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Cognitive grammar,
pedagogical grammar,
and English prepositions ▼

1. Introduction

The claim we wish to defend in this paper is concerned with difficulties in learning English prepositions encountered by Polish learners of English: we present our contention that by employing the framework of Cognitive Grammar (henceforth CG, Langacker 1987), the imperfect understanding of prepositions, often conceived of as 'inexplicable' by both learners and teachers, may be successfully attenuated. What follows is an analysis of the meaning of selected prepositional phrases presented through the prism of CG followed by a set of citations retrieved from a corpus to illustrate the problem analysed with authentic language data and to supply a language teacher with relevant examples for students. By so doing, we wish to contribute to the development and popularization of a cognitive grammar approach in the TEFL methodology, a notion recently associated with pedagogical grammar and advocated by a growing number of cognitive linguists (Kurtyka 2000, Langacker 2000, Rohlfing-Kubetzki 2000, Stanulewicz 2000, Taylor 1993, Turewicz 2000, Queller 2000), which is the second objective we shall further in this paper.

2. Pedagogical grammar

2.1. Definition, objectives, and current trends

In simplest terms, pedagogical grammar, elsewhere referred to as didactic grammar, strives for the translation of linguistic theory into practice. Taylor (1993: 201-202) defines pedagogical grammar as one which focuses on those aspects of grammar which are crucial in relation to language learning, unlike theoretical (linguistic) grammars which test various hypotheses about a language:

A pedagogical grammar may be characterized as a description of a language which is aimed at the foreign language learner and // or teacher, and whose purpose is to promote insight into, and thereby to facilitate the acquisition of, the foreign language. (...) Linguistic grammars (...) are written by linguists, for fellow linguists, and are evaluated against the demands of linguistic theory. On the other hand, a pedagogical grammar (...) is written to meet the needs of the language learner and // or teacher, and is evaluated by its success in promoting insight into, and acquisition of, the foreign language. (Taylor 1993: 201-202)

In accordance with these general objectives, we further read in Taylor (1993: 202) that (i) pedagogical grammar (PG) is by no means a sheer simplification of linguistic grammar, although its contents should be readily accessible and comprehensible for the intended audience (that is teachers and learners), therefore it is required that both the linguistic notions and terminology be tailored to suit language level of learners as well as linguistic knowledge of teachers (who do not need to be experts in theoretical linguistics); (ii) PG will be concerned with language-specific problems rather than ones manifesting universal, cross-linguistic validity, and will present language peculiarities in a systematic and coherent way; (iii) PG will offer explanations viable for teachers, which would promote the *understanding* of the structure of the foreign language.

At this juncture it is worth noting that the need to establish pedagogical grammar as a separate academic course for pre-service teachers, taught independently of the course in methodology and grammar per se, has been widely recognized and the wish to form pedagogical grammar as an independent academic course has recently been presented:

(...) I find it promising to conceive of *grammar education of the teachers-to-be not as a direct derivative of grammar teaching practice in a classroom*. Rather, this facet to the teachers' training programs should be regarded as an educational task with its own procedures, independent from classroom methodology but directly relevant to the formation of a better foundation for a more effective application of modern, communication-oriented methodologies of teaching a foreign language, and its grammar as an organic element of human language. (Turewicz 2000: 26)

Bearing in mind the wide array of linguistic theories formulated over the last decades, what is meant by linguistic theory that should constitute the basis for pedagogical grammar is somewhat ambiguous. What Turewicz further suggests is the possibility of providing a coherent and teacher-oriented translation of theory into practice by adopting constructs of CG. (This view is supported by Stanulewicz 2000, Queller, Taylor 1993, and other cognitive lin-

guists). Personally, we find the conceptual apparatus employed by cognitive grammar extremely useful. In fact, it seems that probably no other linguistic theory could contribute to the understanding of a language by learners of English more efficiently, since CG refers to everyday experiences of language users on which basis language structures receive their semantic motivation. In CG, grammar is no longer an incomprehensible set of rules and principles, which requires high level abstract thinking on the part of a learner. Indeed, most aspects of grammar may be rendered by evoking 'down-to-earth', experienced-based associations of an average (as opposed to idealized) language learner.

2.2. Cognitive pedagogical grammar

In line with cognitive pedagogical grammar, it is of primary importance to first equip a language *teacher* with the strategies of language analysis typical of cognitive grammar. The teacher should be aware of the arguments she may use to elucidate language problems in line with CG analysis and she should know what explication rooted in CG to elicit from her students. Providing a practical translation of cognitive grammar analysis is one of the goals of pedagogical grammar directed specifically at cognitive and applied linguists. Practical activities for language *learners*, presenting particular *language problems*, as well as promoting specific *techniques* employed in classroom teaching are equally important aims of pedagogical grammar. The main objectives of cognitive pedagogical grammar may be illustrated as follows:

Table 1. Objectives of cognitive pedagogical grammar

cognitive and applied linguists	teacher trainers and practicing teachers – top-down preparations	language learners – bottom-up learning
1. selecting language items // structures to be analysed relevant for didactic purposes	1. selecting language items // structures to be taught	1. analysing language items // structures in context (in a sentence or in a set of corpus citations)
2. providing a cognitive explanation for language teachers	2. finding cognitive grammar explanation of the selected language items // structures	2. formulating conclusions and generalisations of rules as a result of inductive procedure described in 1.
3. preparing a set of activities to present, practice, and test the selected items // structures (diagrams, traditional activities, corpus-based activities).	3. finding // preparing activities (If a teacher fails to find a CG explanation of a given language problem, she may do it herself, with the help of, say, language corpora) and assessing // testing sts' understanding of the new items	3. self-checking of the understanding of the new items // structures taught in new contexts.

For the sake of illustrating how cognitive grammar may be utilized for didactic purposes, what follows in section 4 is a presentation of: (i) four prepositional phrases accompanied by the explanation grounded in cognitive analysis; (ii) the corpus-based technique adopted by the author, which affords both the presentation and practice of language problems. (For further examples of cognitive analysis in TEFL context see: Queller 2000, Kurtyka 2000, Rohlfing-Kubetzki 2000, Langacker 2000, Stanulewicz 2000). Before moving to the practical part, however, it is necessary to present the general approach to prepositions and their role in prepositional phrases from the perspective of CG.

3. Cognitive Grammar perspective on prepositions

Rooted in generative grammar, a prevailing approach to prepositions in FLT assumes their servile role to noun or verb phrases in which they habitually occur. Generativists believed that prepositions had no autonomous, self-contained meaning. On the contrary, they were conceived of as semantically vacuous. The meaning was only acquired when prepositions were inserted in a larger structure: a phrase which served as a frame. Moreover, prepositions were believed to be attached to other words arbitrarily rather than as a result of some application of any logical principles. For example, we are expected to say *at home*, but *in a building*, or *in the morning* but *at night*, or *on the bus* but *in a car* without being provided with a relevant explanation concerning the choice of 'the appropriate' preposition. An unjust, simplistic, and outdated view as it seems to be, judging by my observations as a language teacher and a teacher trainer, it has been widely adopted by language teachers and EFL learners. As a consequence, a common practice of EFL teachers is avoidance of the explication of such 'arbitrary' selection of prepositions in particular phrases, and of EFL learners learning prepositional phrases by heart.

From the perspective of cognitive grammar, the preposition is conceived of as a word indicating a **relation** between two other entities. These entities, usually rendered by a noun // verb (argument 'x') and an object (argument 'y'), are known as the trajector (TR) and the landmark (LM). The TR is the main figure in the scene, while the LM serves the purpose of a reference point while locating the TR in space. For example, in the phrase *a cat on the chair* the *cat* is the figure (and the TR), while the *chair* is the reference point (i.e. the LM).

In prepositional phrases (i.e. phrases which consist of the preposition and the LM which follows it), the preposition highlights selected parts of the LM, i.e. it profiles the LM. For example, in the phrase (*a glass*) *on the table* and (*a cat*) *under the table* we envisage different parts of the table (its top surface

or the space between its legs), so that only a selected region of the object is salient. Our conceptualization of the landmark is thus determined by the preposition. In other words, the preposition is the **profile determinant** in a prepositional phrase.

Simultaneously, in a given phrase the LM imposes the appropriate reading of the preposition. For example, in *a man at the lamp post*, *at* conveys the notion of 'proximity' (the TR is in the vicinity of the LM'), as the shape of the LM does not allow the TR to be, for example, inside the LM. In *a man is at home*, on the other hand, the preposition is used of enclosure (the TR located inside the LM), as the LM is a three-dimensional object bigger than the TR, which enables us to envisage the TR in the interior of the LM. This brings us to the claim that the reading of a preposition cannot be determined without considering the specifications of the LM. In other words, only when the two components are analysed as one unit, do they construe a new configuration at a higher level of abstraction. From the above discussion it follows that prepositions should not be analysed and, by the same token, taught in abstraction from the nominal which follows them, as both elements are constitutive of one inherent conceptualization invoked in the mind.

4. Cognitive grammar analysis and teaching activities

This section presents four examples of how cognitive grammar explanation may be adapted in language teaching. Each item examined is a contrastive analysis of two or three prepositional phrases which, potentially, may be a source of confusion and misinterpretation for learners of English. Cognitive explanation is accompanied by diagrams, often used in cognitive grammar, and illustrated by examples retrieved from a corpus of English, both of which are considered to be recommended teaching techniques.

4.1. [ON + BUS] VS. [IN + BUS]

In the sentence *Bill is on a bus* the preposition *on* is used to indicate enclosure: argument 'x' (*Bill*) is *inside* argument 'y' (*bus*). At first the choice of *on* to render this concept may seem surprising as in line with cognitive grammar, typically, it is the preposition *in* that manifests best the schematic meaning of enclosure (e.g. *in a car*, *in a room*, *in a box*). For some reason, however, the preposition *on* is employed in the above phrase to signal the location of an object inside *a bus*. This seemingly discrepant selection of the preposition may be accounted for in the following way. A bus is a vehicle which carries passengers standing (or sitting) on a platform, on which they have to climb. The platform is an even, flat and elevated surface which occupies the whole hori-

zontal space of the bus. *On* locates the TR inside the LM yet it is not the bus as a whole that is highlighted in the scene but only its horizontal axis (the platform-like element of the *bus*). In this way the *bus* is identified with its platform. In other words, the floor becomes the salient facet of the vehicle. The use of the preposition *on* in this phrase is justifiable on the grounds that, in accordance with cognitive linguistics, typically, the concept of an elevated surface which supports other objects is conveyed by the preposition *on*. Moreover, etymologically, the use of the preposition *on* to locate human beings inside the bus may be sought in the fact that in the past busses in England were open (Zelinsky-Wibbelt, 1993: 370). Thus the notion of enclosure (i.e. a container) conveyed by the preposition *in* may be easily defeated, since the vehicle was mainly identified not only with a platform but also with a half-open space (i.e. an *imperfect* container) rather than a closed space. Remnants of such a conceptualization of the *bus* are still available today: traditional double-deckers have no back door which would virtually ‘close’ the space of the bus, and the upper floor of double-deckers for tourists is still open. This notion was later extended to other means of transport (e.g. *on + train // plane*) irrespective of the fact that they have always designated closed objects. Such an understanding of the meaning of the phrase *on the bus* accords with the schematic meaning of *on* (i.e. providing support, cf. Dirven 1993), observable in a number of phrases, for example: *on the floor*, *on the table*, (paint) *on the door*, where *on* implies contact with a flat surface which functions as a support for other objects.

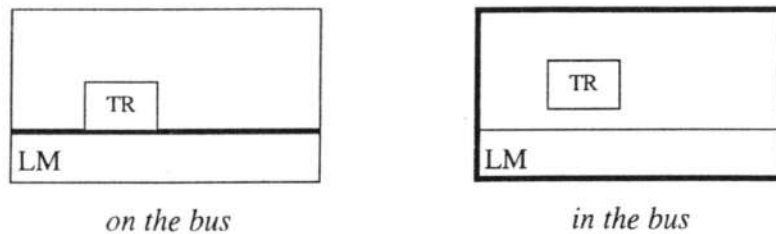


Figure 1. Conceptualizations of *a/the bus*

The remaining question concerns the appropriateness of using the preposition *in* in another acceptable phrase *in the bus*. The difference between the two phrases may be explained by referring to schematic meaning of the preposition *in*. If *in* conveys the aspect of ‘x’ being enclosed by ‘y’, then our attention does not focus on the bus per se (as a vehicle), but on the interior of the bus, that is the people and the situation in which they find themselves (such as

a conversation). Therefore, it is only natural to say that *we have heard some news in the bus*, as there the TR (*the news*) is suspended in the space of the bus (the LM), rather than contiguous to the platform-like elevation. In other words, the idea of support (typically conveyed by *on*) is not expressed. Instead, the location of the TR in relation to the interior of the bus is evident (cf. citations below, lines 3, 4, and 6). In line 12 we may observe that the preposition *on* is used in the sentence *He left his umbrella on the bus*, since the TR is (i) tangential to the LM, and (ii) the LM supports the TR. In line 2, on the other hand, the verb *hide* does not conform to the primary function of the vehicle (i.e. transportation), but rather it necessitates the existence of some 3D object which could provide a full coverage of the TR and, by the same token, would disallow a direct perception of the TR, justifying, thus, the use of *in*. The schematic meaning of *in* may also be signalled by a number of other words, e.g. *sing, sleep, eat, be, and talk*, all of which imply that argument 'x' is inside argument 'y'. Contrary to *in*, verbs which typically precede *on* are indicative of entering (*jump, hop, get*) or remaining on (*go, carry, be on one's way, travel*) an elevated, platform-like object. Thus, verbs which highlight the primary function of a bus as a vehicle used for transportation co-occur with the preposition *on*. In other cases, *on* is used alternatively to *in*, with the difference, as it seems, that *in* is used to emphasise the idea of 'interior', while *on* underlines the notion of using the bus as a platform used for support. In other words two-dimensionality is rendered by *on* and whenever there is a requirement of portraying a three-dimensional space, *in* is more likely to occur.

In sum, the prepositions *in* and *on* profile different conceptualizations of the word *bus*: the bus as a container, and the bus as a moving object with a steady platform used as a support for other objects. The conclusion emerging from this explanation is very clear: the choice of the preposition is not dependent on default assumptions but on the speaker's viewpoint and his // her communication goals.

1 Paul 's dad, but I 've never been in a bus with Paul 's dad. And, but he 's ni
 2 as he was walking home. Hidden in a bus and estimated to contain about half
 3 op washing and shaving and go live in a bus and drive around the country shittin
 4 to have a knees-up in a pub, sing in a bus or appear on panel games on televis
 5 aker A friend was speaking Spanish in a bus and someone told him to shut up beca
 6 w the drivers holding a conference in a bus in the lower reaches of the car park
 7 o he locked up the flat and jumped on a bus heading up the King 's Road. He left
 8 hen I was young I would barely get on a bus on my own but I got so much out of Y
 9 the edges of desire. I 'm sitting on a bus without a destination. It 's been p
 10 t to crash while he was travelling on a bus. Quickly getting off the bus, he ra
 11 n hold on March 20, 1990. We were on a bus, on our way to a concert, when we w
 12 d takes the umbrella and leaves it on a bus, the victim is unlikely to get it b
 13 d grrr, aargh! He gets on, jumps on a bus. The bus is going too slow the bear
 14 ry socially responsible. I hopped on a bus to King 's Cross and then took a tub

4.2. [ON THE GRASS] VS. [IN THE GRASS]

Bearing in mind that the preposition *on* refers to flat surfaces, it is easily deducible that *on the grass* will be used to indicate a trajector which stands out against the background of the flat surface of the landmark (*the grass*), either because it is higher than the grass (*men sitting on the grass*, the grass used as a support), or because it violates the structure of the extended surface of the grass (*sand // litter on the grass*). The trajector then would be the **figure** presented against the grass serving as the **ground**. *In the grass*, on the other hand, calls up a scene which is a result of ‘zooming in’ the mental representation adequate for the unit *on the grass*. Thus, *in the grass* allows one to notice a number of details concerned with the grass (blades of grass, movement of the blades, bugs, etc.), and the trajector which is ‘inside’ the grass. The blades constitute natural boundaries of the ‘container’ schema for the object ‘imprisoned’ inside (cf. Figure 1, notations after Langacker 2000: 5). In other words:

the **maximal scope** (MS) of our field of view is different for each phrase: in the case of *on the grass* the maximal scope is most probably the whole garden and a house which are in the direct vicinity of the grass, whereas in the case of *in the grass* the whole maximal scope is occupied by the grass;

the **immediate scope** (IS), that is the locus of attention, is confined to the carpet of grass in the case of *on the grass*, and to a select fragment of the grass in the case of *in the grass*;

the **profile** imposed by the conceptualizer is either only the surface of the grass or the space inside the grass yet the distance between the conceptualizer and the focus of attention blurs the details and makes them unimportant in the case of *on the grass*, whereas in the case of *in the grass* the conceptualizer visualizes a ‘close-up’ of the trajector, so all details are distinct and of high importance.

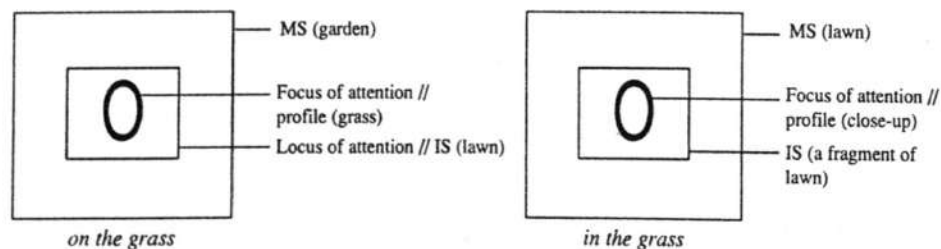


Figure 2. Conceptualizations of *on/in the grass*

1 smell of a dead cigarette-end somewhere in the grass. Suddenly Fiver shivered a
 2 doorless doorway and saw, half hidden in the grass, the red tiles of the porc
 3 of his cheek and went to gather daisies in the grass and make a daisy chain t
 4 unning around and babies crawling about in the grass. Jane Postlethwaite watche
 5 sentful and baffled as well. The snake in the grass here is, of course, Miss C
 6 tly, when they came upon a rabbit lying in the grass. It was almost under the
 7 m a concealed broken bottle sticking up in the grass, electrically detonated mi
 8 rey. Creed tripped over something lying in the grass and even his head-over-hee
 9 sked David gently, and laid his jacket on the grass. Too tense to speak, Julie
 10 ealise that what he sees is three men on the grass, with a fourth going throu
 11 s of students and teachers were sitting on the grass, chatting and laughing in
 12 were tired, then lazed on beach towels on the grass under the palm trees. Carlo

4.3. [ON + CORNER] VS. [IN + CORNER] VS. [AT + CORNER]

The basic differences between the three units are the following (cf. Figure 3.):

The use of *at* imposes an 'external' perspective, i.e. the outer side of the corner (3. a), whereas *in* – internal, i.e. the space between two walls (3. c); *in* implies a half closed space (3. c.), *at* – an open space (3. a).

At is expressive of imprecise location of the trajector (e.g. *a moving bus at every corner*), which may be either externally (3. a) or internally located (3. b), *in* suggests a static action.

On permits both the external and internal perspective, yet (i) it evokes the LM as a flat surface (*pavement, table*) and the TR as an object covering a part of the LM, or (ii) it assumes the LM representing an open space (3. d.) rather than some closed interior and the feeling of being hemmed indicated by *in*.

1 small single-decker bus appeared at a corner not far away. Within minutes I w
 2 d his chap. His tongue stuck out at a corner of his mouth as he began to shave
 3 main living quarters. In a room at a corner of the house a man fiddling wit
 4 d for a party. I sat, bored, at a corner of the heavy wood table, picking
 5 flat roof with terra cotta urns at each corner, outlined sharply against the
 6 lia had 12 players on the pitch at the corner from which Jenny Morris scored
 7 d gazes, almost apologetically, at the corner of the room as she talks. When
 8 orning the car had to slow down at the corner of the street. Here it was that
 9 as sitting there rather timidly at the corner of the table when the Pope said
 10 spittle are beginning to appear at the corner of your mouth as you count down
 11 tors hung from a picture rail; in each corner of the room were columns of sh
 12 nd black veil. I found it folded in a corner, still heavy with the perfume of
 13 ra safety, she found him huddled in a corner, shaking violently, his body wr
 14 cell. Elaine was sitting hunched in a corner, rocking back and forth, her he
 15 hotel restaurant. We 're hiding in a corner to give our necks a rest, the log
 16 ister Johnny was quiet, sitting in a corner of the kitchen, just watching He
 17 tiness pervaded the dingy room. In a corner of the floor stood a saucer of mi
 18 omised, it was still tucked away in a corner with only its spine showing. Alt
 19 aze away, and shrugged, leaning on a corner of the table, half sitting there
 20 ting to a group of old civilians on a corner of the pavement, nudged the driv
 21 es on the north-south streets. On each corner stands a pair of soldiers, ri
 22 ondescript, darkish girl who sat on a corner of the sofa. He did n't tell th
 23 d ice-cream carton) upside down on a corner of a garden-bed or lawn. If you m
 24 is it our problem? Creed settled on a corner of the picture editor 's desk. Hu
 25 o Detective Inspector Catton sat on a corner of his desk, one leg dangling. N
 26 orned with glittering neon signs on the corner of Broadway and Times Square. T
 27 A man delays her at a lamp-post on the corner of the street. Somewhere behind
 28 d scenarios Cigar Store and Cafe on the corner of Washington Square for an int
 29 resive but dilapidated building on the corner of Whitehall and Parliament Squ
 30 far below and a very new shrine on the corner. Then there was a red-brick hou

On is suggestive of a more permanent location of the TR in relation to the LM (e.g. *museum // bank // lamp post + on*) than it is in the case of *at* which stresses temporality (e.g. *begin to appear + at*) or *in* (e.g. *sit + in*).

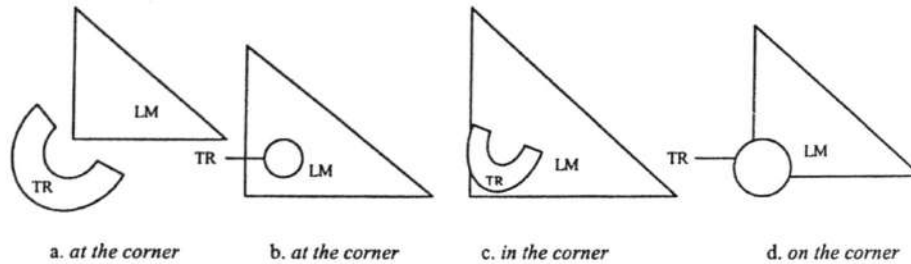


Figure 3. Conceptualizations of *at/in/on the corner*

4.4. [IN + MARGIN] VS. [ON + MARGIN] VS. [AT + MARGIN]

Topologically, the conceptual differences underlying *on* and *in* in the above phrases may be illustrated by Figure 4.: in *on the margin*, the *margin* constitutes the locus of attention which is visualized against a wider background, while *in the margin* resembles *in the grass* in terms of the much narrower maximal scope which is construed by the *margin* itself. The IS is therefore, a fragment of the *margin* in the case of *in*, and the *margin* per se in the case of *on*. Further to that, by using *on the margin* we envisage a narrow (critical) line beyond which another notion // space exists (e.g. *margin of death*, *margin of eternity*). In such cases *margin* appears to be synonymous with *verge* or *brink* and it stresses contrast between and disjunction of the two areas compared. *In*, on the other hand, does not provoke such dramatic associations. Instead, it carries the meaning of a confined space which constitutes a small part of the LM (which is always *a page*).

1 e various exclusions and caveats in the margin of each page.
 2 down did n't you write it in the in the margin?I just put rent, you see
 3 ification or action, put a cross in the margin,so that when you have co
 4 rnement debt. Scribbling changes in the margin of his text right up to
 5 been scope for local initiative on the margin of national agreements,
 6 eter told her how he had hovered on the margin of death for nearly six m
 7 nd to be central here. Standing on the margin/of eternity, dissolution
 8 2 assistant, said: We have been on the margin,now we are the mainstream.
 9 ded and marked, we released them at the margin of the lake near the spaw
 10 se things very often changed just at the margin,and no one could trace qu
 11 ions the government operates only at the margin of social activity. Tha
 12 ut these affect the figures only at the margin. Britain like every other

Finally, the last possible alternation concerns the use of the preposition *at*. Typically, it may be found in two contexts. First, it is used in its literal sense, when talking about the edge of an object (citation number 9). Second, it is used in abstract sense to emphasize a marginal importance of the issue discussed (numbers 10-12). For classroom purposes the three structures described above may be illustrated as follows:

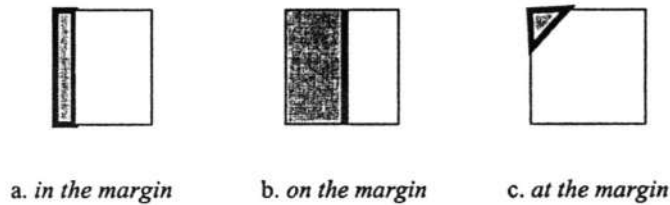


Figure 6. Conceptualizations of *in/on/at the margin*

5. Recapitulation

What we have discussed in the preceding study may be summarized as follows:

It has been demonstrated that the choice of the appropriate prepositions in language usage event is a direct consequence of the speaker's intention, rather than the imposition of pre-established language rules.

The sophisticated conceptual and terminological apparatus employed by cognitive grammar may be easily translated into a more intelligible language to cater for the didactic needs of language teachers.

The use of corpus data for the design of practical classroom activities rooted in cognitive analysis is a promising and rewarding technique, as it allows learners to participate fully in the process of rule extraction on the basis of a number of its instantiations.

The use of corpus data by language teachers permits a highly controlled teaching process: the teacher may easily guide students' analysis and the conclusions they are expected to draw.

The use of corpus-based activities is highly motivating for learners: learners develop the contention that they have arrived at revealing and enlightening conclusions on their own, as the teacher's guidance of the learning process is unobtrusive, and thus practically unnoticed by learners.

Language analysis derived from cognitive grammar equips a learner with skills necessary for coping with language outside language classroom, that is when they can rely only on their own 'intuition'.

6. Conclusion

The notion of cognitive pedagogical grammar presented in this paper is a direct outgrowth of cognitive linguistics. To be exact, it embodies a position on the method of foreign language teaching parallel to the theoretical framework presented by cognitive grammar: both share a commitment to analysing language through human cognition. We have evidenced throughout this paper that the assignment of the preposition to a nominal which follows it is *not* a mere import of default rules prescribed by grammarians, and in no way is it pre-established. Rather, it is a result of a conscious choice of language users of the word which best portrays the speaker's expressive purposes. The traditional approach in teaching foreign languages, which underscores the role of universal language rules and minimises the participation of a learner in rule abstraction, is bound to be challenged by an alternative approach, which promotes language-specific and empirically-grounded conceptualizations of rules and maximises the role of the speaker // hearer in the act of communication.

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Streszczenie

Celem artykułu jest przedstawienie nowatorskiej metody nauczania przyimków angielskich polegającej na odwoływaniu się do teorii gramatyki kognitywnej (Langacker 1987) w poszukiwaniu eksplikacji zasad użycia przyimków oraz wykorzystaniu korpusów językowych do ilustracji reguł językowych rządzących użyciem analizowanych przyimków i do preparacji materiałów dydaktycznych. W pierwszej części artykułu przedstawiono definicję i cele kognitywnej gramatyki pedagogicznej oraz krótki opis kategorii przyimka z punktu widzenia językoznawstwa tradycyjnego oraz kognitywnego. W drugiej części artykułu omówiono praktyczne zastosowanie wcześniej opisanej metody na przykładzie kilku wybranych wyrażen przyimkowych.