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## NEW PREPOSITIONAL ANALYTIC CONSTRUCTIONS IN CONTEMPORARY POLISH

### Abstract

This paper presents pairs of structures in which one structure is a correct synthetic phrase and the other is a corresponding analytic structure that is incorrect according to contemporary dictionaries. The latter are nevertheless used because speakers notice subtle differences between the synthetic and analytic forms. As a result, one structure cannot be replaced with the other in all contexts. The process of replacing synthetic structures with analytic ones is evidence of the intensifying tendency towards analyzation in Polish. This process has been observed in all periods of the history of the Polish language.

**Keywords:** synthetic construction; analytic construction; analyticity; preposition

## 1 Introduction

The following paper is dedicated to the analysis of pairs of constructions which comprise two functionally equivalent phrases, namely synthetic and analytic, which are interchangeably used in numerous contexts. Their existence is explained as part of a tendency towards analyticity in Polish<sup>1</sup>, and has been described in linguistic literature for more than 100 years. The process of replacing synthetic constructions with analytic ones is older than the history of the Polish language and even took place in Proto-Indo-European. Therefore, this process does not only concern Polish, but can also be observed in all Slavic languages. Two Slavic languages, Bulgarian and Macedonian, are now analytic languages. Nowadays, this tendency is even stronger in northern Slavic languages, such as Russian and Czech, and especially so in Polish.

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<sup>1</sup>W. Sosnowski (2011) mentions analytic tendencies which include the following:

“a decrease in the number of cases in all inflected parts of speech; a more frequent use of uninflected nouns and adjectives; the growing importance of nouns with common gender, and, in particular, the use of forms of masculine gender to depict feminine gender; differences in expressing collectiveness in a group of nouns (using collective meaning for forms that have singular meaning; substituting case forms with prepositions; substituting case forms with subordinate clauses; substituting case forms with ‘helper’ words) (Sosnowski, 2011, p. 97).

## 2 Synthetic and analytic construction – definition

The term **synthetic construction** describes a phrase which consists of a noun, verb or an adjective and a noun in one of four cases (genitive, dative, accusative or instrumental), e.g.:

*nauczyciel historii* (teacher-NOM.SG history-GEN.SG);  
*napotkać coś* (encounter-INF something-ACC);  
*podległy komuś* (subordinate-ADJ somebody-DAT).

**An analytic construction** consists of three elements. The first is a noun, verb or an adjective, the second is a preposition, and the third element is a noun in one of five cases (genitive, dative, accusative, instrumental or locative), e.g.

*nauczyciel od historii* (teacher-NOM.SG from-PREP history-GEN.SG);  
*napotkać na coś* (encounter-INF on-PREP something-ACC);  
*podległy pod kogoś* (subordinate-ADJ under-PREP somebody-DAT).

All analytic constructions are incorrect according to dictionaries (e.g. WSPP, 2004; SOP, 2002) and linguistic guides (e.g. Jadacka, 2005; Kłosińska, 2013; Markowski, 2003). This also means that analytic structures are newer, because they have not yet been noted in dictionaries. Most innovations are treated as a mistakes at first, but later become part of a language.

## 3 Analytic constructions in linguistic literature

The process of analyticity in Polish was mentioned for the first time by J. Bystroń at the end of the 19th century (Bystroń, 1893). The author described phrases such as *syn większy ojca* (son-NOM.SG bigger-ADJ.NOM.SG.M.COM father-GEN.SG) – an example of genetivus comparationis which is now used with a preposition – *syn większy od ojca* (son-NOM.SG bigger-ADJ.NOM.SG.M.COM than-PREP father-GEN.SG). The replacement of synthetic constructions with analytic ones in previous centuries has been described by M. Brodowska-Honowska (1955), Z. Krażyńska (2000–1012), K. Pisarkowa (1984) etc. Many 20th century constructions of this type have been analyzed in articles published in “Poradnik Językowy” and “Język Polski”. A large number of prepositional phrases appear in the works of D. Buttler (1976) and J. Anusiewicz (1978).

D. Buttler (1976) listed the following reasons for using analytic constructions instead of synthetic ones:

1. Striving for precision. Prepositions are additional movers of meaning, whereas cases are multifunctional, ambiguous, and not precise enough for language speakers.

Some synthetic constructions are ambiguous, e.g. *aprobata rządu* (approval-NOM.SG government-GEN). It can be understood as both ‘the government approves of somebody/something’ and ‘somebody approves of the government’. To avoid this ambiguity, language speakers can say:

*Aprobata rządu przez kogoś*  
(approval-NOM.SG government-GEN.SG by-PREP somebody-ACC)  
*Czyjaś aprobata dla rządu*  
(somebody’s-GEN.SG approval-NOM.SG for-PREP government GEN.SG)

2. Striving for economy – this is manifested in a tendency to abbreviate. New constructions are created by omitting part of a longer phrase, e.g. *chepić się z czegoś* (boast-INF from-PREP something-GEN), instead of *chepić się czymś* (boast-INF something-INS), which is

an abbreviation from *chępić się z powodu czegoś* (boast-INF because\_of-PREP something-GEN).

3. The influence of word formation, e.g. *następstwo po czymś* (consecution-NOM.SG after-PREP something-INS), which is an incorrect form of *następstwo czegoś* (consecution-NOM.SG something-GEN) that comes from correct phrase *następować po czymś* (come-INF after-PREP something-INS).

(1) *Trzeba znać rozwój następstw po traumie.* (NKJP, n.d.)

4. The influence of foreign languages (not only analytic ones). For instance, *współczuć z kimś* (sympathise-INF with-PREP somebody-INS) instead of *współczuć komuś* (sympathise-INF somebody-DAT) is an English calque – *sympathise with somebody*. *Szukać za czymś* (look\_for-INF behind-PREP something-INS) instead of *szukać czegoś* (look\_for-INF something-GEN) is a German calque – *nach etwas suchen*. There are also calques from synthetic languages such as Russian, e.g. *śledzić za kimś* (follow-INF after-PREP somebody-INS) instead of *śledzić kogoś* (follow-INF somebody-ACC) which has the same syntactic structure as the Russian *следовать за кем-то*.

(2) *Murek gardził swoimi współlokatorami, ale i współczuł z nimi.* (NKJP, n.d.)

5. The influence of semantic factors – an innovation is a mixture of two synonymic constructions, e.g. the form *postulować o coś* (postulate-INF about-PREP something-ACC) is created by overlapping two synonymic structures: *postulować coś* (postulate-INF about-PREP something-ACC) and *apelować o coś* (appeal-INF about-PREP something-ACC). The verb *apelować* (appeal) is used with the preposition *o*, whereas *postulować* (postulate) needs only a noun in the accusative case. The similar meanings of the verbs *postulować* and *apelować* may be the cause of their incorrect usage.

(3) *Twórcy od zawsze postulowali o oddzielenie sztuki od polityki.* (Google)

6. The influence of regionalisms, e.g. typical in the Podlasie region is the form *dać dla kogoś* (give-INF for-PREP somebody-GEN) instead of *dać komuś* (give-INF somebody-DAT), used in contexts where people give something directly:

(4) *Ale warto się też zastanowić, czy potrafi się dać dla niej (dziewczyny) miłość i szczęście, na które zasługuje.* (NKJP, n.d.)

Another example of a regionalism, from the Poznań and Kraków regions, is *lekcja z czegoś* (lesson-NOM.SG with-PRAEP something-GEN) instead of *lekcja czegoś* (lesson-NOM.SG something-GEN).

Taking all these reasons into consideration, it is also possible to indicate the mechanisms of creating analytic constructions mentioned in the linguistic literature. These can be of a semantic, word-formative or syntactic nature.

The first – having semantic background – is contamination, understood as a mixture of two phrases. As a result, a new phrase is created that contains elements of two synonymic constructions, e.g. *postulować o coś* (postulate-INF about-PREP something-ACC) is a contamination of two phrases: *postulować coś* (postulate-INF something-ACC) and *zabiegać o coś* (strive-INF about-PREP something-ACC).

- (5) *Będziemy postulować o przesunięcie obydwóch wiat przystanków w pobliże skrzyżowania.* (NKJP, n.d.)

The second mechanism is abbreviation, e.g. *zdegustowany z czegoś* (disgusted-PP from-PREP something-GEN) is a shorter form of *zdegustowany z powodu czegoś* (disgusted-PP because\_of-PREP something-GEN), which is used instead of the shortest form *zdegustowany czymś*.

(6) *Jestem zdegustowana z tego filmu.*

The final mechanism is analogy. An innovation is created analogically to another phrase or a group of phrases, e.g. *wykładowca od historii* (lecturer-NOM.SG from-PREP history-GEN) is analogical to *pan od czegoś* (man-NOM.SG from-PREP something-GEN).

## 4 Presentation of material

The material used in the following analysis was chosen from various texts written in contemporary Polish. Firstly, all simple prepositions were excerpted from Polish dictionaries (SJPDor, 1958–1969; USJP, 2003; SWJP, 1996), with the exception of secondary prepositions (derivation and neosemanticism). The following prepositions were selected: *dla* (for), *do* (to), *ku* (towards), *między* (between), *mimo* (despite), *na* (on), *nad* (over), *o* (about), *od* (from), *po* (after), *pod* (under), *przeciw* (against), *przed* (in front of), *w* (in), *wobec* (to), *za* (behind), and *z* (with). The lexemes *wobec* and *względem*, although historically secondary prepositions, were added to this group, as they are part of many analytic constructions. The next step was to select analytic constructions from The National Corpus of Polish website and the Google search engine. Amongst all the collected contexts, only those which comprised analytic constructions marked as incorrect in contemporary dictionaries of Polish (WSPP, 2004; SOP, 2002) and linguistic handbooks (i.e. Jadacka, 2005; Kłosińska, 2013; Markowski, 2003) were chosen for analysis.

467 synthetic constructions were collected, all of which have their analytic counterparts (see Table 1).

The largest group of synthetic constructions are genitive structures – 260; 193 have analytic variants with the genitive, 4 with the dative, 35 with the accusative, 7 with the instrumental and 21 with the locative. Genitive usage is quite common as it plays many semantic and syntactic roles. As a result, meaning might be ambiguous and people use genitive phrases with prepositions in order to make them clearer.

There are 97 synthetic dative constructions; 70 have variant forms with the genitive, 9 with the dative (with not many examples of usage), 10 with the accusative, 5 with the instrumental and 3 with the locative.

In a group of 32 accusative synthetic phrases (only verb phrases), 17 have variant forms with the genitive, 13 with the accusative, 14 with the instrumental, and 8 with the locative.

There are 52 instrumental synthetic constructions; 18 have analytic variants with the genitive, 30 with the accusative, 2 with the instrumental and 4 with the locative.

As the table shows, the group of analytic genitive constructions is the largest (298), which might be induced by the significant number of prepositions that need a noun in the genitive. The smallest group is that of analytic dative constructions, due to the fact that there are only a few prepositions ruling the dative case in Polish.

## 5 Analysis of material

The aim of the research was to answer the question of what the semantic relation is between pairs of synthetic and analytic constructions. In order to do so, 100 randomly chosen pairs of constructions were analysed. In most pairs (67%) the meanings of the synthetic and analytic constructions are not the same. These pairs are classified as syntactic synonyms. The remaining pairs (33%) are classified as positional variants, because the meanings of the two constructions are exactly the same. Therefore, they are interchangeable in every context, whereas syntactic synonyms are not.

Tablica 1: Synthetic constructions and their analytic counterparts

| 467 ANALYTIC CONSTRUCTIONS             |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 467<br>SYNTHETIC<br>CONSTRUC-<br>TIONS | genitive  | dative  | accusative  | instrumental  | locative  |
|  | 298   | 13  | 88  | 28  | 40  |
| genitive<br>260                        | 193<br><i>nauczyciel</i><br><i>czegoś</i> →<br>* <i>nauczyciel</i><br><i>od czegoś</i>        | 4<br><i>bojkot czegoś</i><br>→ * <i>bojkot</i><br><i>przeciw cze-</i><br><i>muś</i>                       | 35<br><i>gratulować</i><br><i>czegoś</i> →<br>* <i>gratulować</i><br><i>za coś</i>      | 7<br><i>szukać czegoś</i><br>→ * <i>szukać za</i><br><i>czymś</i>                   | 21<br><i>następstwo</i><br><i>czegoś</i> →<br>* <i>następstwo</i><br><i>po czymś</i>  |
| dative<br>97                           | 70<br><i>przypomnieć</i><br><i>komuś</i> →<br>* <i>przypomnieć</i><br><i>dla kogoś</i>        | 9<br><i>przeciwstawić</i><br><i>czemuś</i> →<br>* <i>przeciwstawić</i><br><i>przeciw</i><br><i>czemuś</i> | 10<br><i>podlegać ko-</i><br><i>muś</i> →<br>* <i>podlegać pod</i><br><i>kogoś</i>      | 5<br><i>współczuć ko-</i><br><i>muś</i> →<br>* <i>współczuć z</i><br><i>kimś</i>    | 3<br><i>stać na prze-</i><br><i>szkodzie cze-</i><br><i>muś</i> → * <i>stać</i><br><i>na przeszkod-</i><br><i>zie w czymś</i> |
| accusative<br>56                       | 17<br><i>opodatkować</i><br><i>coś</i> → * <i>opo-</i><br><i>datkować od</i><br><i>czegoś</i> | 0   | 13<br><i>napotkać coś</i><br>→ * <i>napotkać</i><br><i>na coś</i>                       | 14<br><i>postulować coś</i><br>→ * <i>postu-</i><br><i>lować za</i><br><i>czymś</i> | 12<br><i>zapamiętać</i><br><i>coś</i> → * <i>zapa-</i><br><i>miętać</i><br><i>o czymś</i>                                     |
| instrumental<br>54                     | 18<br><i>zdegustowany</i><br><i>czymś</i> →<br>* <i>zdegusto-</i><br><i>wany z czegoś</i>     | 0   | 30<br><i>mianować</i><br><i>kimś</i> → * <i>mia-</i><br><i>nować na</i><br><i>kogoś</i> | 2<br><i>przeplatać</i><br><i>czymś</i> →<br>* <i>przeplatać</i><br><i>z czymś</i>   | 4<br><i>podróż czymś</i><br>→ * <i>podróż na</i><br><i>czymś</i>  |

Examples of positional variants are the phrases *protokół czegoś* (protocol-NOM something-Gen) and *protokół z czegoś* (protocol-NOM from-PREP something-GEN). An analysis of sentences from NKJP (n.d.) and Google showed that both constructions are used in similar contexts and have the same meaning, e.g.

- (7) *Na koniec trzeba uzyskać pozytywną opinię w **protokole odbioru** inwestycji.* (NKJP, n.d.)
- (8) *Pierwszy **protokół z odbioru** prac pochodzi z 28 grudnia.* (NKJP, n.d.)
- (9) *Jest to w **protokole posiedzenia** krajowej rady.* (NKJP, n.d.)
- (10) *Sytuację tę opisano w **protokole z posiedzenia** zarządu z 4 września.* (NKJP, n.d.)
- (11) *Można to sprawdzić w **protokole zebrania**.* (NKJP, n.d.)
- (12) *Centrala zobaczy jeszcze dzisiaj nasz **protokół z zebrania**.* (NKJP, n.d.)

The syntactic synonyms have been divided into groups depending on the semantic and syntactic differences between the synthetic and analytic phrases.

## 5.1 Synthetic and analytic constructions with the same meaning but different lexical-semantic connectivity

A part of the synthetic and analytic constructions *relacjonować coś* (recount-INF something-SG.ACC) and *relacjonować o czymś* (recount-INF about-PREP something-LOC) are abstract verbs, e.g.

- (13) *Inspektor PIP tak relacjonuje działalność kopalń.* (NKJP, n.d.)  
(14) *Szczególnie dziwi nas fakt, że Dziennik Polski, który dotychczas obiektywnie relacjonował o haniebnej działalności K. W., w tak pozytywnym świetle przedstawia sylwetkę tego człowieka.* (NKJP, n.d.)  
(15) *To bardzo niedzientelmeńskie tak podglądać i relacjonować życie dżentelmenów.* (Google)  
(16) *Niełatwo relacjonować o życiu znanego osobnika.* (Google)

The *verba actionis* appearing in both phrases are the only names of these activities which can be divided into parts, because *relacjonować* means ‘to describe, how something happened’. This is why one of such nouns is the noun *przebieg* (process), e.g.

- (17) *Radio Plus będzie na żywo relacjonować przebieg imprezy.* (NKJP, n.d.)  
(18) *Prezes Koła relacjonował o przebiegu spotkania Senatorów RC i RP.* (Google)

Concrete nouns, especially personal ones, are only a part of the analytic constructions. A person cannot be divided into parts, so using a synthetic phrase would be illogical, e.g.

- (19) *Otrzymaliśmy dokument relacjonujący o hitlerowcach od środka.* (NKJP, n.d.)  
(20) *Z całego świata zjechali się dziennikarze, by relacjonować o „potworze” z Amstetten.* (NKJP, n.d.)

In examples number 19 and 20, the verb *relacjonować* is semantically very close to the phrase *mówić o czymś* (talk about something). Sentences with synthetic constructions such as:

- (19a) \**Otrzymaliśmy dokument relacjonujący hitlerowców od środka.*  
(20a) \**Z całego świata zjechali się dziennikarze, by relacjonować potwora z Amstetten.*

sound incongruous. One piece of information is missing: what was recounted about Hitlerites or the ‘monster from Amstetten’.

The results of the analysis are presented in the table below.

Table 2: Lexemes that can be a part of the pair *relacjonować coś* and *relacjonować o czymś*

|                                  | Abstract nouns | Concrete nouns (personal) |
|----------------------------------|----------------|---------------------------|
| <i>relacjonować coś</i>          | +              | –                         |
| <i>relacjonować o kimś/czymś</i> | +              | +                         |

Summarizing, abstract nouns in the analysed material are a part of both constructions; synthetic and analytical. However, their meaning is the same. In contrast, only the analytic phrases contained concrete personal nouns.

<sup>2</sup>The noun *potwór* (monster) was used to refer to a criminal.

## 5.2 Synthetic and analytical constructions with different meanings

### 5.2.1 Analytic constructions with more meanings than synthetic constructions

Examples of such pairs are the phrases *pomocnik kogoś/czegoś* (helper-NOM.SG somebody/something-GEN) and *pomocnik od kogoś/czegoś* (helper-NOM.SG od-PREP somebody/something-GEN). *Pomocnik* is defined as ‘somebody who helps’ or ‘a piece of furniture’ (USJP, 2003).

Both constructions with the lexeme *pomocnik* are used with abstract and concrete nouns (names of things and names of people), e.g.

- (21) *Prawnik jest nie tylko ekspertem prawnym, lecz bywa ujmowany jako „kompleksowy pomocnik biznesu”.* (Google)
- (22) *Wirtualny asystent – pomocnik dla biznesu.* (Google)
- (23) *Bardzo wygodny pomocnik domu, sprawdza się przy dzieciach i kotach.* (Google)
- (24) *Niezastąpiony pomocnik dla domu, w którym mieszkają zwierzęta.* (Google)
- (25) *Pomocnik niepełnosprawnego nie może jednak sugerować sposobu głosowania.* (Google)
- (26) *Sprawdza się doskonale jako przewodnik dla niewidomych, pomocnik dla niepełnosprawnych.* (Google)

On the other hand, both constructions – synthetic and analytic – are used to express different meanings of the word *pomocnik*. The synthetic phrase was found in the analysed material with the following meanings:

1. ‘somebody who helps’, e.g.

(27) *Pomocnik instruktora PZN.* (Google)

2. ‘a compendium of information’, e.g.

(28) *Pomocnik olimpijczyka: elementy wiedzy obywatelskiej i ekonomicznej.* (Google)

3. ‘a computer program’, e.g.

(29) *Pomocnik Szaradzisty jest programem wyszukującym wyrazy, anagramy i palindromy pasujące do podanego przez użytkownika wzorca.* (Google)

4. ‘a mobile application’, e.g.

(30) *Aplikacja Pomocnik telefonu zadebiutowała wraz z systemem Windows 10.* (Google)

In analytic phrases, the lexeme *pomocnik* appears in meanings not mentioned in most dictionaries (SJPdor, 1958–1969; USJP, 2003; SWJP, 1996):

1. ‘a computer program’, e.g.

(31) *Pomocnik dla TAG-a.* (Google)

2. ‘a compendium of information’, e.g.

(32) *Pomocnik dla ZUS i prawa pracy.* (Google)

3. ‘a device’, e.g.

(33) *Wyjątkowy pomocnik dla zastosowania specjalnych środków do drenaży.* (Google)

4. ‘a piece of furniture’, e.g.

(34) *Kuchenny pomocnik dla dziecka.* (Google)

There are also several specific meanings, like ‘cream’ (*pomocnik dla wrażliwej cery*) or a ‘vehicle’ (*pomocnik dla służb zimowych*) etc., but in all these examples the lexeme *pomocnik* is used to name ‘somebody or something that helps people in everyday life’.

The table below shows all the meanings of both constructions with the noun *pomocnik*.

Table 3: The meanings of the phrases *pomocnik kogoś/czegoś* and *pomocnik dla kogoś/czegoś*

| Meaning:                    | Pomocnik kogoś/czegoś | Pomocnik dla kogoś/czegoś |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------|
| ‘somebody, who helps’       | +                     | –                         |
| ‘compendium of information’ | +                     | +                         |
| ‘computer program’          | +                     | +                         |
| ‘mobile application’        | +                     | –                         |
| ‘device’                    | –                     | +                         |
| ‘a piece of furniture’      | –                     | +                         |
| ‘vehicle’                   | –                     | +                         |
| ‘cream’                     | –                     | +                         |

Summarizing, in the analysed material synthetic constructions are used in only four meanings, whereas analytic constructions are used in six. Most meanings of analytic phrases are innovations connected with technological development in recent years.

### 5.2.2 Synthetic constructions with more meanings than analytic constructions

In contemporary dictionaries the lexeme *kontrolować* (to control) has three meanings:

- [A] ‘to conduct an inspection, to check’, e.g. *to examine the accounts*;
- [B] ‘to rule something’, e.g. *to control the situation*;
- [C] ‘to dominate’, e.g. *to control trade*.

The analytic phrase *kontrolować nad kimś/czymś* (control-INF over-PREP somebody/something-INS) has been created through the influence of the noun *kontrola* (control). This noun has two syntactic schemes: with a noun in the genitive (*kontrola kogoś/czegoś*) and with a preposition and a noun in the instrumental (*kontrola nad kimś/czymś*). These two schemes also appear with the verb *kontrolować*.

In the first meaning ([A]), the verb *kontrolować* was found only in analytic constructions in the analysed material, e.g.

- (35) *Straż będzie kontrolowała rachunki za wywóz odpadów i ścieków.* (NKJP, n.d.)
- (36) *Zastanawia mnie, jak będą kontrolować podatki.* (Google)

In the second meaning ([B]), both phrases are used, e.g.

- (37) *Ten rząd chce zaś kontrolować przebieg nauczania, a nie jego efekt.* (NKJP, n.d.)
- (38) *Powinniśmy byli bardziej kontrolować nad przebiegiem meczu.* (Google)
- (39) *Sędzia mógł spokojnie kontrolować sytuację.* (NKJP, n.d.)
- (40) *Ona w pełni kontroluje nad sytuacją.* (Google)

The verb *kontrolować* in the meaning [B] is also used together with the names of people, like *minister* (minister), *nauczyciel* (teacher), *urzędnik* (clerk), but it is only observed in synthetic constructions, e.g.



- (41) *W ten sam sposób polecano **kontrolować urzędników** zaangażowanych w akcję skupu.* (NKJP, n.d.)
- (42) *Od tego jest dyrekcja szkoły, która przecież na każdym kroku **kontroluje nauczycieli!*** (Google)

In the third meaning ([C]), the verb *kontrolować* is only found in synthetic phrases in the analysed material, e.g.

- (43) *Wystarczy **kontrolować rynek finansowy.*** (NKJP, n.d.)
- (44) *Możemy też **kontrolować handel pamiątkami.*** (NKJP, n.d.)

The results of the analysis are summarized in table number 4.

Table 4: The use of the phrases *kontrolować kogoś/coś* and *kontrolować nad kimś/czymś* in three meanings

|                              | Meaning [A] | Meaning [B] | Meaning [C] |
|------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| <i>kontrolować kogoś/coś</i> | +           | +           | +           |
| <i>kontrolować nad czymś</i> | –           | +           | –           |

In the analysed material, the phrases *kontrolować kogoś/coś* and *kontrolować nad kimś/czymś* have both been used in the meaning [B] – ‘to rule something’. In contrast, only synthetic constructions appeared in meanings [A] and [B] – ‘to conduct an inspection, to check’ and ‘to dominate’.

### 5.2.3 Synthetic and analytical constructions with different meanings

*Zapamiętać* (to remember) means ‘to keep a piece of information in your memory’. The analytic phrase *zapamiętać o czymś* (remember-INF.PF about-prep something-LOC) has been created by changing the rection of the lexeme *zapamiętać*. The verb *zapamiętać* normally links with a noun in the accusative, whereas *pamiętać* (remember-INF.IMP) is used in both ways; with a noun in the accusative (*pamiętać coś*) and with the preposition *o* and a noun in the locative (*pamiętać o czymś*). In both cases the lexeme *pamiętać* has different meanings:

- *pamiętać coś* – ‘to remember something as a whole’;
- *pamiętać o czymś* – ‘to remember one aspect of something’.

This semantic difference does not concern the activity of remembering, only its object. The same meanings are taken over by the verb *zapamiętać*. The only semantic difference between them is the prefix *za-*, which creates perfective verbs meaning ‘reaching the result of an activity’. Sometimes the verb *zapamiętać* links with two arguments and has the following scheme: ‘somebody remembers something about something’, e.g.

- (45) *Zdaje się, że Guriejew tylko **to zapamiętał o** biednej **Ludmile.*** (NKJP, n.d.)

One of these two arguments (a noun in the accusative) is usually omitted on the surface of the sentence, e.g.

- (46) *Ok, **zapamiętam o maju-czerwcu.*** (NKJP, n.d.)

Further context shows that the author of the sentence is going to remember about an event that will take place in May or June. Remembering the months themselves (which are the object of remembering in sentence 46) would only be logical if somebody were learning the names of the months.

In this material, only synthetic constructions are used with words such as *adres* (address), *informacja* (information), *nazwisko* (surname), *numer* (number), and *twarz* (face). This is because we remember all of them (*nazwisko*, *numer* etc.) as a whole, e.g.

- (47) *Załóżmy, że musisz **zapamiętać numer** telefonu.* (NKJP, n.d.)  
 (48) *Próbuje **zapamiętać twarz**e ludzi najbliższych i tych przypadkowo spotkanych.* (NKJP, n.d.)  
 (49) *Najskuteczniej **zapamiętać informację**, kiedy kodujemy ją w obu półkulach.* (NKJP, n.d.)

On the other hand, *nomen actionis* only appeared in analytic constructions, e.g.

- (50) *Przecież mówiłam, abyś **zapamiętał o kupnie** dwóch rzeczy.* (Google)  
 (51) *Stąd wniosek, że telefon sobie „**zapamiętał**” o **obecności** 2,0 pl na karcie.* (Google)

Concrete personal and non-personal nouns were a part of both phrases: *zapamiętać coś* and *zapamiętać o czymś*, e.g.

- (52) *Nie umiał jeszcze malować, ale przeczytał i **zapamiętał książkę** o technikach malarskich.* (Google)  
 (53) *Bo ktoś **zapamiętał o książce**, o jakiej marzyłam dla Dziewczynki.* (Google)  
 (54) ***Zapamiętałam Beatę** już jako dorastającą pannę-licealistkę.* (Google)  
 (55) *Ciekaw jestem, jaka część wyborców wierzy w opowieść i **zapamięta o Beacie S.**, że została wykorzystana, zamiast że wzięła łapówkę.* (Google)

However, these two synonymic phrases do not mean the same. *Zapamiętać książkę* (ex. 52) means that somebody remembered what the book was about. On the other hand, the phrase *zapamiętać o książce* (ex. 53) underlines an activity related to the book that should be remembered, e.g. buying the book or giving it back. This activity is not mentioned but the people who communicate do not have any problems understanding it.

The same difference appears between the synthetic and analytic constructions in sentences (ex. 54) and (ex. 55). *Zapamiętać Beatę* means that somebody remembers a certain person named Beata. The phrase *zapamiętać o Beacie* suggests remembering a particular situation from Beata's life. The object of remembering is explained in the later part of the sentence.

The table below presents the results of the analysis.

Tablica 5: Distribution of synthetic and analytic phrases with two meanings

|                                | ‘to remember something<br>‘as a whole’ | ‘to remember one aspect<br>‘of something’ |
|--------------------------------|--|---|
| <i>zapamiętać kogoś/coś</i>    | +                                      | –   |
| <i>zapamiętać o kimś/czymś</i> | –                                      | +   |

Summarizing, each phrase is used in a different meaning. *Zapamiętać kogoś/coś* means ‘to remember something as a whole’, *zapamiętać o kimś/czymś* – ‘to remember one aspect of something’. Although the meaning of the verb *zapamiętać* is the same in both situations, the object of the activity changes.

## 6 Conclusions

The analytical tendency is particularly strong in Polish. There are numerous examples of two coexisting synonymic phrases: synthetic and analytical. Speakers need both phrases because they

are diversified semantically or syntactically. Nevertheless, Polish has not become an analytical language mainly because of the influence of linguistic norms. All of the analysed prepositional phrases are considered incorrect, so better educated speakers try to avoid using them. Creating analytical equivalents of synthetic constructions is only one expression of the tendency towards analyticity, so the likelihood of Polish becoming an analytical language requires further detailed research.

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