

<http://dx.doi.org/10.16926/sn.2023.19.08>

Received: 22.06.2023

Accepted: 21.09.2023

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A COGNITIVE GRAMMAR ANALYSIS OF THE POLISH PREPOSITION 'Z'. TOWARDS A CONCEPTUAL SCHEMA(S)

How to cite [jak cytować]: Słabońska, O. (2023). A Cognitive Grammar Analysis of the Polish Preposition 'Z'. Towards a Conceptual Schema(S). *Studia Neofilologiczne. Rozprawy Językoznawcze*, 19, 129–146.

Analiza polskiego przyimka „z” w świetle gramatyki kognitywnej. W kierunku schematu/schematów pojęciowego/pojęciowych

Abstrakt

Celem artykułu jest przedstawienie wybranych problemów intralingwistycznych w języku polskim odnoszących się do znaczenia przyimka z. W wyrażeniach typu *kawa z mlekiem*, *kawa z ekspresu*, *kawa z Rwandy* przyimek z ma jedną formę, jednak jego znaczenie w każdym z wyrażań jest nieco inne. Artykuł koncentruje się na schematycznym znaczeniu przyimka z, mając na uwadze, że przyimki są predykatami relacyjnymi (Langacker, 1987, 2000, 2008). Przytoczone frazy wskazują na możliwe różnice znaczenia polskiego przyimka z. Etymologicznie z (por. Boryś, 2005; Brückner, 1927) wywodzi się z co najmniej trzech różnych źródeł, a internetowy słownik WSJP (<https://wsjp.pl>) podaje aż osiemnaście definicji znaczeniowych przyimka z. Staje się zatem problematyczne, czy pojedyncza forma z reprezentuje różne lub nawet przeciwstawne znaczenia i jest polisemiczna, czy też możliwe jest wyodrębnienie jednego wysoce abstrakcyjnego schematu pojęciowego, który sankcjonuje wszystkie dopuszczalne użycia omawianego przyimka w języku polskim. Analiza przyimka jest oparta na gramatyce kognitywnej Langackera i operuje abstrakcyjnymi figurami trajektora i landmarka, aby przedstawić schematyczne znaczenie z.

Słowa kluczowe: gramatyka kognitywna, przyimek, trajektor, landmark, relacja atemporalna, schemat pojęciowy.

Abstract

The paper aims at presenting selected intralinguistic problems in Polish referring to the meaning of the Polish preposition *z*. In the phrases like *kawa z mlekiem* (*coffee with milk*), *kawa z ekspresu* (*drip coffee/espresso*), *kawa z Rwandy* (*coffee from Rwanda*) the preposition has one form, however the meaning of it in each of the phrases differs. The paper concentrates on the schematic meaning of the preposition itself, bearing in mind that prepositions are relational predicates (Langacker, 1987, 2000, 2008). The phrases indicate possible differences/contrasts in the meaning of the Polish preposition *z*. Etymologically *z* (cf. Boryś, 2005; Brückner, 1927), has at least three different origins, and the WSJP online dictionary (<https://wsjp.pl>) offers as many as eighteen meaning definitions of the preposition. Thus, it becomes problematic whether the single form *z* represents different or even contrastive meanings and is polysemous, or it is possible to extract a single highly abstract conceptual schema which sanctions all the possible usages of the discussed preposition in Polish. The analysis of the preposition is rooted in Langacker's Cognitive Grammar and operates on the abstract figures of trajector and landmark to present the schematic meaning of *z*.

Keywords: cognitive grammar, preposition, trajector, landmark, atemporal relation, conceptual schema.

1. Prepositions in Cognitive Grammar

Prepositions constitute problematic issues in languages. They appear to be less important than other lexical units as usually they are short, and what is even more important, in generative approaches, prepositions themselves are perceived as semantically empty. Cognitive Grammar offers tools for analyzing prepositions as meaningful units, their meaning can be presented by means of the two schematic figures – trajector (tr), being the most salient participant in any schematic relation, and landmark (lm), the second salient figure, second participant. The two abstract figures help identify or *designate* in Langacker's words (Langacker, 1987: 214) an atemporal relation. Prepositions represent atemporal relational categories, among other atemporal categories e.g., adjectives and adverbs. One of the characteristic features of atemporal relations is the fact that they are independent of time, contrary to the time related predicates for example processes, i.e., processual predicates, e.g., drink (coffee), drive (a car), read (a book). The processes, or in other words, in traditional nomenclature verbs are time dependent relational predicates, and prepositions belong to the group of atemporal relational predicates. In the case of prepositions, the relation occurs between the abstract figures of trajector and landmark. The trajector is represented by a thing or relation in the case of prepositions, and the landmark is normally a thing. In Cognitive Grammar (cf. Langacker, 1987: 217–221) relations (temporal or atemporal) and things are schematically and graphically represented as in Fig. 1

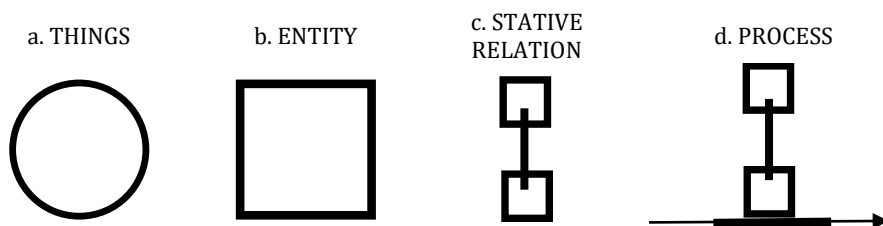


Fig. 1

Basic types of predicates in CG. Langacker (1987: 220)

Things in general are nominal predicates, an entity is a highly abstract and general term. It encompasses *things, relations, locations, points on a scale, sensations, interconnections, values, etc.* Langacker (1987: 198, 489). According to Langacker (1987: 220) a stative relation is *a simple atemporal relation*, and a process is a relation in time, indicated by an arrow. A process corresponds to a verb. Diagram d. in Fig.1. indicates only a single state of a process.

Grammatical categories structure, or organize conceptualization, and thus, it can be stated that conceptualization is revealed by means of grammatical categories. Thus, grammatical categories convey semantic content, they constitute semantic structure. The semantic structure can be represented by an abstract schema. The schema is characterized in most general and at the same time most fundamental terms and conveys the semantic properties of all category members. The schema of the noun, verb or preposition categories is [THING], [PROCESS], and [RELATION], respectively.

The article attempts to identify the schematic meaning of the Polish preposition *z*, thus the category preposition preoccupies the discussion. Nevertheless, the categories of nouns and verbs function as reference points for other categories, e.g., prepositions. Langacker (2008: 112) allocates noun and verb schemas on the opposite poles because they contrast in many respects, e. g. their profiles (thing vs. relation), degree of elaboration (simplex vs. complex), or mode of scanning (summary vs. sequential). The preposition schema is classified as an *intermediate case* (cf. Langacker, 2008: 112). It means that prepositions, as well as adjectives and adverbs whose schema is neither a thing nor a process are allocated between the two opposites, namely between the noun and verb schemas.

Prepositions are relational predicates, independent of time, thus diagrammatically are represented by diagram c. in Fig. 1., indicating stative relation. Langacker (Langacker, 1987: 215) states that all types of relations are *conceptually dependent*. It means that it is impossible to conceptualize a relation without the interconnected entities, e.g., *a book on the table* cannot be understood without the conceptualization of *a book* and *the table*. The prep-

osition *on* in this case interconnects the entities, and without the conceptualization of the entities participating in the relation, it would not be possible to conceptualize the relation. This is the phenomenon of conceptual dependency.

The relational character of the prepositions can be defined in the following words:

The fact that prepositions constitute relational category is based on the schema of their internal structure; the interdependence between trajector and landmark. Elaboration sites (e-sites) of trajector and landmark are the elements in the semantic structure which schematically define the immediate context (syntagmatic relation) for a preposition. In other words, certain atemporal relations are characterized as prepositions because they participate in the construction whose landmark e-site is a thing (Słabońska 2021: 92).

The relation of the trajector and its landmark implies asymmetry between the participating entities. Thus, the trajector is the figure in the relational profile and the landmark functions as the point of reference for the trajector.

2. Some other cognitive approaches to prepositions

In the literature on the subject - in addition to numerous and influential articles and monographs referring to prepositions e.g., Zelinsky – Wibbelt (1993), Goldberg (1995), Talmy (2000), Turewicz (2005) or Brugman and Lakoff (2006) to mention just a few – at least three comprehensive approaches of their analysis should be briefly discussed. These are:

- i. The concept of the ideal meaning and meanings of unique (idiomatic) prepositions by Herskovits, as being one of the first cognitive approaches.
- ii. Conventional imagining in Przybylska's polysemic analysis, as one of the first comprehensive cognitive approaches to Polish prepositions.
- iii. Evans and Tyler spatial scenes, as being one of the interesting alternatives to other cognitive views on the topic.

i. The concept of the ideal meaning and meanings of unique (idiomatic) prepositions

Herskovits (1985, 1986) deals with prepositions in their spatial meaning. She considers the spatial relationship to be primary and fundamental. The author emphasizes that the spatial relation is realized with each use of a preposition. She treats it multilaterally and in many aspects. This multifaceted nature is connected with the choice of entities that can be situated in space, and they can be solid, liquid and gaseous bodies, geographical objects of various shapes, sizes and contours, geometric bodies, various types of openings, etc. (Herskovits, 1985: 358–377).

The criterion used in determining the so-called ideal meaning comes down to the typical nature of the object and its location. The list of relations (conceptual mechanisms) enabling the positioning of different objects in different spaces is also important, and these are the relations: similarities of contingency and support, displacement, attachment, etc. The new solutions introduce the necessity to study the context, because it is from the context that various atypical prepositional constructions emerge, although still falling on the scale of locative uses.

Prepositions play an important role in defining space and simple spatial relationship is their meaning. They enable the positioning of location and reference objects. A. Herskovits (1985, p. 341) considers this situation to be canonical, prototypical, taking into account both the semantic and pragmatic analysis of the described situation.

When discussing the role of prepositions in defining space, A. Herskovits (1985: 346) draws attention to the arrangement of the described objects: localized and referred to, emphasizing that there is a tendency to use relatively large and constant objects as references for smaller objects. Such a system is treated as a model (prototype solution). However, the need for a fixed object can be replaced by a description of a place – a fixed point on the earth's surface, which gives an arrangement between the figure and the ground.

The author rejects the principle of a simple spatial relation, and proposes to replace the geometric conceptualization with: *a geometric description of objects* (Herskovits, 1985: 346), (for geometrical meaning of the prepositions cf. Lindstromberg (1998)). The canonical description of an object is the place – the space occupied by the object. The geometric description assumes the conceptualization of an object as a geometric figure: a point, a line a surface (or a strip). Geometric conceptualization combines a perceptual and/or linguistic and mental presentation (Herskovits, 1985: 350). Geometric relationships turn out to be much more complicated if they are accompanied by relationships of attachment, contiguity or support (Herskovits, 1985: 352). Deviations from the geometric relationship are unique and should be treated as idiomatic, i.e., conventionalized ways of presenting individual situations, e.g. *The gas station is located at the freeway*. The context plays an important role then (actually at the junction of the freeway and the roundabout).

It is important for the author to assume that the prototype prepositional constructions used in geometrical descriptions with a spatial relation as the meaning of a preposition have a truth value (the sentences are true, Herskovits, 1985: 354), but such a simple description does not allow for the prediction of use of many expressions.

In order to describe the prepositions: their meaning and occurrence in the language, according to Herskovits (1985: 354) – the following assumptions must be made:

1. Each preposition has an ideal meaning, a kind of prototype, manifested in every use of the preposition; such as an ideal meaning, or some transformation of it, applies to schematizations (geometric descriptions) of the objects.
2. There are a number of pragmatic 'near-principles' involving salience, relevance, tolerance, and typicality that explain certain prepositional choices and metonymies (Herskovits, 1985: 354).

By using the term 'ideal meaning' as opposed to 'prototype', Herskovits herself (1985: 355) emphasizes that prototypes are more concrete, often correspond to 'the best examples of categories and function as the central model categories', while the ideal meaning as a term may be better to handle a very abstract geometric relation characteristic of a preposition. It also corresponds to the topological relation of inclusion in the description for the whole class of a given preposition and to use it, regardless of its dimensions, size or reference object.

Herskovits (1985: 355) assumes that the spatial relation is satisfied with each use of the preposition, in accordance with its first, ideal meaning. It should therefore be concluded that it has the character of a semantic variant, the usefulness of which in semantic research led to a discussion in Polish linguistics in the 1990s, indicating difficulties in defining and indicating this variant and in providing unqualified necessary and sufficient features of meaning or essential for division into denotation and connotation features.

Herskovits (1985: 359–360) divides the basic functions of a geometrical description into six categories – functions that reflect a geometrical structure

- 1) on one of its parts;
- 2) some of its idealizations (e.g., point, line, plane, strip);
- 3) functions mapping to the form obtained by filling the irregularities (normal shape, contour);
- 4) on related and partially confined space (interior, volume at apex);
- 5) on the reference frame;
- 6) on the projection.

Such considerations can be useful in Polish-English studies on prepositions. The researcher aptly notices that the formulated rules are not strict, that they are approximate regularities. In summary, Herskovits (1985: 373) states that the information about the preposition will consist of 1) its ideal meaning and 2) a set of use types 'which are complex bundles of information, corresponding roughly to various senses and idioms.' Then the author indicates that the level of geometrical conceptualization that '*mediates*' the perception or mental images of scenes and language should be taken into account. Geometric descriptions are the result of these processes of geometric conceptualization and metonymy.

ii. Conventional imagining in Przybylska's polysemic analysis

The work of Przybylska provides an extensive study of the semantics of Polish prepositions, written in the convention of cognitive grammar, especially Langacker's concept. After discussing the basic claims of cognitivism about language and the meaning of linguistic units (semantics), the author emphasizes the active role of the conceptualizer in the process of imagining and explains its essence, invoking the metaphor of inspection. In the relation of constructing the scene with the perceived object by the conceptualizer, the author recalls the dimensions of observance, i.e., profiling, detailing the structure, selecting the scope and scale of prediction, highlighting structures and perspective (Przybylska, 2002: 25–26). The researcher is aware of the difficulties posed by encyclopedic and holistic concept of meaning in the description of conventionalized common knowledge, which is used on daily basis, effective communication, and here she invokes various ways of presenting the meaning of linguistic expressions in the form of the so-called framework, scripts, network model, mental schemas, prototypes, sub-categories, metonymic and metaphorical models, natural meaning categories (Przybylska, 2020: 35–36).

When characterizing the preposition, its grammatical, syntactic and semantic status, the researcher (Hjemslev, 2002: 46–47) refers to three logical dimensions proposed by Hjemslev, which are the subject of studies in many works devoted to prepositions, namely: direction (statics, FROM movement or TO the entity), contact and presence of the speaker (subjective or objective). The author also cites an interesting Hentschel's division of prepositions according to the degree of their grammaticalization, distinguishing: proper prepositions (spatial and temporal relations), grammaticalized (not falling into the semantic oppositions cited earlier, e.g. the preposition *na* (Eng. here: *at*) in the sentence: *dojechał do stacji na ostatniej kropli benzyny* (he arrived at the station *at the last drop*), idiosyncratic (related to the verb rection, e.g. *polegać na kimś, czymś* (Eng. *rely on somebody something*), constructional (e.g. the passive voice, *został przeczytany przez Janka*, Eng. was read *by Janek*). The quoted author concluded that the correct and grammaticalized prepositions belong to the lexicon and are endowed with meaning, and that grammaticalization is a living process and brings a continuum of forms.

Carrying out a thorough analysis of the role and position of a preposition among parts of speech and the ways of its definition, Przybylska (2002: 55) emphasizes that a preposition has a grammatical function, creating syntactic components of a sentence, the structure of which may appear in the position of the basic predicate (traditional predicate) the added predicate (trad. adverbial, e.g., *went for a beer*), the predicate added to the characteristics of the argument (trad. prepositional adjective, e.g., a dress *made of silk*). It should be added that it may appear in the argument position with verbs of move-

ment and other verb classes, e.g., *x* is waiting for a train, *x* is asking *y* for a book, *x* is going from the kitchen through the hall to the bedroom on a new dance floor. Ultimately, this concept is also adopted by Przybylska, as well as the semantic characteristics of the preposition as a full-fledged linguistic unit, as proposed by cognitive scientists (Langacker, 1987, 2009).

Then the author presents an overview of the methods of semantic analysis of prepositions, and this is a descriptive, structural, component, functional, sub-categorization method and a logical approach (Przybylska, 2002: 62). The characteristics of the prepositions within the so-called partial conceptual systems such as location, extension, proximity, verticality – horizontality, movement and its types, etc. (Przybylska, 2002: 64–65).

After discussing monographic studies devoted to the preposition, the researcher presents a cognitive approach to the preposition, recalling the base (source) domain of description, which is the spatial domain, closely related to visual perception and the metaphor of inspection (see Langacker's 1987 comment on this issue). The semantic analysis of prepositions refers to mental schemas and conventional imaging with the recall of the trajector and landmark. Unfortunately, the preposition *z* is not among the prepositions analysed by Przybylska (2002).

iii. Spatial scenes

In their book authors Tyler and Evans (2003) state that all English prepositions derive from spatial relations between two objects. They also note that, in addition to spatial meaning, a number of meanings called non-spatial have developed. The authors propose a methodology of spatial scenes, which, according to them, shows and explains the extensions of preposition meanings from spatial meaning towards non-spatial, abstract meanings. The different meanings of one preposition form a network of meanings related to each other in relation to the primordial meaning. All the assumptions of the proposed methodology are situated in the current of cognitive linguistics.

Tyler and Evans (2003: 45–50) attempt to clarify the term prepositional sense. At the same time, they explain that the term is used as distinct from the term prototype because prototype is still an undefined term. Tyler & Evans (2003: 47) propose two types of evidentiality that can be used in identifying primary sense – linguistic and empirical. Only the use of both can allow a primary sense to emerge. The authors considered the linguistic criterion to consist of: (i) earliest attested meaning, (ii) dominance in the semantic network, (iii) use in complex forms (iv) relations with other spatial particles (v) grammatical predicates. Unfortunately, the authors do not precisely specify the empirical evidence.

In order to distinguish the primitive sense in the semantic web from the other derived senses, Tyler and Evans (2003: 50) use the term proto-scene.

A proto-scene is an idealised mental representation formed on the basis of duplicate spatial scenes (spatial scenes) associated with a particular preposition. It is thus an abstraction among many similar spatial scenes. A proto-scene combines idealised elements of the real-world experience (objects representing TR and LM) and a conceptual relationship (conceptualisation of a particular configuration between these objects). Proto-scenes form a pattern in our memory due to their frequency and utility in human interactions with the world.

3. The Polish preposition *z*. Etymology and dictionary meaning(s)

Etymologically *z* (cf. Boryś, 2005; Brückner, 1927), has at least three different meanings. Etymological dictionary of Polish (Brückner, 1927: 667–668) indicates two forms: *iz* and *s* as the primary forms of the contemporary preposition *z*. The dictionary posits three meanings of the preposition. The first one is defined as “direction from a place, from somewhere”, e.g., *wyjść z domu* [ENG *leave the house, leave home*] (Brückner, 1927: 667). The second meaning is specified as “together”, e.g., *ja z nim* [ENG *I with him*] (Brückner, 1927: 667–668). Additionally, the dictionary presents the third meaning of *z*, namely “direction from above, from the top” e.g., *spadł z dachu* [ENG *he fell off the roof*] (Brückner, 1927: 668). Etymological dictionary of Polish (Boryś, 2005: 726) indicates that in Polish the preposition *z* appears in 14th century and is a form of the previously used forms *iz* and *s*. Thus, *z* in the 14th century becomes a single preposition of one form from two semantically and morphologically different prepositions. The dictionary does not discuss the meaning(s) of *z*.

The WSJP dictionary (wsjp.pl) offers as many as eighteen definitions of the selected phrases with the preposition *z*. The first, probably the most prototypical meaning of the preposition is identified as *space marker/index*, then *time marker*, indicating the substance or material and many more meanings, depending on the phrase it is used in. Importantly, the definitions refer to the whole phrases, in fact the meaning of the preposition itself is not presented. The phrases are:

1. *wyjść z domu* (ENG *leave the house*)¹
2. *wrócić z koncertu* (ENG *come back from the concert*)
3. *porcelana z Chin* (ENG *porcelain from China/ Chinese porcelain*)
4. *czuć z podwórka* (ENG *a smell/stench from the back yard*)

¹ The English equivalents are provided by the author of the text.

5. z zeszłego roku (ENG from last year)
6. dom z cegieł (ENG a house from bricks/ a brick house)
7. klasówka z matematyki (ENG a maths test)
8. wiedzieć z telewizji (ENG know from TV)
9. dyrektor z nominacji (ENG director by appointment)
10. żaden z ludzi (ENG none of the people)
11. ustąpił z grzeczności (ENG stepped aside as a courtesy)
12. trząsał się z zimna (ENG shiver from cold)
13. bułka z dżemem (ENG a roll with jam)
14. spacerował z przyjacielem (ENG walked with a friend)
15. przyszedł z wizytą (ENG come to visit)
16. z nastaniem jesieni (ENG with the coming of autumn)
17. z polska (ENG after/in the Polish fashion)
18. z trzy (ENG about three) (The WSJP dictionary – wsjp.pl).

It can be assumed that the authors of the dictionary started the presentation of the meaning of the *z* preposition with illustrating the most prototypical/primitive meanings and finished with the less or least prototypical/primitive ones. Nevertheless, there is no information whether the preposition in all the presented examples has a feature/features, apart from the identical form, which is/are common in all the usages. In other words, there are numerous context sensitive meanings, and there is lack of one general meaning indicating the fact that *z* in all the contexts is the same preposition or is in fact an identical form shared by different prepositions.

Cognitive Grammar offers tools to identify the highly general, schematic and abstract meaning of the Polish preposition *z*. The abstract meaning represented schematically is to sanction the usages of the preposition *z* in all the indicated contexts, as well as in other, not presented in the WSJP dictionary contexts.

4. Towards the schema

The general schema incorporating all the possible usages of the Polish preposition *z* is exemplified, analysed and presented on the three examples:

- a. *kawa z mlekiem* (coffee with milk)
- b. *kawa z ekspresu* (drip coffee)
- c. *kawa z Rwandy* (coffee from Rwanda)

The trajector in the three phrases is elaborated by the nominal *kawa* (coffee). Nevertheless, it needs to be borne in mind that *kawa* (coffee) in the abovementioned phrases means different things, i. e. refers to different states of coffee, from the beans to the liquid in the cup, in each of the examples. Thus, the most salient participant in the tr-lm relation differs substantially. In the first example, a. *kawa z mlekiem* (coffee with milk) the nominal tr elaborated by the lexeme *kawa* is a liquid, a brew prepared from ground

coffee beans, either in a machine or just by pouring boiling water into a cup with a portion of ground coffee or even by pouring hot water into a cup with some instant coffee. The way of preparation is in fact unimportant in this expression. An essential ingredient here is *mleko* (*milk*) and its impact on the quality of the drink. Milk instantiates the landmark, the second salient participant of the atemporal relation designated by the preposition *z*. Milk makes the liquid special, as the final product is a mixture of the coffee brew and milk. Thus, it becomes evident that in the proposed type of contact type, the landmark plays a crucial part, it affects the trajector. The mixture acquires a new quality then. The ingredients *coffee & milk* are ‘integrated’ in a cup and the fact of the ‘integration’ is expressed by the preposition. The two liquid physical substances combine into one, creating the brew of a new quality. The substances can mix because they are in direct, physical contact. The state of their matter allows them to mix well and create the substance of the new property. Thus, it can be concluded that the trajector, elaborated by the nominal *kawa* (*coffee*) is in a direct, immediate and physical contact with the landmark, elaborated by the nominal *mleko* (*milk*). It can be posited that *z* indicates contact; it is a preposition of direct contact. Moreover, coffee with milk is the result of the coffee – milk contact, the integration between the two substances results in a new quality. The integration, its effect is the new quality. The result of the integration is triggered by the preposition *z*. In other words, the preposition indicates contact between the tr and lm and it results in the new quality. Consequently, the preposition triggers the new quality effect, thus it also has an integrating meaning. Schematically, the contact between the trajector and the landmark can be presented on a diagram (Fig. 2).

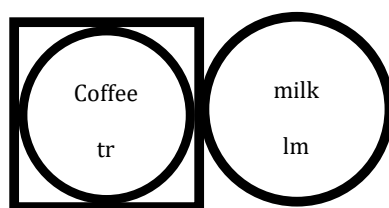


Fig. 2

Schematic contact between the trajector (tr) coffee and landmark (lm)milk realized by the preposition *z*. The schema is based on Langacker’s tr/lm graphic representations

The examples in the first group represent physical tr-lm contact, although the phrase *spacerował z przyjacielem** (*walked with a friend*) can be controversial because walking with someone does not obligatorily imply physical contact. However, walking in the company of another person requires some kind of direct contact, i.e., eye contact, verbal contact, reciprocal gestures (shaking hands, tapping shoulders, taking by the arm) etc. which unite, link the participants. Thus, the notion of proximity does not suffice to

define it. The context is more obvious if the landmark of the preposition in this phrase changes into *a walking stick*. The type of contact in *spacerował z laską* (*walked with a walking stick*) is unquestionably direct and physical, the trajector and the landmark are in a way united, integrated and the contact here is also physical. Obviously, the clause *spacerował z laską* in Polish can also be understood metonymically, and the nominal landmark *laska* in this example stands for an attractive woman. In such a case, the meaning of the preposition is closer to its meaning in the clause *spacerował z przyjacielem* (*walked with a friend*).

More examples of the phrases representing the direct, uniting/ integrating type of contact are found in *Mały słownik języka polskiego* (1969), i.e., *podróżny z walizką* (*a traveller with a suitcase*), *żołnierz z karabinem* (*a soldier with a rifle*), *dziewczyna z warkoczami* (*a girl with braids*), *rybak z wędką* (*a fisherman with a rod*), *worek z mąką* (*sack of flour*), *skrzynka z węglem* (*coal box*), *obudzić się z bólem głowy* (*wake up with a headache*), *przyjechać z wykładem* (*come with a lecture*), *spieszyć z pomocą* (*rushing to help*).

In the second example, *b. kawa z ekspresu* (*drip coffee*) the trajector *kawa* (*coffee*) is also a liquid prepared from ground coffee, however the process of preparation is crucial here. *Kawa* (*coffee*) is a product of a machine. Coffee beans are put inside the machine, they are grinded and then hot water goes through the grinded beans and finally the process of brewing is completed. Thus, again there is a contact between the trajector *kawa* (*coffee*), (from the coffee beans, through the process of grinding, brewing up to the final effect in the cup) and the prepositional landmark *ekspres* (*coffee machine*). The contact is again direct, immediate and physical and evoked by the preposition. The final effect of the contact is the coffee brew in the cup being the result of the contact between coffee beans and the machine. Interestingly, the type of contact can be also understood mentally here, not only physically. In a situation in a café, a person sitting at a table asking for a drip coffee conceptualizes only mentally the contact between the brew he/she orders and the machine. Unequivocally, the tr-lm contact can be defined as immanent, resultative. Examples of the type can also be found in *Mały słownik języka polskiego* (1969), e.g., *Wisła wystąpiła z brzegów* (*The Vistula stepped out of the banks*), *z prawej/lewej strony* (*on the left/right*), *z przodu/z tyłu* (*at the front/back*), *z wdzięczności* (*with gratitude*), *ożenić się z rozsądku* (*marry out of convenience*), *bukiet z róż* (*bouquet of roses*), *wino z porzeczki* (*currant wine*), *z kilometr* (*about a kilometre*).

The type of contact can be presented diagrammatically (Fig. 3).

In the third example, *c. kawa z Rwandy* (*coffee from Rwanda*), the trajector *kawa* (*coffee*) is understood as a coffee type or a coffee brand, e.g., Arabica/robusta coffee or just coffee defined by the fact that it comes from Rwanda. Put it differently, the prepositional landmark constitutes 'the place

of access' to the coffee. The prepositional landmark *Rwanda* localizes the trajector *coffee* by means of the preposition. The landmark of the preposition elaborated by the nominal and realized by the lexeme *Rwanda* specifies the origin of the beans. Thus, again the preposition indicates a direct contact between the trajector and the landmark. Importantly, the contact is direct, however it does not have to be conceptualized as physical. *Kawa z Rwandy* (*coffee from Rwanda*) can be a product on a supermarket shelf in Poland, Great Britain, or any other country. Nevertheless, the preposition conceptually links the type/ brand of coffee with the country of its origin, Rwanda and thus there is a direct, though mental contact between the trajector and the landmark. The contact is a conceptual link between the nominal and its place of origin/ access, thus is localising. Again, the contact schema is similar (fig. 4).

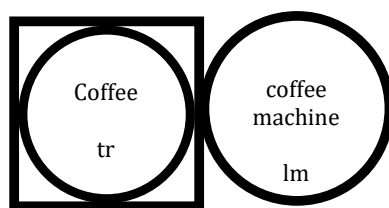


Fig. 3

Schematic contact between the trajector (tr) coffee and landmark (lm) coffee machine realized by the preposition *z*. The schema is based on Langacker's tr/lm graphic representations

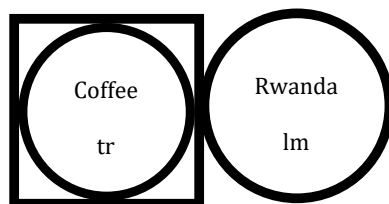


Fig. 4

Schematic contact between the trajector (tr) coffee and landmark (lm) Rwanda realized by the preposition *z*. The schema is based on Langacker's tr/lm graphic representations

An interesting phenomenon of a similar type can be observed in the phrases *samochód z Niemiec* (*a car from Germany*) or *pamiątka z Częstochowy* (*a souvenir from Częstochowa*). *Samochód z Niemiec* (*a car from Germany*) does not necessarily mean a German car. It means that the car was imported from Germany, thus there is a direct conceptual link between the car (tr) and the country it was purchased (lm). In other words, Germany elaborates 'the point of access', and the contact between the trajector and the landmark is sanctioned by the preposition *z* and can thus be called localising. Similarly, the phrase *pamiątka z Częstochowy* (*a souvenir from Częstochowa*) does not imply any physical contact between the trajector and its

landmark. The souvenir is a mental reminder of the visit in the city. Moreover, *the souvenir* (tr) and *Częstochowa* (lm) realise direct conceptual contact as the souvenir was brought from Częstochowa, and did not have to be made in Częstochowa. The city was just 'a point of access' to the artifact.

In conclusion it can be posited that the Polish preposition *z* implies contiguous contact between the schematic figures of trajector and landmark. It should be indicated here, that Langacker (2000: 55–56) discusses German preposition *mit* [Eng. with] and he states that the meaning of the preposition in German expresses proximity, not contact. Generally speaking, meaning comprises conceptual content and the way it is construed, thus proximity or contact can be a matter of construal (cf. Langacker 2008: 43). However, it is posited here that in Polish the preposition *z* indicates contact and the contact is either physical or conceptual/mental. The concept of proximity does not suffice in Polish, the notion of contact expresses more directness, tangibility, access though in some contexts only mentally. The meaning of contact is realised in all the possible usages of the preposition in Polish. The fact can be illustrated on the examples from WSJP dictionary as well as the examples from *Mały słownik języka polskiego* (1969). The examples are divided into three groups, according to the types of contact posited on the basis of the discussed 'coffee' examples. They are presented in the form of the table (Table 1).

In Table 1 the examples from WSJP and from *Mały słownik języka polskiego* (1969) are organized into three groups according to the type of contact specified by the Polish preposition *z*. The first group, in the left-hand column, are the phrases which realise direct, immediate, palpable contact, in most cases also physical. The preposition highlights the unity and integration between the relation participants. Some of the phrases from the dictionaries in all the groups have unspecified trajector, however conceptually the trajector is a thing or a relation in the case of the prepositions (cf. Langacker 1987). In the phrase *z nastaniem jesieni* (*with the coming of autumn*), the trajector is only implicit. For example, in the clause *Drzewa tracą liście z nastaniem jesieni* (*Trees lose their leaves with the coming of autumn*), the relational phrase *Drzewa tracą liście* (*Trees lose their leaves*) elaborates the trajector. Most importantly, all of the phrases in the left-hand column express contact between the (not always overtly specified as shown in the example above) trajector and the landmark. The type of contact is similar to the one realized in the phrase *kawa z mlekiem* (*coffee with milk*) in the way the contact is perceived. The contact has 'linking, uniting and consolidating' meaning. Additionally, the contact of the trajector and the landmark results in new quality, *coffee with milk*. The trajector and the landmark whether physical or abstract/mental are inseparable, they are in a direct contact, and the result of the contact can be specified as 'integrating'. In this group, the prepositional landmark has an integrating impact upon the trajector.

Table 1
 Three types of contact specified by the Polish preposition *z*

<i>a. kawa z mlekiem</i> (coffee with milk)	<i>b. kawa z ekspresu</i> (drip coffee)	<i>c. kawa z Rwandy</i> (coffee from Rwanda)
<i>bułka z dżemem</i> (a roll with jam)	<i>wyjść z domu</i> (leave the house)	<i>porcelana z Chin</i> (porcelain from China/ Chinese porcelain)
<i>przyszedł z wizytą</i> (came to visit)	<i>wrócić z koncertu</i> (come back from the concert)	<i>żaden z ludzi</i> (none of the people)
<i>z nastaniem jesieni</i> (with the coming of autumn)	<i>z zeszłego roku</i> (from last year)	<i>towar z hurtowni</i> (goods from the warehouse)
<i>spacerował z przyjacielem*</i> (walked with a friend)	<i>klasówka z matematyki</i> (maths test)	<i>czuć z podwórka</i> (a smell/stench from the backyard)
<i>podróżny z walizką</i> (a traveller with a suitcase)	<i>dom z cegieł</i> (house from bricks)	<i>wiedzieć z telewizji</i> (know from tv)
<i>żołnierz z karabinem</i> (a soldier with a rifle)	<i>ustąpił z grzeczności</i> (stepped aside as a courtesy)	<i>pieniądze z banku</i> (money from the bank)
<i>dziewczyna z warkoczami</i> (a girl with braids)	<i>dyrektor z nominacji</i> (director by appointment)	<i>woda z kranu</i> (tap water)
<i>rybak z wędką</i> (a fisherman with a rod)	<i>z polską</i> (after/in the Polish fashion)	
<i>worek z mąką</i> (sack of flour)	<i>z trzy</i> (about three)	
<i>skrzynka z węglem</i> (coal box)	<i>Wisła wystąpiła z brzegów</i> (The Vistula stepped out of the banks)	
<i>obudzić się z bólem głowy</i> (wake up with a headache)	<i>z prawej/lewej strony</i> (on the left/right)	
<i>przyjechać z wykładem</i> (come with a lecture)	<i>z przodu/z tyłu</i> (in front/back)	
<i>spieszyć z pomocą</i> (rushing to help)	<i>z wdzięczności</i> (with gratitude)	
	<i>ożenić się z rozsądku</i> (marry out of convenience)	
	<i>bukiet z róż</i> (bouquet of roses)	
	<i>wino z porzeczek</i> (currant wine)	
	<i>z kilometr</i> (about a kilometre)	

The second group of phrases, in the central column constitutes the examples in which the contact is direct, often physical or sensual. The type of contact expressed by the preposition can be defined as a resultative impact of the landmark over the trajector. Not all of the analysed phrases in the cen-

tral column have an overtly specified trajector, however the implied, conceptualized trajector and the prepositional landmark stay in contact, they are contiguous. The contact is 'resultative', i.e., in *kawa z ekspresu* (*drip coffee*), the coffee is the 'result/effect' of the direct contact between the trajector *kawa* (*coffee*) and the landmark *ekspres* (*coffee machine*). In the right-handed column the examples represent an abstract contact between the trajector and the landmark. The contact is direct and mental/conceptual. In the 'coffee example' *kawa z Rwandy* a pack of coffee beans or ground coffee can be found in a supermarket in Częstochowa, Warszawa or London however, there is still a conceptual immediate contact between the coffee and the country of the origin, *Rwanda*. The place, the country in this particular example serves as the source of or as 'the point of access' to the coffee beans. In other words, *kawa z Rwandy* (*coffee from Rwanda*) is the 'effect' of the conceptual contact between the trajector *kawa* and the landmark, the place – *Rwanda* triggered by the preposition *z*. Similarly, in the example WSJP *żaden z ludzi*, there is a mental, conceptual contact between the trajector *żaden* and the landmark *ludzi*. The conceptual contact of the trajector *żaden* (*none, no one*) with the landmark *ludzie* (*people*) results/ effects in *żaden z ludzi* (*none of the people*), i. e. the result is the meaning of the phrase: *nobody from the group of people*. Thus, it can be understood that *the group of people* constitutes a possible 'point of access' to the trajector elaborated by *nobody*.

The division of the examples into the three groups helps understand the subtleties and indicate some nuances of meaning of the Polish preposition *z*. Importantly, it needs to be borne in mind that any category has fuzzy boundaries, thus some examples may be construed in more than one way.

5. Conclusions

The preposition *z* in Polish etymologically originates from two prepositions: *iz* and *s*. Both of the prepositions acquired a unified form *z*. Originally, the prepositions *iz* and *s* represented different meanings however, only the form *z* is contemporarily used in contexts typical of both prepositions, *iz* and *s*. Thus, in Polish *z* is treated as one, single preposition used in divergent contexts. In fact, the analysis of the examples allows to conclude that irrespectively of the context, the *z* preposition is the preposition of a direct contact between the figures of trajector and landmark. The analysis tries to indicate that preposition *z* in Polish is the preposition of direct physical or mental contact rather than of proximity. The type of contact can be of three types: i. integrating, ii. resultative and iii. localising. Schematically, in accordance with Cognitive Grammar, the schematic meaning of *z* can be presented in the way as shown in Fig. 5.

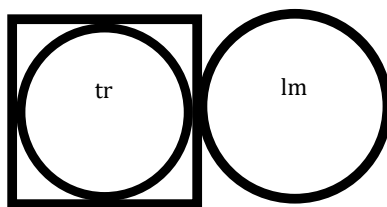


Fig. 5

General conceptual schema of contact between the relational participants- trajector and landmark realized by the preposition *z*

The article indicates that there is not an intralinguistic contrast in the usage of the preposition *z* in Polish, although etymologically it originates from two, different prepositions. The preposition expresses a direct contact between the relation participants, and the prepositional landmark imposes the type of contact expressed by the preposition in all the contexts.

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