meaning is not the only information we can obtain from words, their syntactic and morphological information will also provide semantic information. The subject may lead to aberration in any case. This is very important for both students and learners of English (L2) because the more they are aware of it, the less the errors committed, while transferring the language.

Another scope besides language transfer that mostly impressed me was *semantics* that is very important because it studies the meaning of the word, Lyons (1977). In the Albanian clause,

for example, *nuk mund të kërcëj* or English *I cannot dance*, means that *I'm unable to dance* it does not mean *I'm able not to dance*. Of course learners of a foreign language (L2) should know the difference in the clause between the two interpretations in order to transfer it correctly.

Transferring sentences with words more than one definition, results in *ambiguity*, Oaks (1994) & Cruse (1986). Ambiguity may occur in different parts of speech, nouns, verbs, prepositions, etc. It sounds rather difficult when ambiguity occurs in the whole pattern or structure. Owing to this I found reasonable to some account to study or research and see how Albanian EFL learners, in special cases, might face problems while producing English structures with –ING clauses in nominal functions.

Thus, this study will focus on finding differences, similarities and identities between the English –ING clauses and their Albanian correspondents and by ranking them according to their relative learning difficulty.

Because of the fundamental structural differences between the English –ING clause as prepositional complement of a sentence and its Albanian correspondents, it can be hypothesized that the Albanian EFL learners will face serious difficulty in learning the English structural pattern **PREP + ING clause**, and interference Albanian constructions cause.

In principle a hypothesis has been put forward in the chapter (X) that categorizes the differences, similarities and identities between the English –ING clauses and the Albanian correspondents reflecting their relative learning difficulty. The nominal –ING clause after prepositions will be described and analyzed in terms of contrastive analysis in order to determine whether the Albanian correspondents are identical, similar or different. Different Albanian correspondents will cause interference whereas identical correspondents will facilitate learning.

Prepositions of substitution, addition and omission will be analyzed in experimental context, in relation with ING clauses.

This study intends to help Albanian EFL teachers/learners to overcome the problems they face while dealing with the complexities of the nominal –ING clauses. This study will try to enlighten and provide EFL learners an unassuming way or breakthrough in prepositional usage in the future.

Chapter I

Language Transfer

1.1.Types of Transfer

1.2.Positive Transfer

1.3.Negative Transfer

1.4.Contrastive Analysis.

The history of language transfer as an object of investigation is not only interesting from the point of view of second-language acquisition study, but it also provides an instructive example of scientific development in general. Transfer is probably the single most important concept in the theory and practice of education. In its most general form, the principle of transfer refers to the hypothesis that the learning of task A will affect the subsequent learning of task B and it is this expectation that justifies educational training in schools as a form of preparation for the subsequent demands that society will impose upon the individual. Language transfer refers to cross-linguistic influence in second language acquisition. The phenomenon in question results from the existence of similarities and differences between languages and the effect they have on language acquisition.

Many of us have, for some time, thought of transfer as a process. Transfer was something that the learner did. In fact, the very word itself implies some sort of a process, Merriam-Webster, (1987; 1253). We say ‘the learner transferred’ a structure, phone, lexical item from one language to another, and when we do, we envision some sort of action or movement, even though it may be abstract action or movement. What is currently viewed as evidence for the process of transfer is more appropriately viewed as evidence of a constraint on the learner's hypothesis testing process. It is both a facilitating and a limiting condition on the hypothesis testing process, but it is not in and of itself a process.

Language transfer is best defined by Lado (1957), where he emphasizes that Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings and the distribution of forms and meanings of their

native language and culture to the foreign language and culture both productively when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture, and receptively when attempting to grasp and to understand the language and the culture as practiced by natives, Lado, R. (1957; 2)

Our understanding of transfer has evolved over the past decades, in part due to changing perspectives on the nature of language acquisition and in part in response to empirical studies. Earlier before, second language acquisition was understood as the development of a new set of habits. The language transfer refers to cross-linguistic influence in second language acquisition. The phenomenon in question results from the existence of similarities and differences between languages and the effect they have on language acquisition. Teachers of second languages should be able to identify this phenomenon in order to prevent the errors which may arise or use them in a constructive way. Differences between language and cultures should be taken into consideration in order to deal with transfer and then, teaching will be more effective, Fera, A. (2019; 2). Moreover, errors made by learners will help teachers to foresee what may be difficult or easy for them, and will provide clues of how to act. On the other hand, teachers of second languages should also take into account the similarities between the native and target language. Thus, they will also take advantage of this positive transfer in order to ease the learning process. In this chapter we will focus on the concept of Language Transfer and some of the main difficulties that the Albanian students of English as a second language have in the process of learning due to the influence of their native language.

1.1. Types of Transfer

Basically, language transfer could be scientifically classified as positive and negative transfer. Positive transfer refers to the fact that learners use their former knowledge to avoid making mistakes in the language learning process. That is to say, the transfer helps or facilitates language learning in another situation, and may occur when both the native language and the target language have the same form. In contrast, negative transfer refers to the fact that learners use their former knowledge and make mistakes and errors when learning the target language Gass & Selinker. (2001). It specifically refers to the use of native language patterns or rules

which leads to an error or inappropriate form in the target language. Many linguists or scholars have done an abundance of studies on negative transfer, Ellis, R. (1985; 123) for example, offered the manifestation of negative transfer as ‘errors’, and errors are the results of negative transfer. Odlin noted that language transfer is the outcome produced by cross-linguistic similarities and differences, Odlin, T. (1989; 21.) He provided a classification of outcomes which include positive transfer, negative transfer, and differing lengths of acquisition. Among the outcomes, he paid much more attention to the outcome of negative transfer. Thus, he points out that although negative transfer tends to be equal to production errors, there are other ways in which an individual’s second language performance may differ from the behavior of native speakers. In Odlin’s book he divided negative transfer errors into underproduction, production, overproduction and misinterpretation Odlin (1989; 56). Underproduction errors means learners may produce very few or no mistakes of a target language. For example, Albanian students are inclined to use accumulative simple sentences (ellipticity) in an attempt to avoid personal pronouns. As for production errors, Odlin declared that three types of errors are likely to arise from similarities and differences in the native and target languages which are *substitutions*, *calques*, and *alternations of structures*. The last type is misinterpretation. It refers to native language structures which can influence the interpretation of target language messages, and sometimes that influence may lead to learners inferring something very different from what speakers of the language would infer.

On the whole, when talking about language transfer, we usually differentiate between two types of transfer *positive* transfer and *negative* transfer. It is crucial to make a distinction between positive and negative transfer in order to acknowledge that native language influence does not always impede second language acquisition.

1.2 Positive Transfer

Positive transfer or facilitation occurs where a language item in L1 is also present in L2, so acquisition of this item makes little or no difficulty for the learner. It is the transfer of a skill *X* which facilitates the learning or has a positive influence on the command of a skill *Y* because of similarities between both skills. It occurs when the first language is similar to the second

language. The learner has no difficulty in learning language (because what he has learnt in the first language is positively transferred into the second one. In positive transfer first language helps learning the second language. The transfer is thus, seen as positive when a process of second language learning takes place, the linguistic phenomena are similar in form and the meaning and the distribution are regarded as facilitating the process. For example, concerning the word *literature*, amongst many definitions different dictionaries provide, the common definition for both Albanian and English regarding Webster dictionary (1987) is; the body of writing on a particular subject (scientific), Webster, (1987; 698). This is in fact the converging point of definitions in both languages. The other definitions from Webster find no practice in Albanian. The same may work out for the positive transfer *local* or *board* in both languages.

Positive transfer helps new learning, for instance, it is easy to learn to pronounce aspirated *voiceless* stops in a second language if the language also has also aspirated *voiceless* stop. Hence, prior language knowledge can be very helpful in learning a new language. Positive transfer occurs, as can be seen, when the prior knowledge benefits the learning task – that is, when a previous item is correctly applied. It can refer both to subsequent learning of the language and the knowledge of students. Native language of a second language learner is often positively transferred, in which case the learner benefits from the facilitating effects of the first language. It can be observed that speakers of some languages acquire a given language faster and with less difficulty than others. For example, Albanian speakers have greater facility in regard to English vocabulary acquisition than, let's say, Arabic speakers whose native language vocabulary has little in common with English, or for instance, similarities between vowel systems can make the identification of vowel sounds easier, e.g. the word *general, international, hotel, letter, bar, motor*, and so on, have got the same pronunciation and restore the same meanings both in English and Albanian for the learners of English as a second language. Its semantic parameters derive from the similarities among them, Fera, A. (2019; 4). But the positive transfer *individual* is an adjective and noun in English but in Albanian it depends from the context, may be inflected because of gender.

(1) Çështje individuale. - Individual affair (adjective)

(2) Çdo individ i kësaj shoqërie. Every individual of this company (noun)

Positive language transfer may occur when both the native (mother) language and the target language have the same form, thus facilitating learning; while negative language transfer may lead to errors or inappropriate forms in the target language. In a word, similar patterns would be easy to learn because they could be successfully transferred from the native language, and different patterns would cause interference and therefore be difficult to learn. It is not amazing that this process has been chosen because the native language interference is the most immediately noticeable source of errors among second language learners. The saliency of the interference is so strong that some view second language learning as the overcoming of the effect of the native language, which implicitly have to do with the process of lexical borrowing from one country to the other and this no matter of the reasons, Fera, A. (2019; 6) e.g, the word *halvah* is supposed to have been used by Albanians during the Ottoman invasion earlier before, and it is quite applicable today. But, yet, it is found find and also has the same meaning in English too, no matter where it might have been borrowed from.

Positive transfer was equated with good habits carried over from the native language. And this is a fact which reinforces the definition of positive transfer, on the whole.

1.3 Negative Transfer

Negative transfer or errors comes when there is no concordance between L1 and L2 and thus, acquisition of the new L2 structure would be more difficult and errors reflecting the L1 structure would be produced. It is the transfer of a skill X which impedes the learning or has a negative influence on the command of a skill Y because of differences between both skills. In the field of SL/FL learning, it is understood as the systematic influence of the NL on the TL. It is problematic, because of interference of the L1 on the L2. It occurs when the first language is different from the L2, learning differences in language takes a lot of time energy and the first learning inhibits (prevents) the second learning. As such, when a process of second language learning takes place, the linguistic phenomena are not similar in form and the meaning and the distribution are not regarded as facilitating the process, the transfer is considered negative and acquisition is viewed as distorted because the two structures differ. Thus, this phenomenon is

equated with difficulty in learning an L2 as an outcome of differences of the two languages structures.

Let's see some aspects of negative transfer, very practical for Albanians learning English as a second language, which can be easily noticed during the speech.

An example of negative transfer related to morphology and syntax, for instance, is the use of the 's genitive to mean possession. Whereas in Albanian we express possession by means of a periphrastic expression, in English possession is expressed in a 'synthetic' way. The order of elements in the structure that the students have fossilized in Albanian interferes with the new structure that they are trying to learn, so that they have two completely different structures meaning the same. However, the following approach to the 's structure or genitive phrase may be helpful: The genitive phrase, has the distribution of a third person determiner. It means that the genitive phrase is placed before the noun and means possession. Besides, it can be replaced by any third person possessive determiner. In Albanian, possessive pronouns do not occupy the same place as English possessive determiners; rather they occur after the noun. Following that perspective, possessive determiners do not occupy the same place in Albanian and English. As we already know, the place of the possessive determiner in English could also be occupied by a genitive phrase. All this does not have an easy application in the teaching of the genitive structure. Students will learn that in Albanian we say 'shtëpia e saj' whereas in English we say 'her house'. Besides, 'her' can be substituted by any possessor: 'Judy's house', 'My brother's house', 'Your house' etc. The syntactic place does not vary.

Negative transfer has been an object of interest of linguists for a long time due to its clear influence on the process of second language acquisition and second language production, including translation or interpreting. It was proved to lead to transfer errors which constitute a large part of an overall number of errors made by second language users. The knowledge of transfer is undoubtedly very useful to language teachers and translators since it enables them to predict errors and pay particular attention to the areas of language which are most often affected by negative transfer. The mostly captured, for the Albanians are the uncountable nouns in English, such as 'advice, money, housework, equipment, etc, that are countable in Albanian. So Albanian learners of English tend to pluralize them and use plural verbs after them. The following are examples of students' versions:

- (3) The advices I was given were useful. *Incorrect*
- (4) The pieces of advice I was given were useful. *Correct*
- (5) Housewives do a lot of houseworks. *Incorrect*
- (6) Housewives do a lot of housework. *Correct*
- (7) I bought many equipments. *Incorrect*
- (8) I bought much equipment. *Correct*

It has also been stated that negative transfer occurs when the previous performance disrupts the performance on a second task. It can be known as interference, in that previously learned material—a previous item is incorrectly transferred or incorrectly associated with an item to be learned. It has been common in second language teaching to stress the role of the interfering effects of the native language (NL) on the target language. This is quite obvious not only in Albanian but also in many languages. Commonly known here is the usage of prepositions, e.g.

Omission of necessary prepositions: They omit these prepositions from words which need them.

- (9) I waited the plane two hours. *Incorrect*
- (10) I waited (for) the plane two hours. *Correct*

Wrong substitution: They do not use correct prepositions: The preposition ‘on’ is used in places of ‘over’, ‘above’, ‘at’, and ‘onto’.

Albanian learners of English tend to say “ashamed from, composed from, object on, blame on, where of, of, to and for should be used respectively.

Negative transfer is amounted to bad habits inherited from the native language, which need be overcome for mastery of the new language.

The general expectation was that, one should expect learners to produce errors as the result of negative transfer. Certain types of negative transfer were expected to be more problematic than others. For example, it should be more difficult for a learner to make distinctions in the target language that do not exist in the native language than to merge native language distinctions into a single category in the target language. As of this, we have the use of

the auxiliary *do*. There are no auxiliary verbs in Albanian. So Albanian -speaking learners of English might not use the ‘verb to do’ to form a question. Here is a student’s version and its equivalent correct form, e.g.

(10) Where Landa spend her summer vacation? *Incorrect*

(11) Where does Landa spend her summer vacation? *Correct*

Negative transfer is present in our speech and alertness and attention should be paid in order to reduce the amount of errors coming out randomly why relating our patterns.

1.4 Contrastive Analysis.

When considering Language Transfer many different aspects have to be taken into account, such as the type of languages, the relationship between them, the context in which the learning process is taking place, as well as the age of the learners. It seems that both negative and positive transfer tends to occur when the mother tongue and the target language share more similarities “between them”, and in most of these occasions this is due to a common origin. However, there does not seem to be a clear agreement when referring to which learning contexts are more likely to induce to this language transfer, as well as whether there is a connection between language transfer and age or not. Although not all transfer situations involve influence due to differences among languages, this study will only focus on this kind of cross-linguistic influence because it is precisely in those structures that both languages English and Albanian differ or look alike.

When people hear a speaker with a ‘foreign accent,’ they often try to guess the speaker’s background. Sometimes racial features and sometimes a style of clothing will help listeners guess correctly, but often the only reliable clue seems to be how the individual talks. In such cases, questions put to the speaker such as ‘Are you Albanian?’ or ‘Are you Greek?’ suggest an intuition about the nature of language, an awareness, however unconscious, that the native language of a speaker can somehow cause the individual to sound “foreign” in speaking another language.

Many believe that the study of one language (e.g. Latin) will make easier the study of a closely related language (e.g. French or Italian). Similarly, people often believe that some languages are 'easy' in comparison with others. For example, many Albanian-speaking university students see European languages such as French as less difficult than Oriental languages such as Chinese. Since the similarities between Albanian and French seem to be relatively great, French is often considered 'easy'.

An awareness of language transfer is also evident in the mimicking of foreigners. While the representation of foreigners in ethnic jokes is often crude in more ways than one, stereotypes of the way foreigners talk are sometimes highly developed among actors. The following passage comes from a manual to train English-speaking actors in the use of different foreign accents, in this case an Albanian one:

Oh! I am good fellow!

I have been in Italy before two years and have liked. Someone said me Italy is good place and I talked with my cousin for that. He doesn't never refuse what I ask, so went there, welcomed in house and found job. Look photo! He has worn black suit and is sat near my bigger brother.

The manual provides a pronunciation guide for this passage so that actors can make their phonetic mimicry seem plausible, but a number of grammatical features in the passage also seem to be "typically Albanian," such as the absence of an article, present perfect instead of the past simple, constructions like *has worn* and *is sat* and the personal pronoun probably left out in purpose by the actor in *went there, welcomed in house and found job* or simply the preposition of place *in* instead of *to* showing direction.

Applied linguists tend to focus much more on negative transfer than on positive transfer, because it is generally believed that only negative transfer presents teaching and learning challenges. Negative transfer manifests itself in different linguistic domains. In the area of phonetics and phonology, negative transfer effects account for much (although perhaps not all) of typical foreign accents. Target language sounds or sound combinations that do not occur in the native language typically cause special problems for learners. Likewise, negative transfer is generally held to be responsible for a host of learner errors in morphosyntax (inflection and word

order). For example, Albanian speakers acquiring English as a new language often incorrectly place adverbs between the verb and its direct object (*Gerald takes often the bus*) instead of between the subject and the verb (*Gerald often takes the bus*), presumably under the influence of the word order in Albanian (*Geraldi shkon shpesh me autobus*). In vocabulary acquisition, positive transfer may account for the immediate recognition and acquisition of words with similar or identical pronunciation in both the native language and the target language; however, words that look or sound alike (or both) in the native and in the target languages but have different meanings (e.g. English *parent* and French *parent*, ‘relative’; English *become* and German *bekommen*, ‘to receive’) or the English word *actually* and *aktualisht* in Albanian, *në fakt, ne te vërtetë*, are likely to lead to errors—which is why such words are sometimes known as *false friends*. Negative transfer is also common in the domain of pragmatics, where the native and the target languages have divergent conditions for appropriate use of translational equivalents.

Apart from similarities and dissimilarities in word forms, word meanings constitute another kind of problem that will be translated into positive and negative transfer as well. Some semantic differences between languages do not always lead to significant learning difficulties in fact sometimes they contribute to a positive transfer. For example, two verbs in Albanian ‘njoh’ and ‘di’ correspond to a single verb in English ‘to know’. Albanian speakers learning English seem to have little difficulty in associating two lexical forms with one concept, since they just have a broader semantic scope for the verb “know”. This fact can be seen in the right use of the verb “know” by Albanian students. They can perfectly distinguish between: *I know him- unë e njoh atë, I know what I do-di cfare bëj*, and so on and so forth, Fera, A. (2019; 6).

The lexical form *i madh*, in Albanian, stands for a series of English lexical counterparts like, *big, huge, great, large* etc, which on any occasions provides an approximate or relative meaning or a positive transfer, but yet again learners of the second language need a correct definition for each case in order to avoid the negative transfer of this lexical form,

We say;

- a) *huge rock* (*gur i madh*)
- b) *big rock* (*gur i madh*)

but we cannot say *huge name* or *large name* where *great name* is used instead, e.g.

c) *He has a great name among people.* (*Ka emër te madh në shoqëri.*)

In Albanian, certainly, we can use *i madh* in any of them.

On the other hand, when Albanian learners want to translate into English the Albanian verb ‘bëj’ which has a broader semantic scope than ‘do’ and ‘make’, students produce errors. Thus, these errors can be attached to negative transfer due to native language influence. As a consequence, the learner may use the rule incorrectly, by making the use of that rule more general than it actually is. For example, if the learner writes I do a cake, they are probably generalizing the use of ‘do’ to every process that involves creation and realization, e.g

(12) Did he do a mistake in his homework? A ka bërë ai gabim në detyrën e shtëpisë?

(13) Did he make a mistake in his homework? A ka bërë ai gabim në detyrën e shtëpisë?

Even though there are a lot of occasions where both *do* and *make* can be used for the same noun, still *do a mistake* in our case, is undoubtedly wrong.

Transfer can also occur in polyglot individuals when comprehending verbal utterances or written language. For instance, Albanian and English, both, have relative clauses with a noun-noun-verb (NNV) order but which are interpreted differently in either language:

(14) Albanian example: *Vajza, që gruaja po puth, është aktore.*

If translated word for word, with word order maintained, this Albanian relative clause is equivalent to;

(15) English example: *The girl that (or whom) the woman is kissing is an actress.*

The Albanian and the English examples differ in that in Albanian the subject role can be taken by *Vajza* (the girl), or *Gruaja* (the woman), while in the English example only the second noun phrase (the woman) can be the subject.

In short, although both *Vajza* and *Gruaja* exhibit the same inflected form,

cila është aktore – vajza – nominative

kë po puth gruaja – *vajzën*- accusative,

the Albanian example is syntactically ambiguous in that either *the girl* or *the woman* may be doing the kissing.

In the English example both word-order rules and the test of substituting a relative pronoun with different nominative and accusative case markings (*e.g., whom/who*) reveal that only *the woman* can be doing the kissing.

In exclamatory sentences in English we simply use the exclamation mark to show the end of a sentence in written form, but intonation is used in spoken instead.

(16) *She has won the competition.* (demonstrative)

(17) *She has won the competition!* (exclamatory)

Certainly, on both occasions written and spoken the Albanian demonstrative and exclamatory mood would have a different lexical form plainly discerned from each other. Thus;

(18) *Ka fituar konkursin.* Demonstrative and

(19) *Paska fituar konkursin!* Exclamatory

The intonation rises in the English language for the exclamatory mood to identify the difference, whereas Albanians provide lexical change instead.

Another typical example of negative transfer concerns Albanian students trying to learn English. Since the Albanian noun "Information" can also be used in the plural – "Informacione" – Albanian students will almost invariably use "informations" in English, too, which is grammatically wrong. From a more general standpoint, all new learning is mentioned involving transfer based on previous learning. That could also explain why initial learning of L1 will impact the learning. The same goes for "Council" where the plural takes *bits* or *pieces* relevantly in English.

(20) These pieces of information are really useful. *Këto informacione janë me të vërtetë të dobishme.* (Correct)

(21) These informations are really useful. (Incorrect for English but not for Albanians)

The results of positive transfer go largely unnoticed and so are less often discussed. Nonetheless, such results can have a large effect. Generally speaking, the more similar the two languages are and the more the learner is aware of the relation between them, the more positive transfer will occur. For example, an Anglophone learner of Albanian may correctly guess an item of Albanian vocabulary from its English counterpart, but word order, connotations and collocation are more likely to differ. Such an approach has the disadvantage of making the learner more subject to the influence of ‘false friends’.

(22) He got tired looking for the library the whole day.

(23) U lodh së kërkuari për bibliotekën gjithë ditën.

Library is very embarrassing as a *false friend*. A lot of people in Albania mistake it for a bookstore and not as a place where you can only read a book but you cannot take the book with you, and on most of the occasions they do not strive for the difference, which in fact makes a great difference.

Consciously, learners or unskilled translators may sometimes guess when producing speech or text in a second language because they have not learned or have forgotten its proper usage. Unconsciously, they may not realize that the structures and internal rules of the languages in question are different. Such users could also be aware of both the structures and internal rules, yet be insufficiently skilled to put them into practice, and consequently often fall back on their first language. The unconscious aspect to language transfer can be demonstrated in the case of the so-called ‘transfer-to-nowhere’ principle (very much known among scholars and users of a second language) Kellerman, E. (1995; 15), addressing the language based on its conceptual organization instead of its syntactic features. Here, language determines how the speaker conceptualizes experience, with the principle describing the process as an unconscious assumption that is subject to cross-language variation. It can be explained that it is difficult for learners to acquire the construal patterns of a new language because learners may not look for the perspectives peculiar to the (target/L2) language; instead they may seek the linguistic tools which will permit them to maintain their L1 perspective. Let’s have a look at the following examples to clarify the patterns above, e.g,

In a random conversation between two foreigners;

(24) Më shqetëson, *e kam me gjithë mend*, më lër të qetë!

When transferring this sentence in a conversation *e kam me gjithë mend* though very easy literally, has to be surmised, by using other patterns just experiencing an approximate one, but that may even be wrong, like; *I have it with my whole mind (e kam me gjithë mend)*, which for an English makes almost no sense at all. The proper sentence would be;

(25) It disturbs me, *I am serious/I am real*, leave me in peace!

Depending on the number of years the language has been studied, as well as the contact with the language in a more realistic situation or not, the influence of the mother tongue when learning a second language varies. The learner who has studied the language for a longer time as well as in an environment in which his/her second language is being learnt will have a better command of the second language and therefore, will not make so many mistakes due to negative language transfer. Languages are not just a set of words, but concepts and therefore, words, expressions and grammatical rules vary in all languages and that is the reason why literal translation does not work in most cases. Reality is seen from many different points of view and our minds structure ideas in different ways, thus it is very important to be familiarised with the structures of the target language and understand that one's mother tongue works in a different way.

Transference is certainly applicable in translation and according to Levenston, one way of presenting the syntactic differences between languages is the translation-paradigm, Levenston (1965; 221). The translation-paradigm, so far, can assist any scholars in identifying the source of an error produced by transference of a pattern from the mother tongue. If we guess from the context what structure the learner ought to have chosen, reference to the translation-paradigm for the correct language structure, will probably show which language structure influenced the choice of the wrong language form.

Implicitly and undoubtedly, a complete set of translation-paradigms, from sentence to morpheme, at different degrees of delicacy, should do for the grammars of two languages what a bilingual dictionary does for the vocabularies. The essential difference is that it compares grammatical categories and not the words by which they are realized. Equivalences shown from one language to the other paradigms are one-way and are not necessarily reversible. It is certainly useful for teaching purposes to give also the reversible paradigm, especially when a

language structure has only one equivalent in the other language. This may be illustrated by the following examples;

26) *Ai ka qenë jashtë shtetit për punë. Për vite të tëra nuk e ka parë familjen me sy. Tani që u kthye gjëat kanë ndryshuar tërësisht për të, por besimi në vetëvete e bën më të fortë.*
(Movie track in Albanian: ‘Years of Expectation’, Fera, A. (2019; 7.).

Much of the attention is paid on lexical construction even though grammar plays its own part in its adoption in English language (very important part evenly.) Here’s the English counterpart:

27) He *was* (Albanians use present perfect has been) in a foreign country (*abroad* instead, normally sounds better) for a job. He did not see his family for many years (*for years and years* instead). *Now that he’s back* (has come back) things have changed for him but his *self-confidence* (his trust in himself) make him stronger.

Although results obtained through a contrastive analysis are perfectly valid within the framework of this assumption, difficulty does arise from an attempt to interpret the CA hypothesis itself in terms of learner behavior and centers upon the word *tend*. What does it mean, for example, Albanian learners of English (L2) tends to stress “r” wherever it might be in the sentence or lexeme, but English in the other hand pronounce it when a) the word starts with r; b) when followed by a vowel and c) after voiced consonants d, b, g etc, e.g

- a) right, row, ring
- b) far away,
- c) drizzling, grizzle, drudgery

Prediction of learner behavior in contrastive statements such as this one is based, in fact, upon certain observations of some speakers under unspecified conditions. If the word *tend* does not appear in contrastive statements or is removed from their interpretation, these statements are then being used for a purpose which transcends their original framework, the purpose being the prediction of actual second language behavior (learners *tend* to pronounce letters according to their language no matter how). This difficulty becomes even more apparent when two (or more) alternatives in the second language are recognized as being open to the learner, e.g., the case of American English where treatment of *r* is quite similar to that of the Albanians or other English

speaking folks treating *r* just like Albanians. Classical CA statements provide predictive statements without careful descriptive and analytical studies of actual second language learners under clearly specified conditions.

Many linguistic scholars stick to the statement that the list of problems resulting from the comparison of the foreign language with the native language must be considered a list of hypothetical problems until final validation is achieved by checking it against the actual speech of students. The importance of this statement was one of the major impetuses which led to experimental investigations of actual second language learner speech behavior.

For us, one important preliminary step to understanding language transfer is, at the very least, a native language-target language comparison, which often leads to insightful hypotheses concerning language transfer phenomena. In addition to pedagogical influences, linguistically oriented bilingual studies were also influential on the work of early contrastive analysts.

There is now overwhelming evidence that language transfer is indeed a real and central phenomenon that must be considered in any full account of the second language acquisition process. The pendulum in recent years has begun to settle, with language transfer being investigated as a phenomenon of importance in and of itself.

Chapter II

Contrastive Analysis and Language Transfer Theory

Contrastive analysis (see also chapter I), is the systematic study of a pair of languages with a view to identifying their structural differences and similarities. Contrastive Analysis was extensively used in the 1960s and early 1970s as a method of explaining why some features of a Target Language were more difficult to acquire than others. According to the behaviourist theories (see section below), language learning was a question of habit formation, and this could be reinforced by existing habits. Therefore, the difficulty in mastering certain structures in a second language depended on the difference between the learners' mother language and the language they were trying to learn. The theoretical foundations for what became known as the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis were formulated in Lado's *Linguistics across Cultures* (1957). In this book, Lado claimed that "those elements which are similar to the learner's native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult". While this was not a novel suggestion, Lado was the first to provide a comprehensive theoretical treatment and to suggest a systematic set of technical procedures for the contrastive study of languages. This involved describing the languages (using structuralist linguistics), comparing them and predicting learning difficulties. Thus, the languages comparison is aimed at assisting language learning and teaching. The goals of Contrastive Analysis can be stated as follows: to make foreign language teaching more effective, to find out the differences between the first language and the target language based on the assumptions that: (1) foreign language learning is based on the mother tongue, (2) similarities facilitate learning (positive transfer), (3) differences cause problems (negative transfer/Interference), (3) via contrastive analysis, problems can be predicted and considered in the curriculum. However, not all problems predicted by contrastive analysis always appear to be difficult for the students. On the other hand, many errors that do turn up are not predicted by contrastive analysis. Larsen, et al (1992: 55) states that predictions arising from contrastive analysis were subjected to empirical tests. Some errors it did predict failed to materialize, i.e. it overpredicted." This prediction failure leads to the criticism to the Contrastive Analysis hypothesis. The criticism is that Contrastive Analysis hypothesis could not be sustained

by empirical evidence. It was soon pointed out that many errors predicted by Contrastive Analysis were inexplicably not observed in learners' language, Krashen, S. (1981; 46). Even more confusingly, some uniform errors were made by learners irrespective of their L1. It thus became clear that Contrastive Analysis could not predict learning difficulties, and was only useful in the retrospective explanation of errors, Krashen, S. (1981; 136). These developments, along with the decline of the behaviourist and structuralist paradigms considerably weakened the appeal of Contrastive Analysis, (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Second_language_acquisition, January 25th 2011). In 1981, Fisiak, J. (1981: 7) claims that Contrastive Analysis needs to be carried out in spite of some shortcoming because not all Contrastive Analysis hypotheses are wrong. To overcome the shortcoming of Contrastive Analysis, it is suggested that teachers accompany Contrastive Analysis with error analysis. It is carried out by identifying the errors actually made by the students in the classroom. Contrastive Analysis has a useful explanatory role. That is, it can still be said to explain certain errors and mistakes. Fisiak, J. (1981: 7) further explains ‘...error analysis, as part of applied linguistics cannot replace *Contrastive Analysis*, but only supplement it’. Schackne, S. (2002; 199), states that “research shows that contrastive analysis may be most predictive at the level of phonology and least predictive at the syntactic level.” A counter-theory was Error Analysis (EA), which treated second language errors as similar to errors encountered in first language acquisition, or what the linguists referred to as ‘developmental errors’. By the early 1970s, this Contrastive Analysis theory had been to an extent supplanted by error analysis, which examined not only the impact of transfer errors but also those related to the target language, including overgeneralization, Schackne (2002; 198).

The background for Contrastive Analysis, as applied to language teaching, is the assumption that the native language plays a role in learning a second language. Mother tongue influence is sometimes very obvious, e.g. in the case of foreign accent. We can often recognise foreign speakers by their accent; an American speaking Albanian normally sounds quite different from an Arabian or a Russian.

Let us provide some striking examples as contrasting points of language transfer in both English and Albanian, e.g.

Modal verbs

Semantically in Albanian we have a clear division of their definition and for Albanians and foreign as well that is very simple. We categorise them into modal verbs showing *possibility* and necessity and what's more on almost every occasion we use a single word or lexeme which makes it so easy for the foreigners to use it in their own language;

- a) Modal verbs showing possibility fall under

Mund

- b) Modal verbs showing necessity fall under

Duhet

- (1) The little children *cannot* swim in the deep sea. Fëmijët e vegjël nuk *mund* të notojnë në detin e thellë.
- (2) Patients *should* be very careful with their medicines. Pacientët *duhet* të jenë të kujdesshëm me ilaçet e tyre.

So invariably modal verbs showing possibility in English, like; *can, may, might, could* and *would*, fall under the meaning of *mund* in Albanian, and relevantly modal verbs showing necessity, like; *must, have to, should, ought to* and *need*, fall under *duhet* in Albanian. For any foreigner learning Albanian that sounds very easy but the other way around sounds for an Albanian learning English, where the learner should be aware of their proper use in order to avoid misinterpretation and even produce illogical patterns throughout the speech, e.g.

Possibility (*mund*)

- (3) The child *can* play. - Fëmija *mund* të luaj.
- (4) He *may* be the English professor. - Ai *mund* të jetë profesori i Anglishtes.
- (5) This *might* be easier for us. - Kjo *mund* të jetë më e lehtë për ne.
- (6) They *could* react in a better way. - Ata *mund* të vepronin ndryshe.

Necessity (*duhet*)

- (7) I *need* a pen. - Më *duhet* një stilolaps.
- (8) You *must* leave. - Ti *duhet* të nisesh.
- (9) You *ought to* read all the instructions. – *Duhet* të lexosh të gjitha udhëzimet.
- (10) She *has to* be careful with it. - Ajo *duhet* të ketë kujdes me të.
- (11) You *should* stay in bed. - Ti *duhet* të rrish shtrirë.

Implicitly Albanians have to count on the way these verbs are used. Many Albanians find it intrinsic the way these modal verbs are used and in many cases doomed to producing errors.

Another point to remember is declension which English natives do not use any longer since Shakespeare's time in the 16 century. Albanian nouns are all declined and this time foreigners need to provide its counterpart to avoid errors.

Noun declension

Nouns are declined into nominative, possessive, dative, accusative and ablative but the last often merged with nominative, so it will not make a hard point. On many occasions prepositions make the differentiation point through the cases.

a) Ablative

- (12) *Geraldi* shkoi herët në shkollë sot. *Gerald* went to school early today.

b) Possessive

- (13) *Shkolla e Geraldit* është më e bukur se e jona. *Gerald's school* looks more beautiful than ours.

c) Dative

- (14) *Geraldit i dhanë* një dhuratë të shtrenjtë. *They gave Gerald* an expensive present.

d) Accusative

- (15) *Unë e takova Geraldin* në hyrje të shkollës. *I met Gerald* at the school entrance.

e) Ablative

(16) *Prej Geraldit* mund të presësh më të keqen. (The worst can be expected *from Gerald*)

The preposition *from* here does not show similarity with accusative but with nominative in Albanian.

f) Nominative

(17) *Nga Gerald* mund të presësh më të keqen.

As can be seen nouns in Albanian are inflected when declined, but in English this mostly occurs with the use of prepositions. Certainly, this is the most practical way foreigners learning Albanian best transfer their patterns by counting on the way these prepositions are used when nouns are declined.

Adjectives

It is widely known now, that adjectives mostly occur before the noun in English language, Swan, M. (2005; 14-15). Unfortunately, this is not grammatically applicable for Albanians, who use adjective after it and based on this, both English learners of Albanian (L2) and Albanian learners of English (L2), commit an erroneous combination which occurs quite naively. The output does not appropriately alienate the gist of the pattern, which can be realized by the users, but its effect depends from certain social circumstances, e.g.

(18) *Tall* skyscraper – Gradaçelë *e lartë*

(19) *Formidable* man – Njeri *i hatashëm*

As can be seen the adjective follows the noun. The clitics here (*e* and *i*) are used in Albanian language to denote gender which for the feminine uses *a* and *e*, and for the masculine uses *u* and *i*. This is very significant because it derives from noun traits or properties (gender categories) in Albanian. Things may vary for sensational purposes where both languages change

the position of the adjective totally anticlockwise. Albanians put the adjective before the noun and the English after it, e.g.

(20) *I pathyeshmi* Skënderbe – Scanderbeg *the invincible*

(21) *I bukuri atëdhe* – Fatherland *the beautiful*

When transferring patterns here we should be aware of this grammatical rule to avoid misunderstanding for practical occasions, where for people Albanians always use the adjective after the noun officially.

Verbs

When transferring verbs in English we should know that the difference is while conjugating it and not in its aspects. The conjugation of the verb in Albanian shows the person and Albanians do not use the pronoun, because the verb implies which pronoun would be and the users elicit it, e.g.

22) *Punoj që t'a mbajë familjen siç duhet.* – *I work* to support my family properly.

Punoj here implies the first person in Albanian, and Albanians do not find fit for themselves to use it (I – Unë). English use the pronoun (I here) because the verb work can be used for any other persons but the third one, and transferring it, is necessary because if we do not do it the situation may be complicated. Here are some more Examples using other tenses, but present in the above one, e.g.

23) *Iku shumë herët nga shtëpia.* - *He left* home very early.

24) *Bëmë punë të rëndomta dje.* *We did* drudgery work yesterday.

25) *Do të studiosh më shumë për këtë lëndë.* *You will (going to) study* more for this subject.

As can be seen, the usage of tense aspect does not make the situation rather difficult than the conjugation itself. Differences in the mood may bring up slightly difficult changes, but this is

simply a contrast between them (in these languages). Transfer here becomes intrinsic while conjugating only, because it produces embarrassment among users.

However, not all problems predicted by contrastive analysis always appear to be difficult for the students. On the other hand, many errors that do turn up are not predicted by contrastive analysis. A counter-theory to Contrastive Analysis known among scholars and researchers of language transfer is Error Analysis (EA). A key finding of Error Analysis (EA) is that many learner errors are produced by learners making faulty inferences about the rules of the new language. These errors can be divided into three subcategories: overgeneralization, incomplete rule application, and the hypothesizing of false concepts. Error Analysis was criticized for misdiagnosing student learning problems due to their ‘avoidance’ of certain difficult L2 elements. Most researchers agree that Contrastive Analysis (CA) and Error Analysis (EA) alone cannot predict or account for the myriad errors encountered in learning English. The scholars reject the view of learner language as merely an imperfect version of the target language. Interlanguage is continuum between the first language and the target language. Interlanguage is dynamic (constantly adapting to new information) and influenced by the learners. To overcome the shortcoming of contrastive analysis, it is suggested that teachers accompany Contrastive Analysis with error analysis. It is carried out by identifying the errors actually made by the students in the classroom. Contrastive Analysis (CA) has a useful explanatory role. That is, it can still be said to explain certain errors and mistakes.

Language Transfer can be viewed and analyzed from different angles. Different scholars and researchers have inferred different and approximate conclusions regarding it. Let’s see how it can be conveyed as a theoretical concept to the new generations of linguists.

Language transfer has been a controversial issue in SLA (Second Language Acquisition) for a long time, Corder, S.P. (1967; 163). Its importance in second language (L2) learning has also been reassessed time and again, Corder, S.P. (1967; 163). Along with the developments of research on language transfer, linguists have realized that the first language (L1) acts as ‘a major factor in SLA’ (Ellis, 1990; 297). There are evidences of L1 influences at every aspect of L2 learners’ interlanguage: discourse, lexicon, semantics, syntax, morphology (including bound morphemes), phonetics, and phonology. In order to get a comprehensive understanding and fully recognize the significance of language transfer, it is necessary to have a close look at its research

developments at different stages and relative definitions. Over a hundred years ago, Whitney (1881) used the term transfer to refer to cross-linguistic influences, which had been used by many linguists ever since. However, the terminology is not without problems and leads to different conceptions. Corder (1983) and Kellerman & Smith (1986) advocated abandoning the term or using it with high restriction, yet many linguists continued to use it without any limitation. Up until now, linguists still do not have an exact definition of language transfer, which varies along with the developments of research on it. In the twentieth century, the developments of language transfer research fell into mainly three periods and categories, namely, *behaviorist, mentalist and cognitive view*, Ellis, R. (1994; 297-298).

Behaviorist view of language transfer was reduced to habit formation, which was actually a process of stimuli-responses. The theory dominated language learning and teaching research in 1940s and 1950s when behaviorism and structuralism prevailed. Behaviorists and structuralists believed that (a) learners' active and repeated responses to stimuli would promote language learning; (b) encouraging target-like responses and correcting non-target-like ones would reinforce language learning; (c) breaking complex structures down into components and acquiring them bit by bit would stimulate language learning. Meanwhile, they advocated that the difficulties in language learning depended on how much the target language was similar or different from the native language. If two languages were similar or identical, positive transfer from the native language would promote SLA; if they were different, negative transfer from the native language would hinder the acquisition of the target language. Under this assumption, Lado (1957; 23) put forward the theory of CAH (Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis), which held the view that:

- a) The level of difficulty experienced by the learners will be directly related to the degree of linguistic differences between L1 and L2;
- b) Difficulty will manifest itself in errors: the greater the difficulty, the frequent the errors.

Accordingly, advocates of CAH put forward the hierarchy of difficulty (Lado, 1957; Stockwell, 1957). They believed that language errors and learning difficulties were mainly or completely due to the interference of the native language. By comparing and contrasting the similarities and differences of two languages as well as setting up the hierarchy of difficulty, it

was possible to predict and explain learners' errors and learning difficulties. The predictor of transferability was the typological or structural similarities and differences between L1 and L2.

During that period, one of the most widely accepted definitions of language transfer was put forward by Lado (1957) by comparing and contrasting the surface structures of the native and target languages: The students who come into contact with a foreign language will find some of its features quite easy and others extremely difficult. Those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult (p.2).

Behaviorist view of transfer was restricted to overt correspondences between L1's and L2's syntactic structures. The degree of transfer greatly depended on the similarities or differences between the native and target languages. Although behaviorists realized that the native language played an important role in SLA, they exaggerated L1 influences and ignored other factors that hindered SLA, such as learners' individual differences. Meanwhile, CAH's error predicting ability was doubted, Whitman, R., & Jackson, K. (1972; 22, 29-42). Therefore, it was not surprising that behaviorist view was faced with great challenges from mentalist view.

In the early 1950s, Chomsky put forward the *theory of mentalism*, which was also called conceptualism or psychologism. The theory believed that human's language ability was born by nature and everyone would eventually master language because there was Universal Grammar UG in language learning and it was universal grammar rules that determined the mastery of every language. Besides, Dulay and Burt's study (1974a) concluded that children not rely on language transfer or comparison with their L1 to construct their L2, but depend on their ability to construct their L2 as an independent system. The conclusion severely attacked (CAH). Under the influences of the mentalist view and Universal Grammar (UG), Dulay and Burt (1973; 1974; 1975; 1977) put forward their Creative Construction Hypothesis (CCH) which promoted the idea of L1=L2 hypothesis. Besides, Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) completely denied native language transfer and believed that language learning ability only depends on UG. These linguists, however, were in a great hurry to jump to conclusions. Ellis (2000) criticized that their conclusion was without empirical support. Consequently, mentalists recognized their limitation and started to explore the relationship between the native language transfer and UG in the 1980s. Zobl's (1980) transfer hypothesis argued that formal properties of L2 and universal

developmental principles determined transferability. Although the mentalists are no longer in a position totally denying native language transfer, they are still under criticism for their theory not having much empirical support.

In the late 1970s, the drawbacks of the mentalist view stimulated the development of the *cognitive view*, which believed that language learning involved the same cognitive systems as learning other types of knowledge: perception, memory, problem-solving, information processing, etc. Kellerman, (1977; 58-145). In the cognitive view, 'It is generally acknowledged that typological similarity or difference cannot on its own serve as a predictor for transfer, but interacts with other (linguistic) factors' Faerch & Kasper, (1987; 121). During that period, linguists tended to focus on how and when language learners would use their native language. SLA research then emphasized factors that caused language transfer. Ellis (2000) listed six kinds of factors that would cause language transfer:

(1) Transfer happens at different linguistic levels, namely, phonology, syntax, discourse, pragmatics, etc.

(2) Social factors have impact on language transfer, for example, the influence of learning environment;

(3) Markedness of certain language;

(4) Prototypicality, the core meaning and the periphery meaning of a certain word;

(5) Language distance and psychotypology, namely, learners' perception of language distance between L1 and L2;

(6) Some developmental factors that limits interlanguage development. Markedness of certain language is one of the key factors leading to language transfer, which have a close relationship with the core and periphery grammar of certain language.

According to Universal Grammar (UG), every language has its core grammar and periphery one. Chomsky (1993; 23) believed that those rules discovered by children with the aid of Universal Grammar (UG) formed the core grammar; those elements that had to be learned without the help of Universal Grammar (UG) were periphery. Chomsky's theory of markedness held the view that the core rules were unmarked, namely, the general tendency of all languages was unmarked; while the periphery rules were marked, that is, they were exceptional from the general grammar. However, the distinction of the marked and unmarked was hard to define. Ellis

(1994) believed that the core grammar could be marked or unmarked, but the periphery grammar was definitely marked. Rutherford (1982) claimed that the criterion of markedness was primarily dependant on the grammar restriction: the one with higher grammar restriction was marked while the one with less restriction was unmarked; unmarked rules were easier than marked rules. Another definition of markedness was based on language typology, which claimed that those features that were universal to most languages were unmarked while those that were specific to a particular language were marked. Zobl (1983) generalized three cases where rules were marked, namely, typological specialization, typological inconsistency, and typological indeterminacy.

Contrastive Analysis (CA), thus, was founded on the assumption that L2 learners will tend to transfer to their L2 utterances the formal features of their L1. Without such awareness, as viewed, we tend to see and hear things in familiar ways, according to the categories which we are familiar with from our native language. And that is not surprising. This is the way we tend to see, hear, and interpret things in general. The aim of these theories has been to provide better descriptions and better teaching materials for language learners. There is more to Contrastive analysis than this, however. The importance of Contrastive Analysis (CA) extends beyond individual languages. When we compare across a number of languages, we can also see more clearly what is characteristic of languages more generally. There is a lot of interest in universals of language – that is, what is characteristic of language in general.

Chapter III

Linguistic Characteristics of English and Albanian Prepositions

3.1 Morphology and Morphological Characteristics of Prepositions in English and Albanian

3.2 Syntax and Syntactic Properties of Prepositions in English and Albanian

3.3 Lexicon and Prepositions in English and Albanian

3.4 Semantics and Prepositions in English and Albanian

When Albania, its culture and language were under the influence of Latin, Byzantine Greek, Slavic and Turkish culture, the Albanian language restored its authenticity as an Indo-European language with its peculiar, phonetic grammatical and lexical structure. Thus, the Albanian language belongs to the Indo-European linguistic family, Beci, B. (2005; 20). About two thousand Albanian words are of Indo-European origin; *kokë (head)*, *ditë (day)*, *natë (night)*, *dimër (winter)*, *ujë (water)*, *ha (eat)*, *pi (drink)*, *jam (be)*, *kam (have)*, *zog (bird)*, *dem (bull)*, *elb (barley)*, etc. The Albanian language has its own branch in the Indo-European family and there's no kinship to any present Indo-European languages.

Saliently, in the highly developed Indo-European languages, a sharp distinction can be drawn between the grammatical and lexical function of words. The meaning of a root of a word can be isolated from the modification of meaning due to accident or some other grammatical means of determination. Thus, in the word *flas (speak)* we distinguish between the meaning of the root-rapid personal displacement-and the modification as to time, tense, definiteness, etc, expressed by the grammatical form, in which the word is found in the given context. But in every language the distinction is by no means so clear and the function of grammar and radical meaning respectively are often confused in a remarkable manner.

In the child, the first attitude towards items of this category is discrimination, based on biological utility and on pleasure in perceiving them. The infant hails them in significant sounds,

or names them with articulate words on their appearance, and calls for them when needed. Thus these words, the nouns, are submitted to a definite use, that of naming and appeal. To this there corresponds a subclass of noun-substantives which could be called the appellative case, and which is similar to some uses of the vocative and nominative in the Indo-European declension, very conspicuous for the Albanian language with noun declension.

The word, thus, is a cluster of sounds, with its form according to the linguistic system and which denotes something by generalizing. Its meaning is determined not only by the marked referring relationship but also by its place in the linguistic system.

Whenever we hear anything said we spring spontaneously to an immediate conclusion, namely, that the speaker is referring to what we should be referring to *were we speaking the words ourselves*. On some occasions this interpretation may be correct; this will prove to be what he has referred to. But in most discussions which attempt greater subtleties than could be handled in a gesture language this will not be so. To surmise otherwise is to neglect our subsidiary gesture languages, whose accuracy within their own limited provinces is far higher than that yet reached by any system of spoken or written symbols, with the exception of the quite special and peculiar case of mathematical, scientific and musical notations. Words, whenever they cannot directly ally themselves with and support themselves upon gestures, are at present a very imperfect means of communication, for example, when someone asks; where are you? And we answer: Work – meaning *at work/në punë* or Italy – meaning *in Italy/në Itali*). When a symbol seems to stand for two or more referents we must regard it as two or more symbols, which are to be differentiated. This canon, guards against the most obvious kind of ambiguity (which we shall see later in the other chapters), for example, that of top (tree), and top (speed). Symbols which are substitutes and so can be used to 'define' one another not only have the same referent but symbolize the same reference. Such symbols are usually said to have the same 'connotation,' a misleading and dangerous term, under cover of which the quite distinct questions of application of reference and correctness of symbolization are unwittingly confused.

Prepositions, as a very significant part of this symbolic and linguistic system need their attention in conveying the proper semantic concept the pattern is all about. In an enumeration, the preposition occurs before every noun or may occur just once at the very beginning.

In his book Lloshi, Xh. (2005) says that written language uses prepositions more frequently in order to show details. Their distinction is obvious. There is a synonymous relationship among the prepositions which serve to avoid the repetition of the same preposition, Lloshi, Xh. (2005; 80).

3.1 Morphology and Morphological Characteristics of Prepositions in English and Albanian

According to Beci, B. (2010), the ancient or Indo-European words constitute the most substantial and, most probably, the oldest stratum of the Albanian lexicon Beci, B. (2010; 37). Words like; *afër* (*near*) (*afër shkollës/near the school*), *brenda* (*inside*), *gjatë* (*along*), *jashtë* (*outside*), *përpara* (*in front of*), *poshtë* (*under*), *midis* (*among, between*) etc, become prepositions, generally stemming from nouns and adverbs, Hopper, Paul. J. (1991; 22). Prepositions are invariable words occurring before nouns, pronouns, numbers and adverbs establishing subordination among patterns, e.g;

- (1) E njoha *nga* zëri. I knew him *by* his voice.
- (2) Punoj *me* lopatë. I dig *with* a shovel/spade.
- (3) U rreshtuan *për* tre. They lined up *in/into* three.

According to their morphological structure, prepositions in Albanian Demiraj, Sh. (2002; 388), and I believe also in English, Huddleston & Pullum (2002; 598), are divided into simple compound and phraseological: e.g. *me, nga, afër, brenda, larg, para*, etc.

If we look at the prepositions from this morphological point of view, we see that they can be defined as invariable word forms which, throughout the history of English, at least, almost never took any inflections, Crystal, D. (1976; 32). Certainly, we know that simple prepositions can be realized by a single morpheme. Compound prepositions as such can be classified according to their morphological structure. Phraseological prepositions consist of two- or three-

word combinations acting as a single unit (e.g. *by means of, by virtue of, by way of*. Most of them have the pattern - simple preposition + noun + simple preposition, e.g.

- (1) Simple; *me (with), në (in), nga (from/by), afër (near)*.
- (2) Compound; *nëpër (through), përmbi (on/over), përveç (except)*.
- (3) Phraseological; *ballë për ballë (face to face), në lidhje me (in relation to), në kundërshtim me (contrary to)*.
- (4) Ai qëndronte *pranë* pemës vetmuar. He stood lonely near (*close to*) the tree.
- (5) Të gjithë kishin ardhur *përveç* tij. Everyone was present *except* him.
- (6) Të gjithë dëgjonin me vëmendje *në lidhje me* vendimin e tij. Everyone was listening attentively *in relation to* his decision.

3.2 Syntax and Syntactic Properties of Prepositions in English and Albanian

The class of prepositions has also been traditionally characterized from the syntactic point of view, besides the morphological and logical ones (the last one is not my case of study), Ljunggren, K. G. (1951; 18-19). By their syntactic point of view, they can be studied on two levels - phrase level and clause level. Prepositional phrase is the basic unit of phrase level. It consists of a preposition which functions as a head governing the phrase as a prepositional complement. English prepositions typically came before a noun throughout the history of their development and this is applicable in Albanian, too. The noun does not necessarily come immediately after the preposition, since determiners and adjectives could intervene. Pronoun, adverb (usually followed by a preposition), adverbial (including prepositional phrases) or rarely a clause, were other possible complements.

Prepositions, like verbs, are associated with various kinds of complements. On many occasions a preposition follows a verb (e.g. *taken by, rely on, believe in*) or occurs, as mentioned above, before a noun (e.g. *I am sitting at the table in the corner*) to show in what relation the noun stands with regard to the other nouns and verbs in the same pattern, Fries, Ch. C. (1957; 148). The pronoun that follows a preposition (the reference object) is in *oblique case* and is

governed by the preposition (see examples above). Prepositions also introduce prepositional phrases (e.g. *Look at me*), Greenbaum, S.& Nelson, G, (2002; 112). A prepositional phrase is a group of words containing a preposition, an object of the preposition, and any modifiers of the object.

In a syntactic way, prepositions are grouped into three types, Greenbaum, S. & Nelson, G. (2002; 56-57)

- a) simple prepositions like *in, on, from, to*;
- b) compound prepositions like *away from, next to, along with*; and
- c) complex prepositions, which means a simple preposition preceded by a word from another category, such as an adverb, adjective, or conjunction (e.g. *due to, capable of, except for*) or is made up of a set of preposition words which start with and act like a preposition (e.g. *in comparison to, in the light of, in view of*).

Besides this, prepositions follow verbs forming together phrasal verbs, Huddleston & Pullum (2002; 598). A word which looks like a preposition but is part of a phrasal verb is generally called a *particle*, Bolinger, D. (1971, 72-73), (e.g. *to put off the meeting*). Based on its definition, a preposition has thus, a prepositional object (e.g. *The house looks on the stream*), so it forms a constituent with its noun phrase object, hence is more closely bound to its object than an adverb or a particle. And what is more, prepositional phrases can be fronted whereas the noun phrases that happen to follow adverbs or particles cannot.

Grammatically, it is known that intransitive and transitive verb particle constructions involve *intransitive, transitive* and *ditransitive prepositions*, Jackendoff, R. (1973; 352). *Intransitive prepositions occur as* components of larger multiword expressions, such as; *tidy up, look up, put on, take off, run in*, etc. Post-verbal particles behave just like ordinary prepositional phrases, Jackendoff, R. (1973; 354), (e.g. *They jumped into the water*).

- a) predicates:
 - (7) *The celebration is over! Festa mbaroi!*
- b) prenominal modifiers in constructions that constitute a directional phrase using *with* and a definite noun phrase as in:
 - (8) *Onto the plane with your boarding pass! Nė avion me lejekalimin tuaj!*

c) Prepositional phrases can be intensified by the word *right*) or *straight* as in:

(9) *The car ran right out of fuel. Makinës sapo i mbaroi karburanti.*

(10) *He will get straight to the point. Do të dali direct në temë.*

d) In some cases intransitive prepositions (or particles) can occur between the verb and its object, but adverbs cannot, for instance:

(11) *She will bring down her luggage. Ajo do t'i uli valixhet.*

(12) *She will bring downstairs her luggage. Ajo do ti uli poshtë valixhet.*

In the general sense, the semantics of transitive prepositions can be determined mainly by the semantics of the head noun they govern (e.g. *from memory, out of line, in poverty*) or their governing verb, (e.g. *ask for, speak about*). They select for noun phrase complements to form prepositional phrases. A manner adverb can be inserted between the verb and the transitive preposition: *Try to communicate easily with Samsung phones!* (but we cannot say; *Turn quickly off the light!*), Jackendoff, R. (1973; 361).

The following sequence in brackets forms a strong unit that can function as a constituent for purposes of focus:

(13) *From one room to another jumped my daughter.* [My daughter jumped from one room to another.] (?)

(14) *Down the Albanian Riviera until Theth drove a group of tourists.* [A group of tourists drove down the Albanian Riviera until Saranda.] (?)

In fact, the construction *noun phrase + prepositional phrase* sequence cannot function as a constituent without the preposition:

(15) *One room to another jumped my daughter.* [My daughter jumped one room to another.] (?)

(16) *The Albanian Riviera until Theth drove a group of tourists.* [A group of tourists drove the Albanian Riviera until Saranda.]

Among the prepositions, we come to know another type which is randomly known as *pseudo-passive*, Carter & McCarthy, (2006; 793). Passive constructions have a range of uses. The most known canonical use is to map a clause with a direct object to a corresponding clause where the direct object becomes the grammatical subject.

(17) *They circulated the information. Qarkulluan informacionin.*

(18) *The information was circulated. Informacioni u qarkullua.*

In the passive voice, the object *the information* is promoted to the subject position.

In the same way, with a pseudo-passive, the subject in the passive voice corresponds to the object of a preposition in the related active structure as in:

(19) *You have been working for five enterprises. (Ke punuar për pesë ndërmarrje)*

(20) *Five enterprises you have been working for. (Pesë ndërmarrjet për të cilat ke punuar).*

Certainly, this is an instance of a stranded preposition as a result of passive formation, noting that long passives are quite rare.

Moreover, the pseudo-passive is much more restricted than the ordinary passive which applies quite systematically to all transitive verbs, with a handful of lexical exceptions. We know that there are various constraints that can determine the (un-)acceptability of a verb + prepositional phrase combination like context, usage and frequency effects, in addition to syntactic, semantic, lexical, and pragmatic idiosyncrasies. Other factors could be cohesion between the verb and the stranded preposition or the role prominence of the passive subject. These conclusions do not provide full answers as to the criteria of a well-formed and acceptable prepositional passive, especially in the case of idiomatic direct objects and phrasal verbs:

(21) *She made up for her gap/ Her gap was made up for. E kompensoi gabimin.*

(22) *I put up with my fiancé./ My fiancé was put up with. E duroj të fejuarin.*

According to the syntactic function of the prepositional phrase, prepositional passives are divided into two types, Huddleston & Pullum (2002; 1433): (a) one, in which the prepositional phrase is a complement whose prepositional head is idiomatically selected by the verb (e.g. *The poplar was looked after by David*), and (b) the other, in which the preposition is not part of a verbal idiom (e.g. *The poplar was sat under by David*), hence, presenting pragmatic constraints.

As we can see, in prepositional phrases in English, the preposition generally precedes its complement, but when this is not the case (i.e. in separated prepositions), it is referred to as *preposition stranding*. The preposition is stranded after its complement has been moved away by

the speaker. This can be found in three types of constructions: (1) Wh-questions, (2) pseudo-passives, and (3) relative clauses, e.g.

(23) Which *part* do you want some jam on?

(24) The blue button was clicked on.

(25) These are the places (that) I have been telling you about.

According to general English language grammar, both verb + prepositional phrase (e.g. *She wakes after her mother.*) and verb + particle constructions (e.g. *She takes after her mother*) have a similar linear order. The distinction is that even though prepositions and particles can be stranded in interrogatives (e.g. *Which school did she graduate from?/Whose plan did they vote down?*) and relative clauses (e.g. *The school he graduated from is Asim Vokshi's. /The plan which they voted down is the Plan-Albanian's*), only prepositional phrases license pied-piping (e.g. *After whom does she wake? After whom does she take?*)

According to their syntactic relations prepositions in Albanian (which pose both similarities and differences with English), are classified into, *Nominal*, *Possessive*, *Accusative* and *Ablative*. Dative case cannot be applied. This is very crucial for foreigners learning Albanian as mentioned in chapter one in language transfer.

(a) *Nominal*: Është nga Tirana. He is *from* Tiranë.

(b) *Possessive*: Me anë të një miku arrita të kapërcej kufirin. I managed to cross the border

(c) *by* the help of a friend.

(d) *Accusative*: Mos u ul *mbi* divan. Do not sit *on* the sofa.

(e) *Ablative*: Ishte *prej* Durrësi. He was *from* Durrës.

The gerung of accusative case is used as a verbal compliment to show intention (with the preposition *për* (*to*);

(26) Rendën *per t'i hapur* derën ne errësirën e natës.

(27) They ran *to open* the door in the darkness of the night.

Some prepositions overlap noun forms and are distinguished by their function, Çeliku, M. (2004; 226), e.g.

(28) Është në *buzë* të lumit. (*Noun*) It is *on* the river bank.

(29) Shëtisnin *buzë* lumit. (*Preposition*) They were walking *along* the river.

Prepositions generally occur before nouns, pronouns, numbers, adverbs and the non-defining gerund, e.g.

(30) *Me t'u futur* brenda, u tmerrua. He was terrified *by getting in*.

The preposition *në* is used to show place mainly before concrete nouns, e.g.

(31) Do te shkoj *në* Sarandë. I shall go *to* Sarandë

The preposition *mbi* is used to show the place on which something exists or an action happens, e.g.

(32) Po hekuroste *mbi* tavolinë. She was ironing *on the table*.

The preposition *para* is used to show a place, time, limit or comparison, e.g.

(33) U përgjigj *para* meje. He replied *in front of* me.

Prepositional clusters like *përpara shtëpisë/in front of the house*, *me lopatë /with a spade*, are preceded by the prepositions *përpara* and *me*, and are called prepositional nominal clusters or simply prepositional clusters. They can be omitted from the sentence without changing its meaning, Beci, B (2005; 177), e.g.

a) Të gjithë rrinin të qetë *përpara* mësueses së tyre. If we leave out *përpara mësueses së tyre*, the sentence is again meaningful. Të gjithë rrinin të qetë.

(34) All of them stood calm *in front of their* teacher. All of them stood calm.

(35) Ata vazhdonin të punonin *me* lopatë. They continued digging *with* a spade.

(36) Ata vazhdonin të punonin. They continued digging. (no change in meaning)

The object nominal cluster can be preceded by the prepositions: *nga* (from), *te* (at), *tek* (at), *bashkë me* (together with), *pa* (without), *mbi* (on), *në* (in), *nëpërmjet* (through/by/via), *kundër* (contrary to) etc. In this case the verbal cluster is formed by a verb followed by an indirect nominal object with a preposition, e.g;

(37) Besa shkoi atje *bashkë me vëllanë e vet*. (Besa went there *together with (along with) her brother*).

Some verbs can be followed by a first nominal indirect object and a second nominal indirect object with a preposition *nga* (from), *te* (at), *tek* (at), *për* (for), *bashkë me* (together with), *pa* (without), *mbi* (on), *në* (in), *nëpërmjet* (through/by/via), *kundër* (contrary to) etc), e.g.

(38) Adela bleu një libër të ri *për vëllain e vet*.

(39) Adela bought a new book *for* her brother.

The verbal cluster is formed by a verb and an adverb or prepositional nominal cluster acting as an adjunct, e.g;

(40) Treni u nis *në zonat malore*. The train pulled away *to mountainous areas*.

The prepositional cluster is formed by a simple or extended nominal cluster preceded by a preposition, e.g;

(41) Studentet manifestuan *nëpër rrugët e qytetit*.

(42) The students marched *through the streets of the town*.

A simple demonstrative sentence is composed of a subject nominal cluster (formed by a noun, a pronoun, or noun and a determiner) and a verbal cluster. Optionally we can add a prepositional cluster, e.g.

(43) Fëmijët po luanin *me top mbi* barin e gjelbër.

(44) The children were playing *with* a ball *on* the green grass.

The subject verb in active form (Petriti) becomes prepositional object of the verb in passive, preceded by the prepositions, *nga (from), prej (from,by)/ (nga Petriti, prej Petrit)*.

The prepositional indirect object is a nominal cluster (noun or pronoun/ noun and determiner) in nominative, accusative or ablative, always preceded by a preposition, e.g

(45) Ju e fituat ndeshjen *me* lojën tuaj.

(46) You won the match *with* your play.

The prepositional indirect object simply completes the meaning of the verb, but it is not a main complement because the verb in the sentence can be used devoid of it; e.g

(47) Ju e fituat ndeshjen. You won the match.

The main prepositions the prepositional indirect object relates to are; *nga (from), te (at), tek (at), me (with), për (for), pa (without), mbi (on/over), në (in), nën (under/below), nepermjet (by,via,through), ndaj(against), para (in front of/before), perpara (in front of/before), rreth (around/about), pas(after/behind); etc.*

The prepositional indirect object formed by a noun or a noun and determiner can be replaced by a pronoun, e.g.

(48) Ate nate unë po rrija *me Benin*, po bisedoja *me të*.

(49) I was staying *with Ben* that night, talking *to him*.

The demonstrative sentence with an indirect prepositional object can be turned into an interrogative one; e.g.

(50) Po bisedoja *me Artanin*.

(51) Whom/who *were you talking to?*

The prepositional indirect object discerns from the other two objects because it is always formed by a preposition. In its form, it looks exactly like an adjunct, but for the prepositional indirect object we use the question with a prepositional pronoun; e.g.

(52) Edlira shkoi *me të motren*. (Me kë? Me të motrën).

(53) Edlira left *with her sister*. (Whom/ Who with? With her sister).

The adjunct is formed by a prepositional nominal cluster; e.g.

(54) Bora fillon *nga fundi i dhjetorit*.

(55) Snow starts *by the end of* December.

The adjunct nominal cluster of place is often formed by a preposition; these prepositions show movement or place; e.g.

(56) Qëndroj *në zyrë*. Stay *in* the office.

(57) Hyj *në zyrë*. Get *in* the office.

Prepositions like; *nga, që, prej* show the origin or the starting point of something, e.g.

(58) Ky avion vjen *nga* Londra. This plane comes *from* London.

Adjunct of time - with a prepositional nominal cluster; e.g.

(59) Festivali u zhvillua *para një* muaji. The festival took place a month ago.

The continuity of an action can be shown with the help of a prepositional nominal cluster; e.g.

(60) Punuam *gjate* gjithë dites. We worked all day *long*.

Adjunct of cause - with the help of a noun /or of a noun and a prepositional complement; e.g.

(61) Me kishte ikur gjumi *nga gëzimi*. I was dead awake *of* joy.

Adjunct of purpose - The purpose is denoted by the help of a noun or of a prepositional nominal cluster; e.g.

(62) Kemi shkuar jashtë *për punë*. We went abroad *to work* (for occupation).

The reasonable relationships denoted by the prepositional nominal *për*, subordinate of a verb, showing movements, are interlaced with object ones, e.g

(63) Shkoj *për gjah/të gjuaj*. Go *hunting/ Go to hunt*.

In the above sentence (63), it is obvious that the preposition *për* (*for*) is used in Albanian but not in English showing thus a difference between the two languages when interpreting, although both interpretations are accepted. English cannot use *go for hunting*.

3.3 Lexicon and Prepositions in English and Albanian

Based on the grammatical system and on the main lexical repertoire, which determines the stability of a language, historical linguistics put the Albanian language to the global linguistic system of the Indo-European family. When we say that the Albanian language is an Indo-European one this does not imply that its whole linguistic value is attributed to the old Indo-European lexical heritage. Throughout the centuries, the relationships with other peoples have influenced our language Thomai, J. (2006; 253). The Indo-European Stratum of the Albanian dictionary includes many words the roots of which lead in the formation of many other words. Leaving out the stratum of foreign elements from the body of our language, the gist remains the Indo-European stratum. These elements are quite older than the elements introduced by Latin and old Greek. They compose the oldest linguistic stratum.

The more the comparison of historical studies deepens, the more the Indo-European character of the Albanian lexicon shows up. Thus the Albanian lexicon has an Indo-European character. Indo-European words show natural phenomena, animals, kinship, time etc. e.g ditë (day), natë (night), diell (sun), ujk (wolf) etc. The Indo-European element in the Albanian lexicon constitutes its core. It is the oldest element, therefore the most consistent. In order to distinguish the old Indo-European element from the new one, the comparative historical method helps us, comparing it with other languages.

Language functions best among people when they understand each other without separating the words. If we want to transfer our thoughts we have to arrange our words. Even in the dictionary, words are characterized by grammatical semantic categories they have. Lexicology and grammar are combined with each other especially in the formation of the new words.

Based on the interpretations above, the transition from one grammatical-lexical category to the other is performed by different forms of inflections. During the word-formation in the Albanian language, the changes in meaning for the same word begin from an external semantic theme, but may combine with the same lexical unit producing derivative meanings; e.g

(64) anë - paanësi- i paanshëm- i paanë

(65) side - impartiality – unbiased – endless

The Albanian scholar of Lexicology Jani Stefi/Thomai in his work ‘Prejardhja kuptimore e Gjuhes Shqipe’ (2009) writes further: ‘The componential semantic system offers clarity even in the meaning of semantic structure of the words, unveils the way how changes take place in word-meaning and creates relations among these meanings and sentences’. Thomai, J. (2009; 87).

Lexical meaning constitutes the most substantial part of the word as a semantic structure. Certainly, it cannot be imagined without its form, but it is the first by importance, because above all, words are made to show something, to relate us to something. All words have a lexical meaning, but the degree of clarity for this meaning is different in diverse languages. In general, their lexical meaning becomes clear when they are related to other words while speaking or writing. For example, the preposition *me (with)*, in the sentence ‘udhëtoj me shokët’ (travel with friends) conveys, related to the noun it precedes, the meaning of company, whereas in the sentence ‘udhëtoj me tren’ this preposition conveys the meaning of the means of communication.

There are in fact two kinds of central items and two kinds of peripheral items in every language, namely, those of the whole lexicon and those of particular parts of speech. A lexical item is central to the lexicon because of a relatively high rate of its occurrence in discourse, while a lexical item is central to the word class due to a relatively high degree of common properties with other central items. This difference can be defined as one between quantity and quality. Even though the line between central and peripheral items of a lexicon is not clear cut, one can definitely claim that prepositions, in the history of their development, have always been central to the English lexicon.

Prepositions, viewed from this point as a general knowledge, can be defined as a relatively closed class that is not prone to quick changes and they are high frequency items belonging to one of the nine word classes into which English lexicon can be divided. The majority of the formal changes in their system are a result of internal word-formative processes and grammaticalization and not borrowings from external sources. They can be broadly defined

as a set of vocabulary items sharing certain common properties. These generally include varying number of morphological, syntactic and semantic phenomena, D, A. Cruse. (1986; 149).

It is widely recognized that the theories of syntax are in disagreement about the categorization of prepositions into functional or lexical, Kortmann, B. & König, E. (1992; 678). & Quirk et al.(1985: 667). And surely the supporters of the first view hold that they are closed class items with a limited possibility for new members, a characteristic of functional, but not lexical categories.

In my opinion the logical concept of relation defines the word class of prepositions. This is to say, the function of a preposition is to express a pure relation (symmetry, connection, transitivity, variability, plurality, generality) irrespective of objects or situations. Besides, they are called *false prepositions* if they occur in the function of an adverb, adjective or otherwise, Brøndal, V. (1948; 50).

According to grammatical definitions, a complex preposition is a frequent type of multiword expressions usually formed of a preposition, a noun, and another preposition. Whereas other terms have been used interchangeably like ‘phrasal prepositions’, ‘quasi-prepositions’ or ‘preposition-like word formations’ that occur in many different languages, thereby showing almost uniform properties, Gaatone, D. (2001; 26). Likewise, in Albanian, prepositions are divided into simple (*në, tek, për*) and complex (*në ball të, në mes të, në fund të, në vend të*). While simple prepositions (one item) are referred to as colorless, empty, weak, abstract, grammatical, and functional, complex prepositions (simple preposition + noun (+ simple preposition) or noun + simple preposition) are referred to as colored, full, strong, concrete, and lexical. The former belongs to a closed class whereas the latter is likely to accept new members, Demiraj, Sh. (2002; 385),.

In English we can identify simple prepositions (for example. *of, in, on, at, by, above, under, about*, etc.) which are syntactic link words devoid of semantic content and complex prepositions (for example. *in front of, instead of*, etc.) which are relational words. What’s more, the complex preposition category is not well-defined. That is why we might talk about a subcategory since complex prepositions are perceived as prepositional locutions and, as such, they can range from the more lexical to the more grammatical, Gaatone, D. (2001; 26).

The criteria which may determine the degree of lexicality and/or grammaticality of the preposition is just looking at the meaning of the whole unit. Units which are more lexical (e.g. *in search of*) have a more punctual meaning even by isolating them from the prepositions around them and, at the same time, cannot be disconnected [we cannot say ‘*in, for example, search of*’]. Units which are said to be more grammatical are more general and vague and they can belong to several syntactic classes (adverb, adjective, conjunction, etc.). On the other hand, etymologically, simple prepositions (like *for, but, near*) were originally complex in nature.

We should take for granted that lexical prepositions are not determined by the governing word(s). They are certainly selected for their meaning, so they cannot be replaced with another preposition despite being grammatically valid because this changes the meaning of the whole utterance, i.e. *at the door* is not the same as *inside the door*.

The erroneous use of the preposition *of* has been assessed by native speakers as *perfectly clear but needs rephrasing*

(66) *The decrease of the fuel price*

(67) *Lead poisoning of children*

(68) *She suffers of a chronic pulmonary disease*

(69) *A fall of temperature can kill germs* (Parole Corpus)

The preposition *of* in the former examples is syntactic because it lacks heavy semantic content, especially as its erroneous employability does not alter meaning. In other words, a preposition is considered functional if it assigns case but adds no thematic properties to the structure, Littlefield, H. (2004; 2).

Differently from grammaticalized items (of which we know *modal verbs* and the verbs *have* and *go*) that are thus desemanticized because of an extreme generalization or the loss of their meaning, prepositions are not all desemanticized as they define case structurally. The former process influences both the form and the meaning of an item as it consists in the increase of the range of a morpheme advancing from a lexical to a grammatical status and/or from a less grammatical to a more grammatical status. Yet, this is not the case with the latter because not all prepositional occurrences are completely devoid of their semantic traits hence they do not undergo semantic lightening (bleaching), Gabelentz, G. (1891; 241).

For this reason, the distinction is not clear cut especially as it would be meaningless to claim that all prepositions simply convey a grammatical function and carry no specific lexical meaning. Language of course, consists of grammaticalized lexis, not lexicalized grammar. Prepositions are as such a perfect example as it can be seen in the following verb + preposition combinations *look + up*, Geld, R. & Krevelj, L. (2011; 48).

- a. *Look both ways up the street to ensure there are no approaching cars.*
- b. *Her financial situation will start to look up in 2019.*
- c. *I look technical terms up in the dictionary but they are still vague.*

In a general sense a preposition creates a relation between the elements of the sentence. In sentence (a) in the example above, *up* indicates *direction*. Yet, we notice that even when used as a particle i.e. it combines with a verb to form a phrasal verb as in sentences (b) and (c) where *look up* means respectively *to improve* and *to search for something*, it is not totally devoid of meaning, so it has some semantic contribution that it is making to the whole, Lindner, S. (1981; 101).

I guess there might be a problem with a unified approach to prepositions and this is what makes them embarrassing for L2 learners or pedagogically in general. We can say that prepositions are lexical items that become grammaticalized when combined with verbs to form phrasal verbs, so they lose some of their semantic-syntactic properties. Prepositions in principle modify nouns and verbs as they cannot stand alone to express meaning, so they are usually indivisible from their complement. Particles are central to the formation of phrasal verbs which in their turn can be transitive (e.g. *They will put off the conference*) or intransitive (e.g. *His bicycle broke down*), hence they undergo metaphorical extension i.e. a move or shift from a concrete to a more abstract meaning, not to forget that their various senses are not accidental but organised around a central sense.

3.4 Semantics and Prepositions in English and Albanian

Hurford and Heasley in their book in 1983 emphasize the idea that semantics is not such a cut-and-dried subject as, like, chemistry or mathematics, so there is sometimes room for alternative answers and interpretations. They also say that semantic theory is a part of a larger enterprise – *linguistic theory*, which includes the study of syntax (grammar) and phonetics (pronunciation) besides the study of meaning. It is a characteristic of Linguistics as a whole that it concentrates on the similarities between languages Hurford and Heasley (1983; 10,11).

I believe it is impossible to deal with the meaning of a word without using a small amount of the technical terminology developed by scholars of Semantics for such a purpose. It doesn't matter how many facts a theory actually provides in explaining or predicting. There are three categories of facts which provide room for further comment: firstly, there are other facts which need an explanation; secondly, there are other facts about which the theory makes no prediction; and thirdly, facts which at least do not seem to be readily describable in the terms provided by the theory. It is necessary to affirm that semantic theories are justified by reference to the actual semantic facts that they are meant to account for. By developing the subject, new dimensions in the nature of meaning have started to be described. Both theoretically and practically it is accepted that doing semantics is a matter of conceptual analysis, exploring the nature of meaning carefully and thoughtfully, using a wide range of examples, many of which we can draw from our own knowledge.

According to the Albanian scholar Mahir Domi, 'prepositions are used between two sentence patterns to specify or to emphasize the subordinate syntactic relations between them. They are especially used in accusative and ablative case where the first is identical to the dative and the second to the ablative. The limited number of case forms itself is not sufficient to provide all the syntactic hues in their variety', Domi, M. (2002; 69); e.g.

(70) Mund ti dalloja ata nga *jehona e zërit*.

(71) I could tell them *from (by) the echo*.

Furthermore, it is normal in the language for the predicate (signifying the action of the subject) to attach to it words from various parts of speech, such as common nouns, adjectives,

prepositions, and verbs. Predicates¹ of a language have a completely different function from the referring expressions. The exchange of the meaning-bearing element in the following sentence is impossible. *Peter is a driver/ Piteri ëshë shofer* makes sense, but *Driver is a Peter / Shofer ëshë një Piter* makes no sense at all.

Let refer now to the use of prepositions from the point of view of semantics.

A few prepositions contribute significantly to the sense of the sentence they occur in, e.g. ‘Jane put her glove *on* the table’, but, in other cases, prepositions seem merely to be required by the grammar of the language when certain verbs and adjectives are used, e.g. ‘present someone *with* something’, or ‘be jealous *of* someone’. On these occasions, the verb (e.g. present) or the adjective (e.g. jealous) can be regarded as making the critical contribution to the sense of the sentence and the preposition can be disregarded from the point of view of the logic of the proposition involved. If we disregard such prepositions from the logical representation of the sentence we are not saying that they have no meaning, but rather that whatever meaning they do have does not seem to be particularly appropriate to the logical aspects of meaning that we are just focusing on. These prepositions which appear to make no significant contribution to the logical sense of a sentence are left out from the logical formulae representing the proposition concerned.

Generally speaking, a preposition expresses a relation between two things- the first one is represented by the prepositional complement and the second one by another part of the sentence. The prepositional complement is characteristically a noun phrase, a nominal ‘wh’- clause, or a nominal ‘-ing’ clause.

In the English language, the prepositions are known for their multi-functions, that is, the same lexical item (e.g. *out*) can be used as a simple preposition (e.g. *She ran out the door*), a compound preposition (e.g. *They are now out of danger*), a noun (e.g. *We were sadly looking for an out*), an adverb (e.g. *The lights went out*), an adjective (e.g. *The book should be out before the end of the month*), a particle – phrasal verb construction (e.g. *As events turned out, we were right to have decided to leave early*), a prefix (e.g. *He will outlive his neighbours*), a collocation (e.g. *out of date*), and a verb (e.g. *The truth will out sooner or later*).

An idiomatic prepositional phrase starts with a preposition or consists of a verb followed by a preposition. But idiomatic prepositional phrase starts is different from an ordinary prepositional phrase; in this case it forms an expression with a non-literal or idiomatic meaning

whose original motivation is lost to most speakers of the language, as in the idiom ‘*by hook or by crook/ Me tē mire apo me tē keq*’. As it is known, the meaning of a prepositional idiom is jointly determined by the verb and the preposition that follows it. A single verb can yield multiple meanings depending on the preposition that is attached to it. Let take, for example, the verb *break*: *break away* (1): to leave or to escape from someone who is holding you; *break away* (2): to stop being part of a group because you begin to disagree with them. Or, again, *break down* (1): if a machine or vehicle breaks down, it stops working; *break down* (2): if a system, program, relationship or discussion breaks down, it fails because there is a problem or disagreement, Webster, (1987; 177). Likewise, *break somebody in* (1): if you break someone in, you just train him/her to do a new job or activity; *break something in* (2): but if you break something in (as when you wear new shoes or use new equipment for short periods) you do so to make them more comfortable.

By prepositional use, we mean collocations, patterns and idioms containing prepositions:

- a) preposition + noun: *at risk, on time, out of tune*
- b) noun + preposition: *overview of, absorption of, an increase in, lack of*
- c) adjective + preposition: *associated with, responsible for, interested in*
- d) verb + preposition: *worry about, suffer from, get rid of, die out,*
- e) chunk containing preposition: *on my own, in the long run, in contact with, on the verge of, to the point of*
- f) idiom containing phrasal verb: *clear up your act, hang out, turn down*

Prepositions are mostly linked with *topological values*. For example, the prepositions *in* Navarro, I. (2002; 196) and *between* suggest inclusion; *on*, Navarro, I. (1998; 179) signals contact and support; *near* and *by* refer to proximity; and so forth.

There is an important and fairly common type of prepositions generally formed by prefixing a preposition to a noun (e.g. *beside*= *be+side*, *within* = *with + in*) or to an adjective (e.g. *along*=*a+long*, *below*=*be+low*). Because of this, they are called compound prepositions. We can provide a lot of other compound prepositions of this kind such as *about, above, across,*

amidst, among, amongst, around, before, behind, beneath, between, beyond, outside, underneath, within, without, etc.

Furthermore, there is another kind of compound prepositions which are more appropriately called ‘phrase prepositions’, Rowe, F. J., & Webb, W. T. (2000; 197) as they are formed by groups of words containing prepositions and they are treated as a single preposition like: *in accordance with, in addition to, in case of, for the sake of, in reference to*, etc. In this same category, there are also participial prepositions which are present participles of verbs used without any noun or pronoun being attached to them like *concerning, considering, notwithstanding, regarding* (e.g. *A discussion concerning first aid*, i.e. about, relating to, with reference to first aid).

Prepositions can also be compounded with verbs (e.g. *overtake, outnumber, understand*), adverbs (e.g. *therein, thereby*), present participle functioning as an adjective (e.g. *outstanding*) or conjunctions (e.g. *wherein, whereupon*)

Prepositions frequently take final positions:

- a) in relative clauses (e.g. *A nice fellow whom I am proud of*), and
- b) with interrogative pronouns, adverbs, and adjectives whether independent or conjunctive (e.g. *What are they waiting for?*).

‘It is very important to know that English syntax not only allows but sometimes even requires final placement of the preposition, as in; *We have much to be thankful for* or *That depends on what you believe in*’.

As far as verbs are concerned, they are usually followed by prepositions in the passive form; *by, with, for*, etc. (e.g. *He was brought up by his uncle, They were welcomed with hospitality/He was welcomed as a hero, They were happy because they were killed for their country*). Stranded prepositions occur after infinitives (e.g. *Her painful experience is hard to talk about*). Besides, there are instances of language variation where either/both prepositional use is/are accepted: *Take your elbows off (of) the desk. Throw it out (of) the window*.

Prepositions are very often polysemantic and they are used to show different relationships. For example, with a noun in nominative case preceded by the preposition *nga* (*from*): cause, place, time, or object relations can be marked, etc. e.g.

(72) U largua nga shtëpia. (He/she left (*from*) home).

(73) Do të vijë nga e marta. (He/she will come by Tuesday).

On the other hand, the same syntactic relations can be expressed by different prepositions or prepositional locutions. For example, cause relations can be expressed by prepositions; nga (*from/by*), prej (*from/by*), për (*for*), the prepositional locutions *for the cause of* etc. But there are prepositions or prepositional locutions used for a specific relation only, on any occasions for a specific connotation, e.g. *midis* (*between*) etc.

Prepositions relate the forms of the words they co-occur with, to other words.

The phrase noun+preposition+noun always shows a relation which comes from the general meaning of prepositions. The most frequently used among them are: *me* (*with*), *pa* (*without*), *për* (*for*), *në* (*in*), *prej* (*from/by*).

The most frequently used prepositions in phrasal verbs with preposition and nominal nouns are; nga (*from*), *te/tek* (*at*). The phrasal verbs with the preposition *nga* (*from*) show objective or circumstantial relations according to the lexical meaning of the verb and the subordinate noun, e.g.

(74) Fëmija druhej nga miqtë. The child was *ashamed of the guests*.

(75) Shpëtova nga një rrezik i madh. I saved *from a great danger*.

When we use a passive intransitive verb with a concrete meaning, the subordinate noun denotes the doer; e.g.

(76) Ekipi besohej nga nje alpinist i vjetër.

(77) The team was *trusted to an experienced climber*.

With a verb which shows an action or movement and a noun showing space, the phrase denotes spatial relations with different hues regarding the verb; e.g

(78) Dal nga dhoma.

(79) Get out *of the room*.

Phrasal verbs with the preposition *te/tek*, denote relations of place in general; e.g

(80) Do të shkojmë *tek Gjoni* sonte.

(81) We shall go *to John* tonight

Phrasal verbs with prepositional locutions and noun in the possessive case, can denote relations to the object, relations of cause or relation to an object with substitutional hue; *me anë të (by means of), në vend të (instead of) ne sajë të (due to, thanks to)*; e.g

(82) Ai bleu molla *ne vend të dardhave*.

(83) He bought apples *instead of (buying) pears*

Prepositional phrasal verbs with a noun in accusative are widely used to show different relations. Phrasal verbs with the preposition *për (for)*, show relation to an object or to a circumstance; e.g

(84) Erdha *për një libër*. I came *for a book*.

Phrasal verbs with the preposition *me (with)* show relation to an object or circumstance. When verbs show concrete actions and things, then they show relations of action to the tool or instrument which the action will be performed with, e.g.

(85) Mbërthej *me çekan*. Fasten *with a hammer*.

(86) U ula *me shokët*. I sat *with my friends*.

Phrasal verbs with the preposition *pa (without)*, show lack of something; e.g

(87) Ishin *pa gjë ne dorë*.

(88) They were *without (devoid of/bereft of) anything in their hands/bare-handed*.

Phrasal verbs with the preposition *në (in)* show spatial circumstantial relations in general. It is also used with nouns denoting time; e.g

(89) Ai u largua *në mbrëmje*.

(90) He left *in the evening*.

The preposition *me* (*with*), can be used sometimes to show time relations between the action and the time this action is going to take place, especially with dates, and nouns denoting time, breakfast, dinner, year, or anything else; e.g

(91) U nis *me natë*. He left *by night*.

(92) Nëna e tij vdiq *më 2012*. His mother died *in 2012*

The phrases with the preposition *mbi* (*on, over*), show circumstantial, locative or rarely objective relations; e.g

(93) Floket e gjate i binin *mbi supe*.

(94) His hair fell down (*on*) *the shoulder*.

Phrasal verbs with the preposition *nën* (*under/below*) show circumstantial relations. With verbs showing a concrete action and nouns showing concrete objects or space they emphasize relations between the action or state and the space under which the action is just going to take place; e.g.

(95) Djemtë ishin ulur *nën hijen e plepit*.

(96) The boys were sitting *under a poplar tree*.

The phrasal verbs with the preposition *nëpër* (*through/via/by*), show relations between the action-generally movement- and the space the movement permeates while elaborating; e.g

(97) Nje lumë i gjatë kalonte *nëpër fshat*.

(98) A long river crossed (*through*) *the village*.

Phrasal verbs with a preposition and a noun or pronoun in the ablative case are widely used to show different relations. The mostly used phrase is the one with the preposition *prej* (*from/by*), which shows circumstantial or objective relations; e.g.

(99) Në orën 13 dolën *prej* sallës se operacionit.

(100) They went *out of* the operation hall at 13 o'clock.

With active transitive verbs generally showing seizure, fastening, throwing like; kap (seize), mbërthej (fasten), përfshij (involve), tërheq (draw), përplas (slam), heq (remove); the noun with a concrete meaning, following the preposition *për*, show objective relations with locative hues, i.e, show relations between an action and an object that serves as a retaining point to be seized, held, drawn and so on, of a person or an object; e.g

(101) Qëndroi vetëm kur polici *e kapi per krahu*.

(102) He stopped only when the police officer seized him by the arm.

The concrete phrasal verbs with the preposition *para* (*before/in front of*) and a concrete or spatial noun show circumstantial relations between the action and state of an object or space before which the action is going to be elaborated; e.g

(103) Makina qëndroi *përpara fabrikës ku do të punoja*.

(104) The car pulled up *in front of the manufacture where I was going to work*.

Phrasal verbs with the preposition *prapa* (*behind/after etc*) show circumstantial locative relations; e.g

(105) Ne u fshehëm *prapa murrin dhe pritëm*.

(106) We hid *behind the wall* and waited.

Any phrases with the preposition *pas* show the same locative relations but the only difference is that *pas* is the antonym of *para*;

(107) Unë e kisha rradhën *pas Nardit*.

(108) My turn was *after Nardi's*

Or denoting time relations; e.g

(109) Ai u kthye *pas dy netësh*.

(110) He came back *two nights later/ after two nights*.

Phrasal verbs with the prepositions *midis* (between/among), *ndërmjet* (between) and *permes* (across) with nouns denoting concrete objects or place, show circumstantial locative relations with appropriate hues yielded by the preposition and meaning of the verb; e.g

(111) *Midis librave – among books*

(112) *Ndërmjet dy zjarresh – between a rock and a hard place*

(113) *Përmes arave – accros the fields*

The phrasal verbs with the preposition *drejt* (towards) show spatial relations between the movement and its aim. When the noun denotes a person, the phrase takes strong objective hues;

(114) *Ajo eci drejt vagonit të dytë.*

(115) *She walked towards the second compartment*

Phrasal verbs with the prepositions *brenda* (inside) and *jashte* (outside) with concrete or spatial nouns, show relations between the movement and the space it involves; e.g

(116) *Jashtë dhomës – outside the room*

(117) *Brenda hyrjes – inside the apartment*

The verbal phrases with the preposition *gjatë* (during), show time spans ore process, they show circumstantial relations between the action and the time of its elaboration; e.g

(118) *Gjatë këtyre viteve ai ka qenë më i heshtur.*

(119) *He has been rather quiet during these years.*

The phrases verb+negative non-finite form, show relations of a main action and characteristics made to a second non-performed action;e.g

(120) *Luftëtari udhëtoi tërë natën pa u ndalur.*

(121) *The warrior travelled all night without stopping.*

Phrasal verbs + gerund. The gerund possesses a widely phrasing with the other verbs. It shows relations between the action, process, state and a characterizing accompanying instantaneous action; e.g

(122) Ecte duke u mbështetur *në*....

(123) He was walking *by leaning on*....

The nominal clause can also have a noun and a preposition, in accusative or ablative case, every time this relation comes out from the disintegration of a nominal phrase. The noun can be in nominative case with the prepositions *me* (*with*), *pa* (*without*), *për* (*for*), in ablative case with the preposition *prej* (*from/by*); e.g

(124) Ai ishte *nga të parët*.

(125) He was *from the first*.

The nominal clause with an indefinite noun preceded by the prepositions *me* (*with*) or *pa* (*without*) can show a characteristic of the subject like an outer or inner state of the object it denotes , showing content or composition of the subject; e.g

(126) Salla ishte ngado *me* xhama.

(127) The hall was all around *with* windows.

The nominal clause with a noun in accusative preceded by the preposition *për* (*for*) denotes characteristics of the subject marking destination; e.g.

(128) Ju qenkeni te gjithë *për* teatër!

(129) You are all *for* a play!

Prepositions are often considered to have too little semantic content or, vice versa, to be too polysemous to warrant a proper semantic description. They and their relation to semantics have always been a problem. Many linguists agree that nouns, adjectives and main verbs are items with a full lexical meaning. When it comes to prepositions, the question might arise, whether they should also be regarded as lexical elements with their own lexical meaning or

rather as semantically empty grammatical elements, Navarro, I. (1998; 46). The answer varies according to the linguistic framework within which prepositions are studied. Various attempts have been made to come up with a satisfactory semantic treatment of prepositions. What is significant here, is the fact that the basic meaning of each preposition, irrespective of whether it is grammatical or lexical in nature, is spatial, with extensions to temporal meaning and further abstract and idiomatic meanings. Deeper analysis and contrastive theories on prepositions will be provided in chapter ten and eleven.

Chapter IV

Indo-European Stratum of English and Albanian Prepositions

- 4.1. *Indo-European Stratum of English Prepositions [after, at, for, in, mid, of, ofer, on, to, under, ymb, etc.]*
- 4.2. *Indo-European Stratum of Albanian Prepositions [para (=fora), në, prapë (of), mbi/mbë (=ymb), etc.]*

In this chapter we will be dealing with prepositions from a broad linguistic perspective as part of the Indo-European stratum. In the succeeding pages, individual prepositions will be studied under closer scrutiny, with special reference to their etymological background and corpus findings. It is very important to say that both of them belong to the Indo-European linguistic family and many linguists and scholars confirm it.

Albanian constitutes a single branch of the Indo-European family of languages. Although as a people the Albanians have been known since the 2nd century A.D., the earliest surviving records of the Albanian language date only from the 15th century. In its grammar Albanian displays several characteristic features of Indo-European languages, such as declension of nouns by means of case endings and conjugation of verbs by means of personal endings; in its lexicon it preserves a considerable number of words of inherited Indo-European stock.

Regarding the Albanian language, the scholar Thomai, J. (2011) says that it is one of the oldest languages in the Balkans and it has been ultimately testified that it makes a specific branch in the Indo-European linguistic family. When we talk about the Albanian language, certainly we do not set historical or social borders, Thomai, J. (2011; 68).

Furthermore, the scholar Stefi, J says that the Albanian language as an Indo-European one has common elements with all the languages of this family. The comparison with the other

languages of the Indo-European family reinforces the idea that the Albanian language is an Indo-European one and has its own place among them, Stefi, J. (1961; 43).

The meaning of a word as Lyons, J. (1968) emphasizes, is what it signifies and what it signifies is transferred (in some sense) from speaker to hearer in the process of communication, (Lyons, J., 1968; 412.) According to him, although these languages are part of the same family, it is significant to get acquainted with peculiarities these languages have. English and Albanian as members of the Indo-European trunk of languages undoubtedly share certain characteristics, common for all members of this family of languages, but as two structurally different languages, they also show significant differences.

The Indo-European family has and perhaps will always have, pride in place in the historical and comparative study of languages. This is not because of any intrinsic qualities of the Indo-European languages themselves. The reason is simply that many of the Indo-European languages have very ancient written records, going back hundreds and even thousands of years. Since related languages are for the most part divergent forms of some earlier single language, the further back we go in time the less difference will we find between the languages being compared. Although some of the relationships within the Indo-European family could be demonstrated from the evidence of the modern spoken languages, the details of these relationships could certainly not have been worked out without the help of the older texts.

With respect to the genetic classification of languages, English belongs to the family of Indo-European languages. The common ancestor of languages belonging to this group is Proto-Indo-European. We have no written record of this common ancestor, however, by a comparison of its descendant languages linguists, can reconstruct its hypothetical form. The dating and location of Proto-Indo-European is in many respects controversial, but the most widely held opinion dates the protolanguage between 3500 and 2500 BCE with the centre in the area north of the Black and Caspian seas from which it began to spread and diversify, Baugh and Cable, (2002: 37). As far as prepositions are concerned, Proto-Indo-European stratum forms the oldest layer of prepositions that can be identified in the Old English system. These most commonly include monosyllabic prepositions which, according to most historical linguists, developed in Proto-Indo-European from adverbs, Saussure, F. (1915; 313). The following lines present those

Indo-European prepositions, which survived in Old English. *The survey of cognates is based on a paper by Blažek (2001).*

4.1. Indo-European Stratum of English Prepositions [after, at, for, in, mid, of, ofer, on, to, under, ymb, etc.]

after

This preposition stems from the Indo-European root ‘apoter-o/i’. The primary meaning of this preposition overlaps with the primary meaning of present-day English *after* and Latin *post*. The Albanian cognates for *after* are both *pas* (both as preposition and adverb) and *pasi* (as adverb only). The preposition governed dative and accusative.

Dative:

Donne þy ylcan dæge þe hi hine to þæm ade beran wyllað þonne todælað hi his feoh þæt þær to lafe bið æfter þæm gedrynce and þæm plezan on fif oððe syx hwylum on ma swa swa þæs feos andefn bið.

(Historia Ecclesiastica Gentis Anglorum, Book IV, Chapter XXIV)

Accusative:

Æfter ðas uutedlice dagas acende [{vel{]} gebær wif his and gedegelde hia moneðum fifo cuoed.

(Aldred - New Testament - Lindisfarne Gospels)

The most frequent orthographic variant was *æfter*, other marginal variants include *efter*, *aftera*, *afterran* and *afterre*. According to the corpus data HCET (1991), the use of this preposition has risen 2.25 % after 1050 (ICAME).

Table 1

	Old English I (700 - 950)	Old English II (950 - 1050)	Old English III (1050 - 1150)
Number of words	272	633	321
Rate	2.88 ‰	2.51 ‰	4.76 ‰

Number of words and rate **Table 1**

at

This preposition stems from the Proto-Indo-European root ‘*ad*’. The Albanian cognate for this preposition include *në*, *n*, *tek*. The difference between them lies only in the way you want to convey the information. *Tek* is always used for exact places and *në* and *n* for general places. *Tek* is never used to show time in Albanian. *N* on such occasions, is used as a short form only. The preposition governed (OE) dative and accusative.

Dative:

Nis nan winter swa stearc þæt ic dyrre æt ham lutian for ege hlafordes mines.

(Aelfric’s Colloquy)

Accusative:

And ix scipu gefengun, and þa oþre gefliemdon; and hæþne men ærest ofer winter sæton; and þy ilcan geare cuom feorðe healfhund scipa on Temesemuþan, and bræcon Contwaraburg, and Lundenburg, and gefliemdon Beorhtwulf Miercna cyning mid his fierde, and foron þa suþ ofer Temese on Suþrige, and him gefeaht wiþ æpelwulf cyning and æpelbald his sunu æt Aclea mid West Seaxna fierde, and þær þæt mæste wæl geslogon on hæþnum herige þe we secgan hierdon oþ þisne ondweardan dæg, and þær sige namon.

(Chronicle MS A Early)

The orthography of this preposition was relatively stable and so was its rate of occurrence during the Old English period. The prototypical meaning overlaps with that of Present-day English at and Latin *apud*.

Table 2

	Old English I (700 - 950)	Old English II (950 - 1050)	Old English III (1050 - 1150)
Number of words	242	617	193
Rate	2.56 ‰	2.45 ‰	2.86 ‰

Number of words and rate **Table 2**

be

The preposition comes from the Proto-Indo-European root **ob^{hi}/*b^{hi}*. The cognates include Old Indian *abhí*, Latin *ob*, Gothic *bi*, Old High German *bi/bī*. The preposition governed dative:

And be suþan him and be eastan sindon Bægware se dæl mon Regensburg hætt; and ryhte be eastan him sindon Bæme and eastnorþ sindon þyringas; and be norþan him sindon Ealdseaxan and be norþanwestan him sindon Frisan.

(Historiarum adversum paganos libri VII, The Geography of Central Europe)

The rate of occurrence of this preposition during the Old English period was relatively stable. The prototypical meaning of this preposition overlaps with that of Present-day English *by* and Latin *ab*.

Table 3

	Old English I (700 - 950)	Old English II (950 - 1050)	Old English III (1050 - 1150)
Number of words	225	538	267
Rate	2.38 ‰	2.13 ‰	3.96 ‰

Number of words and rate **Table 3**

fora

This preposition stems from the Proto-Indo-European root ‘*pr̥rā*’. The form *for* is supposed to represent an apocoped form of *fora*. The Albanian cognate for *fora* is *para*. It also occurs before object pronouns and there’s no difference between *para* and *përpara* in Albanian. The preposition thus, governed dative, accusative and instrumental. The rate of occurrence was relatively stable and the prototypical meaning of this preposition overlaps with that of present-day English *for* and Latin *pro*.

Dative:

Nelle ic nateshwon awyrgean þa eorþan heononforþ for mannum.

(Genesis, The Flood)

Accusative:

Þonne gehyreð hwylc, hwæt hyra hyge seceð? And ðu hi, drihten, dest deope to bysmre; nafast þu for awiht ealle þeoda.

(The Metrical Psalms of the Paris Psalter)

Instrumental:

Ac mycel gepolode þurh his mildheortnesse Crist for ure þearfe þa he let hine sylfne bindan and swingan and on rode ahon and him ægðer þurhdriþan mid isenum næglum ge fet ge handa and swa to deaðe acwellan.

(Wulfstan’s Homilies)

The rate of occurrence was relatively stable and the prototypical meaning of this preposition overlaps with that of Present-day English *for* and Latin *pro*.

Table 4

	Old English I (700 - 950)	Old English II (950 - 1050)	Old English III (1050 - 1150)
Number of words	554	1,045	343
Rate	5.87 ‰	4.15 ‰	5.09 ‰

Number of words and rate **Table 4**

in

This preposition stems from the Proto-Indo-European root ‘en/’en/i/’ni’. The cognate includes Albanian *n* and *në*. The prototypical meaning of this preposition overlaps with that of present-day English *in* or *on* as well as Latin *in*. The preposition governed dative and accusative. The orthographic variants found in the corpus include *in* and *inn*. The rate of occurrence decreased steadily during the Old English period. This can be explained by the fact that *on* started to replace *in* in positions, where they were formerly interchangeable. The prototypical meaning of this preposition overlaps with that of present-day English *in* or *on* as well as Latin *in*. Albanians themselves use it contracted and when used, it can be found with an apostrophe after it following the noun. It is very practical among Albanians and you can find *në* generally in documents and if you are about to emphasize the object you are referring to.

Dative:

Forþon ic leofra gehwone læran wille þæt he ne agæle gæstes þearfe, ne on gylp geote, þenden god wille þæt he her in worulde wunian mote, somed sibian sawel in lice, in þam gæsthofe.

(Cynewulf - Christ)

Accusative:

He gefor þa he wæs on LXXVII geara, ond he wæs æryst bebyrged in Bethania ac his ban wæron eft alæded þanon on Constantines dagum þæs caseres in þa ceastre Constantinopili.

(Old English Martyrology)

The orthographic variants found in the corpus include *in* and *inn*. The rate of occurrence decreased steadily during the Old English period from 10.27 ‰ to 2.41 ‰. This can be explained by the fact that *on* started to replace *in* in positions, where they were formerly interchangeable. The prototypical meaning of this preposition overlaps with that of Present-day English *in* or *on* as well as Latin *in*.

Table 5

	Old English I (700 - 950)	Old English II (950 - 1050)	Old English III (1050 - 1150)
Number of words	968	2, 134	164
Rate	10.27 ‰	8.48 ‰	2.41 ‰

Number of words and rate **Table 5**

mid

The preposition stems from the Proto-Indo-European root *med^hi*. The Albanian cognate for this preposition is *midis*, *ndërmjet*. The preposition governed dative, accusative and instrumental. The rate of its occurrence was relatively stable. The prototypical meaning of this preposition overlaps with present-day English *with* and Latin *cum*.

Dative:

He cwæð: Surget gens contra gentem, et reliqua. ðæt is on Englisc, upp ræsað þeoda, he cwæð, & wiðerræde weorþað & hetelice winnað & sacað heom betweonan for ðam unrihte þe to wide wyrð mid mannum on eorðan.

(Wulfstan's Homilies)

Accusative:

Nu ge sweotule geseoð soðne dryhten on swegl faran; sigores agend wile up heonan eard gestigan, æþelinga ord, mid þas engla gedryht, ealra folca fruma, fæder eþelstoll.

(Cynewulf - Christ)

Instrumental:

Eac we cweðað, þæt mon mote mid his hlaforde feohtan orwige, gif mon on ðone hlaford fiohte; swa mot se hlaford mid þy men feohtan.

(Alfred's Introduction to Laws)

The rate of its occurrence was relatively stable. The prototypical meaning of this preposition overlaps with Present-day English *with* and Latin *cum*.

Table 6

	Old English I (700 - 950)	Old English II (950 - 1050)	Old English III (1050 - 1150)
Number of words	1,037	2,076	671
Rate	11.00 ‰	8.25 ‰	9.95 ‰

Number of words and rate **Table 6**

of

The preposition comes from the Proto-Indo-European root 'apo'. The cognate includes Albanian *prej,nga*. The preposition governed dative. Its prototypical meaning overlaps with that of present-day English *of* and Latin *de*.

Dative:

And he arærde an weofod Gode and genam of eallum þam clænum nytenum and clænum fuzelum and geoffrode Gode lac on þam weofode.

(Genesis, The Flood)

Its rate of occurrence has risen 3.79 ‰ during the Old English period. Its prototypical meaning overlaps with that of Present-day English *of* and Latin *de*.

Table 7

	Old English I (700 - 950)	Old English II (950 - 1050)	Old English III (1050 - 1150)
Number of words	216	1,143	410
Rate	2.29 ‰	4.54 ‰	6.08 ‰

Number of words and rate **Table 7**

Ofer

This preposition stems from the Proto-Indo-European root ‘uper(i)’/’upér(i)’. The Albanian cognate for this preposition is *për, mbi*. It governed dative and accusative.

Dative

Wite nu forði gif hit wære rihtlice emniht on Marian mæssedæg, þæt se dæg ne gelumpe næfre ofer ðam easterdæge, swa swa he foroft deð.

(Aelfric’s De Temporibus Anni)

Accusative:

& ðæt wæter wæs fyftyne fæðma deop ofer ða heahstan duna.

(Aelfric’s Treatise on the Old and New Testament)

The only orthographic variant found in the corpus is *ofer*. Its rate of occurrence was relatively stable and the prototypical meaning of this preposition overlaps with that of Present-Day English *over* and Latin *super*.

Table 8

	Old English I (700 - 950)	Old English II (950 - 1050)	Old English III (1050 - 1150)
Number of words	199	659	128
Rate	2.11 ‰	2.61 ‰	1.89 ‰

Number of words and rate **Table 8**

on

This preposition stems from the Proto-Indo-European root ‘*an(ō)*’.

Dative:

Ponne hie swa beon begrinode þonne ic ofslea hie on þæm maxum.

(Aelfric’s Colloquy, The Hunter)

Accusative:

Ægðer he dyde, ge he egesode ða ðe on unryht hæmdon, ge he liefde ðæm ðe hit forberan ne meahton, forðæm ðætte ða ðe gestondan ne meahton, gif hi afeallan scolden, ðæt hi afeollen on ðæt hnesce bedd ðæs gesinscipes, næs on ða heardan eorðan ðæs unrythæmdes.

(Alfred’s Cura Pastoralis)

Instrumental:

On þy ilcan dæge sancte Peter gehalgode ærest cierecean on Rome.

(Martyrology)

The only orthographic variant found in the corpus is *on*. The rate of occurrence was, contrary to that of *in*, on the increase since some of the interchangeable functions of Old English *on* and *in* were gradually adopted mainly by *on*. Its prototypical meaning overlaps with Present-day English *on* (Lundskær-Nielsen, T. (1993; 610) and Latin *in*.

Table 9

	Old English I (700 - 950)	Old English II (950 - 1050)	Old English III (1050 - 1150)
Number of words	1, 845	5, 668	1, 701
Rate	19.57 ‰	22.52 ‰	25.24 ‰

Number of words and rate **Table 9**

to

This preposition stems from the Proto-Indo-European root ‘*dē*’/’*dō*’. The preposition governed genitive and dative.

Genitive:

Ɔa Apollonius þæt gehyrde, he þam gehyrsumode and eode forð mid þam men oð þæt he becom to ðæs cynges healle.

(Appolonius of Tyre)

Dative:

Ɔonne ærnað hy ealle toward þam feo; ðonne cymeð se man se þæt swiftoste hors hafað to þam ærestan dæle and to þam mæstan, and swa ælc æfter oðrum, oþ hit bið eall genumen; and se nimð ðonne læstan dæl se nyhst ðæm tune þæt feoh gearneð.

(Historiarum adversum paganos libri VII, The Voyage of Wulfstan)

Its rate of occurrence has slightly increased after 1050 what is a direct consequence of a drift towards an analytic stage of the English linguistic system. As a result, *to* started to be used as an equivalent for dative case. Its prototypical meaning overlaps with that of Present-Day English *to* and Latin *ad*.

Table 10

	Old English I (700 - 950)	Old English II (950 - 1050)	Old English III (1050 - 1150)
Number of words	1, 359	3, 496	1, 164
Rate	14.42 ‰	13.89 ‰	17.27 ‰

Number of words and rate **Table 10**

þurh

The preposition stems from the Proto-Indo-European root *ter-/*tr-. The cognates includes Old Indian *tiráś*. It governed genitive, dative and accusative:

Genitive:

Gif he furðon þurh þa gebedu gehæled ne bið, notige þonne se abbod cyrfes, and mid isene þa uncode aceorfe and fram þære hæle ascyrige, þurh ðæs apostoles mungunge, þe ðus cwæþ: Afyrrað þone yfelan fram eow; and eft he cwyð: Gif se getreowleasa gewite, he gewite, þylæs þe an adlig sceap ealle heorde besmite.

(Aethelwold - The Benedictine Rule)

Dative:

Seo is weaxende þurh acennedum cildum, & wanigende þurh forðfarendum.

(Aelfric's De Temporibus Anni)

Accusative:

Seo ylce rod siððan þe Oswold þær arærde on wurðmynte þær stod, and wurdon fela gehælde untrumra manna and eac swilce nytena þurh ða ylcan rode, swa swa us rehte Beda.

(Aelfric's Lives of Saints)

The orthographic variants of this prepositions found in the corpus include *þurh*, *ðurh*, *þurg*. Its rate of occurrence has slightly increased after 950 and its prototypical meaning overlaps with that of Present-day English *through* and Latin *per*.

Table 11

	Old English I (700 - 950)	Old English II (950 - 1050)	Old English III (1050 - 1150)
Number of words	131	656	175
Rate	1.39 ‰	2.60 ‰	2.59

Number of words and rate **Table 11**

under

This preposition stems from the Proto-Indo-European root ‘*nd*’ *eri*. The Albanian cognates for the relevant preposition are *nën* or *ndër*. It governed dative and accusative.

Dative:

Pa hrymde ðæt deoful in ðære fæmnan ond cwææð to him, þu me nedest to utgonge, ond ic ne mæg, buton me se geonga læte se me under ðam þerswolde geband.

(Old English Martyrology)

Accusative:

Ic ehte minra feonda, and ic hie gefeng, and ic ne geswac, ær hie forwurdon; ic hie gebigde þæt hie ne mihton gestandan ongean me, ac feollon under mine fet.

(The Paris Psalter)

The only orthographic variant of this preposition found in the corpus is *under*. The preposition was on the rise until 1050 when it started to decrease. This can be partially explained by the fact that the preposition *beneþan* came to be used instead. Its prototypical meaning overlaps with that of Present-day English *under* and Latin *sub*.

Table 12

	Old English I (700 - 950)	Old English II (950 - 1050)	Old English III (1050 - 1150)
Number of words	43	306	13
Rate	0.45 ‰	1.21 ‰	0.19 ‰

Number of words and rate **Table 12**

ymb

This preposition stems from the Proto-Indo-European root ‘amb^h i ‘/’mb^h i. The cognate includes the Albanian *mbi/mbë*. It governed dative and accusative.

Dative:

Forðon we sittað ymb þam wege wædligende mid Timeus sunu, uton biddan þæs æðelan Dauides sunu þæt he geopenige ure gesyhðe, þæt we butan gedwylde þæt weorc magon began, þe we ongunnen habbað.

(Byrhtferth’s Manual)

Accusative:

Is seo eagebyrd stearc ond hiwe stane gelicast, gladum gimme, þonne in goldfate smiþa orþoncum biseted weorþeð. Is ymb þone sweoran, swylce sunnan hring, beaga beorhtast brogden feðrum.

(Phoenix, The Exeter Book)

The orthographic variants found in the corpus include *emb*, *embe*, *umbe*, *ummbe*, *ymb*, *ymban* and *ymbe*. The preposition was on the decrease throughout the Old English period and finally dies out no later than 1250. The prototypical meaning of this preposition overlaps with that of Present-day English *about* and *around* and Latin *circiter* and *circa*.

Table 13

	Old English I	Old English II	Old English III	Middle English I
Number of words	138	195	51	36
Rate	1.46 ‰	0.77 ‰	0.75 ‰	0.31 ‰

Number of words and rate **Table 13**

It must be clear, however, that the survey is historical and, therefore, it would be out of its scope to focus on Modern English prepositions as well. Since the empirical study is based on the diachronic part of the Helsinki Corpus, the borderline between Old and Middle English periods is drawn in correspondence with the division made by the corpus compilers and the authors who provide prepositional etymologies diachronically in English. In general terms, data spanning of time exploring in English was from the eight to the fifteenth century. For various extended shades of prepositional meanings, the reader should consult dictionaries

4.3. Indo-European Stratum of Albanian Prepositions [para (=fora), në/n, prapë (of), mbi/mbë (=ymb), etc.]

When it comes to the diachronic study of Albanian prepositions, it must be conceded that, until recently, historical linguists have neglected their study. The only books in Albanian with a diachronic study are those of Vladimir Orel; 1)-*Albanian Etimological Dictionary* published in 1998 and 2)-*A Concise Historical Grammar of the Albanian language* published in 2000. The second book is about the historical background of the Albanian grammar, and the author has provided a very useful study presenting different periods of the Albanian grammar starting as proto-European till nowadays. But still the book is not about prepositions. The first book, however, is all about prepositions and the author provides a very interesting way how the prepositions in Albanian language evolved as part of the Indo-European tree. Other scholars who dedicated their time to show researchers that Albanian is an Indo-European language are; *Hans*

Erich (1774) *Undersuchungen liber di Geschichte der Östlichen europäischen Völker*, Frantz Bopp (1854) *Ueber das Albanesische in scinen verwandtschaftlichen Beziehungen* and Johannas Georges von Hahn (1854) *Albanesische Stidien or Albanians scholars such as; Eqrem Çabej (1958) Studime etimologjike në fushë të shqipes*. The documented written form in the Albanian language came very late. The first explicit reference to Albanian comes only in 1332 when it was already apparently a written language. The earliest preserved (sentence length) texts of the language are datable to roughly 1480 and the earliest book in Albanian was published in 1555. Its Indo-European nature had been obscured to early investigators by the heavy lexical borrowing that had taken place in Albanian from Greek, Latin, Slavic, and Turkish, just because of invasion. Let us see the charts with figures expressing rate of occurrence for each preposition provided.

para

The preposition comes from Proto-Albanian **para* related to Indo-European **per* (*before, forward*). This word appears as a first element in such compounds as *paravesh* (slap in the face), *pardje* (the day before yesterday) and the like.

*Ende fegñtenii e endee dereite p para tii:
p hiçe ditte tone.*

Meshari (Missale) i Gjon Buzukut (1555): Line 27, 28, 29.

Table 14

	Early Albanian (1500-1800)
Number of words	4192
Number of occurrences	169

Number of words and occurrences **Table 14**

prapë

The preposition comes from Proto-Albanian **per apa* or **pra apa* 'behind'. Another form of the same word explained by accentual modifications in Proto-Albanian is *prape* (*back, again, the other way round*). Continues **per apa* **per ape*, the second component being historically identical with *pa*.

No data provided in the Corpus. The data (see above) are extracted from Orel's work only, on Etymology.

në

The preposition comes from Proto-Albanian **anal ka* (*to that which*). A parallel and more authoritative form of this preposition is *nek* from which *te* evolved as an allegro variant. Both *nek* and *tek* require nominative and it is etymologically identical with *te, tek* (*to, at*).

Mbe tjetëret ane une tue vum roe te gümtet' e ghiuhesse Arbenesce, essilla per te pakete vet te maçe pjessehuan ghiuhescit consignetare: saa dò here me ka raam descijr giaa kafsce me te scruemit tem me sielle mbe dritte, ekam passune mbajtune, ma fort per gni tendim, se per ndogn i ree te Spijrtit scejnt.

Pjetër Bogdani *Cuneus prophetarum* (*Band of prophets*), (1685): Verse: f

Table 15

	Early Albanian (1500-1800)
Number of words	4192
Number of occurrences	110

Number of words and occurrences **Table 15**

mbë

The preposition comes from the atonic form of Proto-Albanian **amhi* continuing Indo-European **ambhi* *at, in*. Another variant is *më*, from Goth *bi*, Celt **mbi* and the like.

E lúm cúx e cuitón sé cáa tæ´ vdésæ

E mentæ báxcæ mbæ´ tænazónæ i cáa

Sé Chríxti ndæ´ parráisit i bæ´n piésæ

Luka Matrënga (Luca Matranga): *E Mbsuame e Krështerë (Christian Doctrine)*, (1592): Verse,6,7,8.

Table 16

	Early Albanian (1500-1800)
Number of words	4192
Number of occurrences	1004

Number of words and occurrences **Table 16**

mbi

The preposition comes from the atonic form of Proto-Albanian **ambi*/**mbe* (on, upon) Originally, an adverb. From a tonic form of PAIb '*ambi*, cf. *mbe*.

Mune ËËoemi se nde Ëeete Arbenit, Scerbijse giËËe keto fjale te Tineeot pò vene tue ù vertetune.
Kusc nuk´ e scef si sillemi reË scecollit, tue votte mbe Düerte huej.

Pjetër Bogdani *Cuneus prophetarum (Band of prophets)*, (1685): Verse: d

Table 17

	Early Albanian (1500-1800)
Number of words	4192
Number of occurrences	4

Number of words and occurrences **Table 17**

nga

The preposition goes back to Proto-Albanian **en-ka*, a compound consisting of **en-* identical with Indo-European **en* 'in' and **ka* (also preserved as dialectal *ka* 'out'), a reflex of Indo-European **kom*. The unusual semantic shift of *nga* is a part of a general transformation of prepositional meanings in Albanian.

íxtæ ndræ' chíelt téc fanerósetæ xéi-teuet é ngá vénd

Luka Matrënga (Luca Matranga): *E Mbsuame e Krështerë (Christian Doctrine)*, (1592): Verse, 13, 14.

Table 18

	Early Albanian (1500-1800)
Number of words	4192
Number of occurrences	2

Number of words and occurrences **Table 18**

për

This preposition is a reflex of Proto-Albanian **peri* and **pra* (for), from Latin *per*.

Per feh nah fih teh liberonifgnim en duoγfit feh anemiñhet tineue

paa en mner nah atii te ferbegnim.

Meshari (Missale) i Gjon Buzukut, (1555): Line 27, 28, 29.

Table 19

	Early Albanian (1500-1800)
Number of words	4192
Number of occurrences	1

Number of words and occurrences **Table 19**

To conclude, this chapter aimed to shed some light on English and Albanian prepositions from a historical perspective. Prepositions have always been high frequency words. In the Old English period, prepositional system was entirely Indo-European or Germanic in its origin. The corpus has shown that the number of prepositions was constantly increasing. It was increasing already during the Old English period due to word-formative processes. This trend continued in the Middle English period. The prepositions increased as both tokens and types. The increase in preposition tokens was part of the movement of the language from a more synthetic to a more analytic state: as the old case-systems decayed, their function was often taken over by prepositions. The increase of prepositions as types is a direct consequence of further word-formative processes and new loans. In the similar way prepositions in Early Albanian in the corpus are characterized by a low occurrence. Of course, this continued until 1800 because of scarce data. The prepositions restored their authentic meaning and increased their occurrences after the 17th century when new attempts were made towards Albanian writings. Differently from English, Albanian language preserved the case system and even today you can see how prepositions accompany nouns when declined. The Indo-European origin left its tracks in the prepositional system too, and this can be viewed in the study throughout the chapter IV.

Chapter V

Defining Ambiguity as a Notion and a Concept

With the advent of the semantic web, the problem of ambiguity is becoming more and more urgent. Semantic analysis is necessary for explaining and resolving some sorts of ambiguity by inquiring into the relation between possibilities of predication and definition of a concept in order to solve problems of interpretation of natural language discourse.

It is very hard to define a notion which by itself has more than one explanation; a word that has doubtful and uncertain meaning and a word that can be understood in two or more ways. Ambiguity as a complex notion is very hard to describe and understand but it is an essential part of human language and it is incorporated in all areas of language. By defining ambiguity itself you can realize how complex the language can be.

There are a lot of attempts to define what ambiguity is but the word ambiguity comes from French *ambiguïté*, originating from the Latin word *ambiguus*. This word is a compound of the stems *ambi-* ('on both sides') and *agree* ('travel' or 'drive'), which taken together mean 'to wander about' or to 'drive on both sides' (Mish, 1984: 205) However, after the incorporation of the word ambiguity into English, the word has lost its reference to journeys and paths. The word has become literal. Literally according to Webster, M. (1984) *ambiguous* means 'doubtful or uncertain especially from obscurity or indistinctness...capable of being understood in two or more possible senses or ways'. According to Oxford English Dictionary (1989), 'ambiguity is the state of simultaneously admitting plausible interpretations or explanations, thus permitting double meanings that 'drive both ways'. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary defines ambiguity as the state of having more than one possible meaning. Secondly it defines it as a word or statement that can be understood in more than one way and lastly as a state of being difficult to understand or explain because of involving many different aspects.

Discussing from a linguistic point of view McArthur (1992:36) defines ambiguity as an actual or potential uncertainty of meaning, especially when a word, phrase or sentence can be understood in two ways. While, Cruse (2000:108) argues that ambiguous words have multiple senses that exhibit the phenomenon that he calls *antagonism*; you cannot focus your attention on two or more readings at the same time. He adds that “the speaker will have one reading in mind, and the hearer will be expected to recover that reading on the basis of contextual clues: the choice cannot normally be left open”.

When the boundaries between the notion and the definition of a word are not limited we should signify that ambiguity is different from vagueness. Pinkal, M. (1995; 19) considers the two phenomena to be related, however declares that they refer to different things. ‘Ambiguous expressions can assume an arbitrarily but finitely large number of readings, whereas vague expressions allow infinitely many precisifications’, Pinkal, M. (1995; 52). While, Hirst, G. (1992; 131) declares that if a word is categorically ambiguous, a sentence containing it can be structurally ambiguous. A modified and more accurate definition is provided by Pehar, D. (2005; 163) who studied diplomatic ambiguity that arose from language ambiguity. He claims that ‘in order to qualify as an ambiguity an expression must generate not only at least two different meanings, but also two incompatible and unrelated meanings. It is only then that an expression is truly ambiguous’. Pehar (2005) goes further regarding ambiguity emphasizing that it represents an obstacle to any reflection on language based on the view of language as nothing but an information transmission device. If the primary aim of language consists in transmitting information, in conveying a piece of knowledge from human being A to human being B, then ambiguities seem to run contrary to that aim as they leave a message recipient with a less transparent and less usable kind of data, Pehar, D. (2005; 13).

While, Kreidler (1998) demonstrates that when homonyms are put into identical positions in utterances, lexical ambiguity occurs. Linguistics professor in Harvard, George Zipf (1949:56), claims that ambiguity is a compromise between the speaker's desire to limit the number of words he or she needs to choose from to express a certain meaning (to minimize the effort in production), and the hearer's desire to limit the number of meanings he or she needs to choose from to understand a word (to minimize the effort in comprehension).

The famous semanticist Katz (1977:56) sees ambiguity as a relation between many semantic representations and an expression corresponding to them in natural language. While, Scheffler (1979; 13) notes that a word is ambiguous if its denotation on one occasion of its use diverges from its denotation on another occasion of its use. Another definition of ambiguity, which is essentially sentential definition, has been discussed by Kempson (1977; 40- 28). It states: 'A sentence is ambiguous if the sentence can be true in very different states of affairs'.

According to Generative Transformational Grammar (GTG) where the understanding of ambiguous sentences is done through phrase markers, ambiguity is defined as an expression which can accommodate more than one structural analysis, Gillon (1990; 397). Crystal (1987; 377) thinks that ambiguity is a result of complexity in documents such as forms, insurance policies, contracts, etc., which due also to their complexity are then not filled in correctly, are misunderstood or misinterpreted.

When it comes to Albanian linguists ambiguity has been defined only in recent works mainly in paper works and dictionaries. The word 'ambiguity' in Albanian like in English comes from the Latin word *Ambigu – ātis*. Ambiguity in Albanian means 'doubt, uncertainty, double meaning', Lacaj, H. & Fishta, F. (2004; 44). While, according to some other scholars ambiguity is defined as – words with dual sense. A university professor, Nesimi (2006; 36) states that the majority of words, in addition to their main meaning could possess other lexical meanings. Regarding Bahri Beci (2005; 51) words in different contexts usually receive different meanings and he names these words as polysemantic words. While, Thomai (2006; 218) identifies that some words are bisemantical so it means that they have direct meaning and figurative meaning. According to Stefi (1961; 22) –“Ambiguity is word's ability to have more than one meaning.

According to Kempson (1977), a sentence is ambiguous if it can be true in quite different circumstances. But this would predict that in all cases where the meaning is unspecified, the sentence in question would be as many ways ambiguous as the contrasting circumstances which that unspecified meaning allowed the sentence to be true in. There is an alternative, equivalent formulation of this definition: that a sentence is ambiguous if it can be simultaneously true and false, relative to the same state of affairs, Kempson, R., (1977: 128.)

Ambiguity however is a semantic phenomenon. Its data are not in evidence for setting up such a level as deep structure. However, on some occasions, the ambiguity involved has different syntactic consequences depending on the interpretation given to the sentence. For example, it is not the ambiguity in the sentence *Visiting relatives can be a nuisance* which is itself evidence for setting up two deep structures: it is the fact that the two interpretations of this sentence have different syntactic properties, in one the -ing form being a gerundive verb form with relatives as the object of that verb, in the other the -ing form being a non-finite present participle with relatives as the subject of the verb. In general then, the defining condition on deep structure concerning ambiguity is not simply that deep structure is the level at which ambiguity is characterised, but that deep structure is the level at which an ambiguous sentence is given more than one (two, three etc.) characterisations if the interpretations of the sentence have different syntactic properties.

Ambiguity as a phenomenon is analyzed in Lexical Semantics and it mainly depends on people. Taking into consideration the fact that you cannot be successful by using only one method, different methods and techniques have to be tried out. Modelling, comparative and analytical methods have to be used in order to describe the notion of ambiguity as well as link the theories related to ambiguity with the corpus of this study thus, trying to compare and contrast it in both relevant languages. A nice combination would be the two techniques and that is subjective and objective ones, worked out with the corpus, and carried out by Georgevic's group test, Georgevic (1982; 70).

Ambiguity, according to Leech (1981), is a property of sentences. An ambiguous sentence may be defined as a sentence which expresses more than one proposition. This reflects a difference between levels of linguistic statement: sentences are syntactic units, whereas propositions are semantic units; ambiguity is a one—many relation between syntax and sense, Leech, G. (1981; 79).

Linguists frequently gather that the ambiguity of a sentence is self-evident to native speakers; but the nature and extent of ambiguity is often far from clear, and has to be explicated by resort to context clues, paraphrase, etc. It is arguable that ambiguity can always be reduced to a set of basic statements of the kinds that we have already recognized. For instance, to show why *William is drawing a horse* is ambiguous, I would say that in one sense it is synonymous with (1)

William is drawing a picture of a horse and that in another sense it is synonymous with (2) *William is riding a horse*. The ambiguity is then evident from the fact that (1) and (2) are not synonymous with each other. Since ambiguity in this way can be explained in terms of more basic, truth-based notions, it is probably best excluded from the categories of basic statements. This is not to deny that, informally, linguists often rely on the recognition of ambiguities in the formulation of analyses.

If ambiguity is a one—many relation between sentence and sense, it might be argued that synonymy is the opposite phenomenon, viz. a one—many relation between sense and sentence. On this basis, it would be appropriate to say that two *sentences* are synonymous (say *William is drawing a horse* and *William is riding a horse*) in that they express the same proposition. But if propositions are meanings of sentences, then it would seem illogical to say that two propositions are synonymous, i.e. that two meanings have the same meaning. Notice, however, that we cannot simply define synonymy as sense-equivalence between sentences, since we shall often have to say (as in the example of *William is drawing a horse*) that two sentences are synonymous only with respect to a certain sense.

In the following sentence we omit the preposition *of*.

- 1) William reminded him that he owed us ten Euros.

Leaving out the preposition in this sentence is in accordance with a very general rule of expression which omits prepositions where their inclusion would result in an ill-formed sentence (here, before a finite relative clause: (*William reminded of him that he owed us ten Euros**). Syntactic elements such as subject and object have neutral or un-marked positions in the clause; normally, for instance, a Subject precedes a verb, and an Object follows it. It seems that this ordering is not determined arbitrarily, but that certain general principles are at work in the choice of linearization. One of them is that, in a relative opposition, it is the 'dominant' term which is normally expressed first.

According to Gillon, in the case where the ambiguous expression is either a phrase or a sentence, the phrase markers mapped onto it are non-trivial, each consisting of more than one node; in the case where the ambiguous expression is a word, the phrase markers mapped onto it are trivial, each consisting of a single node, which includes, among other things, the lexical

address of a lexical entry, Gillon, B.S. (1990; 180). Ambiguity often permits sentences, for a fixed state of affairs, to be both truly affirmed and truly denied. Indeed, this fact constitutes a test for ambiguity. If, for a fixed state of affairs, the sentence can be truly affirmed, then at least one of the disjuncts holds; and if, for the same fixed state of affairs, it can be truly denied, then neither of them holds. But semantic theory prohibits this, on pain of its inconsistency. In other words, the test for ambiguity is inconsistent with the demands of the truth definition. So, the disjunctive treatment of ambiguity is empirically inadequate. The fact that ambiguity often permits a sentence to be both truly affirmed and truly denied of a fixed state of affairs is no longer problematic. After all, truth is a property primarily of phrase markers and only derivatively of the sentences which express them. The same sentence can be both truly affirmed and truly denied of the fixed state of affairs because at least two distinct phrase markers, one of which the state of affairs makes true and the other of which it makes false, are mapped onto the same sentence.

In his *Seven Types of Ambiguity*, Empson deliberately relates to pun and says that if a pun is quite obvious it would not ordinarily be called ambiguous, because there is no room for puzzling. But if an irony is calculated to deceive a section of its readers I think it would ordinarily be called ambiguous. An ambiguity, in ordinary speech, means something very pronounced, and as a rule witty or deceitful, Empson, W. (2004; 1).

An ambiguity, then, is not satisfying in itself, nor is it, considered as a device on its own, a thing to be attempted; it must' in each case arise from, and be justified by, the peculiar requirements of the situation. On the other hand, it is a thing which the more interesting and valuable situations are more likely to justify. Thus the practice of '*trying not to be ambiguous*' has a great deal to be said for it, the phrase '*trying not to be ambiguous*' is itself very indefinite and treacherous; it involves problems of all kinds as to what a someone can try to do, how much of his activity he is conscious of, and how much of his activity he could become conscious of if he tried. The sciences might be expected to diminish the ambiguity of language, both because of their tradition of clarity and because much of their jargon has, if not only one meaning, at any rate only one setting and point of view. But such words are not in general use; they only act as a further disturbing influence on the words used already. Sometimes the ambiguous

phrase/sentence is a relative clause, with 'that' omitted, which is able to appear for a moment as an independent sentence on its own, before it is fitted into the grammar, e.g;

- 2) The man who/whom I met at the door is my brother.
- 3) The man I met at the door is my brother.

The relative pronoun here can be omitted because the clause is a defining one.

The spectrum of phenomena of ambiguity (in the wider sense) includes the following; lexical ambiguity (homonymy, polysemy, multiplicity of use) ambiguity as to the range of application (quantifiers, quantifying adverbs) referential ambiguity (pronouns, definite descriptions, indexical adverbs) elliptical ambiguity (certain predicates with multiple argument positions) functional ambiguity syntactically induced ambiguity, ambiguity (in the wider sense) only arises in the framework of truth-conditional semantics when the readings of an expression compete at a certain point; indefiniteness only arises where truth and falseness are both possible. Ambiguity in the narrow sense occurs if and only if an expression does not have a most comprehensive reading.

If one must work with potentially ambiguous structures, one had better consider a wide range of exemplars in order to rule out such possible confounds, Schütze, C. (1996; 165).

- 4) Joanna takes life seriously, but Anita *lightly*.
- 5) Joanna takes life seriously, but Anita takes *life lightly*.

The processes of perception are involved to some extent in rendering acceptability intuitions, since a sentence must be apprehended in some sense in order to be adjudged acceptable, ambiguous, etc.

It is also known by far that even a phonic expression is mapped onto a graphic one by rules of phonetic transcription (unless, of course, the orthography of the language is ideographic and not phonetic). The fact is that often more than one phrase marker is mapped onto the same expression. When this happens, there is ambiguity. Usually, if ambiguity is described in this way, one thinks of phrasal ambiguity.

- 6) The mother picked up the children [= stop for]
- 7) The police picked up the drug dealer [= arrest]
- 8) The student picked up a new language [= acquire/learn]
- 9) The gentleman picked up the young lady [= make contact with]

- 10) The editor picked up the errors [= notice]
- 11) Anne picked up dinner [= buy]

In their Journal both L. Frazier and K. Rayner show that each activated category of an ambiguous word must be compared with the syntactic analysis assigned to preceding items to determine whether that category provides a grammatically permissible continuation of the sentence fragment, and, if so, a representation of that analysis must be held in memory, Frazier & Rayner, (1987, 507).

Ambiguities resulting from category ambiguities of individual input items differ from ambiguities in the syntactic analysis of unambiguous input items in another very important respect, suggesting yet another alternative. It has long been recognized that ambiguities in the syntactic analysis of categorially unambiguous words are often resolved non-locally, and they may be disambiguated by any of a large variety of types of evidence. By contrast, categorical ambiguities tend to be resolved locally and superficially, often by the category of the immediately following word. According to this fact, there might well be advantages to be gleaned from delaying decisions about how to incorporate categorially ambiguous items into the syntactic structure. Further, given the empirical findings suggesting that all lexical entries corresponding to an input are activated during lexical access, it is quite possible that the processor delays syntactic integration of new input items (until disambiguating information is encountered) under circumstances where alternative (stored) representations of an input are activated, but immediately incorporates new items into a constituent structure representation of preceding items when the basic syntactic category of an item can be unambiguously determined.

- 12) The warehouse fires. . . .

The word warehouse occurs most often as a noun, though it has a derivative usage as an adjective form as in the (b) form of Sentences (2) and (3)

- 13) a. The warehouse fires numerous employees each year.
b. The warehouse fires harm some employees each year.
- 14) a. This warehouse fires numerous employees each year.
b. These warehouse fires harm some employees each year.

It is conspicuous that in both sentences disambiguation occurs due to the ambiguous word *fire* which in the first sentence implies; *fire – dismiss* (from work) whereas in the second it implies just fire in its literal sense harming or injuring workers. Though the main prediction about the ambiguous words concerns the entire region (i.e., both words) taking longer in the disambiguated than the ambiguous forms, differences between the two disambiguated forms might also be expected due to the earlier disambiguation of the adjective-noun forms. That is, the number conflict (these warehouses) is apparent on the first ambiguous word only in the adjective-noun forms; in the disambiguated noun-verb forms, the number conflict is only apparent when the second ambiguous word is encountered. That is, this warehouse does not disambiguate, so that it is only when *fires* is reached that the processor will know how to structure the ambiguous phrase.

Let us take the following examples where *desert train* acts ambiguity in different contexts. *Desert trains*, for example, may be interpreted as trains found in the desert, made in the desert, associated with the desert, etc.

- 15) I know that the desert trains young people to be especially tough.
- 16) I know that the desert trains are especially tough on young people.
- 17) I know that this desert trains young people to be especially tough.
- 18) I know that these desert trains are especially tough on young people.

The first two sentences provide the difference between train used as a verb and train used as a noun. In the other two sentences a comparison is made between the determiners, this and these. The word in each sentence was syntactically ambiguous between a noun and a verb and also semantically ambiguous (i.e., the meaning of the noun and the verb were not systematically related). An attempt was made to exclude ambiguous items where one entry was clearly subordinate to the other, items with clear third dominant entries, and items where the alternative entries differed in terms of their phonological or orthographic representations.

In order to qualify for an ambiguity, an expression must be able to generate not only ‘at least two different meanings’, but also two incompatible meanings. It is only then that one would produce an expression that is truly ambiguous. As metaphors and picturesque models are the best way to present difficult intuitions in a more graspable form, the picture that perhaps most clearly

depicts the common-sense understanding of an ambiguous expression is the picture of ‘duck-rabbit’. As one could see the ‘elderly-lady’ picture as elderly as well as a lady, though a normal picture of elderly is incompatible with a normal picture of lady, so one could read an ambiguity in two incompatible ways. Notice that this picture could be interpreted both as an elderly and a lady, at different times.

It must be realized and noted that the concept of ambiguity as an effect of ignorance on the part of interpreters implies a charitable approach by an interpreter to the interpreted. Instead of claiming that ambiguity carries inside itself two factual (and incompatible) meanings, by attributing the use of ambiguity to the interpreted, the interpreter understands ambiguity as a source of two potential, equally plausible but mutually incompatible meanings between which s/he, due to her perhaps temporary ignorance, cannot decide. She does not imply that the interpreted uttered a sheer contradiction and thus expressed two incompatible beliefs that can be then dismissed as a sheer non sense or the absence of meaning.

It needs to be emphasized that materiality, potentiality, ignorance, and charity are four key elements of the concept of ambiguity, Pehar, D. (2005; 19). The problem with ambiguity lies in the fact that we are ignorant of its exact meaning though we know which meanings it carries potentially.

Without having some descriptions of all those elements we are not in a position to attribute ambiguousness to a pattern of language. However, most importantly, such complete description of ambiguity must not be ambiguous. The units entering such a description must be semantically shared, unambiguous, and acceptable by all the concerned; an ambiguous description of an ambiguity would prevent us from posing a plausible claim that it is an ambiguity. For example, an ambiguous description of my classmate’s interpretative hypothesis for *I’d like to open this door*, or an ambiguous description of my own interpretative hypothesis for *I’d like to open this door*, would make it impossible for me to justify my claim that my classmate’s utterance needs to be categorised as ambiguous under the circumstance. Ambiguity rests on an unambiguous, reasoned, and justified description, which means that its very description does realise the values of language/communication.

It is very important to emphasize that a phonic expression is mapped onto a graphic one by rules of phonetic transcription (unless, of course, the orthography of the language is

ideographic and not phonetic). Usually, if ambiguity is described in this way, one thinks of phrasal ambiguity.

Entries or items of any vocabulary fail to match perfectly the items that are subject of their reference, and that is also why we use a single language-item to refer to many dissimilar and mutually incompatible world-items. In other words, the supply shortage in words makes their average value higher, but it also leaves the consumer needs unmet.

In conclusion, it is obvious that ambiguity can be defined in various ways by different linguists. Of course ambiguity occurs in a single word as well as in a whole phrase. When linguists try to disambiguate a word or a phrase, they provide different interpretations and certainly they contextualize to make a correlation with their definitions. In order to provide their definitions, dictionaries refer to the origin of the word rather than their analytic process. Ambiguity is a linguistic phenomenon where implications take place because of notional and conceptual contrast and its resolution depends on individual linguistic knowledge rather than intuition. Being a semantic phenomenon, it requires an attention in the way parts of speech are identified and used with their characteristic properties. When it comes to ambiguity as a concept and notion we should know that it is a matter of syntax and sense. No matter how we assume or surmise the ambiguous sentence, it is syntax which determines and preserves its essential meaning. Ambiguity occurs in every social aspect and the more capable of disambiguating your parlor, the more productive your conversation.

Chapter VI

Ambiguity of English and Albanian Prepositions in Sentences

Mastering the use of prepositions in English, in both speaking and writing, is one of the most difficult tasks that students and learners face. Prepositions pose problems not only to lower-level learners but also to the more advanced ones. Beginners who start learning English face the same problem, needing to search the best way to use English prepositions, which are sometimes not easy due to their multiple meanings, Bratož, S. (2015; 325).

The English prepositions, for example, from being used in so many ways and in combination with so many verbs, have acquired not so much a number of meanings as a body of meaning continuous in several dimensions, Lindner, S. (1983; 198-199); a tool-like quality, at once thin, easy to the hand, and weighty, which a mere statement of their variety does not convey. If the prepositions were being used in quite distinct senses, one for each word, the effect would be a conscious one, and irrelevant to the dramatic moments concerned.

With the development of linguistics, prepositions have been targeted by many linguists of the modern world, Brestovci, M. & Osmani, T. S. (2017; 692). A deep insight was made into the structure, which in some respects clarified features that were not present before¹. All this came as a result of the prevailing opinion on prepositions, being of a very questionable nature and bearing a dichotomy as both lexical and functional².

It has been recognized that the students face difficulty in interpreting prepositions and especially when they belong to ambiguous structure and generally, on such occasions, they have to take the general meaning which can be understood from the sequence of words, Boers, F. & Demecheleer, M. (1998; 197-198). For instance, prepositional phrases like ‘the girl hit the boy with the book’ in which the prepositional phrase (PP) can be attached either to the verb phrase (VP) or to the preceding noun phrase (NP). These ambiguities are structural because each such

phrase can be represented in two structurally different ways, like for example; ‘[English history] teacher’ and ‘English [history teacher]’. Indeed, the existence of such ambiguities provides strong evidence for a level of underlying syntactic structure, M. MacDonald, N. Pearlmuter, M. Seidenberg (1994; 681).

Words like; *bed-room*, *water-tank*, and *dining-table* seem to have more than one lexical root. These are atypical and for many of them it is possible to argue that the apparent roots are not fully autonomous, semantically, but form a fused root. Some other words have no lexical roots at all and these are the so-called *grammatical words* like *this*, *and*, and, in particular, in our case study, prepositions (*of*, *in*, *to*, *by*, etc.).

In the study and definition of ambiguities of prepositions or words in general, we think that it is necessary to be to some degree more precise about what we mean by a word. In one sense, *agree*, *agrees*, *agreeing*, and *agreed* are different words; in another sense, they are merely different forms of the same word (and one would not expect them to have separate entries in a dictionary). On the other hand, *agree* and *disagree* are different words in both senses, whereas *bear* (animal) and *bear* (endure) are the same word for crossword purposes, but we would expect them to have separate dictionary entries and they are therefore different words in the second sense.

Some of the ambiguities originate in the peculiarities of the register of headlines, especially its elliptical nature. Features of newspaper headline register can range from the deliberate use of rhetoric devices, such as alliteration and rhyme, to the creation of sensational phrases to attract the readers’ attention.

Ambiguity is very practical with phrases and this in combination with other parts of speech. Now, we turn to a few of the ambiguities among the post-nominal modifiers. In the English system of modification, it is mainly word-group modifiers that follow the noun head. The types that we shall deal with are these: prepositional phrase, relative clause, participial phrase (present and past), appositive, modified adjective and adverbial. When two such modifiers occur, there is the danger that the second one may refer to something else as well as to the noun head. The first case is a standard arrangement in English, and students frequently run afoul of it. Albanian learners of English or students encounter difficulties in disambiguating prepositional phrases in various sentences. On many occasions they provide literal translation even in very simple sentences. Of course ambiguity caused by the presence of prepositional

phrases makes it rather difficult and this is particularly because modifiers in these clauses (with prepositional phrases) may misplace because of grammatical irrelevance or structural change.

Noun head + prepositional phrase + relative clause

- 1) The life of a movie star that the public sees.

Noun head + relative clause + prepositional phrase (inverted)

This pattern of modifiers is just the reverse of the normal order, which we saw in the preceding situation, and offers a great likelihood of ambiguity. The possibilities are that the prepositional phrase may modify something in the relative clause, or the noun head, or something preceding the noun head, usually the verb.

- 2) I was talking about the books I had read in the library.

This could mean was talking in the library, books in the library or had read in the library.

Noun head + prepositional phrase + prepositional phrase

Here the second prepositional phrase might be thought to modify the object of the preposition in the first phrase instead of the noun head.

- 3) That review of a book by Kadare is very enlightening.

Noun head + prepositional phrase + adverbial of time or place

- 4) The party after the game yesterday

- 5) The bottle on the table there

Noun head + relative clause + appositive

- 6) The man who shot grandfather, a poacher, was brought to court.

Noun head + infinitive phrase + prepositional phrase

- 7) Attempts to break strikes by Negroes

Noun head + participial phrase + relative clause

8) There is also a theater located near the business district which is crowded every night.

With the post-nominals, as was the case with the pre-nominals, a coordinating conjunction between two noun heads can create confusion.

Noun (head) + “and” + noun head + prepositional phrase

9) Excellent introductory text and captions in English, Albanian and Italian.

Noun head in object-of-verb position + present participle + prepositional phrase

The situation can embody an especially delicate ambiguity that can best be approached by example;

10) They found the boy studying in the library, Spasič, M.D. (2012; 238).

Ambiguity stands for the possibility of the linguistic units (lexical units, phrases, clauses and sentences) that can be expressed in the way in which these units have more than one meaning or more than one function which is already known as a concept. This possibility in the linguistic and syntactic units occurs as a consequence of the fact that the number of notions which the linguistic and syntactic units are supposed to cover is high. In order to perform the syntactic functions in an endless number of sentences, lexical units have more than one meaning. The same applies to phrases and clauses.

As far as sentences are concerned, there are two options, Spasič, M.D. (2012; 242):

A sentence can limit its potential of meanings of the sentence constituents to only one meaning

11) I *walked* along the bank yesterday. (The river bank)

A sentence can have more than one meaning

12) The bank is the scene of the crime. (the river bank and the bank where people get money)

The second option offers an ambiguous sentence. Therefore, the term ambiguity also applies to the ambiguity of sentences. Two conditions must be fulfilled: semantic and syntactic. The sentence He touched the patient with cold hands is ambiguous because:

a) The semantic content of the prepositional phrase with cold hands refers both to the verb touched and the noun phrase the patient

b) The same prepositional phrase functions both as a modifier of the verb touched and as a modifier of the noun phrase the patient.

In the Interpretation of a Syntactic Ambiguity in English, Gorgevic, R. (1982; 68-69), states that although ambiguity is a totally normal and natural phenomenon, it is usually viewed as ‘a defective function of signs, as an enemy, an uncertainty, a logical of grammatical disorder’.
e.g.

13) He told the story and laughed with gusto.

14) He told the story with gusto and laughed with gusto

15) He told the story and then laughed with gusto.

In this sentence, there is the prepositional phrase with gusto functioning as an adverb of manner. This sentence has two meanings because the prepositional phrase with gusto modifies both the verb told and the verb laughed in the first case, and only the verb laughed in the second.

Ambiguity can very well occur in Headlines. And headlines, according to Bucaria, C. (2004; 281), may feature specific strategies used to create humor, such as the use of puns and intertextuality both by means of quotations and culture-specific references. Although it is virtually impossible to distinguish between headlines presenting voluntary and involuntary humor, it is worth noticing that most headlines appear as involuntarily ambiguous, with one meaning originally intended by the authors and the other humorous meaning added by an unfortunate phrasing of that particular piece of information.

No theoretical significance is attached to the original intention to produce an ambiguous headline; in other words, whether the writer intended the headline to be funny or it just happened to be that way is irrelevant on the significance of intentionality for humor.

Prepositions can be found in a few cases as sources of humor, Charina, N. I. (2017; 120-121), e.g.

16) How to buy a \$ 450 000 home *for* only \$ 750 000?!

In this example, humor is created by confusion between two of the main meanings of the preposition 'for'. The serious version of the headline is about someone who might be interested in buying a house. Anyone may wonder how eccentric sounds for someone who cannot afford to buy a house less, where instead he/she is offered a higher price. Here the preposition 'for' is exploited to create the humorous aspect for an eye snaring of the newspaper headline especially when the preposition follows *only* which emphasizes rather than imagined the atmosphere created between the two prices.

The following are examples presenting an ambiguous use of the preposition '*by* and *in*':

- 17) Bank Drive-in Window Blocked *by* Board.
- 18) Killed *by* condom.
- 19) Albanian Union Finds Dwarfs *in* Short Supply.

In (a) ambiguity is noticed between the meaning of '*by*' as expressing the agent of the passive sentence and '*by* means of' indicating the instrument of the action. In other words, if the sentence is seen as the passive form of the active 'Board Blocked Bank Drive-in Window' i.e. the intended meaning of the headline, then the preposition expresses agency. On the other hand, if the active sentence is the more improbable, 'Someone blocked bank drive-in window', '*by*' assumes the contextually humorous meaning of instrument.

Example (b), too, presents the agency meaning of '*by*,' which this time is found in the humorous version of the headline, as opposed to the intended spatial meaning. In this case, the agency meaning of the preposition is of course made unlikely by the inanimate nature of the noun 'condom', according to which a condom is able to perform the action, implying someone being found near a condom (creating the suspicious scene the way someone might have been killed), and also using the preposition simply as a passive still affecting the humorous aspect with the meaning that someone had a bad experience because of condom.

It is interesting to notice that in (c) below the meaning of the preposition '*in*' varies depending on the meaning assigned to that particular noun. If 'short supply' is interpreted in the legal sense, then '*in*' has the meaning of 'during' or 'in the context of,' while if the noun is seen as indicating the absence or lack of something, then the preposition assumes the meaning of

‘within, into’. In this case, though, ambiguity is not caused by the preposition itself alone, but its semantic shift is a consequence of the lexical ambiguity of the noun.

With regard to prepositions Saeed says that different prepositions allow different characterizations of spatial relations, Saeed, J. (2003; 381). If we compare two prepositions, *on* and *in* for example in English, we may come across different conceptualizations chosen between individual speakers or between dialects. In Irish English, some people, speaking of an item of news, might say, for instance, *She was on the paper the day before yesterday*, while others might say *in the paper*, Feist, I. M. (2004; 1), e.g.

- 20) He heard it *on* the radio.
- 21) He heard it *in* the radio.
- 22) She lay *on* her bed.
- 23) She lay *in* her bed.

Thus, in the above examples, it may sound ambiguous what it causes in someone’s mind the difference between *on* the radio and *in* the radio, on her bed and in her bed. It is not simply distinguishing them lexically, but disambiguating ambiguous contexts if in another language it may be used idiomatically or deliberately to create puns.

Different prepositions can produce ambiguity in different constructions with just another part of speech. Let’s have a look at the following construction to exemplify it;

PATTERN V – N – PP – PP

Ambiguity of sentences belonging to this group is shown either when the second prepositional phrase in the sentence modifies the object of the preposition or it modifies the verb. The best way to understand this is to take a look at the following examples:

- 24) She prepared the girl for the exam in June.
- 25) She prepared the girl in June – The exam was in June.

In this sentence there are two prepositional phrases – for the exam and in June. In the first interpretation, prepositional phrase in June modifies the object of preposition the exam. In the

second interpretation, prepositional phrase in June modifies the verb prepared. They were arguing at the end of semester – The exams were at the end of semester.

Here again there are two prepositional phrases – about exam terms and at the end of the first semester. In the first interpretation the prepositional phrase at the end of the first semester modifies the object of preposition exam terms. In the second interpretation the prepositional phrase at the end of the first semester modifies the verb arguing. As it has already been mentioned, the syntactic ambiguity can be seen in those ambiguous sentences in which semantic and syntactic features play an important role. These semantic and syntactic features are responsible for achieving the ambiguity. The syntactic features make a sentence potentially ambiguous, while semantic features are a condition which, if existing, initiates the realization of ambiguity and the sentence has more than one meaning in a particular syntactic structure.

In comprehending ambiguous sentences, syntax and semantics have an equal status. They are of equal importance when disambiguating ambiguous sentences. Also, the meaning of the constituents in ambiguous sentences is more important than their functions. The question that remains is: which component is more powerful – syntactic or semantic?

Not much has been done by Albanian scholars or linguists regarding ambiguity of prepositions in our language. Certainly, Ambiguity of prepositions plays an important part in everyday speech but treating them specifically in an ambiguous way has rather been a matter of perception rather than how they are used in nominal cases or simply how they are formed and where do they occur. School books and dictionaries evenly provide different definitions for prepositions but they're not far conceptually.

According to Gramatika e Gjuhës Shqipe (1995), prepositions are non-inflecting words typically employed to connect a noun a number or a pronoun, showing syntactic subordinate relations between them in a specific case or some other pattern; Gramatika e Gjuhës Shqipe (1995;381). So, it is obvious that ambiguity will occur when we use them with these parts of speech. Let us now see some instances how prepositions influence our perception when they are used in this way. Here it is how some of the prepositions are used ambiguously in Albanian and if it sounds the same in English or any other language.

26) a) E kishte shkruajtur emrin *në* fletore me ngjyra.

b) He had written his name *on* a coloured notebook.

The meaning of the sentence adopted in English with the preposition *në* (*in*) and *me* (*with*) English provides no ambiguity but the sentence can be disambiguated by inverting the patterns; *me ngjyra në fletore*, which in fact fits the English sentence provided above. So the sentence in Albanian *E kishte shkruajtur emrin me ngjyra në fletore* causes no ambiguity, but the sentence above can be understood in two ways just because of the prepositions, e.g.

27) a) *E kishte shkruajtur emrin në fletore (me ngjyra)*. And

b) *kishte shkruajtur emrin (në fletore me ngjyra)*.

In the first sentence *me ngjyra* (*with colours*) it just implies the object he used to write his name, whereas in the second (*në fletore me ngjyra*) it implies that the notebook is coloured only and not the object he used to write. On such occasions in order to disambiguate the situation created by the two prepositions *me ngjyra* is used as an adjective and not as a noun in accusative with the preposition *with*.

The following sentence can be analyzed very approximately;

28) *E kishin pare të largohej nga vendi me kamer*.

a) They had seen him leave the place *with* the camera. Or

b) They had seen him leave the place *by/via* a camera.

So, in English the use of preposition *with* or *by* may very well provide the difference between them. In Albanian the two prepositions cause ambiguity (*nga* and *me* both in accusative). This sentence can be interpreted in these ways.

29) *E kishin pare me kamer të largohej nga vendi*.

This is the sentence which certainly, causes no ambiguity and this can be interpreted with the above sentence in English; *They had seen him leave the place by a camera*. But in Albanian there exist a double interpretation for *E kishin pare të largohej nga vendi me kamer* just because of the ambiguity the prepositions cause. Above all, an interpretation of the sentence can be related as if they used a camera to track him, and in the other interpretation, they had watched him having a camera (probably stolen).

There's another way we see Albanian prepositions work out ambiguously. And that is the case when they are used idiomatically, in different proverbs or just expressions. Let's take for example the following instances and the ambiguity caused by the prepositions; e.g.

30) I kishte rënë në qafë.

If literally translated, the meaning of the sentence does not look like that much different, because all the comprising words sound Ok. But the use of the preposition *në* which can be interpreted in English in various ways causes ambiguity in the sentence and in fact if we leave the preposition out the sentence changes the whole meaning and it would be dative and not accusative when declined. Thus, the sentence would be interpreted;

31) I kishte rënë në qafë.

32) He/she had hit him/her on the neck (literally translated)

In fact it is quite embarrassing when we see that its meaning has nothing to do with a concrete action but with an abstract one. Thus in English this sentence can be adopted as;

Go for the jugular

This expression can be defined as an attack of a vital and vulnerable trait, feature, element etc, in an attempt to overcome somebody or something swiftly and softly. As can be seen, the preposition *në* in Albanian finds its equivalent *for* in English.

Let us have a look at another Albanian expression and see what implications are there when we just change the preposition, e.g.

34) Nuk don njeri mbi veten

Like the expression above, the meaning of the sentence literally translated into English is not pointless. It certainly makes sense. But, there are two very important things I would like to emphasize here. 1) What does it really stand for in English? 2.) What would happen, if we changed or substituted the preposition with another one? Let's stick to the first one.

Literally translated into English we would have;

35) He/she does not love anyone above himself/herself.

And if we try to provide the English equivalent for expression, we would have;

36) He/ she does not love the others more than himself/herself.

As such, everyone may realize the difference between the two, and of course it would be very embarrassing for anyone using it. But, let's see what happens when we substitute the preposition with another one.

So, the preposition *mbi*;

37) Nuk don njeri *mbi* veten. Substituted with *nën*, thus;

38) Nuk don njeri *nën* veten

We already got acquainted with its meaning in English in the sentence above. Again for the sentence,

39) Nuk don njeri *nën* veten

We would have the literal translation

40) He/she does not love anyone *under* himself/herself; of course this is not pointless, too.

But, again, in Albanian like in the previous one, it simply implies a controversial sense just because of prepositional change. So, if in the first he/she does not love anyone more than himself/herself, here in fact, he/she loves the others more than he does himself/herself, and it is a big difference, so far.

As the above, we always need to find a solution for every instance and situation, and different scholars provide different ways of resolving the issue by processing or disambiguating the sentences.

The nature of the human sentence processing mechanism (the parser) has been a main focus of research in the field of sentence comprehension and syntactic ambiguity resolution has been claimed to offer a way to investigate the mechanisms that underlie the operation of the parser Frazier, (1979).

The V-NP-PP ambiguity involves possible attachment of a PP either to the preceding VP or to the preceding NP and can be illustrated in structures such as, e.g.

41) The girl hit the boy with the apple.

In V-NP-PP sequences such as (1), the ambiguity lies in the possibility of attaching the PP with the apple either to the preceding verb hit denoting the instrument of the action described by the verb, or to the preceding NP boy, as a modifier of the NP.

PP attachment ambiguities have been extensively examined in studies which mainly focus on English data. One of the first studies that investigated PP attachment ambiguities were conducted by Rayner et al. (1983) in structures such as:

42) a) The spy saw the cop with binoculars but the cop didn't see him.

b) The spy saw the cop with a revolver but the cop didn't see him.

Rayner et al. (1983) presented sentences such as (42a) and (42b) in an on-line eye-tracking study and claimed that the initial processing difficulty that readers experience in sentences such as (42b) can be explained on the grounds of Minimal Attachment. More specifically, sentence (42a) allows the parser to immediately integrate the incoming PP into the VP but sentence (42b) does not, thus causing a re-analysis of the structure.

We find sentences far more ambiguous than one might really think. There can be a lot of syntactic parse trees for certain natural sentences of English. The majority of the parsers find the set of parse trees by starting with the empty set and adding to that each time they find a new possibility. In different and also certain situations it would be much more appropriate to work in the other direction, starting from the universal set (that is the set of all binary trees) and ruling trees out when the parser decides that they cannot be parses.

Church and Patil (1982) emphasize that ruling-out is easier when the set of parse trees is closer to the universal set and that ruling-in is easier when the set of parse trees is closer to the empty set. Ruling out is particularly suited for "*every way ambiguous*" constructions such as prepositional phrases that have just as many parse trees as there are binary trees over the terminal elements. Since every tree is a parse, the parser doesn't have to rule any of them out, Church and Patil, (1982; 139).

Our experience indicates that there may be dozens and dozens of syntactic parse trees for any sentence and to clarify that, let us now provide examples with just two prepositional phrases, e.g.

42) Put the suit in the suitcase on the rack.

Which has two interpretations:

43) a. Put the suit[in the suitcase on the rack]

44) b. Put [the suit in the suitcase] on the rack.

There is no doubt that these syntactic ambiguities grow ‘combinatorially’ with the number of prepositional phrases. For instance, when a third PP is added to the sentence above, other interpretations will be:

- a) Put the suit [[in the suitcase on the rack] in the closet].
- b) Put the suit [in the suitcase [on the rack in the closet]].
- c) Put [[the suit in the suitcase] on the rack] in the closet.
- d) Put [the suit [in the suitcase on the rack]] in the closet.
- e) Put [the suit in the suitcase] [on the rack in the closet].

It can be observed in particular that enumerating the parse trees as above fails to capture the important generalization that prepositional phrases are *every way ambiguous*, or better saying, the set of parse trees over certain PPs is the same as the set of binary trees that may be constructed over certain terminal elements.

Pps, adjuncts, conjuncts, noun-noun modification, stack relative clauses, and other ‘*every way ambiguous*’ can be combined in various ways to produce composite constructions, such as lexical ambiguity, which may also be very ambiguous but not necessarily *every way ambiguous*. The difference between prepositional phrases and conjunction could be accounted for by

modifying the interpretation of the PP category label, so that the trees would be interpreted correctly even though they are not exactly correct.

In lexical ambiguity we can decompose in parallel, which can be very useful dealing with, as in

45) ...to total with items close to profits...

total here can be used as a noun or as a verb, as in:

46) The business executive brought the weekly sales to total with items close to profits arranged according to the regulation. *Noun*

47) The weekly sales were ready for the business executive to total with items near profits arranged according to the regulation. *Verb*

Surmising that "total" is a noun, there are three prepositional phrases contributing 3 bracketings, and assuming it is a verb, there are two prepositional phrases for Cat x ambiguities. Combining the two cases produces 7 parses. Adding another prepositional phrase yields 19 parses.

Many scholars, Khawalda, I. M. & Al-Saidat, M. E. (2012; 3-4), have investigated the resolution of prepositional phrase (PP) ambiguities in sentences such as 'The policeman watched the spy with binoculars', Fromkin, V. & Rodman, R. & Hyams, N. (2013; 9-10). The PP 'with binoculars' can either be interpreted as modifying the verb (watched) to be 'The policeman (VP watched (NP the spy) ((PP with binoculars)))' or the post verbal noun phrase (the spy) as in 'The policeman (VP watched (NP the spy (PP with binoculars)))'. The study shows that when sentences such as the one above presented in isolation, native speakers of English tend to prefer the VP modification over the NP modification reading. That is, grammatical constraints (as many scholars and linguists define) and other factors may affect the attachment preference of PP. For instance, the PP in a sentence like 'Bill glanced at the customer with strong suspicion' is attached to the verb, whereas the PP in 'Bill glanced at the customer with ripped jeans' is attached to the preceding NP.

On such occasions we have to realize the difficulty which comes out when we try to disambiguate or parse the sentence, but of course it is necessary if we are aware with the consequences coming out of a wrong misunderstanding and misinterpretation of prepositions

producing ambiguity of even the whole sentence. It is very important to emphasize that the linguistic information someone has in a language, designates sometimes the amount of gaps or aberrations produced in a sentence. The less the information, the higher the gaps or aberrations produced, and the vice versa; the higher the information the less the gaps and aberrations produced in the sentence. L2 learners find it more complicated, of course, and this because of what I mentioned above.

It can be concluded that students and learners of English as a second language (L2) exhibit difficulty in processing different types of ambiguous sentences. The most problematic in processing sentences or disambiguating them, remain prepositional phrases. No matter of scientific or academic research to overcome this issue in order to make them accessible to students or learner of English, the phenomenon exists. Ambiguity caused in different sentences arises when learners are not aware of the lexical interpretations, the way they try to give a definition by a random perception which of course leads to error ensuing thus to negative transfer. Prepositional phrases should be studied in particular in order to avoid unpleasant situations they might produce.

Chapter VII

Ambiguity in Lexical Semantics

All of us are necessarily interested in meaning. We wonder about the meaning of a new word. Sometimes we are not sure about the message we ought to get from something we read or hear, and we are concerned about getting our own messages across to others. We enjoy jokes, which often depend for their humor on double meanings of words or ambiguities in sentences.

Words, according to Ogden and Richards, mean nothing by themselves, although the belief that they did, was once equally universal. It is only when a thinker makes use of them that they stand for anything, or, in one sense, have meaning. They are instruments, Ogden and Richards, (1965; 9).

We often derive more meaning from what we hear or read than what is in fact in the message. Probably this is due to an intuition we have or to the fact that the speaker or writer concludes something—hints at some further meaning. In semantics we are not concerned in intuitions or hints but we are interested in the instances when the language of the message implicates some extra meaning that accounts for our inference.

The notion that every word has a single meaning and every meaning is expressed by just one word is utterly wrong and an obstacle to recognizing the complexities in meaningful expressions and in the meanings expressed, Reddy, M. J. (1979; 168-169).

Semantics, according to Kreidler, is the systematic study of meaning, and linguistic semantics is the study of how languages organize and express meanings, Kreidler, Ch. (1998; 3).

The term semantics according to Palmer, F. (1981) is a recent addition to the English language, it is the technical term used to refer to the study of meaning and it is also a part of linguistics/scientific study of language, Palmer, F., (1981; 1)

Semantics is a component of linguistics of the same kind as phonetics or grammar. Its theory describes and explains the interpretive ability of speakers, accounting for ambiguity, anomaly and paraphrase, e.g.

- 1) a. The needle is too short
b. The needle is not long enough (paraphrasing or synonymous sentence).
- 2) Mandy was looking for the glasses.

Certainly, *glasses* in the second sentence, is the ambiguous word, implying anomaly in the meaning of the sentence.

It is generally argued that the meaning of a sentence or the fact that it is ambiguous can be known in isolation from any context, and that as speakers of a language we must know the meaning of a sentence before we can use it in any given context. To get familiar to ambiguity we should have the appropriate information. An example is *The strike is over*. This is clearly ambiguous - it has two 'readings' resulting from the two meanings of *strike*. The sentence can, however, be 'disambiguated', i.e. either of its two readings can be established if we extend it with . . . workers may go back to work now. This extension is, of course, possible only with one of the meanings of strike.

Both words and sentences can have more than one meaning and the semantic rules a linguist sets must state them correctly for each language. Let's take the word *good* and consider the sentence: *She has good legs*. This can either mean that she has healthy legs (no disease, not broken, no weak ankles, etc.), or it can mean that she has beautiful legs, or it can mean that she has legs which function well (as an athlete's, say, or a gymnast's, or indeed if the object referred to is a horse her legs may be understood to function Well from the point of view of racing). It can be granted that the word good may be used in sentences with different interpretations where the difference lies solely in the basis of the evaluation that has been used to make.

Oaks (1994: 378) defines lexical ambiguity as conveyed by 'a word with more than one possible meaning in a context'. In particular, the lexical ambiguity that Oaks illustrates without focusing on it in his article is a same-class ambiguity in which, unlike in structural ambiguity, the lexical item does not change part of speech.

There is no reason why language-users ought to be specially attuned to the semantic properties of words. We do not communicate with isolated words; words are not the bearers of messages; they do not, of themselves, 'make sense'; they cannot, be taken singly, be true or false, beautiful, appropriate, paradoxical or original. A linguistic item must in general have at least the

complexity of a simple sentence to show such properties. Words contribute, via their own semantic properties, to the meanings of more complex units, but individually they do not occasion our most vivid and direct experiences of language, Cruse (1986: 9). We communicate with utterances; it seems reasonable to suppose, therefore, that our intuitions concerning utterances will be sharper, clearer and more reliable than those concerning individual words. Speakers' utterances can be made semantically more informative if the investigator is able to constrain their production in various ways, for instance by elicitation in tightly controlled situational context.

Arguments about the meaning of a word will be made to rest on facts concerning utterances which contain the word in question as in the following examples:

- 3) Democratic movements in Albania commenced in the year 1990.
- 4) Democratic movements in Albania began in the year 1990.

The meaning of a typical sentence in a natural language is complex in that it results from the combination of meanings which are in some sense simpler. (The fact that the meanings of sentences are more accessible to intuition than the meanings of words does not alter this.)

These simpler meanings are carried by identifiable parts of the sentence; and the way they must be combined to yield the global meaning of the sentence is indicated by the syntactic structure of the sentence. Thus, the meaning of *'The bird sat on the roof'* is 'the' 'bird' + 'sat' 'on' + 'the' + 'roof' combined in the ways signaled by the syntactic structure, which tells us for instance, that 'on' goes with 'the roof', rather than with 'the bird' and so on. The syntactic structure also defines intermediate complexes such as 'the bird' and 'on the roof', which, when appropriately combined, yield the global meaning of the sentence, but which themselves can be decomposed into more elementary parts. Let us see how the syntactic structure defines the difference of 'a blackbird' and 'a black bird' in the following examples:

- 5) A blackbird sang wonderfully in the maple tree.
- 6) A black bird sang wonderfully in the maple tree.

In sentence 5) the syntactic structure defines a specific bird whereas in the sentence 6) it defines a random bird with black feathers which is not necessarily a blackbird; it might as well be a crow, a raven or a grackle.

The difference between the two contextual effects can perhaps be approached initially by considering two corresponding ways in which a word form, in single context, may be open to more than one interpretation. In the following example *Cousin* and *bank*, respectively, illustrate the difference:

- 7) Jim is visiting his cousin.
- 8) They finally reached the bank.

Cousin in (a) can, of course, refer to either a male or a female cousin. But the sentence can function as a satisfactory communication without either the hearer perceiving, or the speaker intending to convey, anything concerning the sex of the person referred to. This is because *cousin* has a general meaning which covers all the more specific possibilities (not only with regard to sex, but also with regard to an indefinitely large number of other matters, such as height, age, eye-colour, etc.). *Bank* in (b) can also be interpreted in more than one way (e.g. 'margin of river' or 'establishment for the custody of money'); but it has no general meaning covering these possibilities. Furthermore, the interpretation cannot be left undecided: both speaker and hearer must select a reading (the same reading) if the sentence is to play its part in a normal conversational exchange.

We shall say that the word form "cousin" is *general* with respect to the distinction 'male cousin/'female cousin'; 'bank', on the other hand, will be said to be *ambiguous* with respect to the sense distinction 'financial institution'/'side of river'. In other words, the two meanings 'male cousin' and 'female cousin' are both associated with the same lexical unit *cousin*, whose meaning is more general than the other; they therefore do not represent distinct senses of *cousin*. The meanings 'financial institution' and 'side of river', on the other hand, do represent two distinct senses, so there are two lexical units *bank* corresponding to these senses.

One approach to the diagnosis of ambiguity relies on finding for two occurrences of a word form, different relations of meaning with other items, Cruse (1986; 54).

An instance of incomplete contextual determination is to be observed with *dog*. Let's take it as established that *dog* has a general sense, denoting the whole species, irrespective of sex.

- 9) John prefers bitches to dogs.

Now it may be said that the resultant sense of *dog* here is caused by contextual modulation of the general sense: *dog* can in this context refer to females if logical consistency is to be preserved, which leaves not only males as possible referents.

In the following sentence:

- 10) My cousin, who is pregnant, was born on the same day as Laert's, who is the father.

Laert's, refers anaphorically through *cousin*. The context makes it clear that the two cousins are of different sexes (one female cousin is pregnant, whereas the other cousin is a male whose name is Laert); however, the sentence is not zeugmatic, so we may conclude that *cousin* does not have two senses, *male cousin* and *female cousin*.

It is significant to understand that not all sentence ambiguities originate in lexical ambiguity; furthermore, tests for ambiguity are not, in general, capable of distinguishing between lexical and non-lexical varieties. Usually this is not a serious source of practical difficulty, since most cases are intuitively clear; but it is not easy to formulate explicit criteria for recognizing lexical ambiguity.

Lexical semantics is on the whole the study of the meanings of content words, and is oriented principally to the contribution that open-set items make to. Grammatical semantics concentrates on the meanings of closed-set items. However, a strict separation between grammatical and lexical semantics is not possible because the meanings of the two kinds of element interact in complex ways, Cruse (2000; 90).

We agree with the concept that ambiguity itself may be presented as a lexical phenomenon. One source of ambiguity is syntax, as in the sentence *Jane saw the boy with the binoculars*. Many syntactic ambiguities arise from the possibility of alternative constituent structures, Chomsky (1957; 104), as here: *with binoculars* is either a manner of adverbial modifying *saw*, or a prepositional phrase modifying *(the) boy*. In either case there is not any other syntactic difference. An identity constraint operates here, too, in that coordinated items must have identical positions in the constituent structure. Hence, this one has only one reading:

- 11) Jane saw the boy with the binoculars and a cap.

A syntactic ambiguity may involve functional alternation in one or more items. In any specific context of use, a word ought to be said about cases like *The boy entered the house where the boy* and *the house* will designate a particular boy and a particular house, and in a different context, a different boy and a different house. This is not usually recognized as an ambiguity, since there is no evidence that multiple entries will be necessary, either in the mental lexicon, or in any ideal language description. This phenomenon is called pragmatic or open ambiguity, because the number of readings is potentially infinite.

In his study *Metaphor and Its Ties to Ambiguity and Vagueness* David Kaufer refers to four types of ambiguity. It is not my case of study to probate and analyse them but it is quintessential to emphasize and just generalise that his four types of ambiguity fall out from the fact that they can be planned or unplanned and covert or overt, Kaufer (1983:209). These ambiguities are the ones that audiences often detect before speakers do. When we announce that a speaker's message is not deliberately ambiguous, we are suggesting that the speaker has failed to screen unintended but contextually compatible interpretations from his or her utterances. For example, *hunting dog* can be dangerous in a context where it is not clear whether the topic is the *hound* or just *a dog hunting that moment*; *dancing girl* ('a girl who is dancing at the moment', or 'a professional dancer'), etc.

For Saeed, J ambiguity is usually more potential than real since in any given context one of the readings is likely to fit the context and be automatically selected by the participants; they may not even be aware of readings that they would naturally prefer in other contexts. This means that we have to employ some ingenuity in applying ambiguity tests, usually they involve inventing a sentence and a context where both readings could be available, Saeed, J. (2003; 61).

- 12) William chased the cat.
- 13) William chased the cat with a stick.

The ambiguity here is in whether William or the cat has the stick.

- 14) William chased the cat with a stick.
- 15) William chased the cat with a puppet.
- 16) William chased the cat with a ball.

17) William chased the cat with the polka dots ears.

These sentences suggest that while, structurally, ambiguity should be present in all of these sentences, in fact background knowledge about cats and people will mean that for most people there is no ambiguity in any but the first sentence in the list. Of course these sentences are given without a context: since 'background knowledge' here is a prediction of how typically cats and the people behave, based on experience, the 'normal' interpretation can be in a particular context.

From a methodological point of view, it has the advantages of being formal and explicit. More generally it adopts the denotational programme of relating utterances to specific situations. The semantics also embodies certain key features of natural languages in that it is compositional and productive; and more specifically, it allows the identification of individuals, sets of individuals and relations and, in a so far limited way, allows quantification.

Someone may have the impression that the relations between the different meanings of certain terms are hopelessly unsystematic and unorganized but, in fact there is in reality far less arbitrariness than one might suppose.

For instance, we find in the language a close relation between an instrument and the activity associated with it, for example; scythe/to scythe, hammer/to hammer, saw/to saw. In the same way, place may be related to activity, for example; bank/to bank money and one thing may be related to an activity typical of it, for example; a hawk/the bird is hawking worms, a dog/to dog his steps, wolf/to wolf down his food. One may also have a systematic relation between certain entities and activities of which the entities in question are the semantic goal, for example; fish/to fish, water/to water, etc.

The meanings of different words may be very closely related, while the same word may have quite different meanings. In fact, these meanings of different words are generally much more closely related than are the different meanings of a single word. For instance, the meaning of *run* implying a physical movement by an animate being is more closely related to the corresponding meanings of *walk*, *hop*, *skip*, *crawl*, and *jump* than it is to most of the other meanings of *run*, e.g. he runs this restaurant, a run on the bank, a run in her stockings, he lives up the run.

The following words like *bench*, *chair*, *stool*, and *hassock*, would by definition, share a number of common components: - artifacts (in contrast with stone ledges on which one might sit), -pieces of furniture (in contrast with other constructions, e.g. banks or sawhorses which can serve for sitting), and - for sitting (in contrast with beds, tables or dressers on which one may sit, but which are not designed for sitting).

If we try to determine the diagnostic feature of the meanings of the formerly mentioned four semantic units, one may appropriately use a number of positive-negative or causal questions or statements designed to call attention to the distinctive differences, e.g. why do we call a chair, instead of calling a stool? How does a chair differ from a bench? This is not a chair; it is a bench! He sat on a stool, not on a hassock. Because it has a back, it can't be a stool. The techniques for semantic analysis change a lot, counting on whether a person is analyzing the semantic features of his own native tongue or is trying to determine the semantic features of words in a foreign language. Negative- positive statements or related questions may appear superfluous to a person analyzing the meanings of units in his own language. Above all, they are very useful to an inquirer trying to raise significant distinctions in a language which he partially controls.

Even though the componential analysis, Kreidler, Ch. (1998; 88) of the meanings of stool, chair, bench, and hassock appear to be to us very straightforward, in spite of certain matters of indeterminacy, the issues become more complex if one adds a few terms to this basic set, e.g. seat, love seat, sofa, davenport, These are pieces of furniture, designed first of all for sitting, but they present several other contrastive features. Sofa, love seat, and davenport all differ from bench in that that they are upholstered and have a back and have arms. But a love seat is designed for two persons only and a sofa and davenport are designed for two or more. Sofa and davenport differ first of all in that the latter is usually longer and might be used for sleeping. A pew shares with bench the feature of being designed for several persons, but it normally has a back and is rarely upholstered, even though it may have cushions. They are usually called chairs if they are movable and seats if they are not movable, but the usage might differ. This alternation is not surprising because alternation of usage is found at all levels of language, especially in instances in which there are conflicting analogical pressures.

If we take into account the hierarchical structures of a particular person's vocabulary, we should distinguish between *active vocabulary* (producing vocabulary) and *passive vocabulary*

(consuming vocabulary). An individual might be incapable of producing a hierarchical structure for a particular semantic domain and in some cases he might be incapable of arranging the terms in accordance with the patterns used by persons who have a greater acquaintance with the vocabulary of such a domain. Such an individual may recognize the validity of a correct structure, even though he cannot specify the reasons why the arrangement seems to be correct. Active control of lexical domains and passive acceptance of correct usage applicable to such domains are two different areas of individual competence. Included structures differ markedly in the number of semantic units which may be included under a particular generic item. For instance, under highly generic meanings of terms such as *plant*, *movement*, *animal*, and *quality*, there might be many inclusive meanings which can be kinds or types, of the generic expression. For example, *puma is a kind of animal*, *walk is a kind of movement*, *fern is a kind of plant*, and *bad is a kind of quality*. Meanings which are much lower in taxonomy have many fewer inclusive meanings. For example, under one meaning of walk one may include the related meanings of *stroll*, *saunter*, *meander*, *stride*, *hike*, *tramp*, *march*, and *promenade*, but the series is quite limited. We shouldn't forget that many hierarchies can be expanded in height or depth. For example, *reptile/snake/rattler* can have certain higher level meanings added; for example: *entity/animate/creature/ animal/reptile/snake/rattler*.

Appropriate semantic units may consist of less than single words. The prefix *re-* in *refill*, *redo*, *retell*, and *rebuild* is semantically equivalent to *again*, and it may be defined as meaning *to do something a second time or to repeat the action*. On the other hand, the prefix *re-* in *recover*, meaning 'to get well' cannot be said to constitute a semantic unit, since it does not possess an independent significance.

In the same way, the suffix *-ly* occurring, for instance, in *manly*, *friendly*, and *kingly*, may constitute a referential semantic unit, since its relation to the underlying forms *man-*, *friend-*, and *king-* can be defined in terms of an essential difference in semantic domains; that is, a shift from an object domain to a domain of qualities. In this case the referential meaning of *-ly* can be defined as *the quality of...* We distinguish a grammatical significance in this suffix, in that it makes a shift in the syntactic class of the underlying forms. On the other hand, the suffix *-ly* in the forms *quickly*, *slowly*, and *ably* does not own a referential significance, but only a grammatical one, since it does not involve any shift in semantic domains. The resulting forms

remain abstracts. The forms *quickly*, *slowly*, and *ably* are grammatically known in such a way as to show that they may now function as qualifiers of actions and not as qualifiers of entities, as they were in their original forms without the suffix ‘-ly’.

We are aware that there are forms which signal some referential meanings and that can even be less than morphemes. These forms consist of patterns or sound symbolism. The most general contrast seems to be the distinction between words with high front vowels, which often signal diminutive qualities, for example; *teeny-weeny* (*teensy-weensy*) and those with low back vowels, which often have the value of largeness. This type of contrast in English is less important than in many other languages. There are several sets of English terms, however, which do exhibit sound symbolism, e.g. *glimmer*, *glitter*, *glare*, *glow*; *clink*, *clank*, *clunk*, *plunk*; *flicker*, *flare*, *gush*, *flush*, *slush*; *slip*, *slop*, *slurp*; and *flip*, *flap*, *flop*, *plop*, etc. It is difficult to isolate the relevant features and almost impossible to describe the contrasts in a constituent or systematic manner, even though speakers of English sense that there are semantic relations between the constituents of these sets. Among the main reasons for this difficulty is the absence of a readily available metalanguage for discussing changes in sounds. Although the words of an individual are the principal semantic units in any language, many phrases should be treated as semantic units, since the meaning of the whole cannot be determined by merely adding up the meanings of the parts. This implies that meanings are idiomatic. Idioms are combinations of words which have both a literal and a non-literal semantic structure, but the connection between the two cannot be described as representing an additive process. All of us can imagine the types of circumstances which motivate the development of an idiomatic meaning, as, for example, in *hit the bull's eye*, *go to the dog*, *dog in the manger*, and *be on cloud nine*; but the knowledge of the semantic connections is not obligatory to the use or understanding of the idiom. Many people do not know, for instance, that *kick the bucket* is derived from a practice of suicide, and no one knows with any degree of certainty the real basis for the idiom *heap coals of fire on his head*.

The semantic analysis of a language should aim at establishing the most generalized, as well as the most specific, relations between meanings. Such an analysis usually provides the basis for the greatest explanatory adequacy and, in the end, results in the highest measure of total consistency. I think that this approach will inevitably discover relations of which speakers are not always aware, but which has to prove intellectually satisfying, once they have acquired

sufficient background to realize what is involved. This approach will also provide a basis for explaining many puns/plays on words, which frequently rest on quite succinct and easily overlooked semantic relations.

It is very important for us to know that morphological derivation does not have to be confused with semantic derivation, because not all cases of morphological derivation automatically involve a semantic derivation. The meaning of ‘growth’ in the context ‘*the growth on his leg*’ does involve semantic derivation, but we look up and find another meaning of ‘growth’, as in the phrase *the growth of a kid*, which involves no shift of semantic domain.

In *Linguistics* (1999), Radford, A. strongly emphasizes the idea that the difficulty we encounter when we turn to the meanings of words is that native speakers do not provide the rich source of data we have been relying on in our discussions of phonology and morphology, Radford et al, (1999, 170). Thus, the contrast between *order* (used as a noun) and order (used as a verb) is one native speakers will readily confirm, the fact that *speaked* is not the past tense form of *speak*, etc. Or prepositions like *behind*, *across*, *around*, *under* etc, which can also be used as adverbs, but the difference between their definitions disambiguates them. These are judgements of form with which native speakers are comfortable, but meanings seem much less tangible.

A basic property of words is the arbitrary relationship they exhibit between meaning and form: words have meaning, and they have phonological or orthographic structure, and there is no way of recovering the former from the latter. Note that if this were not the case, we would not expect to find lexical differences between languages: if cow is the ‘natural’ sign for a bovine creature, we should be puzzled by the existence of *lope in Albanian*. Given this arbitrariness of the linguistic sign, the lexicon (or the mental dictionary of a language) must include some sort of stored entry for the lexemes of a language. Most psycholinguists believe that the mental lexicon must contain lexical entries which contain a number of separate but interconnected levels, Radford et al, (1999, 232).

Concepts must be distinguished from lexical entries, and lexical entries consist of two levels, one for the semantic form of the lexical entry, i.e. its meaning or content, and the other for the entry’s morphological make-up and its phonological properties, Radford et al, (1999, 233). Hence, a lexical entry can be split into two parts, its lemma and its form information (note that in

this literature the term lexical entry is used to refer to what we call lexemes, Ullman et al, (2007; 111), and that the term lemma refers to the semantic representation of a lexeme). The lemma lexicon and the form lexicon are connected through lexical pointers: each lemma points to its corresponding form, i.e. it can address a particular entry in the form lexicon where the morphological properties of the lemmas are stored, Radford et al, (1999, 233).

According to Nida, most dictionaries are designed to provide readers with practical clues to the meaning and use of terms. They are extremely useful, but they are often inconsistent in organization and deficient in the presentation of relevant data, Nida, E. (1975; 172)

There is no doubt that dictionaries may also be very useful in providing terms for setting up contiguous and overlapping series, since they often list under generic terms those synonyms which are structurally included. When there is no special problem of how much to include within one meaning of a lexical unit, dictionaries usually provide a quick guide to some diagnostic components on the basis of the definitions given. For example, under *strike*, a dictionary may list *assault, offensive, attack*; and under *big* a dictionary lists *enormous, huge, great*. For some terms, the synonyms and antonyms may be listed for different meanings, providing in this way clues to different semantic domains.

Implicitly, the lexical unit we use in naming a particular referent might be very easily described in terms of the features of the referent, but the semantic classification depends not upon culturally relevant distinctions in the objects, but upon the features which have become part of the conceptual bundle of contrasts which define the boundaries between the meanings of language symbols.

Homonyms are another integrated part of ambiguity and a special attention has been paid for their treatment in linguistics. When homonyms can occur in the same position in utterances, the result is lexical ambiguity, Kreidler, Ch. (1998; 55), for example, *She was on her way to the bank*. Of course, the ambiguity is not likely to be sustained in a longer discourse. A following utterance may carry information about depositing or withdrawing money, on the one hand, or, on the other hand, fishing or boating. Quite often homonyms belong to different lexical categories and therefore do not give rise to ambiguity. For instance, *seen* is a form of the verb *see* while

scene is an unrelated noun; feet is a plural noun with concrete reference, feat is a singular noun, rather abstract in nature; and so on.

Ambiguity occurs also because a longer linguistic form has a literal sense and a figurative sense.

18) There's a skeleton in our cupboard.

Skeleton in the cupboard can mean 'an unfortunate event a family secret is kept.' With this meaning it is a single lexeme; with its 'literal' meaning it is a phrase composed of several lexemes.

Misunderstandings also occur when a speaker has one referent in mind for a definite expression and this is referential ambiguity. Referential ambiguity occurs when an indefinite referring expression may be specific or not, Kreidler, Ch. (1998; 151), e.g

19) I wanted to buy a newspaper.

Here a newspaper may refer to a specific newspaper or some newspaper, any newspaper. The ambiguity disappears if we add, on the one hand, but I couldn't find it or, on the other hand, but I couldn't find one.

And now let's look at gerund clause as in the following sentence:

20) They watched Danny winning the competition.

And now compare with this sentence:

21) We applauded Danny's winning of the competition.

The second sentence contains a verbal noun, formed like the gerund by adding -ing. The difference between gerund and verbal noun is in the kind of constructions they appear in: the subject of the verbal noun is typically possessive and the object of the verbal noun is preceded by of. All verbs form a gerund by adding -ing. As the example show, when the verb requires a preposition before a following object, the verbal noun keeps the same preposition; if the verb is not followed by a preposition, the verbal noun inserts *of*.

Sentences may also contain ambiguities, different from the lexical ambiguity and referential ambiguity; syntactic ambiguity may be in the surface structure of a sentence: words can cluster together in different possible constructions. Syntactic ambiguity may also be in the deep structure: one sequence of words may have more than one interpretation, generally because the rules of sentence construction allow ellipsis, the deletion of what is ‘understood.’ Examples of surface ambiguity, Kreidler, Ch. (1998; 169), e.g

22) Joe bought the book for Susan.

Syntactic ambiguity may be in the surface structure of a sentence: words can cluster together in different possible constructions. Thus the sentence’s ambiguity can be interpreted, e.g.

([bought] [the book for Susan], [bought the book] [for Susan])

Let’s present now, by providing different examples, the way the meaning of the sentence is transferred.

23) Donald painted the wall.

Certainly, the noun paint names an entity, a concrete substance. The verb phrase *paint the wall* can be paraphrased as ‘put paint on the wall,’ ‘apply paint to the wall, etc, that is, cause the inception of a new location. The verb thus, denotes the transfer of an entity named by the underlying noun, paint and the object of the verb, the wall, is a location, the goal of the transfer, Kreidler, Ch. (1998; 272) . Let’s look at another one;

24) Alisa peeled a potato.

The underlying noun peel names a concrete entity and the verb phrase is equivalent to ‘remove the peel from a potato,’ ‘separate the peel from a potato.’ etc. The verb peel denotes transfer and its object, a potato, names a sort of location, the source of transfer.

Or another example

25) They're bottling wine.

The verb phrase *bottling wine* is equivalent to ‘putting Wine in bottles,’ ‘causing wine to be in bottles.’ This sentence expresses the causing of a new location, too. The underlying noun *bottle* names an object that can also be a container, a location for its contents; the verb *bottle* names the goal of transfer, and the entity that is transferred is indicated by the object of the verb, *wine*. The noun *bottle* can be singular or plural, but the verb has no such variation.

The same may work out in the following example;

26) They’re mining coal.

Here as in the other examples, the verb phrase *mining coal* is roughly equivalent to ‘removing coal from a mine.’ The noun *mine* names the source of transfer, the verb *mine* designates the transfer, and *coal*, the object of the verb, tells the entity transferred.

According to Lyons, J. (1977) the meanings of words, their sense and denotation, are internal to the language to which they belong. This, as far as the vocabulary of languages is concerned, is what is meant by saying that each language has its own semantic structure, just as it has its own grammatical and phonological structure, (Lyons, J., 1977; 238.)

For example, *Bukë (bread)* finds the same definition either in English or Albanian dictionary. But rather in the Albanian dictionary or among Albanians themselves, in many cases it is used as a meal, e.g.

27) This is a massive loaf of bread. Kjo është një bukë e madhe. (The same both in English and Albanian, but;

28) A hëngrët bukë? In Albanian language it means did you have your meal (breakfast, lunch or dinner according to the time).

Lyons, J. (1977) emphasizes that the syntax of a language is a set of rules which accounts for the distribution of word-forms throughout the sentences of a language; and this definition presupposes the assignment of every word-form to one or more form-classes, (Lyons, J., 1977; 376.) For example, we know that *speaks* is a member of the form-class present tense, third-person singular, intransitive verb. The form *speaks* will not appear in any conventional dictionary of English. It so happens that the citation-form of most lexemes in English can also be regarded as the stem-form, to which various inflexional suffixes may be added (*-s*, *-ed*, *-ing*) to

construct the other forms of the same lexeme. We can treat the word-form *speaks* as being composed, at the morphological level of analysis, of *speak* and *-s*. Provided that the dictionary lists *speak* as an intransitive verb, we can substitute for the form-class label VIn₃ Sing Pres the morphosyntactic word [*speak*: 3 Sing Pres]. This is no more than an ad hoc symbolic representation of the traditional formulation ‘third person singular of the present (indicative) of (the verb) *speak*’. We can then take from the dictionary the stem *speak* and (in default of any information to the effect that the form of the third person singular of the present indicative is morphologically anomalous) we can apply the morphological rule, which forms the third-person singular present-indicative of all regular verbs, whether transitive or intransitive, by adding the suffix *-s* to the stem-form.

Two spoken utterances are linguistically ambiguous if their ambiguity is such that it can be explicated in terms of identity of representation at some level of analysis in the correlated system-sentence. Linguistic ambiguity depends solely upon the structure of the language system, whereas other kinds of ambiguity, actual or potential, are to be accounted for in other ways. For example, the linguist will not be concerned, in general, with the referential ambiguity of proper names, personal and demonstrative pronouns, or definite descriptions, e.g.

29) They crossed the border before noon.

In this sentence, *they* may refer to indefinitely many different groups of people.

Although there is no reason, in principle, why the morphological structure of a language (if it has one) should be related to its syntactic and lexical structure, it is an empirically verifiable fact that it is; and there tends to be a more or less high degree of correlation between the parts-of-speech, as they are defined morphosyntactically or morphologically, and the parts-of-speech, as they are defined with reference to other criteria. In any general theory of the parts-of-speech, morphological and morphosyntactic considerations are of secondary importance. But in the analysis of particular languages to the degree that they support the more widely applicable criteria that define the parts-of-speech in the general theory, analysis may be not only relevant, but in some instances decisive, e.g.

30) *Qep* (sew) as a verb, in Albanian, and *qep* (onion) as a noun.

When Pinkal in 1995 compares vagueness and ambiguity he says that they are related phenomena. The fact that both unproblematically allow precisifications, Pinkal, M. (1995; 72) is their most important common feature, which distinguishes them from phenomena like presupposition failures. But there can also be no doubt that ‘vagueness’ and ‘ambiguity’ refer to different things; and it seems that there are hues and distinctions beyond this fundamental dichotomy within the realm of indefiniteness, vagueness and ambiguity seem to go hand in hand, Pinkal, M. (1995; 72).

For example, one difference between the vague *green* and the ambiguous *cat* is conspicuous; it is so obviously involved in the distinction between vagueness and ambiguity that it looks like almost unnecessary to spend much time talking about it. *Cat* has exactly two readings, one of which includes the other; the indefinite domain of the ambiguous expression is uniform and strictly bounded. But the transition from the positive to the negative domain of a vague expression is continuous, constant, without jumps. A vague expression ‘allows gradual differentiation and can be transduced to its opposite by imperceptible transitions’, Erdmann, K.O. (1910; 59), e.g.

Definition of *Cat*

31) a) Small domesticated carnivore, *Felis domestica* or *F. catus*, bred in a number of varieties.

b) Any of several carnivores of the family Felidae, as the lion, tiger, leopard or jaguar, etc.

Most natural language expressions are ambiguous between more or less vague readings. But as soon as vagueness emerges at any point in the precisification spectrum, the precisification set is (often non-countably) infinite. This fact renders the option of counting the readings of an ambiguous expression useless: it would be absurd not to classify *band* as ambiguous because there is a continuous transition from *sinfonietta* to *symphony orchestra* in one reading of the expression.

The precise sense of the possessive construction results from context, and it is more or less specific: we have a case of multiplicity of use. As functional ambiguities, structural syntactic ambiguities are better known and better researched, e.g.

32) Robert Koch saw the man with the telescope.

33) All doctors have an enemy.

The ambiguity of (32) is shown by the various constituent structures it can be assigned. The ambiguity of (33) (*one enemy each/a common enemy*) is based on the different possible scope assignments to the quantifiers *all* and *a* (*n*).

The spectrum of phenomena of ambiguity (in the wider sense) includes the following lexical ambiguity (homonymy, polysemy, multiplicity of use) ambiguity as to the range of application (quantifiers, quantifying adverbs) referential ambiguity (pronouns, definite descriptions, indexical adverbs) elliptical ambiguity (certain predicates with multiple argument positions) functional ambiguity syntactically induced ambiguity, indefiniteness only arises where truth and falseness are both possible. Ambiguity in the narrow sense occurs if and only if an expression does not have a most comprehensive reading.

The dynamic view of vagueness semantics brings a new dimension of meaning into play. An utterance is not only evaluated with respect to a given context, but it is also described in its function of bringing about a change of the context. The basic semantic property of utterances, in a dynamic view, is that they convey information. An utterance adds to the hearer's/addressee's knowledge or information state, and thus it narrows down the range of possible interpretations for future uses of the predicates involved in the utterance. An utterance can convey information of different kinds.

If we refer to Katz in his *Semantic Theory*, Katz, J. (1977; 383) with regard to semantic vacuity of proper nouns, I would say that it comes from the fact that those that are multiple names are not intuitively judged to be semantically ambiguous, that is, to have more than one sense, in the way that common nouns like *tip* are. For instance, *Turkey* is the name both of a country and a bird, and *Tomor* is both the name of a person and the name of a mountain in Albania, yet these words are not intuitively judged as having multiple senses. We, ourselves, intuitively treat proper names as devoid of sense. For instance, we do not ask someone who has used an unfamiliar word that we recognize as a proper noun, *What does it mean* (what does William mean)?" Rather, we ask about the nature of its referent. With regard to common nouns in the same situation, on the other hand, we do ask; *What does it mean?* Since this question

presupposes that its subject does have a meaning, we may then assume that speakers of English do not take this presupposition to be satisfied in connection with proper nouns.

As far as the proper-common distinction is concerned, there is a multitude of syntactic constructions classifiable as proper, but none has semantic content. Here, on the other hand, there is a small number of syntactic constructions —e.g., the ‘s,’ the ‘ of’ in examples like ‘ the professor of Danny,’ and the several forms of pronouns in the genitive case—but a multitude of distinct senses in connection with each construction.

Other relations expressed, for instance, by genitives; e.g

- 34) Danny's house (cat, land, etc)
- 35) Danny 's death (birthday, Hamburger's, etc.)
- 36) Danny 's shadow (reflection, mirror-image, etc.)
- 37) Danny 's notebook (article, poem, etc.)
- 38) Danny 's photograph (picture, statue, etc.)

In the examples provided above, the grammatical form is quite misleading as to logical form, grouping together cases under one type of construction that diverge significantly in meaning. There is no notion of role in the meaning of the cases in *Danny 's shadow (reflection, mirror-image, etc.)*, but there is something that can be considered the parallel of a role and also something that can be considered the parallel of a reciprocal. Let's take for instance the noun 'shadow'. When defined, a 'shadow' is 'an area of shade on an illuminated surface produced by the interposition of an object between a light source and the surface which blocks the light from falling on the area' Katz, J. (1977; 383). Here we have an effect and its cause corresponding to the role and its reciprocal. Accordingly, adopting the previous treatment as our paradigm, we can say that the first case in *Danny 's shadow (reflection, mirror-image, etc.)* has the sense that Danny is the interposed object that blocks light to produce the shadow (as an effect).

From the observations in the sentences above (34, 35, 36, 37, 38), it is quite reasonable to think that the ($\pm Possessive$) does not itself determine the meaning of and the differences in meaning among the various genitive types, but, rather, that their meaning and their differences in meaning are determined by aspects of the semantic structure of their component constituents alone. On this view, the ($\pm Possessive$) that occurs in the underlying form of genitives has no

meaning itself but serves only to provide a proper base structure for the derivation of related surface structures.

The preceding arguments cannot be considered exhaustive. It is either impractical or even impossible for us to consider every case of a syntactic element found to be necessary in the syntactic component and to argue that none can do double duty as symbolic formulations of semantic as well as syntactic properties. The particular arguments presented can be reasonably taken as making a strong case for the existence of a division of the theoretical vocabulary for presenting non-phonological properties of lexical items into a set of syntactic but non-semantic constructs and a set of semantic but non-syntactic constructs.

If people feel a sentence is meaningless or has no chance of occurring in natural speech, they will want to convey this opinion. If they are not asked specifically for the information, they will likely allow it to affect their responses on other matters, such as grammaticality.

Parsability is closely related to correctability, the closer a bad sentence is to satisfying all the parser's constraints, the easier it will generally be to correct.

If one must work with potentially ambiguous structures, one had better consider a wide range of exemplars in order to rule out such possible confounds, Schütze, C. (1996; 165).

- 39) a. Joanna takes life seriously, but Anita *lightly*.
- b. Joanna takes life seriously, but Anita takes it *easy*.
- 40) Joanna takes life seriously, but Anita takes *life lightly*.
- b. Joanna takes life seriously, but Anita takes life *easy*.

The processes of perception are involved to some extent in rendering acceptability intuitions, since a sentence must be apprehended in some sense in order to be adjudged acceptable, ambiguous, etc.

The semantic preference account predicts that readers should not have trouble processing categorially ambiguous phrases when the resolution of the ambiguity is consistent with their preferred interpretation of the phrase; it is only when the interpretation of the ambiguous phrase is at variance with the preferred interpretation that processing difficulty should be encountered.

A semantically ambiguous word might be disambiguated by a word or phrase occurring in almost any position in the same sentence as the ambiguous word or in a different sentence.

In the case of syntactic category ambiguities, typically one or two words immediately following the ambiguous word will disambiguate the major syntactic class of an item (whether it is a noun or a verb, though not necessarily whether it is a main verb, auxiliary, etc.).

Resolving lexical ambiguities is key component of skilled language comprehension. Without the ability to access the contextually appropriate, intended meaning for each word we encounter, accurate communication between individuals would be impossible. Evidence from behavioural experiments has indicated that retrieval of word meanings can be modelled within a distributed connectionist framework in which words compete to produce coherent patterns of activation across an array of semantic 'units'. Ambiguity between multiple meanings can interfere with this process, making it more challenging to retrieve the meanings of these words compared to unambiguous words. However, once a sentence context is provided that strongly supports just one of a word's possible meanings, then readers and listeners are able to make use of executive function control processes to select the most likely meanings, and if necessary reinterpret the sentence in the light of subsequent information. Another look on ambiguity will be in the following chapters.

Chapter VIII

Classifying Ambiguity

8.1 Lexical Ambiguity

8.2 Structural (Surface and Deep Structure) Ambiguity

Different authors in English and Albanian language have classified the phenomena of ambiguity in different ways. When it comes to the traditional approach to identifying ambiguity they usually distinguish only lexical ambiguity. For some authors (Radford et al. 1999; 15) the categorical status of a particular phrase would belong to the simple case of structural ambiguity. Pinkal. M. (1995; 75) claim that lexical ambiguity includes only instances of homonymy and polysemy. While, Bucaria, Ch. (2004; 281) for instance, maintains that there is lexical ambiguity, syntactic ambiguity and phonological ambiguities. It is very important to emphasize that Kaufer. D. (1983; 210) is the one that identifies more types of ambiguities: syntactic, lexical, ambiguity of illocution, ambiguity of perlocution, and ambiguity of use/mention.

Another classification of ambiguity is made by Kreidler, W. Ch. (1998; 330) who divides ambiguity into three main types: lexical, referential and syntactic ambiguity (syntactic ambiguity then dividing it also into two sub-types: deep structure ambiguity and surface structure ambiguity).

When it comes to Radford (Radford et al. 1999; 66) ambiguity relates to the scope of the negative particle so for this reason this type is commonly known as scope ambiguity. Ullmann, S. (1977; 128) divides the ambiguity into three types: phonetic, lexical and grammatical ambiguity. Deemeter, K. (1998:15-36) divided the semantic level of ambiguity into three categories. Lexical ambiguity is manifested in lexical homonymy and polysemy. On the other hand, syntactic ambiguity refers to a certain utterance that can yield two or more syntactically

feasible readings, whereas contextual is mostly attributed to anaphoric expressions and transitional signals.

Albanian linguists have not given a certain classification of ambiguity because this linguistic phenomenon has not been studied very much until now. But some scholars mention that words elicit the main meaning a clause or phrase possesses by providing a figurative one. However, while working on my study I have come across with lexical and structural ambiguity in Albanian language which furthermore could be divided into surface and deep structure ambiguity. In the Albanian language the most frequent ambiguity was the ambiguity in the level of words (lexical ambiguity) and that of structural level (surface and deep structural ambiguity) was less frequent. Lexical ambiguity is easier to disambiguate whereas structural ambiguity needs deeper analyses and seeks more time to resolve.

Both syntactic and lexical ambiguity among other interpretations by different scholars, are ruled by the same types of knowledge representations and processing mechanisms, Fera, A. (2019; 1113). Highly similarly empirical, theoretical and methodological issues have arisen in both the lexical and syntactic domains; the role of frequency information, the types of information involved in contextual constraints, the extent to which contextual information constrains the interpretation of ambiguities and whether the processing system is modular or interactive. Even though structural ambiguities are rarely noticed in ordinary language use, yet, they are extremely common like lexical ambiguities. Structural ambiguities are a major contributor to the large number of parses produced by computational parsing systems. Syntactic and lexical ambiguity is very pervasive in linguistics and although the language intentions might have an objective sensationalistic interpretation, it can also be a misconstrued manipulative device. Recent types of theorizing eliminate the strong distinction between accessing a meaning and constructing a syntactic representation, which was central to previous accounts. These parallels between the domains are not coincidental; they reflect common underlying processes and types of knowledge representations. The parallels derive from the fact that the syntactic ambiguities in question are based on ambiguities at the lexical level. The same ambiguity resolution mechanisms apply in both domains because both involve ambiguities over various types of lexical representations.

8.1 Lexical Ambiguity

Lexical ambiguity occurs when a word has several interpretations. According to Kreidler (Kreidler: 1998), ‘when homonyms occur in the same position in utterances the result is lexical ambiguity’. While, according to the Albanian linguist Thomai, J. (2009:137), lexical ambiguity or as he names it ‘bisemantism’- ‘dykuptimsi’ are words that can have two meanings, so ambiguity is part of polisemy of the words and further expansion does not affect them.

By far, lexical ambiguity is one of the most difficult problems in language processing studies and thus, not surprisingly, it is at the core of lexical semantics research. It is a linguistic term for a word’s capacity to carry two or more obviously different meanings. Linguistically, lexical ambiguity arises when a word or concept has an inherently diffuse meaning based on widespread or informal usage. It occurs when the structure of the sentence, rather than the meanings of the words, causes the problem, as in ‘call me a cab,’ because it's not clear whether the ‘cab’ (name me a cab) part applies to the person or the vehicle (call a taxi for me). The meaning of the individual words is clear; it's their usage of construction that causes the problem.

Lexical ambiguity is in fact quite common in natural language. An utterance may very well lead to more than one interpretation just because one of the words has more than one meaning. According to theoretical linguistic accounts, lexical ambiguity is not a uniform phenomenon. Each meaning of a given ambiguous lexical item (irrespective of whether it is homonymous or polysemous) is stored separately in the mental lexicon Kempson, R. (1977; 520) & Weinreich, U. (1966; 943-944). Within its specification, there is information about the syntactic category of the item (i.e., *dog*) as well as its broader meaning category (i.e., *genius*) Pustejovsky, J. (1995; 424).

Lexical ambiguity so far, represents a choice between a finite number of known and meaningful context-dependent interpretations. It is a specific, finite number of alternative meanings. Furthermore it is based strictly on multiple dictionary definitions of a word, or in

other words, given words being exact homophones; 'board' meaning a wooden flat object for different purposes, and 'board' as a group of people or team, generally chosen to serve as a think tank to make an account over something.

In written texts, lexical ambiguity, results from multiple meanings of a word, and in spoken language, results from different word forms of the same sounds. The word chief, for example, has one meaning and that is 'the person in command of a ship, aircraft, or spacecraft' or another meaning, for instance, that of 'a leader of a team or group', so this sentence may be also ambiguous without context. For further explanation, there are two reasons for multiple meanings of a word. One is owing to homonyms which have entirely different meanings but share the identical word form, like in the word 'bill', where the two meanings of bill are irrelative; these two 'bill-s' are two lexemes in a linguistic view. The other one is due to polysemy Cann, R. (1993; 286) which means the meanings of the same word are relevant but still different to certain extent, for example, in the word chief different interpretations are included which all refer to a role of a leader.

Lexical ambiguity is concerned with multiple interpretations of lexemes. A sentence can be interpreted in different ways and it may be caused by multiple meanings of one word – that is lexical ambiguity.

Lexical access processes that allow access to one meaning at a time in a predefined order would be most consistent with a ranked or marked search model of lexical disambiguation and least consistent with an exhaustive computation model. An exhaustive computation model would be most consistent with lexical access processes that provide access to all meanings of an ambiguous word at the same time. Yet, it should be emphasized that it is possible to propose several different mixed models which incorporate the characteristics of both the exhaustive computation and marked search models. It is possible, for example, that lexical access processes are exhaustive (and this could happen either sequentially or in parallel and, at the same time, working memory could be characterized by a marking process. Discerning these models empirically requires suppositions about the processes being measured by a certain task. The phoneme monitoring this task presumably taps working memory Foss, (1970; 700-701), while Conrad's task is assumed to be affected by previous lexical activation.

Lexical ambiguity as such, is not simply an issue of semantic analysis, as far as this is concerned. It is one of the chief causes of structural ambiguity as well, and it is, therefore, an issue with which syntactic analyzers must contend as well. This aspect of this issue has also long been taken for granted. In the well-known example *Time flies like an arrow*, (Kuno, 1965; 397), much of the structural ambiguity of the sentence derives from the part-of-speech ambiguity of the words ‘time,’ ‘flies,’ and ‘like,’ which in turn reflects their semantic ambiguity. The problem of lexical ambiguity can really serve as a basis by which theories of language analysis can be accounted. Of course, lexical ambiguity is not just a problem for semantic analysis.

Let try to stick to lexical ambiguity in a more specific way and see the ambiguous aspect illustrated by various sentences. Sentence illustration will certainly touch the three mostly mentioned types of lexical ambiguity, namely, Polysemy, Homonymy, and Categorical Ambiguity.

Polysemous words are those whose meanings are related to one another. Conversely, homonymous words have meanings with no relationship one to another. A word may be both polysemous and homonymous. Categorially ambiguous words are those whose syntactic category may vary, e.g;

Polysemous examples;

- 1) *Arms* bend at the elbow.
- 2) Russia sells *arms* to Serbia

Homonymous examples;

- 3) He couldn’t *bear* what he was blamed for.
- 4) He did it *bare*-handed

It is very important to emphasize that homonyms belong to different lexical categories and therefore do not give rise to ambiguity. For example; *been* is a form of the verb *be* while *bean* is an unrelated noun; *feet* is a plural noun with concrete reference, *feat* is a singular noun, rather abstract in nature; and so on and so forth.

Categorial examples;

- 5) He was wearing an *authentic* pair of jeans.
- 6) The *genuine* pair of trousers for his birthday were an exception.

Ambiguity is by far a problem in parsing. In general, verbs tend to polysemy while nouns tend to homonymy, though of course there are quite a few homonymous verbs and polysemous nouns, Hirst, G. (1987; 6). Nouns tend to refer to fixed entities, while verb meanings are adjusted to fit the context, with frequent adjustments becoming lexicalized as new but related senses of the original verb.

Case slot disambiguation is a problem closely related to lexical disambiguation. In its basic form, case theory, Chomsky, N (1965; 27-28), views a sentence as an assertion whose predicate is denoted by the verb of the sentence and whose arguments are denoted by the noun phrases, e.g.

- 7) Elona tickled Laura with a feather.

Elona, here, is the agent of the verb tickle, and we say that Elona fills the slot of the agent case. Similarly, Laura fills the patient slot, and a feather is in the instrument case. The instrument case is flagged by the preposition with; the agent and patient cases are flagged by subject and object position respectively.

There is no rigid one-to-one mapping between flags and cases, however; that is, case flags are not unambiguous. For instance, with can also flag the cases manner and accompanier.

- 8) Elona tickled Laura with glee.
- 9) Elona flew to Spain with Laura.

A case may have more than one flag, often varying with different verbs. For instance some verbs allow the *instrument* in the subject position when no agent is specified, e.g.

- 10) The feather tickled Elona.

The explanation of cases is greatly simplified, and some extra points should be made. First of all, not all prepositional phrases are case—flags and fillers; PPs can qualify nouns as well as verbs. Furthermore and secondly, an adverb can act as a combined case-flag and filler:

11) Elona tickled Laura gleefully

Gleefully, here, behaves exactly as with glee does above. Third, subordinate clauses also exhibit case behavior, with the conjunction as the flag and the sentence as the filler: Since Elona couldn't bring himself to touch the geranium, Laura put it in an old shoe box for her.

The fourth and the last, there are good linguistic reasons for distinguishing between cases and certain verb modifying PPs that describe such things as the time or place at which an action occurs:

12) Elona tickled Laura on Friday at the Millenium cinema.

This distinction will not in general be necessary and we will usually be able to treat all verb-attached PPs in the same way, Hirst, G. (1987; 8).

So, the issue of determining which case slot a particular preposition or syntactic position flags is very similar to that of lexical disambiguation: in each, semantic information is necessary to decide which one of a set of meanings is to be assigned to a particular token. Even though many sentences of English have more than one parse, there is generally a unique preferred parse for a sentence after semantics and discourse context are considered, e.g.

13) Laura left school on the wrong bus.

We do not take *school on the wrong* as a single noun phrase; rather, we apply the knowledge that schools seldom ride bus. There is, thus, a semantic bias to one of the parses. In addition, the English language often exhibits certain preferences – syntactic biases – in choosing among several possible parses. A few sentences may have parses numbering in the hundreds if semantic constraints are not considered, e.g.

14) Laura baked the cake in the freezer.

It has the prepositional phrase attached to the verb phrase of the sentence instead of to the object noun phrase. It is also taken by informants to mean that the baking in some bizarre way took place in the freezer, rather than that the particular cake known to have once been in the freezer was baked in a conventional manner.

Quite a few sentences that are structurally unambiguous are locally ambiguous. They contain a point at which, in left—to-right parsing, the parser could take one of several paths, and the information that determines which is correct occurs only later in the sentence. In the case of parsers with limited lookahead, the disambiguating information may be out of sight and a choice may have to be made without it. If this choice is wrong, the parser will eventually find itself self off in entirely the wrong direction, unable to find any correct parse.

These principles predict many of the syntactic biases of English, Frazier & Fodor (1978; 115) shows that they are inherent consequences of a two-stage parsing model she presents. However, the principles sometimes conflict, or interact in complex ways. In cases such as prepositional phrase attachment, when both a noun phrase and its dominating verb phrase could receive the PP, Low Right Attachment suggests that the NP (the lowest, right-most node) should take it, while Minimal Attachment prefers the VP because NP attachment allegedly requires an extra NP node above the resulting complex NP. Most people have trouble with the sentences (see above) the first time they see them. To find which parse is the one preferred in each particular case, a parser needs help from both world knowledge and discourse context, as well as knowledge about preferred attachments.

8.2 Structural (Surface and Deep Structure) Ambiguity

According to the standard theory of transformational grammar, every sentence has two distinct levels of syntactic structure, linked by rules of a particular kind called *transformations*. These two levels are *deep structure* and *surface structure*. They differ formally in that they are generated by rules of a different kind, Lyons, J. (1995; 211).

A sentence is structurally ambiguous if words or phrases in it can play several grammatical roles and thus can be put together in several ways to form a correct sentence. According to Kreidler (1998; 169) syntactic ambiguity as may happen in the surface structure of a sentence because words are arranged together in different possible constructions. Also structural ambiguity may happen in the deep structure because one sequence of words may have more than one interpretation, generally because the rules of sentence construction allow ellipsis, the deletion of what is ‘understood.’

Structural ambiguity refers to the situation in which ‘a sentence may have different meanings because the words of a sentence are related to each other in various ways, even though each word is clear’ Hurford & Heasley (1983; 128), e.g.

15) Ted saw a girl with his glasses

16) Ted saw a girl with her glasses.

A sentence like (16) illustrates two different possibilities - one is that Ted saw a girl with his glasses; the other one is that *Ted saw a girl with her glasses*. Distinguishing from lexical ambiguity, all the words in this sentence are clear on their individual meanings. Thus, a simple test for differentiating these two types is that the sentence which includes more than one structure trees without individually ambiguous words is a structurally ambiguous sentence. Hence, two distinct structure trees of (16) are shown as following:

However, such ambiguity does not always cause a problem in comprehension. Receivers sometimes could use background knowledge to interpret some ambiguous sentences as some examples from semantics, Saeed, I. J. (2003; 193).

Syntactic ambiguity may be in the surface structure of a sentence: words can cluster together in different possible constructions. Sentences may also contain ambiguities, different from the lexical ambiguity and referential ambiguity. Syntactic ambiguity may also be in the deep structure: one sequence of words may have more than one interpretation, generally because the rules of sentence construction allow ellipsis, the deletion of what is ‘understood’, Kreidler (1998; 169). We very frequently hear it called amphiboly or amphibology, which is a situation where a sentence might be interpreted in more than one way due to ambiguous sentence structure. It arises not from the range of meanings of single words, but from the relationship

between the words and clauses of a sentence, and the sentence structure underlying the word order therein. That is to say, a sentence is syntactically ambiguous when a reader or listener can reasonably interpret it as having more than one possible structure.

Structural ambiguity or syntactic ambiguity is created by confusion between different classes of parts of speech, so that the two interpretations require a restructuring of the sentence. This kind of ambiguity, analyzed by Oaks (1994; 378), is well represented by the example he gives:

17) Man in Restaurant: I'll have two lamb chops, and make them lean,
please!

Waiter: To which side, sir?

where 'the change in meaning of lean (. . .) actually comes out by a differentiation of our perception regarding the structure of the sentence, creating a structural ambiguity'.

Syntactic ambiguity often stems from the different grammatical relations among the phrase or clause constituents. Linguistic investigation has so far revealed that structuralists identified ambiguity as one of the English linguistic phenomena, Lyons, J. (1977; 236). However, transformationalists were the first to introduce syntactic structures Chomsky, N. (1957). This version contains phrase structure rules written in symbols and used for generating sentences and then led to the invention of tree-diagram, which is used to solve some cases of ambiguity.

Structuralists attribute *syntactic ambiguity* either to the lack of certain grammatical indications such as deictic words, word order or inflection, which are responsible for word class ambiguity or to the grammatical relations between the immediate constituents of a construction or to the grammatical relations between the immediate constituents of a construction. As for 'class ambiguity' which is frequently observed in telegrams and newspaper headlines, structuralists, Charles. C. Fries (1967; 138) say that for the sake of economy and exactness, certain grammatical indications such as function words can be left out from a sentence; e.g.

18) He looked at the man with one eye

The phrase with one eye could either be attached to the man or else directly to the verb phrase.

It is not always clear when we have a case of structural ambiguity. Consider, for example, the elliptical sentence, ' Oliver knows a smarter man than Harry'. It has two meanings, that Oliver knows a man who is smarter than Harry and that Oliver knows man who is smarter than any man Harry knows, and is therefore ambiguous. But what about the sentence *Charlie loves his father and so does Oscar?*

It can be used to say either that Charlie loves Charlie's father and Oscar loves Oscar's father or that Charlie loves Oscar's mother and Oscar loves Charlie's mother.

But is it really ambiguous? One might argue that the clause 'so does Oscar' is unambiguous and may be read unequivocally as saying in the context that Oscar does the same thing that Charlie does, and although there are two different possibilities for what counts as doing the same thing, these alternatives are not fixed semantically. Hence the ambiguity is merely apparent and better described as semantic underdetermination.

Let look at now the following sentences:

- 19) William saw a woman with his glasses
- 20) William saw a woman with her glasses

A sentence like (b) illustrates two different possibilities - one is that William saw a woman with his glasses; the other one is that William saw a woman with her glasses. Distinguishing from lexical ambiguity, all the words in this sentence are clear on their individual meanings. Thus, a simple test for differentiating these two types is that the sentence which includes more than one structure trees without individually ambiguous words is a structurally ambiguous sentence.

However, such ambiguity does not always cause a problem in comprehension. Receivers sometimes could use background knowledge to interpret some ambiguous sentences as some examples from *Semantics* (Saeed 2003; 193).

Structural ambiguity, as mentioned above, occurs when a phrase or sentence has more than one underlying structure, such as the phrases ‘American history teacher’, ‘a man of low immoral principles’ and ‘tall boys and girls’, and the sentences ‘The owner hit the employee with a hammer’ and ‘This morning I shot an elephant in my pajamas. How he got in my pajamas I don't know.’ These ambiguities are said to be structural because each such phrase can be represented in two structurally different ways, e.g., ‘[American history] teacher’ and ‘American [history teacher]’, Spasič, M. D. (2012; 233). Indeed, the existence of such ambiguities provides strong evidence for a level of underlying syntactic structure. Consider the structurally ambiguous sentence, 'The chicken is ready to eat', which could be used to describe either a hungry chicken or a broiled chicken. It is arguable that the operative reading depends on whether or not the implicit subject of the infinitive clause ‘to eat’ is tied anaphorically to the subject ('the chicken') of the main clause.

The parser on such occasions deduces what it can of the deep structure based on certain cues, applying heuristics distinct from the rules or principles of the mental grammar. However, surface cues are bound to be language-specific. To the extent that the parser is a mechanism (rather than a collection of surface-deep correlations about a language), it is implausible to suppose that each human builds it from scratch on the basis of experience, J.D. Fodor, (1998; 287). Different observable outcomes are possible because the ways in which ambiguity and structural complexity are distributed through sentences depends on many incidental facts of a grammar, and differ from one language to another.

Frazier affirms in 1987 that within the language-processing system the only natural way to deal with ambiguity is for the processor to compute all well-formed analyses at each level of structure, Frazier, L (1987; 292). He emphasizes that analysis that turn out to be ill formed or inappropriate at some later level of analysis may simply be discarded at that level; for example, a phonological representation that happens to be syntactically ill formed may be discarded by the syntactic processor. Sentence processing is best understood in terms of the construction of a model or a representation discourse. It is the complexity of constructing or adding to the discourse model that governs the operations of the sentence processor and thus predicts the relative complexity of different sentence structures and the particular analysis assigned to ambiguous inputs; e.g.

- 21) The boss ordered the food agreed it was great. (nonminimal -reduced relative)
- 22) The boss ordered the food and agreed it was great. (minimal - main clause)
- 23) William loaded the items on the trolley onto the van. (nonminimal - complex NP)
- 24) William loaded the items on the trolley after tea break. (minimal - simple NP)

The referential success or failure of a particular analysis of an ambiguous phrase determines which analysis is originally computed for the phrase. However, this could not operate until the potentially referential head of a phrase (e.g., a relative clause) had been encountered. In consistently head-final languages, this entails long delays of analysis. Let take for example the sentence which is ambiguous. Minimal Attachment predicts that the girl will be attached directly to the VP node, resulting in a sentential-complement analysis of the string that Bill liked the story. The alternative (relative -clause) analysis would require an NP to be inserted between the NP node dominating the girl and the VP node, as indicated by the left brackets in Ben told [[the boy [that Jane liked]] the movie; e.g.

- 25) Ben told the boy that Jane liked the movie.
- 26) Ben told the boy [s that Jane liked the movie]. *complement clause*
- 27) Ben told [[the boy [that Jane liked]] the movie. *relative clause*

A parallel or a multiple analysis hypothesis predicts that ambiguous strings should take longer than unambiguous ones, but in a temporarily ambiguous sentence it should make no difference whether items following the ambiguous portion of the sentence happen to be consistent with one analysis (e.g. the director the other (e.g. sentential complement analysis). It has been suggested that ambiguity increases processing complexity, but in fact this remains empirical because there are some other suggestions opposing it.

The syntactic ambiguities that supported the view that ambiguity increases complexity and have not been dismissed as experimental artifacts were found almost invariably in one of two types of constructions: those that were eventually disambiguated toward the unpreferred structure of a constituent-structure ambiguity and those that used to be characterized as "deep-structure" ambiguities (today these might better be characterized as thematic ambiguities). In the

latter type more than one analysis of the ambiguity is computed since ambiguity per se increases complexity regardless of which structural analysis is ultimately appropriate.

These effects provided by the presenting biasing sentence in the following case were significant for lexical ambiguities and for deep structure ambiguities, e.g.

28) The officials were told to stop joking

but not for surface-structure ambiguities. Some scholars have noted that significant effects of syntactic ambiguities were found only for deep-structure ambiguities or, though there may be some effects of surface ambiguities, the largest effects were found for these. The processing of several types of ambiguities has been examined and concluded that the deep-structure ambiguities are not consistently interpreted according to a given structure at least. The deep-structure ambiguities were of *the shooting of the hunter's* variety again involving an ambiguity in the assignment of thematic relations rather than in constituent structure. Thus, we seem to derive the correct distinction between structures where ambiguity complicates sentence analysis only when the unpreferred structure proves ultimately to be appropriate and structures where ambiguity apparently always induces a comparison of alternative structures with no syntactic default.

Ambiguity resolution is a central problem in language comprehension, both for lexical and syntactic ambiguity. Lexical and syntactic ambiguities are assumed to involve different types of knowledge representations and are resolved by different mechanisms. An alternative account is provided in which both types of ambiguity derive from aspects of lexical representation and are resolved by the same processing mechanisms. Reinterpreting syntactic ambiguity resolution as a form of lexical ambiguity resolution obviates the need for special parsing principles to account for syntactic interpretation preferences, reconciles a number of apparently conflicting results concerning the roles of lexical and contextual information in sentence processing, explains differences among ambiguities in terms of ease of resolution, and provides a more unified account of language comprehension than was previously available.

One of the principal goals for a theory of language comprehension is to explain how the reader or listener copes with a pervasive ambiguity problem. Languages are structured at multiple levels simultaneously, including lexical, phonological, morphological, syntactic, and

text or discourse levels. At any given point in a sentence, the available information can be ambiguous at many levels. To take a simple example, the word *watch* is ambiguous between alternative meanings (e.g. ‘a time piece,’ ‘to observe’). It is also ambiguous in its grammatical category (noun or verb). The verb sense of watch creates further ambiguity because it can participate in several different syntactic structures, including transitive (e.g. William watched Megy) and intransitive (e.g. William watched intensely). Comprehension involves resolving many ambiguities so as to converge on one interpretation, usually the one intended by the speaker or writer.

Lexical ambiguities pervade natural language, with words exhibiting different types and degrees of ambiguity. For example, the alternative senses of ambiguous words can be spelled and pronounced the same (e.g. rose), spelled the same but pronounced differently (e.g. bass or wind), or spelled differently but pronounced the same (e.g. team or team). Almost all words in the English lexicon exhibit a nonzero degree of ambiguity, some acutely so. Theorizing about lexical ambiguity resolution has been heavily influenced by the finding that comprehenders briefly activate multiple senses of ambiguous words even in clearly disambiguating contexts.

The nature of the processing that occurs at the point of disambiguation will depend on whether the ultimate resolution of the ambiguity corresponds to the preferred or unpreferred interpretation. The additional processing time for an ambiguous sentence could also be (partially) due to the selection process itself (MacDonald et al. 1994; 676).

The alternative meanings of words are thought to be stored in memory and “accessed” in processing (MacDonald et al. 1992; 677). In the initial stage of processing an ambiguous word, multiple meanings are considered in parallel, with contextual information used shortly afterward to select the relevant one and suppress all alternatives. It has been assumed that multiple meanings can be accessed in parallel because this process is automatic and capacity free (MacDonald et al. 1992; 678).

For example, compare the unambiguous/ambiguous pair *spoke* and *push*. The verb *spoke* is intransitive and can take no indirect or direct objects. By contrast, *push* can take several types of arguments; it can take a direct object (William pushed the ball), an indirect object following a direct object (William pushed the ball to Megy), and it can be used in a ‘dative shift’

construction in which the indirect object precedes the direct object (William passed Mary the ball). The ambiguous verbs *spoke* and *push* were chosen because they allow a reduced relative interpretation. However, they could also permit more possible argument structures. Thus, the increase in reading time in the ambiguous condition could be owing to a different sort of ambiguity than was initially postulated.

Many of the differences between the lexical and syntactic ambiguity resolution mechanisms derive from assumptions about the types of knowledge involved in each domain. Lexical ambiguity is thought to involve meanings that are stored in the lexicon. Processing involves accessing this information, which is assumed to be accomplished automatically and in parallel. Syntactic structures, by contrast, are thought to be constructed on the basis of grammatical rules rather than stored directly in memory. The lexical processor is isolated from nonlexical processors, and multiple meanings of ambiguous words are accessed, even in the presence of potentially disambiguating contextual information. In both lexical and syntactic cases, context effects stem from systems that operate on the output of their respective modules (MacDonald et al. 1992; 678).

The words in a person's vocabulary are thought to be encoded as entries in a mental lexicon; recognizing a word involves accessing its entry. For ambiguous words, the issue was whether readers access a single meaning or multiple meanings of such words in context.

Another structure we consider is the PP attachment ambiguity, which arises when a PP appears following a verb and its direct object noun. The ambiguity is whether the PP modifies the verb (the verb attachment interpretation) or the direct object (noun attachment). These ambiguities usually do not contain a definitive syntactic disambiguation later in the sentence; only the relative plausibility of the alternatives suggests the preferred interpretation. Here we can see examples in which the ambiguous PPs are shown in uppercase letters and the thematic role assigned by the preposition is also shown. Example 1 is most plausible with noun attachment, as shown by the brackets, 2 is most plausible with verb attachment, and 3-4 show the verb, and noun-based argument structure frequency biases to alternative interpretations for a more ambiguous sentence, e.g.

29) William [ordered [an ice cream *with vanilla*]] N attachment, attribute

- 30) Joan [closed [the satchel) in a hurry] V attachment, manner
- 31) The platoon [saw [the enemies with binoculars]] N attachment, attribute
- 32) The thief (saw [the officer] with the binoculars] V attachment, Instrument

The brackets in the examples suggest that both interpretations are equally syntactically complex, as assumed in many syntactic analyses. However, the syntactic analysis suggests that noun attachment involves the more complex syntactic structure, so that application of minimal attachment yields the verb attachment.

The arena for syntactic processing is the lexicon, in that syntactic structure is built through links between individual lexical items. This approach retains the idea that syntactic structure is computed during comprehension but abandons the parser, a modular, special-purpose processor that combines knowledge of grammar with special-purpose algorithms such as minimal attachment.

Frazier affirms that within the language-processing system the only natural way to deal with ambiguity is that the processor computes all well-formed analyses at each level of structure, Frazier, L. (1987; 292). Sentence processing is best understood in terms of the construction of a model or a representation discourse. It is the complexity of constructing or adding to the discourse model that governs the operations of the sentence processor and thus predicts the relative complexity of different sentence structures and the particular analysis assigned to ambiguous inputs; e.g.

- 33) The boss ordered the food agreed it was great. (nonminimal -reduced relative)
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The referential success or failure of a particular analysis of an ambiguous phrase determines which analysis is originally computed for the phrase. However, this could not operate until the potentially referential head of a phrase (e.g., a relative clause) had been encountered. In consistently head-final languages, this entails long delays of analysis. Let's take for example the following sentence which is ambiguous. Minimal Attachment predicts that the girl will be

attached directly to the VP node, resulting in a sentential-complement analysis of the string that Bill liked the story. The alternative (relative -clause) analysis would require an NP to be inserted between the NP node dominating the girl and the VP node, as indicated by the left brackets in Ben told [[the boy [that Jane liked]] the movie; e.g.

37) Ben told the boy that Jane liked the movie.

38) Ben told the boy [s that Jane liked the movie]. *complement clause*

39) Ben told [[the boy [that Jane liked]] the movie. *relative clause*

A parallel or a multiple analysis hypothesis predicts that ambiguous strings should take longer than unambiguous ones, but in a temporarily ambiguous sentence it should make no difference whether items following the ambiguous portion of the sentence happen to be consistent with one analysis (e.g. the director the other (e.g. sentential complement analysis). It has been suggested that ambiguity increases processing complexity, but in fact this remains empirical because there are some other suggestions opposing it.

The syntactic ambiguities that supported the view that ambiguity increases complexity and have not been dismissed as experimental artifacts were found almost invariably in one of two types of constructions: those that were eventually disambiguated toward the unpreferred structure of a constituent-structure ambiguity and those that used to be characterized as "deep-structure" ambiguities (today these might better be characterized as thematic ambiguities). In the latter type more than one analysis of the ambiguity is computed since ambiguity per se increases complexity regardless of which structural analysis is ultimately appropriate.

These effects provided by the presenting biasing sentence in the following case were significant for lexical ambiguities and for deep structure ambiguities

40) The officials were told to stop joking.

but not for surface-structure ambiguities. Some scholars have noted that significant effects of syntactic ambiguities were found only for deep-structure ambiguities or, though there may be some effects of surface ambiguities, the largest effects were found for these. The processing of several types of ambiguities has been examined and concluded that the deep-structure

ambiguities are not consistently interpreted according to a given structure at least what can be seemed. The deep-structure ambiguities were of *the shooting of the hunter's* variety again involving an ambiguity in the assignment of thematic relations rather than in constituent structure. Thus, we seem to derive the correct distinction between structures were ambiguity complicates sentence analysis only when the unpreferred structure proves ultimately to be appropriate and structures where ambiguity apparently always induces a comparison of alternative structures with no syntactic default.

It can be concluded that according to the way ambiguity occurs, it is classified into lexical and structural. From the examples above and taking into account analysis linguists and scholars provide, it is implicit that lexical ambiguity occurs when a word exhibits more than one meaning in a clause and the proper interpretation accounts on its use in the context. Homonymous words are famous for producing ambiguous situations in a language, not to leave aside polysemy which of course has its own part in it. On the other hand structural ambiguity is rather complicated because ambiguity now occurs in the whole clause and not in a single word differently from lexical ambiguity. Although there is a subdivision regarding structural or syntactic ambiguity, that is surface and deep structure ambiguity, again in principle this is rather crucial because learners of English as a second language (L2) have to analyze the whole sentence because it is the whole pattern in the ground causing ambiguous situation and certainly in order to have the required result the pattern has to be disambiguated properly.

Chapter IX

The Contrastive Analysis of the English – ING Clause as Prepositional Complement and Its Albanian Correspondents

English *-ing*-clauses show that language users can operate with different grammatical generalizations at once. It is hard to imagine that speakers should be unaware of the ties between *-ing*-clauses and the phrasal categories. Its alignment with the phrasal categories makes important predictions about where *-ing*-clauses can and cannot occur and it is very unlikely that language users should be unaware of these. In general, *-ing*-clauses occur in nominal slots (subject, subject complement, direct object, prepositional complement) and adjectival/adverbial slots (adjunct, disjunct, secondary complement, relative postmodifier). In the *Handbook of English Grammar* 1957, Zandvoort starts his discussion by claiming that *all words derived from a verb stem by means of the suffix -ing may be used in a variety of meanings and functions, according to the context in which they occur*, Zandvoort (1957: 24). At the same time, this *-ing* form may have a verbal function too. In addition, Zandvoort also claims that it can take an object or be qualified by an adverb, e.g. (V + PREP + ING)

- 1) a. I am fond of *smoking* a pipe, He educated himself by *reading* widely.
- b. Më pëlqen duhani me llullë, U arsimua duke lexuar shumë.

-Ing clauses have always been discussed in details in the *English Grammar*, (Curme, O. 1963 276 & Quirk et a. 1985; 1063), but under different categories. The representation of grammatical categories must therefore be internally complex, allowing grammatical categories to be simultaneously unified and distinct, interrelated and autonomous. An *-ing* clause can be seen as a gerund, as a verbal noun or as a present participle, but of course this is not the purpose of my study. If language users manage to treat the (*ing*)-variable differently in participles and gerunds they must be able to keep track of the difference between those two categories. Language users do not seem to see *-ing*-clauses as a single homogeneous category. The purpose of my study, as such, is to scrutinize the *-ing* clauses as prepositional complements. Unification of *-ing* clauses

into a single category is logically independent of the validity of distributional generalizations across *-ing* clauses and different phrasal categories. The prepositional complement will be analysed in different corpuses.

The prepositional complement is typically a noun phrase, but it may also be a nominal relative clause or an *-ing* clause. Both the nominal relative clause and the *-ing* clause have a range of functions similar to that of a noun phrase, (Greenbaum, S.& Nelson, G, (2002; 70).

- a) complement as noun phrase; through *the window*
- b) complement as nominal relative clause; from *what I heard* ('from that which I heard')
- c) complement as *-ing* clause; after *speaking to you*

As its name suggests, the preposition ('preceding position') normally comes before the prepositional complement. They introduce a prepositional phrase, and are followed by a prepositional complement, Greenbaum, S.& Nelson, G, (2002; 112). The preposition links the complement to some other expression. There are several exceptions, however, where the complement is moved and the preposition is left stranded. The stranding is obligatory when the complement is transformed into the subject of the sentence:

- 2) Your case_i will soon be attended *to*. Rasti yt do të shihet.
- 3) This ball_i is for you to play *with*. Ky top është për të luajtur ti.
- 4) The picture_i is worth looking *at*. Ja vlen ta shohësh këtë picture.

Characteristic of the Albanian sentences referring to the sentences above is that no preposition in Albanian is used. We can provide different alternatives so that its English prepositional counterparts are used, but of course this is standard or official linguistic interpretation and the corpus does not change.

In *Introduction to English Syntax*, Burton-Roberts (1997; 260), it is emphasized that only *-ing* participle clauses can be embedded in a prepositional phrase. Prepositional phrases itself might be in an embedded position within another constituent or function as an adverbial, e.g.

Adjective Phrase postmodified by a prepositional phrase: Adj + Prep + *-Ing*

- 5) He was hopeless *at* writing letters. Adverbial in the form of a prepositional phrase:
- 6) Nuk ja thonte fare *për* të shkruajtur letra. (Form of infinitive, *për* preposition in accusative)
- 7) I can do this *without* using my hands.
- 8) Mund t'a bëj dhe *pa* duar.

Preposition is necessary and cannot be left out in any of the two languages (Albanian or English).

In cases where the *-ing* form is the complementation of a preposition determined by preceding lexemes, it fulfils an obligatory grammatical function as nominal prepositional complement/object and is classified as such, as in;

- 9) The idea is to *stop the stones from being crushed* and from rattling around and being broken.

According to the Albanian Bahri Beci (2005) these construction are used to show intentions, purpose or cause of the action, they resemble the infinitive form; Bahri Beci (2005; 148).

- 10) Ideja është që të ndalojmë gurët të mos copëtohen nga rrokullisja dhe të mos ndahen.

Besides noun phrases, the complement of the preposition can be an *-ing* clause or an indirect question, e.g.

- 11) He is worried *about making the right impression*.

The pattern after the preposition is very consistent and is undoubtedly regarded as a whole.

- 12) Shqetësohet që të japi përshtypjen e duhur.

It is very important to emphasize that in our corpus various prepositions are used as compliments to the *-ing*, for example, in present-day English it is possible to find instances where the verb is followed either by an *at -ing* complement or an *on -ing* complement. A feature

common to these patterns is that the subject of the matrix verb is also the understood subject of the gerund of the lower-level complement clause.

13) We're supposed to work *at* getting the angle exactly, perfectly right.

14) Na duhet që të punojmë që të kapim këndin me saktësi, fiks.

15) Rihat Çela, owns his own public relations company and works *on* organizing some big events.

16) Rihat Çela, ka kompaninë e tij të marrëdhënjeve me publikun dhe punon për të organizuar ca evenimente të mëdha.

In both sentences the matrix verb *work* selects a preposition, *at* and *on* and an immediately following *-ing* clause as its complement, with the *-ing* clause being a gerund. In the first the complement clause is what is here termed an *at -ing* complement and in the second it is an *on -ing* prepositional complement to the main verb. It is assumed here that the gerundial complements are sentential, with their own understood subjects.

The syntactic structures of both of the above sentences are similar in another important way. In both types of sentence, the matrix verb *work* assigns a semantic role to its subject, and the prepositional *-ing* complements of *work* therefore involve control (the prepositional *-ing* clause controls the function of the verb). More specifically, they involve subject control in both sentences. The structures or corpus may be represented with the symbol PRO by Chomsky (1985; 119–131).

NP1 work [at/on]Prep [[[PRO]NP2 Verb2ing ...]S2]NP

Frank pays a lot of attention to the function of *ing* phrase. She states that *any verb used as the object in a prepositional phrase takes the form of a gerund* Frank, D. (1993; 319). Nominal function of prepositional gerund phrases is attributed to such gerund phrases which function as prepositional objects of a verb. A lot of the verbs listed under prepositional objects¹ take such gerund objects, e.g.

17) He insisted on *paying the entire bill for dinner*.

18) Ai ngul këmbë *që të paguaj të gjithë faturën e darkës.*

According to the Albanian scholar Shaban Demiraj *Gramatika e Gjuhës Shqipe, vëllimi i pare*, (2002), the preposition occurring before a whole pattern it changes into a nominal phrase, Shaban Demiraj (2002; 381-382).

19) Tregtari e nxiste me një *eja pazarin tjetër.*

20) The merchant encouraged him with a *come next shopping.*

It is very important here to state that the preposition *me (with)* in Albanian may be omitted providing another alternative for the same sentence and the same meaning, and this is not applicable for the English version.

21) Tregtari e nxiste ‘*eja pazarin tjetër*’

We have noticed that textbooks issued in the last two decades do not even mention the term *gerund*. For example in *A Student’s Grammar of the English Language* (Quirk & Greenbaum 1990: 312) the authors speak of *nominal –ing clauses*. Only in a footnote do the authors claim that the *–ing participle in a nominal clause is commonly called a gerund*. (Quirk & Greenbaum 1990: 313) Their classification of syntactic functions of this form somewhat differs from Frank’s (1957). Nominal –ing clauses may function as (Greenbaum & Quirk 1990; 312):

Adjectival complementation Adj + Prep + Ing

22) They are busy *preparing a barbecue.*

The Albanian counterpart for this Adjectival complementation may be either represented as the example above or in another way which requires the accusative preposition *me*;

23) Janë të zënë *me* *pregaditjen e barbikjus.*

The same authors deal with nominal –ing clauses, i.e. gerund phrase, in their *University Grammar of English* (1998; 321) too. They now introduce the term *participle clause* to depict a closer definition of the nominal –ing clause. Their classification of syntactic functions is almost the same as in their previous textbook, only in the new edition they added one more function a gerund phrase can obtain in a sentence. This is the function of:

Prepositional complement. Adj + Prep + Ing

24) I am tired *of being treated like a child*.

25) Jam i lodhur së trajtuari si fëmijë

The cause in the sentence above may also be represented in Albanian in another way, too.

26) Jam i lodhur ngaqë trajtohem si fëmijë. *Trajtohem* here, is used in passive not as an –ing verb

Quirk and Greenbaum are not the only grammarians who use the term *nominal –ing clauses*. In the *Longman Grammar of Spoken and written English* Biber, J. (1999; 199), the author only mentions *–ing clauses* as such, and does not even classify them as nominal. He never uses term *gerund*. Biber gives a detailed classification of syntactic functions of –ing clauses, Biber (1999; 199-200):

Complement of preposition N + Prep + Ing

27) *The art of expanding* limited recall by asking leading, open-ended question is a subtle one.

28) Art i përmisimit të kujtesës duke bërë pyetje orientuese me shtjellim është e saktë.

As can be seen in the sentence above the corpus may very well be like the Albanian one, it doesn't change because the meaning of the sentence changes, too.

In their textbook *A Student's Introduction to English Grammar* (Huddleston & Pullum 2005: 312) the authors discuss *gerund-participial clauses*. When it comes to their functions in a sentence, Huddleston and Pullum compare them to those of to-infinitives, but they emphasize that there are some crucial facts that differentiate the types of clauses, which will be stated later. The authors state the following functions of gerund-participial clause (Huddleston & Pullum 2005; 213):

Complement of preposition

29) He insists on *checking everything himself*.

Characteristic of the Albanian sentence for its English counterpart is that the lexical interpretation of the preposition *on* which practically falls under *mbi*, finds another Albanian application that is *for* or *që të*; e.g.

- 30) Ngul këmbë *për* t'a verifikuar gjithçka vetë. or
31) Ngul këmbë që t'a verifikojë gjithçka vetë.

Beci. B (2005) in his book *Gramatika e Gjuhës shqipe*, states that non –finite form of the verb requires prepositional complement using the preposition *without* for an unfinished action in the past or in the future, Beci. B (2005; 147).

- 32) Ai u largua *pa* thënë asnjë fjalë.
33) He left *without* saying a word.

In the majority of the cases, verb phrases are defined as phrases that are formed by a verb and any modifiers, complements, infinitive markers, and particles. For example, the following italicized verb phrases function as prepositional complements:

- 34) a)The publisher thanks you for *writing the book*.
b)Botuesi të falenderon që e shkruajte librin

Even the progressive, according to Leech, G. (1987), because of its idea of non-completion, with regard to prepositions *for* and *in* cannot be combined with an *in*-phrase, but only with a *for*-phrase, (Leech, G., 1987; 21), e.g.

- 35) They *were walking for* a couple of hours.
36) They *were walking home for* a couple of hours.
37) They *were walking in* a couple of hours.
38) They *were walking home in* a couple of hours.

It is very important to emphasize here that sentence 36 and 37 have another interpretation and differently from English the usage of the preposition in Albanian is necessary, e.g

- 39) Ata ecën *për* disa orë.
40) Ata ecën *për* në shtëpi *për* disa orë. (*për në* is necessary in Albanian)
41) Ata ecën *për* disa orë. (preposition *in* converted with the preposition *për* in Albanian)

42) Ata ecën për në shtëpi për disa orë. (No change in implying the same meaning, simply prepositions converted from English into Albanian).

Characteristic of some free prepositions in English is the fact that some of them may replace each other and even resemble the infinitive form when used even in a single sentence but this is not practical for Albanian counterparts, e.g.

43) I'm prepared **about** [for] dying early.

In the sentence *prepared* has to be followed by *for*, a clear case of a bound preposition; another possible option is *prepared to die*, with a *to*-infinitive. The error is clearly inspired by Albanian *rreth vdekjes* (*për të vdekur*). *Rreth vdekjes* is an *-ing* form in Albanian, whereas *për të vdekur* is an infinitive and both may substitute each other very well in the sentence without changing its meaning.

Free prepositions typically have a more clearly defined meaning than bound prepositions, such as denoting time (e.g. *during*) or place (e.g. *between*), but abstract and metaphorical meanings are common.

Let's have a look at the preposition *with* complemented by the *ing*- phrase and compare with the Albanian counterpart *me*, a preposition of the accusative case. The preposition *with* can be followed by the *-ing* form of the verb. These types of complements can also be called sentential complements and they occur very freely. When *with* in a passive sentence is complemented by an *-ing* phrase, the subject of the *-ing* form may be the same as the object of the finite verb of the sentence, Rudanko, J (1996; 135,136), e.g.

V (passive) + Prep + Ing

44) He was charged *with* attacking the police officers.

In this case the preposition *with* is used with the verb charge. Its Albanian counterpart is *për* and like in English they belong to fixed expressions and you only need to know its counterpart in both languages. Thus the above example can be interpreted in Albanian in this way, e.g.

45) Ai u dënua *për* sulm ndaj policisë.

Some other verbs resembling the instance above are; V + Prep + Ing

- *Be sorry for*

46) He was so sorry *for* being late. Atij i erdhi shumë keq për vonesën (që ishte vonë).

- *Prefer to*

47) She prefers eating out *to* staying in.

- *Good at*

Adj + Prep + Ing

48) We are good *at* playing sport. Ne jemi të mire *në* sport. (*at –në*)

-*Talented in*

49) The student is talented *in* drawing. Studenti (studentja) është i (e) talentuar në picture.

Or constructions like; *Look forward to + Ing*

50) They are *looking forward to going on* holiday. Ata po i presin *me* padurim pushimet or

Po presin *për* pushimet *me* padurim.

Used to + Ing

51) The engineer is used to working alone. Inxhinieri është mësuar *të* punojë vetëm. (Infinitive form).

Various authors have attempted to explain the selectional restrictions in the area of verb complementation by invoking the semantics of verbs and complement types, Bresnan, J. (1977; 297). As far as *-ing*-clause complements are concerned, the distributional problem can to a large extent be solved more easily by the general rule that *-ing*-clauses are licensed as complements with those verbs that also allow one of their phrasal category counterparts in a complement position. To incorporate all of the above into a coherent analysis of English *-ing*-clauses requires a certain view of syntactic categories. Language users can be inconsistent and can base their

output on different generalizations that are synchronically available. Such inconsistency is probably neither exceptional nor temporary. In principle if we want to use a verb after a preposition, it must be in -ing form. It is impossible to use an infinitive after a preposition. This can be viewed from the beginning of the analysis. The contrast made here is very useful and helpful, although a more detailed analysis of the *-ing* clauses as prepositional complement will be treated in the next chapter (Chapter X).

Chapter X

Categorization of the Differences, Similarities and Identities Between the English –ING Clause as Prepositional Complement and Their Albanian Correspondents

This chapter of the doctorate thesis will target the two languages, English (L2) and Albanian (L1), in relation to their syntactic structures and the use of prepositions. Based on this study, teaching complex English syntactic structures and use of prepositions requires an exhaustive search about the use of methods and techniques transmitting knowledge to second language learners. While doing this, EFL teachers/students should pay attention to the role of the mother tongue influencing the second language acquisition. Most linguists say that the role of L1 is the most significant part at the early stages of second language acquisition. However, Pit Corder cited in Gass & Selinker (1993; 23) disagree with this view, arguing that it is not the starting point of the L1 in syntactic acquisition (the use of prepositions included), but it is a continuation of increasing complexity or as he called it a *developmental continuum* which takes place in second language acquisition. It is because of this that it is assumed that EFL learners will have trouble in manoeuvring with these linguistic structures in their language output.

I. The contrastive analysis of the English – ING clause as prepositional complement and its Albanian correspondents

The prepositional complement is sometimes referred to as object of preposition. Curme cited in Velecka (2010; 51) that “to serve as the object of a preposition is one of the most common functions of the –ING form”.

According to Velecká, A. (2010; 50), the prepositional verb might be understood as a verb that is closely bound to a preposition. Dušková also cited in Velecká (2010; 51) that the –

ING clause proceeds by assuring that the prepositional verbs do not differ from the ‘bare’ (‘non-preposition’) verb taking the direct object. The nominal –ING clause after prepositions will be described and analyzed in terms of contrastive analysis in order to determine whether the Albanian correspondents are identical, similar or different.

In our corpus the nominal –ING clauses occur as prepositional complement in the following structural patterns: **a. Adj. + Prep. + -ING clause**, **b. N. + Prep. + – ING clause** **c. V. + Prep. + - ING clause**. These structural patterns will be compared contrastively with their Albanian correspondents.

Let’s illustrate these three patterns by the following examples:

1) a. Nationalism has been remarkably successful **in establishing national identity as a people’s primary affiliation in much of the world.**

b. Nacionalizimi ka qenë jashtëzakonisht i suksesshëm **për forcimin e dallueshmërisë kombëtare si një ndjenjë përparësore e njerëzve në një pjesë të madhe të vendeve të botës.**

The English example in (1) contains the pattern **Adj. + Prep. (in) + ING clause**. The English structural pattern has an Albanian complex abstract verbal noun as its correspondent. Its Albanian correspondent contains the preposition *për*: **Adj. + Prep. (për) + Verbal noun phrase**. Domi, M. (2002; 140) states that the endings *im* and *je* are added to verbs and are very productive in forming abstract verbal nouns in Albanian; *besim (belief)*, *vërtetim (confirmation)* etj; *ecje (walking)*, *vuajtje (suffering)*. Based on the same preposition *in* the English structural pattern **N. + Prep. (in) + ING clause** in the following example from our corpus resulted in having the same structural pattern as its Albanian correspondent. The noun *suksese* in Albanian determines the use of the preposition *në*. This can be seen in the example below:

2) a. The Soviet economy had some notable successes **in rapidly industrializing the country in the 1930s.** (International Relations; 35).

b. Ekonomia Sovjetike kishte pasur disa suksese **në industrializimin e shpejtë të vendit në vitet 1930.**

- 3) a. For even in the depths o' winter there's some pleasure *in conquering the butter*,
 b. Edhe në mes të dimrit mund të kënaqesh **duke nxjerrë gjalpin**.

However, in examples (2) and (3), the same English structural patterns **N + Prep. (in) + -ING clause** have two different Albanian correspondents. In example (2) the Albanian correspondent **N+ Prep. (në) + Verbal NP** is similar to the English pattern and is introduced by an abstract noun with the preposition *në*. In example (3), the English structural pattern has a different Albanian correspondent which is introduced by a non-finite clause with the particle *duke*.

- 4) a. Ai e siguronte jetesën *duke bërë* punë të rëndomta.
 b. He earned the living *by doing* drudgery work.

The Albanian correspondents of the English –ING clause as prepositional complement differ according to whether the same preposition follows a noun or a verb in the sentence (see the sentences above where the preposition *by* can either be omitted or translated *me. By*, generally stands for *nga* in Albanian).

The contrastive analysis of the following examples reveals some of the important differences between the prepositional complement of *in* and their Albanian correspondents.

- 5) a. A love affair had to begin after lunch, and however late I might be *in getting to bed* - so long as I slept in my own bed.
 b. Një histori dashurie duhej të fillonte pas dreke, dhe sado vonë **të shkoja në shtrat për të fjetur** – mjafton të flija në shtratin tim.
- 6) a. It was inconceivable how he had existed, how he had succeeded *in getting so far*, how he had managed to remain—why he did not instantly disappear.
 b. Ishte e paimagjinueshme si kishte ekzistuar, si ia kishte dalë **të arrinte aq larg**, si kishte mundur të qëndronte – përse nuk zhdukej menjëherë.

In these two examples taken from our corpus, the two –ING clauses as prepositional complements take their timing from their matrix verb tense. In the examples mentioned above

the English pattern is **V. + Prep. (in) + ING** clause. The Albanian correspondents have no prepositions. The Albanian clauses are introduced by verb phrases in the imperfect subjunctive mood *të shkoja* in (5), and *të arrinte* in (6). Moreover, the Albanian correspondents have the following patterns: (5) **Adj. + Finite clause (FC)**, and (6) **Verbal idiom (kishte dale në krye) + Finite clause (FC)**.

It can be noticed that the English preposition *in* followed by the –ING clause has different Albanian correspondents; as seen in the following examples:

7) a. ...this new concept was a perpetual amazement to Martin, and he found himself engaged continually **in tracing the relationship between all things under the sun and on the other side of the sun.**

b. ...ky koncept i shkaktoi një habi të përhershme Martinit, të cilit paskëtaj i doli një punë më e madhe, **duke kërkuar lidhjet midis të gjitha sendeve**, që ndodhen nën diell e përtej diellit.

8) a. I can't forget him, though I am not prepared to affirm that this fellow was really trustworthy for his life, losing it **by going to** his place.

b. Nuk e harroj dot, edhe pse s'jam i gatshëm të pohoj që ky shok ishte vërtet i denjë për jetën, të cilën e humbëm **duke shkuar tek ai.**

The two actions in the two English examples above happen in the past and contain the progressive aspect. The –ING clause takes its timing from the associated verb and has a range of possible meanings. The examples in (7) and (8) of the English –ING clauses take the timing of past because of the main verbs *engaged* and *lost*.

Duffley, J. P. (2006:16) also states that; 'it is the English preposition *in* which also enables the –ING's event to be evoked as simultaneous to the moment in time occupied by the main verb's event.' The Albanian correspondents are non-finite clauses introduced by the particle *duke* which express the same aspectual meaning of progressiveness. The Albanian prepositions are omitted in front of the non-finite clauses because of the verbs which do not allow them. All constructions **Prep + v + ing** take the progressive particle *duke + participle* in

Albanian preceded by no preposition, obviously that this particle substitutes all the prepositions stemming from this construction.

As stated, there are other prepositions such as *by* and *from* that can be considered in this study, followed by nominal –ING clauses as prepositional complements.

The preposition *by* and its complements are described in the following examples.

- 9) a. This was done *by* **dumping them into a spinning receptacle that went at a rate of a few thousand revolutions a minute**, tearing the matter from the clothes by centrifugal force, (Martin Eden; 130).
b. Kjo kryhej **duke i futur ato në një arkë me vrima**, që rrotullohej disa mijëra here në minutë dhe kë shktu e nxirrte ujët me anë të forces centrifugal.
- 10) a. You pimped *by* **giving opportunities**. You pimped *by* **being a bore and a fool**, so now somebody who isn't a bore and fool is playing about with her in Cedar Road. (The End of the Affair; 43)
b. Ishe piziveng **duke i dhënë raste...duke qenë i mërzitshëm dhe budalla**, kështu që tani dikush nuk është i mërzitshëm e budalla me të në Sedar Roud.

In the above examples *by dumping them into a spinning receptacle* vs. *duke i futur ato në një arkë me vrima*, and *by giving opportunities* vs. *duke i dhënë raste*, it can be noticed that the preposition *by* followed by the –ING clause in (9) and (10) have, as do their Albanian correspondents, non-finite clauses introduced by the particle *duke*. The English structural pattern in both examples is **V + Prep. + Ing** clause. The conclusion is that the prepositions *in* and *by* followed by the nominal –ING clause as complement have, as their Albanian correspondents have, non-finite clauses introduced by the particle *duke*. It can also be noticed that there are no prepositions in the Albanian correspondents. However, the –ING clause as complement after the preposition *by* in the following example, has resulted in having a different Albanian correspondent from the cases in (9 and 10). In example (11) the idea of *keeping his eyes on chance*...fulfils the balance of encoding an on-going activity.

11) a. And perhaps he was cheered *by* **keeping his eye on a chance of promotion to the fleet at Ravenna by-and-by**, if he had good friends in Rome and survived the awful climate.

b. Mbase e mbante shpresa se do **t'i shfaqej rasti të gradohej në flotën e Ravenës**, po të kishte miq të mire në Romë dhe po të shpëtonte nga kjo klimë e tmerrshme.

The – ING clause of English in (10) has as its Albanian correspondent a tensed clause which is introduced by a verb phrase in the imperfect subjunctive mood.

In conclusion, the examples found in our corpus with the preposition *by* followed by – ING clauses as prepositional complement have two different Albanian correspondents: 1) non-finite clause introduced by the particle **duke**, and 2) a finite clause with the verb phrase in the imperfect subjunctive mood.

We will continue our contrastive analysis of the –ING clause as prepositional complement with the preposition *for*. The structural pattern of the following example is **V. + Prep. + ING** clause.

12) a. His eyes were made *for* **seeing**, but up to that moment they had been filled with the ever changing panorama of the world,

b. Sytë i kishte **për të parë**, por gjer në atë cast me ta kishte pare vetëm pamje të panumërta të botës.

According to Çeliku (2004; 110), the Albanian correspondent **për të parë** is preposition *për+ gerund construction*, which in standard Albanian is known as infinitive.

The same English preposition *for* followed by –ING clause in a different corpus example has a different Albanian correspondent:

13) a. Her mother financed the settlement, you see, so the girl wasn't afraid of being punished *for* **letting me go**.

b. Nëna e saj mbante koloninë me të holla, kështu që vajza s'kishte frikë se mund të dënohej **duke më lënë të iki**.

The structural pattern of the Albanian correspondent in (12) of *for letting me go* is a non-finite clause introduced by the particle *duke* showing the progressive aspect.

In the following examples we will continue the contrastive analysis with the preposition *to* followed by the –ING clause complement. The English structural pattern of the following example is **V. + Prep. + ING** clause.

14) a. ‘You do not object *to* **having your picture taken, Mr Eden?**’

b. Kujtoj që nuk do të kundërshtoni **t’ju marrim në fotografi, zoti Eden** – i tha ai.

In example (13), the English –ING clause *to having your picture taken, Mr Eden* has, like its Albanian correspondent, a finite clause introduced by the verb in present tense subjunctive mood. The pattern of the Albanian correspondent is **V + finite clause**. It can be noticed that there is no preposition in this pattern.

The following English example from our corpus has the structural pattern **Adj. + Prep. + ING** clause.

15) a. It's a fair duel, he told himself, he's more accustomed ***to* killing than I am**, the chances are equal enough;

b. Ky është një duel i ndershmëm, - i tha vetes, - fundja ai është më i stërvitur ***për* vrasje se sa unë**, kështu që shanset janë mjaft të barabarta.

The Albanian correspondent of the –ING clause in (14) is a clause introduced by the preposition *për* followed by ***vrasje se sa unë***. In this case it is the Albanian adjective *i stërvitur* that determines which preposition can be used after it.

Based on the examples above we may come to the following conclusion:

The structural pattern of the Albanian correspondents of the English –ING clause after the preposition *to* differ according to whether it follows a verb or adjective in the sentence.

An example of complementation after the preposition *with* will follow; the structural pattern of the English example is **Adj. + Prep. + ING** clause.

16) a. ...a woman can always be satisfied *with* **devoting herself to her husband**, but a man wants something that will make him look forward more–.

b. ...Gruaja mund të jetë e lumtur **duke iu kushtuar burrit**, por burri ka nevojë për diçka që ta lejojë të shohë drejt së ardhmes.

The English –ING clause *with devoting herself to her husband* is different from its Albanian correspondent resulting in a structural pattern without preposition. The pattern of the Albanian correspondent is **Adj. + Non-finite** clause introduced by the particle *duke*.

The next example is with the preposition *at*.

17) a. Perhaps writing to Mary momentarily healed the loneliness he felt *at* **being away from Milly**.

b. Ndoshta letrat që i shkruante Merit e ndihmonin t'i shpëtonte përkohësisht vetmisë që ndiente **kur ishte larg Millit**.

In (17) the Albanian correspondent of *at being away from Milly* has a completely different structural pattern. It is an adverbial clause (within a relative clause *që ndiente kur ishte larg Millit*) introduced by the subordinator *kur*.

II. Categorization of the Differences, Similarities and Identities between the English –ING clause as Prepositional Complement and their Albanian correspondents, reflecting their Relative Learning Difficulty

As stated in above section, the Albanian correspondents of the English –ING clause as a prepositional complement have various forms. This diversity implies that Albanian EFL students will face nearly insurmountable difficulties in the learning of the English pattern **Prep. + V + Ing** in English.

It has been stated that the Albanian correspondents of the English preposition *in* followed by –ING clause has a different structural pattern as in the following example: **‘in establishing national identity’** vs. **‘për përcaktimin e dallueshmërisë kombëtare’** (International Relations; 33).

In view of the example above, the prepositions differ in both clauses. Because of this structural difference between the English –ING clause and its Albanian correspondent, it can be predicted that Albanian EFL students are expected to encounter real difficulties in learning this function of the – ING clause.

The other cases where the preposition *in* is followed by an – ING clause as complement have been categorized as different from Albanian correspondents because of their structural differences; e.g.

- a) **‘in getting to bed’** vs. **‘të shkoja në shtrat për të fjetur’** (The End of the Affair; 36);
- b) **‘...in tracing the relationship between all things under the sun and on the other side of the sun’** vs. **‘duke kërkuar lidhjet midis të gjitha sendeve’**.

The variety of forms of the Albanian correspondents of the –ING clause suggests that Albanian EFL students will face real difficulty in the acquisition of this structure.

In above section, the contrastive analysis of the –ING clause after the preposition *by* and its Albanian correspondents has been carried out. The examples from our corpus showed that the English – ING clause has different forms from its Albanian correspondents:

- a) Ex. **‘...by dumping them into a spinning receptacle’** vs. **‘duke i futur ato në një arkë me vrima’**

Or:

- b) **‘...by keeping his eye on a chance of promotion to the fleet at Ravenna by-and-by’** vs. **‘t’I shfaqej rasti të gradohej në flotën e Ravenës’**.

In view of the examples above, it can almost certainly be predicted that Albanian EFL learners will encounter major difficulty in learning this structure.

The preposition *for* followed by the –ING clause as described above, showed a great difference from its Albanian correspondent. There are no similar or identical Albanian correspondents of the English –ING clause after the preposition *for* found in our corpus.

Ex. ‘His eyes were made *for seeing*’ vs. ‘Sytë i **kishte për të pare**’; or: ‘...he wasn't afraid of being punished *for letting me go*’ vs. ‘s’kishte frikë se mund të dënohej **duke më lënë të iki**’

As it can be seen from the examples taken from our corpus, there is a considerable difference between the –ING clauses and their Albanian correspondents. As a result of this, the Albanian EFL students are expected to encounter great difficulty in learning this structure with the preposition *for*.

In section above, it was also shown that the –ING clause after the preposition *to* is different from its Albanian correspondent: ‘more accustomed *to killing than I am*’ vs. ‘më i stërvitur **për vrasje se sa unë**’. **In this case the ‘-ing’ form (killing) may be rendered in Albanian also by the verbal infinitive form ‘për të vrarë’; i.e. ‘për vrasje’ (nominal form) = ‘për të vrarë’ (verbal form).**

The English –ING clause as complement after the preposition *to* also has a different structural pattern from its Albanian correspondents, as shown in the following example: *object to having your picture taken, Mr Eden* vs. *kundërshtoni t’ju marrim në fotografi, zoti Eden*.

On the basis of these examples, it can be predicted that the Albanian EFL students may have considerable difficulty in the acquisition of the –ING clause as prepositional complement after the preposition *to*.

Finally, the –ING clause following the prepositions *with* and *at* have different Albanian correspondents:

Example:

- a) ‘...*with* **devoting herself to her husband**’ vs. ‘**duke iu kushtuar burrit**’;

and

b) ‘... **at being away from Milly**’ vs. ‘**kur ishte larg Millit**’.

This great variety in the forms of the Albanian correspondents enables one to make a reasonable prediction that the Albanian EFL student may face real difficulties in acquiring the English nominal -ING clause complementation after prepositions. The study was based on three constructions where –ING clauses as prepositional complements take place and even cause difficulty among students and learners of English as a second language (L2); . **Adj. + Prep. + ING** clause, **N. + Prep. + ING** clause **V. + Prep. + ING** clause. Of course, the study points out that this difficulty stems from the syntactic dissimilarities these languages exhibit among each other. It is crucial for learners of English (L2) to adopt clauses where Albanians do not use a preposition but another form, such as the form of *duke*. It is obvious that in these finite clauses both positive and negative forms (denoting conditions, manner, time or cause) cause learners to commit errors. It is important to emphasize here that learners from analysis, commit errors because prepositional substitution from English to Albanian or vice versa. However, this study, will by far help students and learners of English (L2) identify such patterns and improve their succinct perception towards using them correctly in the future.

Chapter XI

How can standard Albanian help students in using English prepositions?

11.1 Difficulties in Learning English Prepositions

11.2 Prepositional Errors

11.3 Substitution

11.4 Addition

11.5 Omission

11.1 Difficulties in Learning English Prepositions

Prepositions pose major problems when translated from Albanian into English or vice versa. The accurate mapping between English-Albanian and Albanian-English prepositions are sometimes very difficult to determine by Albanian learners because as Celce-Murcia emphasize, English prepositions have always been a source of great difficulty for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners regardless of his or her mother tongue, Celce-Murcia, (1983; 250).

It is obvious that English has a large number of prepositions, more than most of the languages have Koffi, E. (2010; 297). In English, there are approximately seventy simple prepositions. The most frequently used are: at, by, for, from, in, of, on, to and with. There are many reasons why learning English prepositions is notoriously difficult and a slow process for EFL students. English prepositions typically are short, single-syllable or two-syllable words that are seldom stressed when pronounced. They are often not articulated clearly or heard distinctly and are mostly written in lower case. As Lam (2009) points out, prepositions can be difficult to recognize, particularly in oral speech, because they typically contain very few syllables. Many English prepositions are monosyllabic, such as *on*, *for*, or *to*. As a result, language learners may not be able to recognize prepositions in rapid, naturally occurring speech, Lam, Y. (2009; 2).

Learners cannot depend only on prepositional knowledge from their first language. If learners do make ‘assumptions of semantic equivalence between the first and second languages, it often results in prepositional errors Lam, Y. (2009; 3). Another problem is that prepositions are often conceptually different from one language to the other, so when it comes to translating them EFL students face many difficulties. For example, in English we say ‘go to work **by** car,’ whereas in Albanian we ‘go to work **with** a car’ (*shkoj në punë me makinë*). Both sentences express the same meaning by making use of different prepositions. Each language has its own set of grammar rules, so there are points of conflict when someone wants to learn a second language.

Prepositions are frequently the most important aspect of these clash points. Usually prepositions come before the noun in English, but in some languages they come after, making them postpositions. In some languages, Albanian language included, the role of prepositions is often completed through the use of inflections. As a consequence, prepositions do not behave grammatically in the same way for each language. There is a mismatch problem between English and other languages. Usually when someone is learning a foreign language, he/she will try to define an English word by its native equivalent.

Beginners in English are likely to use a preposition which they translate from their mother tongue to the target language (English) and this is rarely the right one. Inaccuracy in prepositional usage (especially in translation), is also produced as a result of cross-linguistic differences Zughoul, M. R. (1973; 1-2). When students are not sure which prepositions to use in a certain phrase, they often resort to a possible equivalence in their mother tongue, giving a literal translation of the Albanian preposition into English. So, an Albanian student will define *table* as *tavolinë*. Content words, like *table*, are easily grasped by students but if they try to find the right equivalent of function words, like prepositions, they face difficulties. It is well known that prepositions do have different meanings (Polysemous) and not often stick to one meaning (Monosemous). Polysemy is —a semantic feature of words with multiple meanings, Quirk, R & Greenbaum, S & Leech, G (1985; 659). If one tries to translate the preposition *on*, he/she will soon find out that this preposition has several meanings depending on the context used. Most of the times when students use prepositions when they are not needed are due to mother tongue interference. For instance an Albanian student will say *let’s go at home* rather than *let’s go home*, due to mother tongue interference since in the Albanian language a preposition is used to

indicate they we are going *at* home. The challenging task related to English prepositions is how they are, or rather how they are not taught in school books. Most of the English textbooks used by EFL students give little space to the explanation of prepositions, and when a spot is provided it is just a simple explanation of the preposition followed by 1-2 examples.

Foreign language learners are bound to encounter difficulty in leaning and using preposition properly. The complexity is exacerbated by the fact that prepositions in each language have their own unique syntactic and semantic specifications, a matter that leaves a great deal for LI transfer to occur in the process of learning English by foreign language learners, Jiménez, R. M. (1996; 172). Another aspect of the difficulty Albanian learners of English encounter in acquiring prepositions has to do with the fact that prepositions do not receive proper attention in foreign language teaching textbooks and curricula. By and large, ELT textbooks do not provide foreign language learners with detailed information on prepositions.

The difficulty is also caused by the difference in number, meaning and usage of the prepositions in the mother tongue and in the EFL. In learning English prepositions, Albanian students try to relate them to the smaller number of Albanian ones and to the Albanian prepositional system. Although Albanian and English prepositions have some characteristics in common, they differ in both number and usage. For example, in order to explain and emphasize the meaning, here and there, Albanians use two prepositions, like *to* (*për në*, *për në shtëpi*), by (*prej nga*, *prej nga peshë*, etc.), Domi, M. (2002; 382) It is a fact that not every Albanian preposition has a definite English equivalent and vice-versa. On the other hand, not every English or Albanian preposition has a definite usage and meaning, indicating only time or space or following a certain word. Another factor to be considered is the textbooks and methods used by teachers who are not familiar with the predictable errors the students will make or with the causes behind them. This study focuses, among others, on the use of prepositions which is a problem among many Albanian learners and identifies the errors committed in the use of prepositions, the reasons why the students commit errors in using prepositions and in the process suggests steps by which both teachers and students will find it easy to use prepositions without fear of committing errors.

11.2 Prepositional Errors

Choosing the wrong prepositions, omitting a new where one is not needed, bearing in mind the that English prepositions are rather difficult to acquire for non native speakers, all of these serve as sources of errors in any other language. These sources of errors are attributed to the following reasons: a). Interlingual transfer refers to the interference of mother tongue to the target language. b). Intralingual transfer where errors occur due to partial learning of the target language. These sorts of errors are attributed to poor presentation of prepositions in texts, which in most cases do not mention prepositions at all. Simple prepositions are more easily mastered by students, so they receive little attention in grammar textbooks and other school text books, such as; English Practical Course, English For You, English Step By Step, English 10,11,12, etc. The exercises or examples for this particular category of prepositions are rare and that is why teachers do not focus on these prepositions and do not use them extensively with their students. d). Avoidance: Sometimes students of EFL avoid the words or chunks of words, which they find difficult to acquire; when students do not know or are in doubt about a specific preposition they try to guess the right one.

Let us have a look at some of the prepositional errors encountered in different situations among Albanians when using English.

A preposition which is often given an incorrect form is *into*. Compare:

- 1) You can for example break *in to* [into] a store.
- 2) Almost all Albanian male citizens are called *in to* serve their country.

In the first we have the preposition *into*, which should be written without a space. In the second we have the adverbial particle *in* (part of the phrasal verb *call in*) followed by a *to*-infinitive. This is correct.

English has a number of multi-word prepositions where learners may choose the wrong form, e.g. in:

- a) But *in despite of* [despite, in spite of] all this, 'the old fashioned' objects have survived.

- b) *Woman* [women] have *achieved* [reached] a position that gives *her* [them] all basic rights *as regards to* [as regards, with respect to] education.
- c) The new technology has brought about changes in people's lives *with regards to* [with regard/respect to, as regards] diseases and pregnancy.
- d) People eat breakfast all over the world, but *except from* [apart from, except for] the fact that the meal is eaten in the morning there are a lot of differences between the countries when it comes to this meal.
- e) Karl Marx believed that religion made people passive. And *besides from* [besides, apart from] making people passive it also kept them down in many ways.
- f) *Likewise to* [like] religion, television makes people passive.

Here we see that similar forms are confused. These errors are, however, a small minority compared with the following.

Different kinds of prepositions contribute in avoiding confusion between preposition and other grammatical elements in the sentence. The list below gives examples of inappropriate preposition use in the ETP (English Test Paper) material.

Against

- 3) People do not learn to be critical *against* [of] their society by watching television.
- 4) Advanced weapons, *as* [such as] long-range ballistic missiles, armed with toxic gasses, nuclear warheads etc. could surely be said to represent one of the largest threats *against* [to] world peace.

As

- 5) I could also list other cases of ethnic discrimination in our modern community, *as* [such as] the blacks in South Africa, the Albanian people in Kosovo and the Lapps in Norway.

At

- 6) The problems from all over the world are thrown into your own living room and after a *wail* [while] the *watchers* [viewers] are getting immune to other *peoples* [people's] suffering, seeing it every day **at the** [on] television.
- 7) I now **attend at** [attend] Albanian College in order to take an English degree.
- 8) They punish you for example with isolation **at** [in] your room.
- 9) You didn't have to worry so much about staying **at** [in] good health
- 10) We are **at** [on] the very edge of mapping the biological mysteries.

Beside, besides

- 11) I do not think I have seen any programme, **beside** [besides] a couple of documentaries that has criticised American society or any society for that matter.
- 12) That's **besides** [beside] my point.

Concerning

- 13) Former prisoners should receive assistance **concerning** [in] finding a place to live
- 14) It can be hard to draw the line **concerning** [between] whether something should be censored or not.

During

- 15) The military system has been changed considerably **during** [in] the recent years.
- 16) **During** [in] the last couple of years we have got a new genre in television shows called reality TV.
- 17) Many ideologies have been suggested and tried out in different societies **during** [over] the years.

For

- 18) Some of those have *urge* [an urge] to escape from reality in search **for** [of] themselves.
- 19) We also got a great offer to buy a laptop **for** [at] a real good price.
- 20) We are not the same as **for** [a] thousand years ago.
- 21) We learned that we should be happy **for living** [to live] in our own country.

- 22) It may seem that the universities are using the wrong methods *for getting* [to get] the students on the right track
- 23) People *claimed for* [demanded] shorter days at work and more holidays.
- 24) Marx, and most of the dechristianized middle classes at his time, almost replaced art *for* religion [replaced religion by/with art; or: substituted art for religion].

From

- 25) The question is whether we, with the new technology, no longer have a place for dreaming and imagination. Does it deprive us *from* [of] social contact?
- 26) But *unlike from* [unlike] religion, people in today's society are rational beings with the opportunity to choose.

In

- 27) Kids are so easy to fool, they *believe in* [believe] every word, and everything they hear and see.
- 28) I do not quite agree *in* [with] this assertion.
- 29) Many people are a lot better *in* [at] doing things practically.
- 30) Surveys show that television as a phenomenon has a great impact *in* [on] most *peoples'* lives.
- 31) Everything happened *in* [at] an enormous fast speed.
- 32) The course in Thessaloniki has the same level *as* [as at] the University *in* [of] Tirane, and that is great.
- 33) An idea would probably be to let the students go out *in* [into] the real world once a week all through the years of study.

Of

- 34) These are my views *of* [on] how we should deal with offenders.
- 35) Gabriel is developing through more insight *of* [into] himself.
- 36) I never went to church, except when I was baptised, confirmed, and took part *of* [in] my father's burial.

37) During the 1960s the Civil Rights movement inspired women to try to obtain better conditions through campaigns *off* [of] mass agitation.

On

38) Trevor chooses to do things he likes *on* [in] his spare time. He likes to travel but has only time to do that *on* [during] his vacations.

39) Examples *on* [of] places that would be in the danger zone are: ...

40) No one should be sent to jail *on* [for] the sole reason that they are drug addicts or abusers.

41) Workers sold their "muscles" to the capitalists, who profited *on* [from] the products that were produced and sold.

42) Several research projects have been done *on* [in] this field.

Over

43) These are two questions I will try to reason *over* [about] in the following paragraphs.

44) The debate *over* [on] the professionalism of the army has been going for decades.

To

45) We are changing *to* [for] the better every second.

46) There are not enough jobs *to* [for] everyone.

47) My conclusion *to* [on] this is that we just have to accept that the world is changing.

48) *According to* [in] my opinion, there will always be a place for dreaming and imagination.

Under

49) Forgery of money and credit cards, embezzlement and criminal transactions are some examples of crime, which goes *under* [in] this category.

50) They *live under other influences than we did* [are influenced by other conditions than we were, live under other conditions than we did].

With

- 51) Our western society prides itself *with* [on] being the land of the free.
- 52) Being a romantic does not always mean that one escapes, in fact most romantics were passionately concerned *with* [about] the state of the world.

Certainly, these are the most conspicuous errors extracted from the survey material (see Methodology), but we can come across a lot more in practice or collocation.

11.3 Substitution

Dulay, Burt & Krashen (1982; 150-163) describe and analyze the prepositional errors into three categories: omission, addition, and substitution. Errors of omission are described as ‘the absence of an item that must appear in a well-formed utterance’ (1982; 154) and ‘errors of addition are denominated as the presence of an item which must not appear in a well-formed utterance. Addition errors usually occur in the later stages of L2 acquisition, when the learner has already acquired some target language rules’ (1982; 156). Errors of substitution refer to the use of a particular preposition instead of the one that is required by a linguistic context.

Celce-Murcia (2001), emphasizes the above and says that verbs play an important role in the omission, addition, and selection of a preposition, which escalates English as second language learners’ rate of wrong use of prepositions Habash, Z. (1982; 22).

- 53) He will meet him Monday (*on* is omission here).
- 54) Glendi went *to* home (*to* is addition here).
- 55) I am not afraid *from* dogs (*of* is substitution here)

Of all the grammar issues that cause frustration among teachers and students, the errors of addition and omission of prepositions are found to be a major source of writing errors. They continue to give trouble to second language learners at all levels of writing.

Now, let us have a close look at a quick test I carried out myself with a group of students, studying English as a third language after Italian, and notice the errors made by them and probate the reason they stem from; e.g.

- 56) He was angry *from* his bad marks (instead of *at*).
- 57) There was a lot of money *into* the handbag (instead of *in*).
- 58) The handbag was *in* the bench (instead of *on*).
- 59) It depends *from* her (instead of *on*).
- 60) The book was written *from* an unknown writer (instead of *by*).

In the first sentence the preposition *from* is used instead of *at* just to show the reason or origin of his agitation because in both languages, *from* as a preposition is used to show the origin of something, place, time etc. Both of them are used in nominative Demiraj, Sh. (2002; 389), but the students substitute *at* with *from* by a merely and a practical usage in Albanian. The sentence can be interpreted in Albanian in this way, e.g.

- 61) Ai ishte i mërzhitur *nga* notat e këqija.

In the second sentence *There was a lot of money into the handbag* the students produced error just because they do not know the difference of the definition in English between *in* and *into*. However the sentence is interpreted the same in Albanian because both *in* and *into* find the same counterpart that is *në*. The sentence can be translated in this way in Albanian, e.g.

- 62) Kishte shumë para *në* çantë.

In the third sentence the preposition *në* as the English counterpart for *on* is used by Albanians just to show place or time but no matter if there is a contact with the object or not, Demiraj, Sh. (2002; 391). So, in either case *in* and *on* have the same interpretation in the Albanian language, thus, *The handbag was in the bench* can have the following translation; e.g.

- 63) Çanta ishte *në* stol.

Let's have a look now at the fourth sentence and see why students produce error. In this case the verb *depend* (*varet* in Albanian) always follows the preposition *from* (*nga*). Unfortunately in English this verb is followed by the preposition *on*. Students have to take heed especially when certain verbs follow certain prepositions to avoid errors. The sentence *It depends from her* in Albanian will be translated as follows; e.g.

- 64) Varet *nga* ajo

In the last sentence *The book was written from an unknown writer* the difference relies only in the English grammatical rule for *from* and *by*. Many English grammar books show that the difference between these two relies on the passive form of the verb. *By* itself is a preposition used after verbs in the passive voice to denote the agent of the action, J. B. Heaton (1965; 3). Hence, in Albanian its interpretation is the same, e.g.

65) Libri u shkruajt nga një shkrimtar i panjohur.

11.4 Addition

Now, let us start with some examples regarding prepositions of addition and analyze them.

66) We discuss *about* our personal feelings to our friends through a mobile phone.

67) The woman saw *at* the man.

68) He was the first to reach *on* the top of the mountain.

69) The vehicle left *from* the destination a couple of hours ago.

70) The doctor entered *in* the room.

In the first sentence *about* is not needed as the verb ‘discuss’ means ‘talk about’. That is to say, the verb ‘discuss’ carries the meaning of ‘about’. Therefore, the unwanted use of the preposition ‘about’ makes the sentence ill-formed. This type of error is attributed to the respondent’s lack of knowledge in the use of preposition. The students refer to the Albanian verb *diskutoj* following prepositions *për* or *rreth*, in English *about*; e.g.

71) Ne diskutojmë *për/rreth* ndjenjat/ndjenjave tona personale me shokët tanë në celular.

In the second sentence here *The woman saw at the man* the verb saw no matter of its synonymy in Albanian (*pashë* or *hodha vështrimin*) require an object with the sense of movement towards, the look or whatever, Demiraj, Sh (2002; 390). Students here produce error because the verb saw as the past tense of see follows the preposition *te* or *tek* in Albanian. Thus the sentence will have this interpretation; e.g.

72) Gruaja hodhi vështrimin tek burri.

Differently from the other sentences in the third sentence we can attain two interpretations. The first can be very much like the English equivalent, whereas the second occurs when we want to emphasize the whole sentence, based in the practical fact that Albanians use the preposition in order to emphasize the sentence than preposition on is added.

First interpretation for; *He was the first to reach on the top of the mountain* is, e.g.

73) a. Ai ishte i pari që arriti majën e malit.

Second interpretation for; *He was the first to reach on the top of the mountain* is, e.g.

b. Ai ishte i pari që arriti në majën malit.

The error in the fourth sentence is produced because of the lack of the grammatical information students have in the English language. In fact the verb left as the past of leave, always follows a preposition (used in nominative) in Albanian, Demiraj, Sh (2002; 389). The sentence, *The vehicle left from the destination a couple of hours ago* is always translated in Albanian; e.g.

74) a. Makina u largua nga vendi para disa orësh.

Very rarely, you may come across another interpretation in Albanian, but of course the above interpretation is rather formal and what's more leaving out the preposition here sounds impractical, too. Of course, it's very important to say that the preposition is omitted; e.g.

b. Makina ju largua vendit para disa orësh.

In the last sentence, the fifth one, *The doctor entered in the room* students know that the verb enter always follows a preposition in accusative case, Demiraj, Sh (2002; 391). What's more the verb enter (hyj) in the majority of the cases requires the preposition in (në). As such, they answer by providing a wrong reply adding this preposition in the English sentence. The Albanian interpretation for this sentence will be, e.g.

75) Doktor hyri në dhomë.

Any other alternative for this sentence would be impossible.

11.5 Omission

In particular, instances of omitting prepositions in English which are superficially similar to null-prep are shown to be a very different phenomenon. Omission of prepositions in English for the most part does not seem to conform to the generalizations reported for null-prep languages. Let's follow the examples below and explain why the students produce errors, when transferring them into Albanian.

76) She climbed (over) the fence.

77) That's the medical bill Alex was complaining (about)

78) He left (on) that date.

79) We waited there (for) two hours.

80) We can entertain ourselves by listening music, playing games, chatting with someone while using the mobile phone.

In the first sentence, the students' error occurs unwillingly because it can either be used with a preposition or not in Albanian. Albanian counterpart for the English preposition *over* is *sipër* or *mbi*. This sentence can be interpreted in two ways in Albanian language, e.g.

81) a. Ajo kapërceu gardhin or

b. Ajo kapërceu mbi gardh

The noun here, in both examples, can be in accusative *gardhin/ mbi gardh*. The students here concentrate on the practical aspect of its use.

In the second sentence, *That's the medical bill Alex was complaining (about)*, Albanians never use a preposition in the end of the clause, no matter of its form, affirmative, interrogative or negative. Its interpretation in Albanian best refers to the progressive aspect and use of the preposition here for them sounds pointless. As such the sentence in Albanian would be; e.g.

82) Kjo është fatura mjeksore që u ankua billi.

The students merely concentrate on it rather as a relative clause, and the use of preposition here is irrelevant. It may be that in any cases the students use the preposition *for* (*për*) randomly in the sentence, sticking to the Albanian grammatical rule; e.g.

- 83) a. That's the medical bill Alex was complaining (about)
b. That's the medical bill for which Alex was complaining

Of course they are under the influence of the first sentence because that is the way it was just provided.

In the third sentence, *He left (on) that date*, A preposition can only be used in Albanian if it follows a noun in accusative case, the verb here denotes an action which may either be used with preposition *for* to show direction to a place in English or time (on our occasion). However, only in the first case the verb *left* in Albanian may take a preposition (*për në*). Its Albanian counterpart for the whole close would be;

84) Ai u largua atë datë. (with no preposition used)

In the fourth instance, *We waited there (for) two hours*, the preposition is quite optional. Presumably the preposition *for* (*për*) is used to show a period of time and so does in Albanian. Its interpretation may be presented in two ways and that's why Albanians produce errors.

- 85) a. Ne pritëm atje dy orë. or
b. Ne pritëm atje për dy orë.

The practical use of the first sentence makes them produce errors not deliberately, and to be plain some of them wrote it correctly with the preposition *for*.

In the fifth, language interference influenced them to produce the above type of construction omitting the preposition. The second language learners may transfer this error from L1 knowledge of their L2. Albanians never use a preposition after the verb listen (*dëgjoj*). The verb follows a noun or noun phrase always without a preposition.

Using the appropriate preposition is one of the most difficult tasks of EFL learners; this is because in English there are various prepositions which have the same function and use of certain Albanian prepositions. Thus, Albanian learners, based on literal translation, often use an incorrect preposition. Based on my teaching experience, this is also true when referring to their oral production. It is very important here to emphasize that the scientific research on prepositions contrasting them with the other counterparts is insufficient, but lately I see a green light towards their exploration and hope this will enhance the willingness not only of the scholars but also of the students and simple learners.

Chapter XII

Study Strategies and Additional Supportive Research Data

Theoretical background

Early works in linguistics tended to take a sharply critical approach to language *transfer*, *semantics* or *ambiguity*, focusing on lexical and grammatical constructions in order to improve error commitments. The rise of interest in language learning after 90s changed the awareness in linguistic framing. Scholars or linguists did their best to resolve many gaps on the scopes of *transfer*, *semantics* or *ambiguity*, but presumably there is a lot more that needs to be envisaged in the future. For example, an English speaker with higher proficiency in Albanian can have problem both in English and Albanian. He pronounces Albanian with English characteristics, and he pronounces English words less English-like than a monolingual English speaker would. Learners who acquire an L2 cannot pronounce the words native-like both in L1 and L2. This is a matter of interference and as Dually, Burt, & Krashen (1982) emphasize; interference is the result of old habits of the first language, and it must be unlearned before the learning of the new habits of second language.

Language interference (transfer) has emerged as an area of study central to the entire discipline of second language acquisition (Gass and Selinker, 1993). Though a fully adequate definition of transfer seems unattainable without adequate definitions of many other terms, as Odlin (1989) remarks, the term *transfer* has been defined by various authors and a wide array of studies has been conducted on this matter with its origins in the Contrastive Analysis (CA) hypothesis. The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) explains that the structures and shapes of an individual's L1 differs from those of the L2, which might cause errors in reading, writing, and speaking, Dulay et al. (1982). In other words, it mainly claims that structurally dissimilar aspects of the two languages could produce interferences or errors. His study according to me is

of great dimensions, but we do not find what category is most vulnerable so that researchers deepen their exploration in order to improve it. Take for example the following clause in Albanian;

1) Më duhesh!

Transferring this pattern in English would require such an analysis as following;

Particle *më* (*me*) of the object pronoun + intransitive verb *dua* (*want*) + the non-active *esh*, which by far produces an ambiguous situation while transferring. Thus;

1) Më duesh!

Me want (and the non-active ending *esh* in Albanian)

In fact it is very embarrassing because of the complementizer lacking (*me want what, who, whom?*). Although the meaning in Albanian is *I need you*, it is very difficult to assign which part of speech is involved, producing the interference.

Faerch and Kasper (1987) argued that transfer is a mental and communicative process through which L2 learners develop their inter language skills by activating and using their previous linguistic knowledge. In contrast, Kellerman (1986) argued that there were certain conditions on L1 influence that went beyond mere similarity and dissimilarity of the languages in question, thus, involving the learner as an active participant in the learning process. He claimed that the L2 learner was able to make decisions about what could and could not be transferred. All in all, the less the learner knows about the target language, the more s/he is forced to draw upon any other prior linguistic knowledge s/he possesses. Of course Kellerman's argument is very comprehensive, but category of age is not included in such an argument which may lead to uncertain conclusions about interference.

Interference may produce an embarrassing situation in the scope of semantic, too, but rather than interference, semantics is concerned with the systematic study of word meanings and semantics in fact has changed markedly in the thirty- to -thirty five years since classic texts like Lyons (1977) and Cruse (1986) were published.

Katz (1972) and Fodor (1982) state that meaning should confine itself to the knowledge of language and not to the knowledge of the world. In other words, the aspects of meaning which are explainable only in terms of one's knowledge of the world should be better discussed by pragmatics and not by semantics. To illustrate their points we can look at the following examples;

- a) Our store sells horse shoes. (*Dyqani ynë shet patkonj*)
- b) Our store sells alligator shoes. (*Dyqani ynë shet këpucë prej aligatori*)

It is on the basis of one's knowledge of the world (that shoes are made for horses but not for alligators and that shoes made out of the skin of an alligator but not out of the skin of horses) that one assigns only one interpretation to such phrases. Therefore, non-linguistic knowledge helps in understanding the meaning. But this knowledge which one needs for processing meaning is physically endless. So this theory will face difficulties if it attempts to include this knowledge within its framework. However, no matter of their definitions, I would propound a question related to the study of semantics, and that is; how to account for the variability of meaning from context to context since an adequate description of meaning must be able to support our account of variation and our ability to interpret it?

The following example in Albania shows the options in prepositional use, related to my question above:

- 1) Unë punoj në shtet. (I work in the government – not correct in English)
and/or
- 2) Unë punoj për shtetin. (I work for the government- correct in English)

Certainly example (1) and (2) above emphasize also the idea that lexical semantics are most interested in the open classes of noun, verb and adjective and with more ‘contentful’ members of the adverb and preposition classes (for instance *për (for)* but not *në (in)*- according to English option, because in Albanian both options are accepted.

Chomsky (1965) pointed out in his book *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* that ‘the syntactic component of a grammar must specify, for each sentence, a deep structure that determines its

semantic representation and that the meaning of a sentence depends on the network of relations in the deep structure of a sentence', while Katz (1977) continued claiming that interpretive rules apply only to the deep structure of a sentence, and Palmer(1981) used reference in the sense of non- linguistic world of objects and experiences. The word reference, of course, is used for the whole network of the contexts of situations in which we live.

It is very significant to emphasize that just in those contexts (Palmer's citation) we see words showing ambiguity. In principle, a sentence that employs ambiguous words leads learners to misunderstanding. Ambiguity is thus, strictly speaking about a property of linguistic expressions. A word, phrase, clause or sentence is ambiguous if it has more than one meaning. *Time*, for example, can denote an occurrence of an event (as in one more time) or a musical rhythm, among many other things; way can denote an abstract means or a road; make a bed denotes two entirely distinct acts, depending on whether the maker is a carpenter or a housekeeper. The uses of *to* as a preposition and an infinitive marker have no apparent semantic connection. *For* can be a preposition marking benefactives or a sentential connective indicating causation.

Church and Patil (1982) call Ambiguity a practical problem. Identification of ambiguity with increased processing complexity is widely taken as simply an obvious background assumption. And this makes sense: it is hard to imagine a procedure for assigning meanings to strings that would not require more steps to deal with ambiguous strings than unambiguous ones. Furthermore, Church and Patil (1982) emphasize that parsing unambiguous expressions, require more work than parsing ambiguous ones.

Deemter (1998) underspecifies anaphora and in this study I just have my argument against underspecification that comes from the approach to presupposition as anaphora. I propose an amendment to Deemter's approach by demonstrating that where multiple representations are viable, they are ordered on the scale of preference that does not allow for ambiguities. If the theoretical discussion focuses on the theoretical question as to to what extent sentences have to be disambiguated for logical reasoning to proceed [van Deemter, J. Semantics (1998)], distinguishing the stage of underspecification is justified. Instead, I question the need for distinguishing underspecified representation as a separate stage in utterance interpretation.

State of the art

Errors cannot be avoided in learning a foreign language. Prepositional errors, for instance, are very common for Albanian learners of English, no matter if they are prepositions of substitution, omission or addition. Imagine the following examples;

- 1) You will soon become stronger *by* doing a little exercise every day.
- 2) Some people disapprove *of* helping migrants.

In both examples Albanian learners of English (L2) commit errors because *stronger* and *disapprove* never follow a preposition, and prepositions are often bound to a preceding word, Beci, B. (2005). Thus, for an Albanian learner of English, sentence (1) and (2) would have their Albanian counterpart;

- 1) Do të bëhesh më i forte duke bërë stërvitje çdo ditë. And
- 2) Disa njerëz nuk pranojnë të ndihmojnë emigrantët.

Not less errors are committed by learners of a second language in *ing* clauses as prepositional complement, Kostallari, A. (1974). In the following examples, prepositions *from* and *in* find no interpretation in Albanian (have no translation).

- (1) a) He kept his resentment *from* showing in his face.
b) U përpoq që të mos e shfaqte ofendimin. (No preposition)
- (2) a) Her eyes lost their pleasure *in* seeing him, her face flooded with scarlet shame.
b) Sytë nuk donin që t'a shihnin më atë, fytyra ju bë si të skuqej nga turpi.

In her contrasting analysis of Albanian language to English, Kalo, A. (2016) states that preposition *for* +*ing* diachronically denotes purpose of the action, and when its function expands it renews the categories of infinitive in Albanian (probably preposition of substitution).

Vërçani, B (2016), in her contrasting Analysis with German, emphasizes that there is no *ing* form in German and this form can only be compensated with other non-finite forms or other linguistic instruments.

In contrasting Analysis with Latin Xhamani, L. (2013) and Lima, A. (2017) emphasize that *ing* particle *duke* (in Albanian, but preceded by a preposition in English, mainly *by*) can be used in three main functions;

a) Positive form

1) Manner

- a) Djemtë shkuan në shkollë duke kenduar
- b) The boys went to school (by) singing. (Preposition of omission)

2) Time

- a) Atij ju kujtua gjithçka ndërsa po ecte në rrugë.
- b) He remembered everything while walking on the road.

3) Cause

- a) Ai humbi syzet duke kërkuar ndihmuar plakun.
- b) He lost his glasses (by) helping the old man. (Preposition of omission)

b) Negative form

4) Condition

- a) Njeriu mund të arrijë gjithçka duke punuar shumë.
- b) Man can reach anything by working hard.

Committing Prepositional error is very practical and prepositions, such as *from*, *with*, *in*, *on*, *to*, *of*, etc, would produce an ambiguous situation for learners of English as a second language. Poutsma in (1905) perspicaciously points out by emphasizing that preposition *in*, is often mixed with other relations, such as *instrumentality*, Comrie (1985) states, that *from -ing* construal requires an object control, e.g.

- 1) a) This lunatic, *in letting* Ronald's nephew out, had let two other people in.
- b) Ky i çmendur, kishte nxjerrë nipin e Ronaldit, dhe kishte futur dy të tjerë brënda.

- 2) a) He dissuaded us *from going*.
- b) Na bindi të mos shkonim.

Of course, a question could be asked if we refer to examples (1) and (2) above. Is there a grammatical rule in Albanian, where learners of a second language (L2) take into account in order to avoid such an erroneous aspects in this language? The gist of the problem is here, that prepositions on such an occasion are not interpreted in Albanian language, and since this irrelevance between the two languages exists, it propounds a variety of other interpretations in a language (L1 to L2 or the vice versa) without deteriorating the semantic scope of lexical repertoire.

If we try to contrast (see table 1 and 2 at appendix) the amount of errors committed in omitting prepositions, *with* and *by* are the most omitted before the *ing* clause. Ellis (1994) calls this type of simplification *structural simplification* since no preposition is required in this context in Albanian, the omission of the prepositions *in, from, by* or etc, is attributed to L1 interference. It also indicates that the student might err when contrasting with English preposition system, which may lead to uncertainty when we interpret from L1 to L2 resulting in an overgeneralization error.

Of course the *ing* clauses as prepositional complements were tried in the cases when they were preceded by verbs, adjectives or nouns because they are the most complex, Domi, M. (2002), therefore it may lead learners of L2 to errors. Similarity between languages facilitates interpretation but prepositional prediction (insertion) may change the subject above all. In relation to this, Lado in his book (1957) *Linguistics across Cultures*, says that those elements which are similar to the learner's native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult, Schackne (2002), on the other hand, states that prediction cannot happen at the syntactic level and Larsen, et al (1992) states that prediction are subject to empirical and may, thus, fail, leading to the criticism to the Contrastive Analysis hypothesis.

Besides noun, verb, and adjective which are part of my study, Kajita (1967), emphasizes that an adverbial *in -ing* clause may be preposed more easily than a complement clause, Higgins (1973) and Rosenbaum (1967). This can be illustrated with the following example;

- 1) When/how John stumbled was *in climbing* the stairs. Or

2) When/how John delighted was *in frustrating* his opponents.

Admission of the preposing *in-ing* clause here is obvious and clear in both examples and the instances so far, are considerable.

Let us have a look at the following sentences and provide the Albanian counterpart probating on preposition on and to:

- 1) a) What was her reaction *on* hearing the news?
b) Si reagoi *kur* mori vesh lajmin?
- 2) a) I can't get used to living *in* such a crowded city.
b) Nuk mund të mësohem të jetoj *në* një qytet me kaq shumë njerëz.

In both examples preposition *on* and *to* are substituted 1(b) with the conjunction of time *kur*, and 2(b) with the preposition *with*. Certainly, committing errors in such cases is very simple due to previous analysis earlier in this section, but what remains crucial here is that learners of the English language (L2) tend sometimes to elicit the preposition even in Albanian language (L1) committing thus errors ad hoc. Of course someone may ask the question of what alternative would be better, but here the account of the linguistic information the learner has attained, brings out the production of the whole subject or context.

It can be realized that my proposal addresses *ing* clauses as prepositional complements and prepositions of substitution, omission and addition. Of course Albanian students and learners of English (L2) are expected to improve and identify cases of difficulty where *ing* prepositional clauses and prepositions of substitution, omission and addition are used and reduce the amount of errors that may be committed within probable boundaries. It is obvious that a couple of questions may be asked towards these aspects. First, what is the gap of error improvement between the ages, because many experiments or contrastive analysis refer to a certain group of ages, mostly teens? Second, how much is linguistic variation part of these accounts? It might be accepted that no matter of attempts or positive conclusions scholars or linguists infer, there are still more to be done in these aspects. However, it goes without saying that their work is insurmountable and admiring.

Methodology

The study discusses the a) *+ing* clause as prepositional complement and the Albanian correspondents, b) English and Albanian prepositions of substitution, addition and omission, prepositional errors and how to master them, and c) the Indo-European strata of English and Albanian prepositions. It is a combination of both Corpus and Experimental approach because chapter IV cannot be experimental due to its scientific nature. The goal or object of chapter IV is to reveal the research on some English and Albanian prepositions which are part of the Indo-European strata and provide their cognates in English and Albanian. The prepositions in our case of study are; *after, at, fora, in, mid, of, ofer, on, to, under, ymb*, etc. as Indo-European Stratum of English Prepositions and *para (=fora), në, prapë (of), mbi/mbë (=ymb)*, etc. as Indo-European Stratum of Albanian Prepositions. The methodology employed for this study is essentially quantitative and is based on the diachronic part of the Helsinki Corpus for the English data, and TITUS for the Albanian data. The corpus did not provide any data for preposition *nga*, so, retrieved them from Orel, V. (1998) *Albanian Etimological Dictionary*. TITUS is a project of Johann Wolfgang Goethe University in Frankfurt am Main, maintained by Professor Dr. Jost Gippert, aiming to collect information about Indo-European languages, and to improve collaboration between scholars. TITUS comprises three main works from 1500 to 1800 known as early Albanian. Roughly, this is the period of the earliest Albanian writings, as well as the period during which most of the Turkish loan-words entered the language, (Modern Albanian 1800 - present). In TITUS you can find three written texts and a dictionary.

1. *Meshari (Missale)* i Gjon Buzukut (1555).
2. Pjetër Bogdani *Cuneus prophetarum (Band of prophets)*, (1685).
3. Luka Matrënga (Luca Matranga): *E Mbsuame e Krështerë (Christian Doctrine)*, (1592).
4. Franciscus Blanchus, *Dictionarium Latino-Epiroticum*, (1635).

The last one is a dictionary and could not be used in the amount of data for the relevant prepositions.

The corpus does not configure a large amount of words, because of the limited written materials and the modern Albanian is excluded in the survey. Thus for the early Albanian, in the corpus, we have a number of words with an amount of:

	Period	Number of words
Early Albanian	1500-1800	282751

The range of books here is quite narrow and besides the dictionary the other three are religious.

Helsinki corpus is the result of a project compiled under the supervision of Prof. Matti Rissanen and Ossi Ihalainen at the University of Helsinki. The diachronic part of the corpus includes texts from Old English, Middle English and Early Modern English, covering period of more than thousand years. In the corpus, the periods are divided as follows: Old English (700 - 1150), Middle English (1150 - 1500) and Early Modern English (1500 - 1710). Our survey restricts to the Old and Middle English periods, since these are very important when it comes to the historical development of English simple prepositions. The corpus allows us for the following subdivision:

a) Old English I (700-950)	94 240 word
b) Old English II (950-1050)	251 630 words
c) Old English III (1050-1150)	67 380 words
d) Old English (total number)	413 250 words
e) Middle English I (1150-1250)	113 010 words
f) Middle English II (1250-1350)	97 480 words
g) Middle English III (1350-1420)	184 230 words
h) Middle English IV (1420-1500)	213 850 words
i) Middle English (total number)	608 570 words
Total number	1 021 820 words

The range of the texts here varies from poetry, to prose, legal texts, chronicles, medical and philosophical texts, religious treaties and homilies, Bible translations, biographies etc. It

must be stressed here, that in this study a considerably broader notion of preposition is employed than in traditional grammars. Consider the following three sentences containing different versions of Modern English ‘since’:

- (1) Underfoð eche lif and blisse mid englen of heuene þat is giarked siðen þe biginninge of þes woreld.
- (2) They were browght upp theyr and syns sworne unto the jurdyccyon of the towne.
- (3) Ne mette he ær nan gebun land sipþan he from his agnum ham for.

Within the framework of traditional grammar (e.g. Quirk et al. 1985), it will be only *siðen* in (1) that would be classified as a preposition. *Syns* in (2) would be classified as temporal adverb and *sipþan* in (3), as any word formally similar to a preposition but taking a declarative clause complement, would be classified as subordinating conjunction. This is a direct consequence of a new conception that takes prepositions to be heads of phrases - similarly as nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs are heads of their respective phrases. When prepositions are on par with these elements, there is no reason to impose the condition of obligatory complement on them. Accordingly, *syns* in (2) will be classified as a preposition without complement and not as an adverbial particle. In addition, consider the following two sentences:

- (4) I must with many thankes remember his courtesie to me.
- (5) I remember I did see him every day.

In (4), the verb is complemented by a noun phrase, while in (5) by a declarative clause. Despite the difference in complementation, we will classify the word *remember* in both the sentences as an instance of a verb. Correspondingly, then, there is no principled basis for assigning *siðen* in (1) and *sipþan* in (3) to different parts of speech merely on the grounds of their different complementation. This new approach is adopted from Huddleston and Pullum’s *Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* Huddleston and Pullum (2002) and is also employed in Bas Aart’s *Oxford Modern English Grammar* Aarts (2011). Last but not least, one further remark has to be added. In modern linguistics, it is commonplace to distinguish between the terms preposition and postposition and to group both of them under the heading adposition.

In the present work, the broader and more traditional term preposition is used, which does not distinguish between a preposition as an item that stands before a unit it governs and postposition as an item standing after the governed element.

Experimental methodology (chapter X and XI) was conducted in order to reveal and also repair the gaps language transfer causes to students as learners of a second language (L2). The main goal or object of this study is to see the difficulties Albanian EFL learners have or face with +ing clauses as prepositional complement and for this reason the main prepositions for our study will be are; *in, by, with, at*, because these are the most practical and crucial at the same time EFL learners face with, while using and translating them in +ing clauses. Therefore, we will be utilizing contrastive analysis as a method in conducting this study. Contrastive analysis as a steering mechanism in the process of foreign language teaching has been applied for decades by many linguists. It has been used to find out the relationship between the mother tongue (L1) and any other languages that follow, such as L2, L3 etc. In order to do this I have used the following sources to help me achieve my aim. The novel by Conrad, J. (1978). *The Heart of Darkness*, Eliot, G. (1906). *Silas Marner*, Goldstein, J. S. (2003). *International Relations*, Greene, G. (1958). *Our Man in Havana*, Greene, G. (1951). *The End of the Affair* and London, J. (1909). *Martin Eden*. (Volume I&II) in order to identify +ing clauses as prepositional complement and contrast them with Albanian +ing clauses as prepositional complement. In order to do, so we have the translated versions in Albanian relevantly; L. (1983). *Zemra e Errësirës*, (J. Conrad, Trans). Demiraj, Sh. (1959). *Martin Iden*. (J. London, Trans), Hysa, R. (1979). *Sajllës Marnër*. (G. Eliot, Trans), Hysa, R. (n.d). *NjeriuYnë në Havanë*. (G. Greene, Trans), Starova, A. & T. (2003). *Marrëdhëniet Ndërkombëtare*. (J.Goldstein, Trans) and Zymberi, I. (1988). *Fundi i Aferës*. (G. Greene, Trans).

The error survey was conducted in two different educational institutions with a different level of English knowledge. The error survey was conducted with 36 students at the English Department of the Faculty of Foreign Languages, Tirana University, between the ages of 18 and 19. They started their English Syntax 1 course but have not taken their examination yet. Then, the same error survey was conducted with 28 randomly-chosen students attending intermediate level of English classes at ‘Asim Vokshi’ Foreign Languages High School in Tiranë, between the ages of 17 and 18. The verification has been done with a pilot questionnaire which consists of

different examples. Originally, all the examples are in English and taken from different and reliable sources, such as: internet pages, periodicals, and books. The sentences used in the questionnaire are of a pedagogical nature. A crucial element of this questionnaire is to test the Albanian EFL students' ability to produce proper English structures containing +ing clauses as prepositional complement, students' ability to correct types of errors they commit and the interference produced (if they are of substitution, omission or addition).

I have also used the following References during my work; Alhawary, M.T. (2009). *Arabic Second Language Acquisition of Morphosyntax*. USA: Yale University. Çeliku, M. (2000). *Format e Pashjelluara të Foljes në Gjuhën e Sotme Shqipe*. Tiranë: Shtëpia Botuese e LibritUniversitar. Domi, M., Agalliu F., Angoni E., dhe të tjerë. (2002). *Grammatika e Gjuhës Shqipe I*.Tiranë. Botimi i Akademisë së Shkencave. Duffley, J. P. (2006). *The English Gerund – Participle, A Comparison with the Infinitive*. Germany: Peter Lang Publishing, Inc., NY. Egan, Th. (2008). *Non-finite Complementation: A usage-based study of infinitive and –ing clauses in English*. Netherlands: Editions Rodopi B.V., Amsterdam – New York, NY. Gass, M.S. & Selinker, L., (Ed.), (1993). *Language Transfer in Language Learning*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company. Velecká, A. (2010). *Gerund in Translation: A Corpus-based Study* (Master's Diploma Thesis). Masaryk University: Faculty of Arts. Willis, D. (2003). *Rules, Patterns and Lexis: Grammar and Lexis in English Language Teaching*. UK: Cambridge University Press.

Results

This section presents and discusses the correct responses obtained from the error survey conducted in two different educational institutions with a different level of English knowledge. The error survey was first conducted with 36 students at the English Department of the Faculty of Foreign Languages, Tirana University. Then, the same error survey was conducted with 28 randomly-chosen students attending intermediate level of English classes at ‘Asim Vokshi’ Foreign Languages High School in Tirana.

The results obtained from all participants are presented in two separated tables below (1 and 2) in order to verify the predictions made.

The verification of the predictions is completed with the pilot questionnaire which consists of 17 examples. Originally, all the examples are in English and taken from different and reliable sources, such as: internet pages, periodicals, and books.

The sentences used in the questionnaire are of a pedagogical nature.

A crucial element of this questionnaire is to test the Albanian EFL students’ ability to produce proper English structures containing the English –ING clause in six different nominal functions. The performance and the results of all pilot questionnaire participants are displayed in tables below.

Table 1

The nominal –ING clause as		Correct Responses Percentage %	Correct and Incorrect Prepositions Percentage %		Omission of prepositions before –ING clause percentage %
Prepositional Complement after the prepositions	in	40%	in	26%	
			on	7%	
			to	3%	
			for	3%	
	by	70%	by	22%	44%
			with	3%	
	with	85%	with	30%	12%
			in	26%	
			for	4%	
			on	12%	
at	74%	at	48%		

Table 1 displays the correct responses obtained from the fourth semester students Syntax 1.

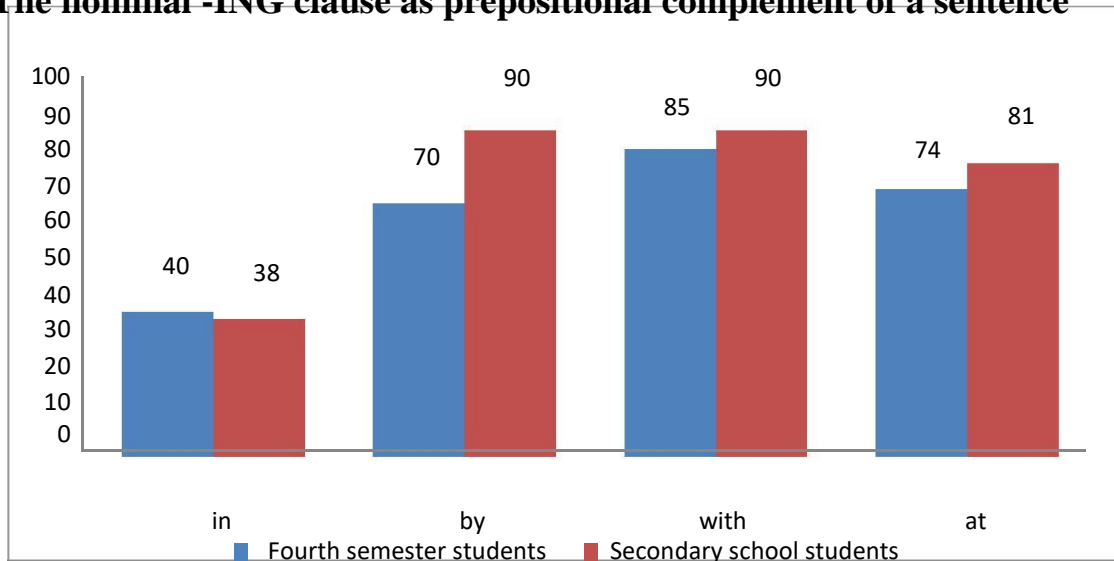
Table 2

Prepositional Complement after the prepositions	in	38%	in	19%	9%
			on	10%	
	by	90%	by	24%	57%
			with	9%	
	with	90%	with	52%	
			in	14%	
			by	5%	
			on	19%	
	at	81%	at	24%	

Table 2 displays the correct responses obtained from the fourth year students of intermediate English level at the Foreign Languages High School.

This can be illustrated by the following graphical display:

The nominal -ING clause as prepositional complement of a sentence



Discussions

This section discusses the results obtained from the research on the strata of English and Albanian prepositions and *ing* clauses as prepositional complement, along with the prepositions of substitution, omission and addition resulting from the corpus. It is obvious that this study will definitely contribute as much as it can to students or learners (L2) of English in framing and opting a better way for an effective use of the language as well as for researching purposes in the future. It is obvious that both English and Albanian strata of prepositions leaving out the modern period are a stepping stone in tracing the history of prepositions. In the analysis the number of occurrences, either of English or Albanian prepositions, counts on the written data both languages provide. There is an ample source of data regarding old English language for instance, but contrary to this, early Albanian sources of data are very rare. Such an account is quantitative, but if we refer to quality, Albanian prepositions lead to quite earlier times anyone would think. It

is very important to emphasize here that many scholars and linguists nowadays provide reliable data very useful on prepositions in the past. This study offers learners of English (L2) the opportunity on prepositional background, both in English and Albanian languages and compared to previous studies, students or learners of English will get acquainted with the number of occurrences, rate and number of use of the relevant prepositions.

There is much difficulty for language learners of English (L2) to understand the *ing* clauses as prepositional objects and even know about prepositions of substitution, addition and omission. The *ing* clauses provided and the analysis from their interpretation show that for the Albanian learners of English (L2) *ing* clauses as prepositional objects cause difficulties and that overcoming such a difficulty is not easy. Certainly, it is significant to emphasize that the structures presented throughout the analysis clarify the syntactic use of them and of course it cannot be difficult any longer especially when they are contextualized and clarified in the best probable way. This study enables students in the end to apprehend such structures and deepen their linguistic background with regard to *ing* clauses as prepositional complement.

Because of linguistic irrelevance and syntactic discrepancy, prepositions of substitution, addition and omission also cause problem among language users. In spite of the attempts to reduce such a linguistic phenomenon it still persists. The results presented show that omission of prepositions is in a higher percentage and of course and mitigating the gap cannot offer so much optimism. However, we must accept that in the experiment a green light can be seen in order to avoid aberrations in their use is obvious and promising. The results tell learners of English that they can avoid committing errors only when they apprehend the proper way how these patterns work out when contrasted. By doing so, I would think that this study offers learners and students of English (L2) a fruitful and a very productive work.

Conclusions

The process of learning a foreign language can be exhausting for almost all language learners. In this study, this process has been widely described in terms of Contrastive Analysis as a branch of Applied Linguistics which dates back to 1940s through to the 1950s. In particular, it describes the role of L1 in the process of learning the L2. The Second Language Acquisition is defined as a subject which is concerned with how a language is learned and has the learner in its focus including the learner's developing language. Since this study is concerned with contrastive analysis between English and Albanian, it can make a potential contribution to foreign language learning and teaching in the English classroom. It can achieve this by trying to present evidence about the English nominal –ING clauses and their Albanian correspondents. Particularly, the main focus has been on the potential negative transfer of the Albanian structurally different patterns into the English language production of the Albanian EFL students.

In this study I have tried to diagnose the problems Albanian EFL learners may come across in the process of acquiring nominal –ING clauses. The Albanian correspondents of the English –ING clauses in different nominal functions have been described, analyzed, and categorized according to their relative learning difficulty. The following types of Albanian correspondents have been detected: Albanian clauses introduced by verbal noun phrases, gerund constructions, finite and non-finite clauses. A test was conducted with the students of the fourth semester at FFL, Tirana University and the fourth year students at “Asim Vokshi” High School in order to verify the hypotheses of this thesis. The findings of this study may help the Albanian EFL teachers to overcome the problems in their teaching of the English –ING clauses in different nominal functions.

The study is based on the contrastive analysis of the data collected from the corpus which was collected from two types of texts: fictional and academic. The two kinds of sources have been used in order to find examples of the nominal –ING clauses. Other sources have been used to find examples for designing the pilot questionnaire such as the internet, grammar reference books, and periodicals.

Based on the ranking of the differences, similarities and identities between the English nominal –ING clauses and their Albanian correspondents according to their relative learning difficulty, this study reached the following conclusions:

The hypothesis that Albanian EFL students may face serious difficulties in learning the English structural patterns; V. + prep. + ING clause, Adj. + prep. + ING clause as well as the Adj. + prep. + ING clause was correct only after the preposition *in*. The results from the pilot questionnaire show that forty percent (40%) of the fourth semester participants and thirty-eight percent (38%) of the secondary school participants used the –ING clause after the preposition *in* correctly.

The hypothesis that Albanian EFL students can face serious difficulties in learning the –ING clause as complement after the prepositions *by*, *with*, and *at* was not correct. The pilot questionnaires results show that seventy percent (70%) of the fourth semester participants and ninety percent (90%) of the high school students used the –ING clause as complement after the preposition *by* correctly. The results also show that eighty-five percent (85%) of the fourth semester participants and ninety percent (90%) of the secondary school participants used the –ING clause as complement of the preposition *with* correctly. Furthermore, seventy-four percent (74%) of the fourth semester participants and eighty-one percent (81%) of the secondary school participants used the –ING clause as complement of the preposition *at* correctly.

Chapter XIII

General Conclusions

In this study, it is aimed at providing students an accessible way to reducing commitment of errors while speaking or learning English as a second language (L2) in the most relevant and practical way, too. The main issues presented throughout the chapters were concentrated on language transfer, semantics and ambiguity. Prepositions were the most concerning analytical headline of all chapters because they are the most vulnerable part of speech students or learners of English (L2) face difficulty with. Many linguists or scholars have been working on the above scopes in order to clarify and recommend learners of English that committing errors depends on the amount of language scientific information they might have. For instance, transfer in language no matter from Odlin or Lado's definitions was concentrated mainly on the negative interference, because student or just learners were doomed to commit errors in such cases. Negative transfer was thus contrasted analytically just to offer learners an opportunity to reduce the amount of errors. Undoubtedly, this is the most crucial in learning a second language because it deals with the dissimilarities among the L1 and L2. Prepositions were in the focus of morphological and syntactic analysis throughout all chapters. Being an invariable part of speech, as many scholars define, (Beci, Lloshi, Crystal, Ljunggren, Greenbaum, etc) the contrastive analysis between the two languages lies not only in the declension, but also in the contextual usage of prepositions in both languages. It is very interesting here to emphasize that Albanians have a fifth case of noun declension which is Ablative, that is very often confused with nominative leading, thus learners of a second language towards committing errors quite unwillingly. It is also very significant to realize and comprehend the status-quo of prepositions in diachronic and synchronic definition and adjourn with them progressively.

The Indo-European strata of prepositions both for English and Albanian languages highlight an aspect of similarity whose representation in this tree, diachronically convey an historical background of this part of speech denoting at the same time linguistic antiquity. The study offers learners of English or students a refraction of prepositions from early times of the

national history (Old and middle age in English, and Early Albanian). Certainly, the narrow number of prepositions carried out in the study of English and Albanian strata does not delimit their qualitative aspect but ensures the significant worldwide assessment both languages have.

Ambiguity has been concerning linguists time after time, and resolving this linguistic aspect has not been easy. Words like nouns or prepositions (my primary case of study) have been scrutinized in different ambiguous contexts to clarify the most crucial points learners come across while interpreting patterns during their speeches. No matter of its definition by linguists like, Cruse, Pinkal, Kreidler, Katz, Gillon, Leech etc, treatment of ambiguity by parsing facilitates the issue and analytical process is necessary besides the word's definition provided interchangeably by dictionaries or scholars. It should be said that differently from other parts of speech, I formerly mentioned (nouns and prepositions), where words' definitions depend on an amount of interpretations produced by linguists themselves, prepositions on the contrary follow another path of probation, where not only do they need definition in the first language (L1) but also the categorical construction of patterns these prepositions might be used. Of course the most used or practical prepositions in this context are the ones causing ambiguity, such as; *for (për)*, *with (me)*, *in (në)*, *on (mbi)*, *at (te, tek)*, *to (për, për në)* etc. Of course students or learners are also taught to provide relevant or approximate interpretations when the gap between the languages (L1 and L2) regarding syntactic structures are vague. But, in such cases care should be taken not 'alienate' with the authentic or authors interpretation.

This study provides also an accessible way for Albanian learners of English (L2) on *-ing* clauses as prepositional complement. Contrastive analysis show that errors committed in constructions such as; *adj + prep. + ing clause*, *n + prep. + ing clause*; *v + prep. + ing clauses* are the most problematic among Albanian learners of English. Implicitly and deliberately this study pays much attention on such constructions because of the dissimilarities languages have between each-other leading to a great number of errors in contextualizing and interpreting patterns with such constructions. It is comprehensive that it becomes rather difficult when in these patterns prepositions of substitution, omission or addition come into play. Examples are provided for the L2 learners in order to fix such gaps in the future. Scholars such as; Çeliku, Gass & Selinker, Domi, Lam, Celce-Murcia etc, emphasize that no matter of their syntactic analysis to provide learners a perceptible configuration towards their practical use, learners still pose difficulties

interpreting them from L1 to L2. However, it may be concluded that the whole study does its best to achieve the aim of providing students and learners of English as a second language (L2) a grammatically succinct way to avoid committing errors in the future.

Chapter XIV

Resumen

La adquisición de un idioma, especialmente el inglés, ha sido una pasión no solo para los estudiantes de diferentes instituciones educativas en Albania sino también para otras personas de diferentes capas sociales. Por supuesto, su adquisición no es fácil debido a los cambios estructurales léxicos y morfológicos y sintácticos que, generalmente, tienen las lenguas. Dadas las dificultades que enfrentan los estudiantes albaneses o incluso otras personas comunes en la sociedad, centré mi tesis doctoral en algunas áreas específicas de la lingüística, lo que sin duda mejorará el nivel de su adquisición, reduciendo, donde sea posible, la cantidad de errores causados por la falta de información lingüística que pueda existir en ambos idiomas. Me he centrado en las áreas de interferencia (transferencia de la lengua), semántica, ambigüedad, así como en oraciones con *-ing* como complementos preposicionales. Cabe señalar que el estudio de la preposición es el foco principal de la tesis doctoral, ya que esta clase lingüística presenta mayores dificultades en los campos antes mencionados, debido a su frecuencia en la oración. La transmisión de información (transferencia) es de hecho un fenómeno lingüístico muy práctico en el que las personas involucradas en una comunicación reflejan directamente las diferencias lingüísticas que existen entre las lenguas, inglés y albanés en nuestro caso. Por ejemplo, la falta de un sujeto expresado por un pronombre personal en albanés al conjugar un verbo, o los casos de declinación del sustantivo en general. Además de esto, tenemos el campo de la semántica que es más amplio, ya que su propia definición tiene que ver con el significado de la palabra y dado que la palabra tiene muchos significados, su uso en el lugar adecuado crea dificultades imprevistas para aquellos que tienen el inglés como segunda lengua (L2). La semántica del habla abarca la investigación diacrónica y sincrónica del lenguaje. Las preposiciones, como clase lingüística, cambian el contexto de la oración, transmitiendo información con diferentes matices de emoción, ya sean positivas o negativas. En cuanto a la ambigüedad, se puede decir sin duda alguna, que es una de las áreas que complica aún más la percepción léxica lingüística de aquellos que aprenden una segunda lengua (L2). La ambigüedad y la semántica están estrechamente relacionadas entre sí, por lo que durante el estudio de la tesis doctoral, la preposición se ha

comparado y contextualizado con otras clases de palabras para distinguir simultáneamente los casos en que aquellos, que aprenden inglés, cometen más errores. Las preposiciones sustitutivas, aditivas y elípticas (substitute, addition and omission) también se contrastan con oraciones diferentes con *-ing* que aparecen en diferentes estructuras, precisamente donde la tasa de error es mayor. Entonces se cometen más errores. Las palabras con *-ing* como complemento preposicional se estudiaron en las siguientes estructuras; a. Adjetivo + Preposición + Oración con *ing*. b. Nombre + Preposición + oración con *-ing*, c. Verbo + Preposición + oración con *-ing*, ya que estas se consideran las estructuras más críticas o vulnerables, con el mayor número de errores. Por supuesto, el propósito de este estudio es servirles a los estudiantes o aprendices de inglés como segunda lengua (L2) y proporcionarles la forma más eficiente y completa de adquirirla. Por esta razón, han sido utilizados, como formas de investigación, materiales de lingüistas y académicos, en los campos mencionados anteriormente, de varios países de todo el mundo. También se debe enfatizar que la literatura utilizada para el estudio es bastante voluminosa y esto se hace para que los conceptos teóricos y las conclusiones del estudio tengan un valor auténtico, evitando el fenómeno del plagio al mismo tiempo.

La metodología utilizada para lograr el resultado deseado a lo largo del estudio es la que generalmente siguen todos los demás investigadores no solo en el campo de la lingüística sino también en otros campos científicos. Para concretar esta metodología tenemos que referirnos a los Capítulos IV, X y XI. Es comprensible que las metodologías de corpus sean en gran medida cuantitativas en lugar de cualitativas. En el Capítulo IV, se utiliza la metodología de Corpus, ya que los resultados de los datos del estudio solo se pueden confirmar con esta metodología. Sin embargo, los capítulos X y XI experimentan con pruebas (tests) de cuestionario para que los resultados sean auténticos. En cuanto a los demás capítulos, la metodología anterior no ha sido necesaria ya que los nuevos conceptos y teorías científicas pueden obtenerse de la gran cantidad de materiales científicos disponibles, y no es necesaria la experimentación o metodología de corpus. Es interesante señalar que en el Capítulo IV ambos idiomas han sido estudiados desde una visión diacrónica para distinguir las semejanzas y las diferencias que presentan con respecto a las preposiciones como parte del árbol de las lenguas indoeuropeas. De acuerdo con las metas u objetivos establecidos al comienzo de la tesis doctoral, los resultados deseados deberán indudablemente esperarse para que el trabajo científico tenga su valor. Los resultados deben esperarse y han sido concretados, según corresponda, con las tablas respectivas, principalmente

para los capítulos donde el estudio es realizado con corpus y cuestionario. Entre los autores más conocidos en los campos mencionados son dignos de mención; En el campo de interferencia: Lado, R. Gass y Selinker. (2001). Odlin, T. (1989), Kellerman, E. (1995, etc.), Levenston (1965), Corder, S.P. (1967; Ellis, (1990, etc.) En el campo de la semántica: Katz, J. (1977), Kreidler, Ch. (1998), Leech, G. (1981), Lyons, J. (1968), Palmer, F. (1981), Ullman, S. (1977), Weinreich, U. (1966), Hurford, J. y Heasley, B. (1983), Gillon, BS (1990), etc. y en el campo de la ambigüedad: Bucaria, C. (2004), Empson, W. (2004), Hirst, G. (1992), K. Deemter (1998), etc. Al estudiar el proceso diacrónico, debemos tener en cuenta que la conclusión muestra también algunos resultados empíricos por el hecho de que la cantidad de materiales utilizados no es la misma entre las dos lenguas. El albanes, por ejemplo, ha dejado su huella en la lengua escrita muy tarde y, como tal, el material científico que se puede utilizar es demasiado débil o insuficiente para proporcionar un equilibrio completo en ambos idiomas. Su importancia radica en su valor histórico, que muestra su edad como lengua muy antigua en el árbol de las lenguas indoeuropeas. Nuevamente, las preposiciones se usan aquí como clase lingüística con una alta frecuencia de uso en las oraciones. Las tablas que muestran los resultados indican directamente la brecha cuantitativa y cualitativa de las preposiciones que existe entre los dos idiomas, por un lado el inglés y, por el otro, el abanes. Cada caso se concreta con oraciones para aclarar los casos en que los estudiantes o aprendices de inglés como segunda lengua (L2) cometen errores y cómo pueden eliminarlos en el futuro. En las tablas de los capítulos X y XI, tenemos los resultados para las preposiciones utilizadas en las oraciones con *-ing*, que son más que esperadas si nos referimos a las formas hipotéticas presentadas al comienzo de nuestro trabajo. Debemos reconocer que los resultados son simétricos con las metas u objetivos establecidos, y las tablas correspondientes lo corroboran. En el capítulo III de la tesis doctoral, las preposiciones se analizan morfológicamente y sintácticamente comparándolas en ambos idiomas. Varios autores albaneses como; Beci, B. (2010), Çeliku, M. (2004), Domi, M. (2002), Lloshi, Xh, (2005), Mujaj, H. (2004), Nesimi, R. (1992), etc. han servido como autores principales para dar nuevos conceptos o teorías a la tesis doctoral, comparándolos siempre con otros autores conocidos de la lengua inglesa. Deberíamos ser objetivos de que los errores en el uso de las preposiciones en inglés para estudiantes o personas comunes que están aprendiendo inglés como segunda lengua (L2) persistirán, pero el estudio trata esencialmente de eliminar estos errores, ofreciéndoles una manera o una metodología mejor y más práctica. Como se señaló anteriormente, se entiende que

el estudio se basa en un análisis comparativo de las lenguas albanesas e inglesas, dando los resultados deseados para todos los lectores en general. Los problemas que generalmente se encuentran en la lengua inglesa se han diagnosticado enfrentando la lengua albanesa y viceversa. Los datos acumulados son tanto académicos como empíricos. Las preposiciones más utilizadas en inglés y albanés tales como; de, a, en, sin, y muchas más se concretan para ventajas lingüísticas. Las incompatibilidades sintácticas de las lenguas hacen que estas preposiciones u otras se vean en diferentes contextos para proporcionar acceso práctico a cualquiera que aprenda inglés como segunda lengua. La prueba del cuestionario se realizó en instituciones educativas con la ayuda del cuestionario y esto se hizo para que los nuevos conceptos o teorías tengan una sólida base lingüística científica. La corrección de errores sobre el uso de preposiciones o incluso de otras clases lingüísticas es la esencia de este estudio y este resultado, sin duda, se ha logrado. Se han realizado grandes estudios en todas las áreas mencionadas anteriormente, pero hay que admitir que aún queda mucho por hacer. Pronunciar de manera equivocada las palabras como parte de la interferencia o transferencia lingüística se considera inevitable, pero siempre, como en este estudio, se intenta reducirlo como un fenómeno. Incluso en semántica, los autores, que se toman como referencias de estudio, dan la misma definición pero presentan en sus trabajos diversos conceptos y teorías. Katz, por ejemplo, dice que el significado de la palabra para alguien se basa en la información lingüística que uno tiene, no en la información lingüística que otros tienen. Por lo tanto, debe tenerse en cuenta que incluso los nuevos conceptos o teorías presentes en este estudio científico se han centrado en conceptos aceptables e inaceptables de otros autores comparándolos entre sí y dando una conclusión incontestable científicamente. En la tesis doctoral también hay casos en los que se hacen diferentes objeciones a las teorías y conceptos expresados en otros trabajos científicos y se proponen las soluciones para casos concretos. En tales casos, han sido explotados otros autores que han realizado análisis comparativos en otras lenguas, y dicho estudio refuerza aún más las teorías y conceptos existentes de estos autores sobre una base científica sólida. A partir de todo lo señalado anteriormente sobre la tesis doctoral mencionada anteriormente "Contrastando la polisemia de las preposiciones en inglés y albanés" (*Contrasting the Polysemy of Prepositions in English and Albanian*), debemos decir que se logró el objetivo o propósito para el que se realizó todo este trabajo. Los datos finales resultantes concuerdan correctamente con las propuestas e hipótesis planteadas al comienzo de la investigación. Las nuevas teorías y conceptos se reflejan en cada capítulo, constituyendo la

novedad de este trabajo. Al comienzo de la tesis doctoral también se reflejan las formas en que se han llevado a cabo los estudios y las metodologías respectivas. Los estudiantes o aprendices de inglés como segunda lengua (L2) tendrán una mejor oportunidad científica si hacen uso de este tema para evitar la mayor cantidad posible de errores, que pueden hacer por las razones indicadas anteriormente, no solo en las preposiciones sino también en las otras clases lingüísticas. El lector encontrará materiales interesantes, cuidadosamente analizados o trabajados, que servirán para mejorar significativamente la calidad lingüística respecto a las preposiciones. Para concluir, debe tenerse en cuenta que el estudiante o lector encontrará muchos datos interesantes en el campo de la lexicología y la gramática, a partir de las preposiciones y luego continuando con sus vínculos con otras clases lingüísticas. Las estructuras de las preposiciones utilizadas, no solo en las oraciones con *-ing*, sino también en otras estructuras, servirán de manera adecuada para la adquisición completa, no solo de las preposiciones utilizadas en el estudio, sino también de otras preposiciones en general. Por lo tanto, se puede concluir que la tesis doctoral ha cumplido con su misión final.

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Appendix

English Test Paper (1)

-Choose the correct preposition

- g) But _____ (despite, in spite of) all this, “the old fashioned” objects have survived.
- h) *Woman* _____ (women) have *achieved* (reached) a position that gives *her* (them) all basic rights _____ (as regards, with respect to) education.
- i) The new technology has brought about changes in people’s lives _____ (with regard/respect to, as regards) diseases and pregnancy.
- j) People eat breakfast all over the world, but _____ (apart from, except for) the fact that the meal is eaten in the morning there are a lot of differences between the countries when it comes to this meal.
- k) Karl Marx believed that religion made people passive. And _____ (besides, apart from) making people passive it also kept them down in many ways.

-Put in the proper preposition

- 1) He was angry _____ his bad marks.
- 2) There was a lot of money _____ the handbag.
- 3) The handbag was _____ the bench.
- 4) It depends _____ her.
- 5) The book was written _____ an unknown writer.
- 6) We discuss _____ our personal feelings to our friends through a mobile phone.
- 7) The woman saw _____ the man.
- 8) He was the first to reach _____ the top of the mountain.
- 9) The vehicle left _____ the destination a couple of hours ago.
- 10) The doctor entered _____ the room.
- 11) She climbed (over) the fence.
- 12) That's the medical bill Alex was complaining _____.
- 13) He left _____ that date.
- 14) We waited there _____ two hours.
- 15) We can entertain ourselves by listening music _____, playing games, chatting with someone while using the mobile phone.
- 16) You can for example break _____ a store.
- 16) Almost all Albanian male citizens are called _____ serve their country

English Test Paper (2)

- 1) I now attend (at/attend) Albanian College in order to take an English degree.
- 2) They punish you for example with isolation (at/in) your room.
- 3) You didn't have to worry so much about staying (at/in) good health
- 4) We are (at/on) the very edge of mapping the biological mysteries.
- 5) I do not think I have seen any programme, (beside/besides) a couple of documentaries that has criticised American society or any society for that matter.
- 6) That's (besides/beside) my point.
- 7) Former prisoners should receive assistance (concerning/in) finding a place to live
- 8) It can be hard to draw the line (concerning/between) whether something should be censored or not.
- 9) The military system has been changed considerably (during/in) the recent years.
- 10) (During/in) the last couple of years we have got a new genre in television shows called reality TV.
- 11) Many ideologies have been suggested and tried out in different societies (during/over) the years.
- 12) Some of those have an urge to escape from reality in search (for/of), themselves.
- 13) We also got a great offer to buy a laptop (for/at) a real good price.
- 14) We are not the same (as for/a) thousand years ago.
- 15) We learned that we should be happy (for living/to live) in our own country.
- 16) It may seem that the universities are using the wrong methods (for getting/to get) the students on the right track
- 17) People claimed (for/demanded) shorter days at work and more holidays.
- 18) The question is whether we, with the new technology, no longer have a place for dreaming and imagination. Does it deprive us (from/of) social contact?
- 19) But (unlike from/unlike) religion, people in today's society are rational beings with the opportunity to choose.

- 20) Kids are so easy to fool, they (believe in/believe) every word, and everything they hear and see.
- 21) I do not quite agree (in/with) this assertion.
- 22) Many people are a lot better (in/at) doing things practically.
- 23) Surveys show that television as a phenomenon has a great impact (in/on) most *peoples'* lives.
- 24) Everything happened (in/at) an enormous fast speed.
- 25) The course in Thessaloniki has the same level (as/as at) the University (in/of) Tirana, and that is great.
- 26) An idea would probably be to let the students go out (in/into) the real world once a week all through the years of study.
- 27) These are my views (of/on) how we should deal with offenders.
- 28) Gabriel is developing through more insight (of/into) himself.
- 29) I never went to church, except when I was baptised, confirmed, and took part (of/in) my father's burial.
- 30) During the 1960s the Civil Rights movement inspired women to try to obtain better conditions through campaigns (off/of) mass agitation.
- 31) Trevor chooses to do things he likes (on/in) his spare time. He likes to travel but has only time to do that (on/during) his vacations.
- 32) Examples (on/of) places that would be in the danger zone are: ...
- 33) No one should be sent to jail (on/for) the sole reason that they are drug addicts or abusers.
- 34) Workers sold their "muscles" to the capitalists, who profited (on/from) the products that were produced and sold.
- 35) Several research projects have been done (on/in) this field.
- 36) These are two questions I will try to reason (over/about) in the following paragraphs.
- 37) The debate (over/on) the professionalism of the army has been going for decades.
- 38) We are changing (to/for) the better every second.
- 39) There are not enough jobs (to/for) everyone.
- 40) My conclusion (to/on) this is that we just have to accept that the world is changing.

- 41) (According to/in) my opinion, there will always be a place for dreaming and imagination.
- 42) Forgery of money and credit cards, embezzlement and criminal transactions are some examples of crime, which goes (under/in) this category.
- 43) They (live under other influences than we did/are influenced by other conditions than we were, live under other conditions than we did).
- 44) Our western society prides itself (with/on) being the land of the free.
- 45) Being a romantic does not always mean that one escapes, in fact most romantics were passionately concerned (with/about) the state of the world.

Pilot Questionnaire

Provide an Albanian counterpart for the following sentences

- 1) Nationalism has been remarkably successful in establishing national identity as a people's primary affiliation in much of the world.
- 2) The Soviet economy had some notable successes in rapidly industrializing the country in the 1930s.
- 3) A love affair had to begin after lunch, and however late I might be in getting to bed - so long as I slept in my own bed.
- 4) It was inconceivable how he had existed, how he had succeeded in getting so far, how he had managed to remain—why he did not instantly disappear.
- 5) This new concept was a perpetual amazement to Martin, and he found himself engaged continually in tracing the relationship between all things under the sun and on the other side of the sun.
- 6) I can't forget him, though I am not prepared to affirm that this fellow was really trustworthy for his life, losing it by going to his place.
- 7) This was done by dumping them into a spinning receptacle that went at a rate of a few thousand revolutions a minute, tearing the matter from the clothes by centrifugal force
- 8) You pimped by giving opportunities. You pimped by being a bore and a fool, so now somebody who isn't a bore and fool is playing about with her in Cedar Road.
- 9) And perhaps he was cheered by keeping his eye on a chance of promotion to the fleet at Ravenna by-and-by, if he had good friends in Rome and survived the awful climate.
- 10) His eyes were made for seeing, but up to that moment they had been filled with the ever changing panorama of the world.
- 11) Her mother financed the settlement, you see, so the girl wasn't afraid of being punished for letting me go.
- 12) You do not object to having your picture taken, Mr Eden?
- 13) It's a fair duel, he told himself, he's more accustomed to killing than I am, the chances are equal enough.
- 14) A woman can always be satisfied with devoting herself to her husband, but a man wants something that will make him look forward more.
- 15) Perhaps writing to Mary momentarily healed the loneliness he felt at being away from Milly.
- 16) In tracing the relationship between all things under the sun and on the other side of the sun.
- 17) By dumping them into a spinning receptacle.