CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF LITERATURES, CONCEPTS, AND
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Review of Literatures

There are four theses and one international journal reviewed; all of them are related to the topic in this thesis that is prepositional phrase. All of literatures are reviewed as below:

The thesis entitled *The Preposition “FOR” in English and its translation in Indonesian* written by Satwika (2009). This thesis mainly focused on the preposition “for” occurring in English-Indonesian translation. The theories used in this study were the theory of translation proposed by Larson (1984) and Catford (1965), and the theory of preposition was taken from the theory proposed by Quirk (1973). This study is aimed at finding out the functions of the preposition “for” in English and analyzing the translation of the preposition “for” in Bahasa Indonesia. The data were taken from the English novel entitled *The Stars Shine Down* by Sidney Sheldon with its Indonesian version entitled *Kilau Bintang Menyinari Bumi*. The data were collected by reading both novels carefully, finding out the problems, written the data on pieces of paper and classified based on their functions. Finally, the data was analyzed descriptively. The strength of his study is the clear analysis; he has explained and analyzed the problem of his study based on used theory. Meanwhile, the analysis of his study is too narrow, he did not discuss about other prepositions.
The similarities of this study with his thesis are both of them use descriptive method to find the reason prepositional in English and their translation into Indonesian. The difference is while his thesis only analyzed the preposition “for”.

The thesis entitled *The Analysis of Preposition in Master of the Game by Sidney Sheldon* was written by Susanti (2007). This thesis only focused on the meaning indicated by preposition *with*, and the classes of words that can be combined “*with*”. This theory is primary taken from a Quirk, et al. (1985), besides from this main reference, the theoretical concept of the preposition “*with*” has also been taken from Swam (1995) in the book entitled Practical English Usage. The aims of this study are to find out the meanings indicated by preposition “*with*” and the class of words that can be combined into sentence with preposition “*with*”. The data in this study were taken from novel entitled *Master of the Game* by Sidney Sheldon. The strength of his study is the clear analysis; he explained each analysis based on meanings of preposition “*with*”.

The similarities of this study with the thesis are both of them use theory entitled A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language by Quirk, et al. (1985). The difference is while her thesis discussed about the meaning indicated by preposition “*with*”.

The thesis entitled *Function and Meaning of Preposition IN and ON in Economic and Political Articles of “The Jakarta Post”* written by Tinaya (2010). The data were analyzed based on grammar theory focusing on preposition that introduced by Quirk, et al. in their book entitled A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language (1985). The data of this study were taken from “The Jakarta Post”. The
The data are classified based on the types of prepositions then the result is described descriptively according to Quirk, et al. The strength of his study is the clear analysis, he described in his analysis based on the meaning of prepositions IN and ON. Meanwhile, the analysis of her study is too narrow, she did not analyze more complete other prepositions.

The similarities of this study with the thesis are both of them use “The Jakarta Post”. The difference is while the first thesis discusses about Economic and Political Articles, this study only focuses in discussing about Business Article.

The thesis entitled Prepositional Phrase in the Article of Resident Magazine written by Putra (2010). The data were analyzed based on the main theory proposed by Quirk, et al. (1985) in their book entitled “A Comprehensive Grammar. The data in this study were taken from the articles of Resident Magazine (issue 6 Nov-April 2008) wet/hot season and issue 10 Nov-May 2010 wet/hot season). The aims of this study were to find out the types of prepositional phrase especially with preposition at, on, and in as the head of the phrase, to describe and analyze the syntactic function and meaning of prepositional phrase in some of articles in magazine. The data were collected by using library research and analyzed qualitatively. The strength of his study is the clear analysis, he discussed and analyzed based on the types, syntactic functions, and meanings of prepositional phrases. Meanwhile, the title of his study “phrase” word should be plural and add with -s, because he analyze more than one phrase.
The similarities of this study with the thesis are both of them use the main theory proposed by Quirk, et al. (1985). The difference is while the first thesis used the articles of resident Magazine in analyzing prepositional phrase.

The international article from Chen, et al entitled *A Construction Grammar Approach to Prepositional Phrase Attachment: Semantic Feature Analysis of V NP1 into NP2 Construction*. This paper provides a construction grammar perspective to identifying the ambiguity of prepositional phrase (PP) attachments (i.e., whether a PP is attached to the closest VP or NP1). In this study, the writers adopt the construction grammar framework to provide a different means to reformulate the PP attachment problem

### 2.2 Concepts

#### 2.2.1 Prepositional Phrase

Quirk, et al. state preposition itself is a word or group of word used before a noun or pronoun to show place, position, time, or method. Phrase is a group of words which have a particular meaning when use together. And the last is prepositional phrase; it means that one of the sentence element which functions to indicate certain relation between other words in one sentence. Prepositional phrases used to make the sentence complete and understandable. They are important element in sentences which function to indicate time, position, space, location, etc.
2.2.2 Business Articles

Business is the activity of marking, buying, selling or supplying goods or services for money. Article is a piece of writing about a particular subject in a newspaper or magazine (Oxford dictionary 8th edition). Business article is a piece of writing that contains kinds of information and promotions related to activity of selling, supplying goods and services, which may be needed and desired by readers.

2.3 Theoretical Framework

The theory which relevant with this topic is proposed by Quirk, et al. entitled The Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language.

A prepositional phrase consists of preposition followed by a prepositional complement, which is characteristically a noun phrase or a wh-clause or V-ing clause:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PREPOSITION</th>
<th>PREPOSITIONAL COMPLEMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>At</td>
<td>the bus stops</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From</td>
<td>what he said</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By</td>
<td>signing a peace treaty</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

That-clause and infinitive clauses, although they frequently have a nominal function in other respect, do not occur as prepositional complement.

Alternation between the presence and absence of preposition are observed in cases like:
He was surprised at her saying this

He was surprised that she said this

Further examples of verbs and adjectives which have either prepositional complements or that-clause are:

Afraid (of), angry (at), found (of)

For examples:

1. John is fond of them

2. They were afraid of him (‘They feared him’)

3. I’m angry at Marry getting married.

(Quirk, 1973: 143)

2.3.1 Types of Simple Prepositions

Quirk, et al. (1985: 665-673) propose that the types of prepositions can be divided such as:

The most common English prepositions, such as at, in and for are SIMPLE, i.e. they consist of one word. The following is the list of the common simple prepositions. In view of the different stress patterns, they have been divided into mono- and polysyllabic.
2.3.1.1 Monosyllabic Preposition

Monosyllabic Preposition is a word consisting of one syllable used to denoting time, place, etc. These are some monosyllabic prepositions with their meanings:

As  Basis of comparison
At  Space; time position; goal; target; stimulus; standard; reaction
By  Space; time; means and instrument; agentive; stimulus; reaction
Down movement; orientation
For Duration; Cause, etc: purpose, intended destination; recipient; support; standard
From Space; Orientation; originator; duration; cause; etc; source, origin; substance
In  space; time position; measurement into the future
Like manner
Near (to) (also comparative and superlative: nearer (to), nearest (to)) space
Of  Cause, means; various relations; subject matter; material
Off  Space
On  Space; time position; target; means and instrument; respect; subject matter

2.3.1.2 Polysyllabic Preposition

Polysyllabic Preposition is a word consisting of two or more than two syllables to indicating space, time, etc. These are some polysyllabic prepositions with their meanings:
2.3.2 Syntactic Functions of Simple Prepositional Phrases

Simple prepositional phrases have the following syntactic functions:

2.3.2.1 POSTMODIFIER in a Noun Phrase

The people on the bus were singing

Quirk, et al. (1985:657)

In addition to reduction of sentences into noun phrase by means of post modification by finite and nonfinite clauses, we have the further possibility of reduction by prepositional phrase, as in the last item of the following series:

The car was standing outside the station
The car which was standing outside the station
The car standing outside the station
The car outside the station

It is natural to relate such prepositional post modifier as (the car) outside the station to be-sentences (‘the car is outside the station’), though in some instance the phrase seems to correspond with more than merely the finite verb be. For example:
The university as a political forum

The university is acting/ regarding as a political forum

Quirk, et al. (1985: 1274-1275)

2.3.2.2 Adverbial

(a) Adjunct

The people were singing on the bus

In the afternoon, we went to Boston

(b) Subjunct

From a personal point of view, I find this a good solution to the problem

(c) Disjunct

In all fairness, she did try to phone the police.

(d) Conjunct

On the other hand, he made no attempt to help her.

Quirk, et al. (1985:657)

ADJUNCT and SUBJUNCT are relatively integrated within the structure of the clause. By contrast, disjunct and conjunct have a more peripheral relation in the sentence. Semantically, DISJUNCT expresses an evaluation of what is being said either with respect to the form of communication or to its meaning. We identify disjunct with the speaker’s authority for, or comment on, the accompanying clause. And the last CONJUNCT expresses the speaker’s assessment of the relation between two linguistic units.

Quirk, et al. (1985:440)
2.3.2.3 Complementation

Complementation is part of a phrase or clause which follows a word and completes the specification of meaning relationship which that word implies.

Quirk, et al. (1985: 1150)

Quirk, et al. divide complementation into:

(a) Complementation of a verb

We were looking at his awful paintings

(b) Complementation of an adjective

I’m sorry for his parents

Quirk, et al. (1985:657)

Adjective often form a lexical unit with a following preposition: good at, fond of, opposed of, etc. The lexical bond is strongest with adjective for which, in a given sense, the complementation is obligatory: Max is averse to games = max is averse. In particular, it is often possible for the same adjective to go with two or more preposition, as in angry about, angry at, and angry with.

Quirk, et al. (1985:1221)

As a complementation of a verb or an adjective, the preposition is more closely related to the preceding word (look at, sorry for) which determines its choice, than to the prepositional complement.

Quirk, et al. (1985: 657)
2.3.3 Simple Prepositional Meanings

In the surveying of simple prepositional meanings, space and time relations will be explained first, and will be followed by other relations such as cause, goal, origin, and other simple prepositional meanings. The explanation below will give complete description about simple prepositional meaning.

Quirk, et al. (1985: 675)

2.3.3.1 Prepositions Denoting Spatial Relations

2.3.3.1.1 Dimension

When we use a preposition to indicate space, we do so in relation to the dimensional properties, whether subjectively or objectively conceived, of the location concerned. Consider *at* in example [1]:

*My car is at the cottage.* [1]

Here the use of *at* treats *cottage* as a dimensionless location, a mere POINT in relation to which the position of the car can be indicated. This is dimension-type 0. Compare *on* in [2]:

*Our cottage is on that road.* [2]

In [2], the road is viewed as a LINE ['along that road'], *ie* dimension-type 1. But *on* can also be used to denote an area, as in [3] and [4]:

*There is some ice on that road.* [3]

*There is a new roof on the cottage* [4]

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

Finally, compare *in*, as in [5]:
There are only two beds in the cottage. [5]

In [5], the cottage is viewed as three-dimensional object which in reality it is.

The figure below sets out the dimensional orientation of the chief prepositions of space:

![Diagram of prepositions and dimensions]

**Figure 1.** Space and dimension

Quirk, et al. (1985: 673-674)

2.3.3.1.2 Positive position and destination: at, to, on, onto, in, into

Prepositional phrase of place typically either adjunct (relating an event or state of affair to a location) or post modifiers (relating some ‘object’ to a location)
A prepositional phrase of ‘position’ can accompany most verbs, although this meaning is particularly associated with verbs of stative meaning. The meaning of destination generally accompanies a verb of dynamic motional meaning, such as go, more, fly, etc.

Quirk, et al. (1985: 675)

2.3.3.1.3 Source or negative position: off

There is cause-and-effect relation with negative destination and position parallel to that of positive destination and position:

The book fell off the shelf. ~The book is off the shelf

Quirk, et al. (1985: 677-678)

2.3.3.1.4 Relative position: over, under, etc

Apart from simple preposition, preposition may express the RELATIVE POSITION of two objects or groups of object. Above, over, under, below express relative position vertically, whereas before, and after represent it horizontally. This figure depicts the relations expressed by above X, over X, etc.
Figure 2. Relative Position

Quirk, et al. (1985: 678-679)

2.3.3.1.5 Space: by, beside, with, opposite

Other prepositions denoting space are by, beside, and with.

He was standing *by/ beside the door*. [‘at the side of’]

I left the keys *with my wallet*. [‘in the same place with’]

Quirk, et al. (1985:679)

2.3.3.1.6 Space: *around, round, about*

*Around* and *round* refer to surrounding position or to motion:

We were sitting *(a)round* the campfire.

The spaceship is traveling *(a)round* the globe.
About and around often have vaguer meaning of ‘in the area of’ or ‘in various position in’:

The guest was standing about/around the room.

Quirk, et al. (1985: 681)

2.3.3.1.7 Relative destination: over, under, behind, etc

As well as relative position, the preposition can express RELATIVE DESTINATION:

He threw a blanket over her.

The brush was the only conceivable hiding place, so I dashed behind it.

When it started to rain, we all went underneath the trees.

This use is distinct from that denoting ‘PASSAGE over, under, behind, etc. with verb of motion, preposition may express the idea of PASSAGE (i.e. movement toward and then away from a place), this occurs in sentence like [1-3]:

He jumped over the ditch [1]

Someone run behind the goalpost [2]

The ball rolled underneath the table [3]

In sentence such as [2] and [3], there is ambiguity. In [3], we can supply either the meaning of ‘passage’ (=the ball passed under the table on the way to some other destination) or the meaning of ‘destination’ (=the ball rolled under the table and stay there).

Quirk, et al. (1985: 681-682)
2.3.3.1.8 Passage: *across, through, past*

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

DIMENSION-TYPE 1 OR 2

```
  •
```

on the grass

```
  ←
```

across the grass

DIMENSION-TYPE 2 OR 3

```
  l l l l
```

in the grass

```
  ←
```

through the grass

Figure 3. Passage

Quirk, et al. (1985: 682)

2.3.3.1.9 Movement with reference to a directional path: *up, down, along, across*, etc.

*Up, down, along, across* and *(a)round*, with verb of motions, make up a group of prepositions expressing movement with reference to an axis or directional path, as illustrated below:

*Up* and *down* contrast in term of vertical direction, e.g.:

We walk *up the hill* and *down the other side*

But *up* and *down* are also used idiomatically in reference to a horizontal axis:

I walked *up* and *down the platform*.

```
up /down the road
```

She went

```
up / down the cost
```
*Up* and *down* here express the notion of ‘along’ and need not have any vertical implication.

*Along* denotes ‘from one toward the other’ or ‘in a line parallel with’, e.g.:

We walk *along the streets*, just looking at the people.

I took my dog for a walk *along the river*.

Along contrasts with *across* ['from one side to another'] in term of a horizontal axis:

Be careful when you walk *across a street*.

Quirk, et al. (1985: 682-683)

2.3.3.1.10 Orientation: *beyond, over, past, up, across*, etc.

Beyond is preposition whose primary meaning is one of orientation. *Over, past, across, and through* combine the meaning of ‘beyond’ with more specific information about dimension.

They live *across* the moors [i.e. ‘from here’]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{past the bus stop} \\
\text{The village is} \\
\text{through the wood}
\end{align*}
\]

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

The shop *down the road* ['toward the bottom end of…’]

up the stairs. ['at (OR towards) the top of…..’;=*upstairs*]

Her office is

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{down the stairs}. ['at (OR towards) the bottom of…..’;=*downstairs*]
\end{align*}
\]
There’s a hotel *across/along* the road. [‘on the other side/ towards the other end of…’]

We live just *(a)around the corner.*

Quirk, et al. (1985: 683-684)

2.3.3.1.11 Resultative meaning: *from, over, past.*

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

The horses jumped *over the fence.*  \[1\]

The horses are *over the fence.* [‘Have now jumped over’]  \[2\]

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

When you’re *past the next obstacle,* you can relax.

Quirk, et al. (1985: 684)

2.3.3.1.12 Pervasive meaning: *over, throughout, with.*

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

That child was running (all)) *over the flower borders.*
Throughout meaning (all) through is the only preposition whose primary meaning is ‘pervasive’:

Chaos reigned (all) through the house.

The epidemic has spread throughout the country.

With also has pervasive meaning in expressions such as the following:

The ground was covered with snow.

The garden was buzzing with bees.

Quirk, et al. (1985: 684-685)

2.3.3.2 Prepositions denoting time

A prepositional phrase of time usually occurs as adjunct, postmodifier, or predication adjunct. Some kinds of prepositional meaning denoting time are as follows:

2.3.3.2.1 Time position: at, on, in, by

At is used for points of time:

At ten o’clock, at 6.30 p.m., at noon

At the weekend, at Christmas, at Easter

The reference is to the season of Christmas/ Easter, not the day itself. At can be used for periods when conceived of as points of time, as in:

at the/ that time, at breakfast time, at night

On Monday, on the following day, on May (the) first, on New Year’s Day

In or, less commonly, during is used for periods longer or shorter than a day:
In the evening in summer
In August during holly week
In 1969 in the eighteenth century

When we want to refer to a period of the night we use *in*.

I woke up several times *in the night*.

*At night* I usually have the window open. [‘during the night’; as opposed to *in the evening, in the day*]

*By* occur in the idioms *by day, by night*, which replace *during the day/the night* which some activities such as traveling:

We preferred traveling

\[
\begin{cases}
  \text{by night} \\
  \text{during the night}
\end{cases}
\]

Quirk, et al. (1985: 687-688)

2.3.3.2.2 Measurement into the future: *in*

To denote measurement to the present time, the postponed adverb *ago* is used for a span back to appoint of time in the past, and *in* for a similar span ahead into the future:

We met three months ago

\[
\begin{cases}
  \text{in three months’ time} \\
  \text{We’ll} \\
  \text{in three months from now}
\end{cases}
\]

Quirk, et al. (1985:688-689)
2.3.3.2.3 Duration: *for, during, over, throughout*

Duration is usually expressed by *for*. *For* is also used in idiomatic phrases like *forever, for good ['forever'], for years (and years)*

*Over* and *throughout* have a durational meaning parallel to their pervasive meaning in reference to place:

> We camped there *over the holiday/ over Christmas/ over the weekend/ over the Sabbath/ over night*

> We camped there *throughout the summer.*

Quirk, et al. (1985:689-690)

2.3.3.2.4 Duration: *until*

Informally, *until* and *till* are also sometimes preceded by up:

> I worked (up) \[ \begin{align*} & \text{until} \\ & \text{till} & \text{last week} \\ & \text{to} \end{align*} \]

Quirk, et al. (1985: 690-691)

2.3.3.2.5 *Before, after, since, till, until*

These words occur almost exclusively as preposition of time, and are followed by either:

(a) A temporal noun phrase (*after next week*)

(b) A subjectless-ing clause (*since leaving school*)

(c) A noun phrase with a deverbal noun or some other noun phrase interpreted as equivalent to a clause:

> *before the war ['before the war started or took place’]*
till/until the fall of Rome ['until Rome fell']

since electricity ['since electricity was invented']

Before and after indicate relation between two times or event and have opposite meaning:

The meeting will take place after the ceremony

= The ceremony will take place before the meeting

Quirk, et al. (1985:691)

2.3.3.2.6 By

By refer to the time at which the result of the event is in existence:

Your papers are to be handed in by next week. ['not later than']

She should be back by now. (but I’m not sure)

By specifies an end point. Already, still and yet are related in meaning:

By the time we’d walked five miles, he was already exhausted.

Quirk, et al. (1985: 691-692)

2.3.3.3 The cause/ purpose spectrum

The cause/ purpose spectrum is one of the meanings of simple prepositional.

It can be described as follows:

2.3.3.3.1 motive: for, from

At one end of the cause/ purpose spectrum, we have prepositional expressing either the material cause or the physical cause (motive) for a happening. Phrase of motive answer the question Why....? Some example:

The survivors were weak from exposure and lack of food.

I hid the money, for fear of what my parents would say.
For is found with a relatively small number of expression. Eg:

For fear/love/joy/sorrow

He offered to fix my sink for nothing

free

Quirk, et al. (1985: 695-696)

2.3.3.3.2 Purpose, intended destination: for

For is used to express PURPOSE in the following examples:

He’ll do anything for money.

Everyone ran for shelter.

For the journey, they packed three large picnic baskets of food.

The express INTENDED DESTINATION, for is used with verb such as run, start, head, leave, and set out. For example:

He set out for London.

With to-phrases, the assumption is that the destination will be reached.

Compare:

He went to London. Is this the train to London?

left for

Quirk, et al. (1985:696)

2.3.3.3.3 Recipient, goal, target: for, to, at

When for is followed by noun phrase denoting persons or animals, the meaning is rather one of INTENDED RECIPIENT:
He laid a trap for his enemies.

She made a beautiful doll for her daughter.

Denoting intended recipient (her daughter may not have actually received the doll), the for-phrase can often be equated with an indirect object.

She made her daughter a beautiful doll.

He cooked her a dinner.

In contrast to the notion of intended recipient expressed by for, the preposition to expresses ACTUAL RECIPIENT in sentences such as:

She gave a beautiful doll to her daughter.

Here again, there is often a relationship with the indirect object construction:

\[
\begin{align*}
  \text{I} & \bigg\{ \begin{align*}
    \text{gave} \\
    \text{lent} \\
    \text{sold}
  \end{align*} \bigg\} \text{ the book to my friend.} & \quad \sim \begin{align*}
    \text{I} & \bigg\{ \begin{align*}
    \text{gave} \\
    \text{lent} \\
    \text{sold}
  \end{align*} \bigg\} \text{ my friend the book.}
\end{align*}
\]

At, in combinations such as aim, at (where the prepositional phrase is complementary to the verb), expresses INTENDED GOAL or TARGET:

After aiming carefully at the bird, he missed it completely.

A vicious dog was snapping at her ankles.

Quirk, et al. (1985:696-698)

2.3.3.3.4 Source, origin: from

The converse of to ['goal'] is from ['source']

Bill lent the book to me. \quad \sim \text{I borrowed the book from Bill.}

From is used with reference to ‘place of origin’:
He comes from Scotland/Glasgow. [‘He is a Scot/a Glaswegian.’]

This type of prepositional phrase occurs not only as an adjunct, but also as a complement in copular clauses [1] and as a postmodifier [2]:

I am from Madrid. [1]

This is a friend of mine from London. [2]

Quirk, et al. (1985: 698)

2.3.3.4 The means/agentive spectrum

The prepositional phrase denoting means/agentive spectrum can be described as follows:

2.3.3.4.1 Manner: with

Manner can be expressed by with. For example:

We were received with the utmost courtesy.


2.3.3.4.2 Means and instrument: by, with, without

By can express the meaning ‘by means of’:

I usually go to work by bus/ train/ car/ boat. [mode of transport]

Communication took place by letter/ telex/ radio/ post/ mail. [ means of communication ]

With, on the other hand, expresses instrumental meaning:

Someone had broken the window with a stone.

He caught the ball with his left hand.

For most sense of with, including that of instrument, without expresses the equivalent negative meaning:
I drew it without *(using) a ruler* [‘I did not draw it with a ruler’]

Quirk, et al. (1985:699-700)

2.3.3.4.3 Instrument and agentive: *with, by*

*With* expresses the meaning of ISTRUMENT:

Someone had broken the window *with stone*.

In the passive sentence, the AGENTIVE is expressed with a *by-phrase*: *by someone*. However, in the most passive sentences, the agent *by-phrase* is actually omitted, as in:

The window had been broken *with a stone*.

The agentive is the initiating cause and typically animate, usually personal, as also in:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{A passing stranger observed us.} \\
\text{We were observed by a passing stranger.}
\end{align*}
\]

The instrument also can be expressed with a *by-phrase*.

The window had been broken *by a stone*.

The by-phrase also occurs as a postmodifier to denote authorship:

a picture *by Degas* ['painted by Degas]

a novel *by Tolstoy* ['written by Tolstoy]

Quirk, et al. (1985:700-701)

2.3.3.4.4 Stimulus: *at*

The relative between an emotion and its stimulus can often be expressed by *at* or *by* instrumental by:
Both of these can be treated as passive equivalent of:

His behavior alarmed me.

The idea of ‘stimulus’ is sometimes expressed by other prepositions, in place of at, with function as semi-agent:

I’m worried about this. [‘this worried me’]

He’s interested in history. [‘history interest him]

Quirk, et al. (1985: 701-702)

2.3.3.4.5 Accompaniment: with

Especially when followed by an animate complement, with the meaning ‘in company with’ or ‘together with’ (commutative function):

I’m so glad you are coming with us.

Jack, (together) with several of his noisy friend, was drinking till After 2 in the morning.

With is also used to express ‘accompanying circumstance’ [1] and to introduce a subject [2], as in:

With all the noise, she was finding it hard to concentrate. [1]

It all started with John (‘s) being late dinner. [2]

Quirk, et.al (1985: 702)
2.3.3.4.6 Support and opposition: *for, with, against*

*For* conveys idea of support and *with* that of solidarity or movement in sympathy:

Are you for or *against the plan?* [‘Do you support or oppose the plan?’]

Remember that every one of us is *with you.* [‘On your side’]

In this case, there is no negative *without* contrasting with *with.* The contrary idea of opposition is conveyed by *against*:

It is prudent to go with rather than *against the tide of public opinion.*

The movement *against nuclear arms* [‘anti-nuclear’]

Quirk, et al. (1985: 702-703)

2.3.3.5 Other prepositional meanings

2.3.3.5.1 Various relations indicated by *of*

The most common preposition, *of,* occurs chiefly as postmodifier in noun phrase in the function similar to that of the genitive, eg:

The gravity *of the earth-* the earth gravity

However, postmodifying *of-* phrase also has a wide range of other uses, eg:

a part of the city [partition]

a kind of wood [quality]

a lot of people [quantity]

Quirk, et al. (1985:703)

2.3.3.5.2 ‘Having’: *of, with, without*

In the latter type of construction, *of* is limited to the expression of abstract attributive, as in:
a pianist of great talent ['a very talented pianist']

a performance of distinction ['a distinguished performance']

The notion of ‘having’ is more generally expressed by with, especially with concrete attributes:

a man with a red nose ['who has a red rose': ‘a red-nosed man’]

a woman with a large family

The negative of with, is without:

a play without any faults [' a play with no faults’]

\(\text{With and without can also introduce a nonfinite or verbless clause as postmmodifier in a noun phrase:} \)

the factory with its smoking chimney

a room with its door open


2.3.3.5.3 Concession: despite

\(\text{Despite strong pressure from government, the unions have refused to order a return to work.} \)

\(\text{With all and for all ‘despite’ are more colloquial and rather restricted in their use. In concessive use, all must be present after both prepositions: with all, and for all, in causal, all is optional: with or with all. Compare:} \)

\(\text{With all } \) this noise I managed to get some sleep. [concessive: ‘in spite of’]

\(\text{For all} \)
With all

this noise, I couldn’t sleep. [causal: ‘because of’]

With

Quirk, et al. (1985:705-706)

2.3.3.5.4 Exception and addition

The most common prepositions denoting exception are: except, excepting, excluding, but, and save (formal).

but

All

Except(ing)

the captain were rescued.

ADDITION can be expressed by the preposition besides.

For example:

There were three people present besides the committee.

Quirk, et al. (1985: 707-708)