CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In carrying out this literature search for relevant background material, the researcher has consulted as many sources as possible. I reviewed some of salient points of previous works on or around idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs of English. In this chapter, we shall look at some of the more important predecessors to see how idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs have been defined, discussed, taught and learnt in the past and the recent period so as to have an insight about the acquired knowledge to apply it in solving and eliminating the problems and difficulties of teaching and learning these two language components in the context of Sudan.

However, I combed diligently and reviewed a considerable number of relevant references as well as a brief comparison between six of the most comprehensive, systematic and standard publications closely related to our topic. These are namely:

- Oxford Dictionary of English Idioms
- Oxford Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs
- Collins COBUILD Dictionary of Idioms
- Collins COBUILD Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs
- Cambridge International Dictionary of Idioms and
- Cambridge International Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs.

The reader will notice the concentration on these pairs of dictionaries, in this review, as the result of the awareness of the fact that idiomaticity is largely a semantic matter (dealing with definitions, meanings, collocations etc.) and at the same time bearing in mind the nature of multi-word verbs which is a vocabulary matter rather than a syntax one or others i.e. its treatment is mainly found in dictionaries as well as other vocabulary lists, data base (word banks) etc.
In sum, the works reviewed here, will make a considerable and valuable contribution in any relevant research since they defined, discussed and treated these special expressions in great detail. It need not be stated again that their role is enormous (despite their variations in scope, detail, perceptiveness and underlying philosophy) in teaching and learning these two language components.

2.2 THE INDIAN GRAMMARIANS

The problem of idioms is as old as Linguistics itself. The principle of 'compositionality' of meaning, central to any consideration of idiom, was debated for some 1300 years by those highly perceptive and methodical precursors of modern linguistics, the Sanskrit grammarians:

'The Padavādins, or Bṛḍṛṭṭa school of the later MTmiṃsā regarded ‘padas’ (inflected words) as the significant parts of a sentence and interpreted the sense of a sentence as the composite or united meaning of the 'padas' that go to constitute it'.

(Chakravarti: 1933:12)

They were routed, however, by the Vākyāvādins (yāk = speech, the word) of the Prābhāskara school. Bhartrhari, expounding this position, argued that just as letters cannot be divided into small parts, so words are not divisible into letters nor sentences into words. Words may be analysed into stem and formative, and sentences into separate words, according to the principle of apoddhOra (disintegration); but this device although useful is unreal.

'A clear line is drawn, between the sentence and its so-called constituents (padas)... the sense conveyed by a sentence is also indivisible. Just as a word (sabdasphota) or a sentence does not really consist of any parts, so the meaning denoted by it does not admit of any division... 'Indivisibility' is thus a peculiar characteristic that equally applies to both the sentence and its meaning'.

(Chakravarti 1933:110-1)
A specific example of Indian linguists' discussion of multi-word verbs involves the status of 'verbal prefixes'. *Upasargas* ('prepositions') were generally agreed to be indicative (dyotaka) rather than denotative (*vācaka*), that is, they serve to specialize the more general meanings of verbs and nouns. *Pāṇini* (5th Century BC) recognized them as independently significant. His view was elaborated by others who claimed that they have particular meanings, and that their main function is to specialize the meanings of the nouns and verbs to which they are attached.

*Patdjjali* (2nd century BC), however, asserted that verbal roots carry a range of meanings in themselves and that prepositions have no particular meaning to contribute. *Bhartrhari* (8th century A.D) defended the *Pāṇinian* position; but eventually PunyartTja resolved the debate by concluding that

>'In cases of verbs joined with prepositions the meaning is derived usually from a harmonious combination *oidhQtu* (verb stem) and *upasarga* and not from any one of them separately'.

(Chakravarti 1933:171)

However, from the above quotations and the discussion, we can conclude that the concepts of 'idiomaticity' and 'multiplicity' of the words (in verbal combinations): Creation of new verbal combinations by adding prepositions (*upasargas*) were dealt with by Indian grammarians long ago. Also, it is worth mentioning that the crucial problem of compositionality is fully and carefully debated, and many valuable observations were made.

2.3 LOGAN PEARSALL SMITH 1925

In this review, we shall now turn to Logan Pearsall Smith, Lexicographer and member of the Society for Pure English, whose 1925 book *Words and Idioms* includes a 125 - page chapter on 'English Idioms'. He defines idioms as:
The idiosyncrasies of our language, and, above all, those phrases which are verbal anomalies, which transgress, that is to say, either the laws of grammar or the laws of logic.

(Smith 1925:168)

Smith had developed and explained the above statement allowing that compound words could be idioms. The high incidence of oddity in the use of prepositions was noted by him. He also distinguished grammatical from semantic anomaly; but the chief focus of his essay lies in its lists of hundreds of English 'idioms', all phrasal and most figurative, classified according to their original semantic field.

The appendix of 'Semantic Idioms' alone gives over 500 expressions derived from parts of the body: to keep one's head, to live from hand to mouth, etc. Smith provides a valuable corpus for the idiomatologist to draw on.

2.4. CHARLES HOCKETT 1958

Hockett in his 1958 "Course in Modern Linguistics" is the first of the modern western grammarians to give serious consideration to the definition of idiom and its consequences. His discussion is worth quoting at length:

'Let us momentarily use the term 'Y' for any grammatical form the meaning of which is not deducible from its structure. Any 'Y' in any occurrence in which it is not a constituent of a larger 'Y', is an idiom. A vast number of composite forms in any language are idioms. If we are to be consistent in our use of the definition, we are forced also to grant every morpheme idiomatic status, save when it is occurring as a constituent of a larger idiom, since a morpheme has no structure from which its meaning could be deduced.

The advantage of this feature of our definition, and of the inclusion of morphemes as idioms when they are not parts of larger idioms, is that we can now assert that any utterance consists wholly of an integral number of idioms. Any composite form which is not itself idiomatic consists of smaller forms which are'.

(Hockett 1958:172)
Idioms will thus range from morphemes to proverbs or even poems, taking pronouns, proper names and figures of speech. Idiom formation is a constant process, and Hockett makes this significant point in the following words.

'the less productive a pattern is, the more likely it is that if a new form does get coined by the pattern it will have idiomatic value'.

(ibid.:308)

In general, Hockett's account of idiom emphasized the following points:

• Idiomaticity is taken to be completely pervasive of language i.e. idiomaticity is a common throughout - present and seen or felt everywhere.

• Hockett deliberately and carefully admits morphemes to idiom status while other definitions exclude single morphemes (by referring to 'morpheme arrangements', a 'group of morphemes', or by specifying an idiom as a complex, a morpheme as a simple expression) or even words.

• It is not particularly forms which are idioms but occurrences of forms in the context of particular utterances.

Generally speaking, Hockett is thorough in mapping out the full territory covered by his definitions of idiom, and undoubtedly the class he has constituted is linguistically significant. ... Indeed it closely resembles the more recently postulated class of 'lexemes'. This is the better term: Idiom is more usefully reserved for a smaller, more tightly defined class of complex expressions.

2.5 DWIGHT BOLINGER: 1961-1975

A main point to begin with here, is Bolinger's early proponence of gradualism, and the same principle informs his discussion of "Collocations and Idiom" in the textbook: Aspects of Language (Bolinger 1975). Gradient 'degrees of tightness' are demonstrated in the syntactic deficiencies, freedom of lexical substitution and semantic 'specialization' of phrases. Idioms, Bolinger, saying in effect, shade into collocations, and collocations into free constructions, in both compositionality and productivity.
Bolinger's 'Meaning and Memory' (1974, published 1976) attacks the REDUCTIONISM of mainstream generative grammar, its analysis of all data into determinate rules and features. Language, he says, contains a vast number of 'pre-fabs', stored in meaning, at every level:

Lexical units larger than words ... idioms ... where reductionist theories of language break down ... a vastly more persuasive phenomenon than we ever imagined.

(Bolinger 1976:3)

Idioms, tightly bound phrases, shade away gradually into free forms through collocations, clichés, and illocutionary formulae. Word meanings are indeterminate, not ambiguous: ambiguity is a reductionist's 'semantic illusion' (Bolinger 1978:11). Language is a creature full of indeterminacy and heterogeneity, and any linguistic theory must reflect this.

The principles underlying Bolinger's work we find both congenial and convincing, his insistence on the pervasiveness of gradience and indeterminacy, in particular, should strike a warm chord in the heart of anyone familiar with idioms and their relations.

Bolinger also argues that idiomaticity is far more persuasive than one might think, and we should note the lickeness to Hockett, whose conception is such that 'any utterance consists wholly of an integral number of idioms'.

2.6 KATZ AND POSTAL, 1963

The first account of idiom to be influenced by the work of Noam Chomsky was Katz and Postal's 'Semantic Interpretation of Idioms and Sentences Containing Them; (1963), a concise and tightly-packed little article which has significantly influenced virtually all work on idioms since. The now-standard non-compositionality definition makes its first appearance:

The essential feature of an idiom is that its full meaning is not a compositional function of the meanings of the idiom's elementary grammatical parts.

(Katz and Postal 1963:175)
They go on to distinguish 'lexical idioms' from 'phrase idioms', that is,

'Those idioms that are syntactically dominated by one of the lowest level
syntactic categories, i.e. noun, verb, adjective, etc. from those whose syntactic
structure is such that no single lowest level syntactic category dominates them'.

(ibid.:275)

The distinction too prevades latter work although too often in the form of
exclusive concentration on 'phrase idioms' (notably verb + object groups) and the
exclusion or neglect of "lexical idioms" (i.e. compound words, and noun + adjective,
verb + particle, and similar clusters).

Lexical idioms are listed as units in the lexicon. For phrase idioms, however,
considerations of simplicity in syntactic and phonological description suggest that:
at least the members of the class of idioms whose occurrences also have
compositional meanings must receive the ordinary syntactic structure assigned to
occurrences of the stretches with compositional meanings.

(ibid.:277)

Although they are not units in the syntactic lexicon, phrases and idioms do have
this status in the semantic dictionary, indeed they make up a separate list, and are
interpreted somewhat differently from 'lexical items'.

This method... assigns readings to higher level constituents in underlying phrase
markers, not to terminal symbols... which represents the fact that (an idiom's)
meaning cannot be broken up into components and these parcelled out to the
morphemes that make up the idiomatic Stretch.

(ibid.:278)

The article is of crucial historical importance; it both makes good use of, and
contributes to, the then current form of transformational-generative grammar; and many
of its important claims (the non-compositionality of idioms, the distinction between
lexical and phrasal idioms and the inclusion of compound words among the former, the
semantic unity of phrase idioms) demand inclusion in any account of idiom based on any
model of language.
2.7 URIEL WEINREICH: 1966, 1969, 1972

The next attempt to describe idioms in the terms of generative grammar was made by Uriel Weinreich (the first one being that of Katz and Postal). Weinreich was one of the first few generative grammarians seriously to tackle semantics, taking the following position:

The goal of semantic theory... is to explicate the way in which the meaning of a sentence of specified structure is derivable from the fully specified meanings of its parts.

(Weinreich 1972:44)

As early as in 1961 ('On the Semantic Structure of Language', published 1966) he was in the process of developing a formal combinatorial semantics for natural language and pointing out trouble spots: a section on 'Contextual effects on designation' mentions polysemy, depletion, idiomaticity and determination.

The general theory was further developed in 'Explorations in Semantic Theory' (1965, published 1972), and idioms receive their fullest treatment in the 1969 lectures, 'Problems in the Analysis of Idioms'.

Weinreich's definition follows the pattern set by Katz and Postal, 1963:

...idiomaticity ... a phenomenon which may be described as the use of segmentally complex expressions whose semantic structure is not deducible jointly from their syntactic structure and the semantic structure of their components.

(Weinreich 1972:89)

Weinreich makes an admirable attempt to analyse how the meaning of an idiom works (many other linguists content themselves with explaining how it doesn't work). Having concluded that ambiguity, or polysemy, is an essential feature of idiom, he looks at, the possible levels or mechanisms of 'contextual specialization of subsenses', concluding that:
... the highest degree of idiomaticity is registered .. when the subsenses of a morpheme are suppletive, when the selection is determined by a unique contextual morpheme, and when the contextual selection works both ways. When all these criteria are satisfied, there results an expression such that there are not limits to the difference between its semantic structure and the semantic structure of its paraphrase.

(Weinreich 1969:41-2)

Weinreich considered at some length the problem of the decision as to whether a phraseological unit should be stored in the dictionary as a whole, or dissolved into its constituents.

The syntax of idioms in a transformational grammar is discussed at length and an attractive method worked out for their incorporation. The problem of semi-productivity and its relation to familiarity is touched on, and a complete scheme deduced for language structure acquisition, and use.

Weinreich strikes a commendable balance between the use of semantic and syntactic criteria, and shows a refreshing willingness and ability to articulate alternative theories and to admit the shortcomings of his own. The details of his discussion and conclusions are clearly informed by their basis in early transformational-generative grammar, but the argument remains sufficiently clear and reasonable to be accessible to idiomatologists of any persuasion. 'Problems in the Analysis of Idioms' (Weinreich, 1969) remains the clearest, most positive and most sensitive study of the subject yet made in the generative tradition, or perhaps in any.

2.8 ALAN HEALEY 1968

Healey's basic allegiance to tagmemics shapes his definition of idiom as '
a group of two or more morphemes and an equal or greater number of tagmemes whose meaning as a whole is not deducible from the meanings of its component morphemes and tagmemes or any sub-grouping thereof.

(Healey 1968:73)
thus including compound words. There follows a series of tests by which a suspected idiom can be identified and reduced to its essentials,

First,

remove or replace its morphemes one at a time. If such a change does not destroy the idiomatic meaning of the expression, then the morpheme concerned is probably not part of the idiom.

Secondly,

take each component morpheme in turn and search for other collocations in which it occurs with the same meaning as it appears to have in this suspected idiom. Often the search is fruitful and the idiom disappears, and in the process we have become familiar with one of the less familiar usages of the particular morpheme.

( ibid.:72 )

Healey thus becomes the first to make clear the relationship between idiomaticity and degrees of productivity and to require that an idiom be fully non-productive.

A third possible test for idiomaticity, is to expand or transform the expression. If the results are ungrammatical or changed in meaning, the form is confirmed as an idiom.

Finally, he sets the following criterion for considering an utterance as an idiom:
'a semantically unique occurrence of any kind of element plus the essential (minimal) context in which it occurs are together treated as an idiom'.

( ibid.:77 )

After setting the criteria for considering an utterance as idiomatic (deletion, replacement, expansion and transformation tests), Healey presents his own classification of idioms, which is impressive and carefully organized:
'Small sampling of some of the commoner types of English idioms ... The primary classification is in terms of each idiom's syntactic behaviour in its external context. Within these groupings the idioms are subgrouped according to their internal structure.'

(ibid.: 80)

They range from compound words to long phrases, through nouns, verbs and numerous types of modifier, conjunction etc. This list is reprinted in full by Makkai (1972:341-8), and is well worth perusal.

Healey goes on to defend the status of an idiom as
'a structural unit very similar in its general properties to the morpheme, differing from it, mainly in the type (level) of internal complexity.'

(ibid.:94)

and briefly discusses the special problems of the lexicographer and language teacher.

In general, the article is remarkably unbiased, unassuming, and useful. Healey's list and its principles of organization are valuable in any study of idiom, and essential to the interesting problem of their odd syntactic behaviour.

2.9 BRUCE FRASER 1970,1976

Another discussion of the syntax of idioms, within the framework of transformational grammar, found in Aspects of the Theory of Syntax' is that of Bruce Fraser. He claims that an idiom is:
'a constituent or series of constituents of which the semantic interpretation is not a compositional function of the formatives of which it is composed (Fraser 1970:22)'.

and its literal counterpart will have an identical representation in syntactic deep structure, in this agreeing broadly with Katz and Postal and with Weinreich and adducing similar arguments.
The bulk of Weinreich's paper attempts to provide a generalized system to account for the degree of transformational deficiency of particular idioms. He does that by setting up a 'Frozeness Hierarchy' of five levels for types of transformation, and arranging idioms along this hierarchy in such a way that an idiom which allows any one will (in theory) allow any one below it. Thus the dictionary entry for an idiom need only give a numbered level from LO (completely frozen) to L5 (minimally restricted).

In his 1976 book the *Verb-Particle Combination in English*, Fraser is still interested in the syntax of phrasal idioms, still sets up his classifications on the basis of their degree or type of transformational deficiency, but a deliberate attempt to present all ideas and conclusions in as neutral terms as possible (Fraser 1976:V) makes the account much more accessible. The data base is also impressive, even without the appendix of nearly 1000 English verb + particle expressions defined and shown in use.

2.10 WALLACE CHAFE 1970

Chafe also made valuable underlying assumptions—in this case as a semanticist—and used deliberately his terminology from the mainstream of linguistic research. However, it is worth working through his writings and taking his suggestions into consideration. For a long time Chafe had been concerned with the place of idioms in language structure. He found them of special interest because they seemed to him to be clear instances of morpheme arrangements in which the morphemes themselves could not be looked upon as semantic units.

He illustrated the above point with the following example:

'If I say that 'Henry is dragging his feet', for example, it is likely that neither the meaning of 'drag' nor the meaning of 'feet' is present, but rather some other meaning much closer to that of 'procrastinate', 'delay' or 'temporize'. I saw that it was this latter meaning which functioned in semantic structure in the way in which I had thought of morphemes as usually functioning. It became obvious from such example that at least some semantic units had to be turned into configurations of other units before they could enter the phonological area; that
the unitary meaning similar to that of 'temporize', for example, had to be turned into the postsemantic configuration "drag one's feet" before anything further could be done...'

(Chafe 1970:8)

Using the above-mentioned example, he speaks of a semantic change: esp. idiomaticization: '...a kind of change that could be labeled "idiomaticization". He assumed that at an earlier stage of English "to drag one's feet" had only the literal meaning. At some point in the history of English a change occurred which amounted to the creation of a new semantic unit with the meaning alluded to above. The conversion of this new meaning into sound, however, made use of material already in the language, material such as 'drag' and 'feet' which might otherwise have semantic relevance but which in this case played only a post-semantic role. Accordingly, idiomaticization was responsible for pushing apart surface and semantic structures.

After introducing and discussing the concept of idiomaticization in the first four chapters of his book "Meaning and the Structure of Language", he devoted chapter five to the effect of "idiomaticization".

Chafe started his discussion by raising the question:

What kind of semantic change is it that creates this gap between semantic structure and symbolization?

In answering this question, he believes, it is the growth of new semantic units ... an increase in the size of semantic inventory was one of the principal factors in the evolution of language. In this chapter, he explains how this same expansion of semantic inventory can lead to one of the most important kinds of discrepancy between semantic structure and symbolization. The crucial consideration here is that new semantic units need someway of being converted into sound. They need not, however, acquire a sound which is distinctively their own but may avail themselves of the fact that there are other semantic units which already have established symbolizations ... He thinks, aside from those rare instances where a new symbolization is consciously invented (like Kodak or gas), is that the symbolization resources of already existing semantic units are appropriated.
Chafe went on to develop the effect of idiomaticization issue giving different examples:

He mentioned as one kind of semantic change the sprouting of a new meaning from an old one in some particular context. Such a new meaning will be vigorous and independent in that context but will not exist elsewhere. A historical development of this kind, for example, must be responsible for the meaning usually carried by the sound 'red' in the context of 'hair'. 'Red hair' is usually thought to mean 'hair' that, is of a colour which would not otherwise be called 'red', something actually closer to orange, perhaps. Suppose, we call the old meaning 'red1', and the new one 'red2'. When a new meaning like 'red2' develops in some context it does not completely eclipse the old one in the context, although the new one is much more likely than the old one to occur there. Hence, the sound 'red hair' is ambiguous, either red, or red2 may be present in the semantic structure, though the latter is more to be expected. Outside of the context of hair, however, only red1 is found (if we ignore the several other meanings which the sound "red" may carry.) This example shows for one thing that the new meaning is a discretely different semantic unit from the old one... Then Chafe turned to a semantic unit in English which can be labeled make1, having to do with acts of putting something together:

"Chris makes radios". There is another, contextually very limited unit make2 which, when applied to, a bed, means something like "restore to a properly neat condition". Thus, "make a bed" is ambiguous in the same way as "red hair".

... A semantic unit like red2 or make2 → one which does not have a direct symbolization of its own but which trades on the symbolization of another (or others) - can be called an idiom. He distinguished them by calling them restricted idioms.

Chafe offered, however, another kind of idiom which might be called unrestricted ... He took "off-base" as an initial example.

Chafe concludes chapter five of his book by presenting his categorization of idioms:

'Idioms are semantic units, and ... that semantic units, fall into a number of different categories; ... "off-base" and "on-the-wagon" are in traditional terms
"adjectives", "spill the beans" and "trip the light fantastic" are "verbs", while "red-herring" and "lily of the valley" are "nouns".

Semantic units like these all belong to a type which I shall later call lexical, characterized by a relatively high degree of information context, relative in frequency in use, and various features of semantic distribution. Other semantic units may be called at this point 'nonlexical'. It will be enough for the reader to associate them with traditional "inflections" ... we might take as examples the so-called progressive aspect and perfective aspect in English...

(ibid.:49)

In broad line, Chafe's position is that an idiom is represented in semantic structure by a representation of its idiomatic meaning - "spill the beans", for example, by "disclose information indiscreetly" - and that this is converted first by "literalization" to a composite post-semantic configuration and, then by 'post-semantic rules' to a surface structure. The manipulation of semantic features such as 'plural' or 'definite' or inflectional features such as 'passive' must take place before literalization and so their selectional restrictions must be tested against the semantic representation. Any later alterations will block the idiomatic reading of the surface structure.

2.11 T.F. MITCHELL 1971

T.F. Mitchell developed the concept of 'collocation' which is originally conceived by J.R. Firth. In 'linguistic 'Goings on': Collocations and other Lexical Matters Arising on the Syntactic Record", he sketches a general theory of meaning and defines collocations, colligations (a class of collocations with a common word-class for one element is a colligation), idioms, and compounds against this background, concluding with a statement of the basic principles of Firthianism.

Leaving Mitchell's definition of collocation aside, we will concentrate on his description of idiom:
'the idiom belongs to a different order of abstraction. It is a particular cumulate association, immutable in the sense that its parts are unproductive in relation to the whole in terms of the normal operational processes of substitution, transposition, expansion, etc. This is presumably what is implied by the usual 'notional' definition of an idiom as an entity whose meaning cannot be deduced from its parts.'

(Mitchell 1971:57)

It would seem to follow from Mitchell's insistence on linguistic gradience rather than slicing into levels, and his use of roots rather than words that the status of a complex expression as one word or many should have no effect on its idiomaticity.

A resume' of Firthianism concludes the paper, which despite a slight obscurity of style and occasional oddities of theory, uses commendable general principles to work out some valuable distinctions and classifications.

2.12 QUIRK et al 1972

In their book: Grammar of Contemporary English 1972, the writers treat Multi-word verbs of English in a detailed manner: An 8-page section (pp.811-818) including a number of illustrating examples. These examples are divided primarily into two sets: (For convenience, we will not retain the numbers given to these examples in that reference but we shall use our own serial numbers in citing them):

Let's examine the first set:

John called the man   [ 1  ]
John called up the man  [2]
John called on the man  [3]
John put up with the man  [4]

Then, from these examples, follow the discussion and categorization below:
Verbs can be divided into 'single-word verbs' as in [1] and multi-word verbs, which are PHRASAL VERBS (as in [2]), PREPOSITIONAL VERBS (as in [3]), or PHRASAL-PREPOSITIONAL VERBS (as in [4]).

Leaving aside, for the moment, the internal differences of multi-word verbs, we will first distinguish this set from other, superficially similar sequences consisting of verbs and prepositional phrases (the second set):

John called from the office [5]
John called after lunch [6]
John called from under the table [7]

The difference between the first set, represented by sentences [2-4], and the second set, represented by sentences [5-7], can be stated in terms of 'cohesion': in the first set, the adverbial or prepositional particle (up, on, up with) forms a "semantic and syntactic" unit with the verb; in the second set, the prepositional particle (from, after, from under) is more closely connected with the head of the prepositional phrase.

Then, the authors go on to establish the semantic criteria for testing the semantic unity in phrasal and prepositional verbs (the first set) which can often be manifested by substitution with a single-word verb, for example, 'visit' for 'call on', 'summon' for 'call up', 'omit' for 'leave out', 'see' for 'look at', etc.

Furthermore, phrasal and prepositional verbs often have composite meanings which are not normally deducible from their parts, for example, make out (understand), take in (deceive), come by ('obtain'). The terms 'phrasal' and 'prepositional' verbs are not, however, restricted to such idiomatic combinations. We can distinguish three subclasses within the first set (where it will be convenient to refer to both the adverbial and prepositional element as 'particle'):
a) The verb and the particle keep their individual lexical meanings, as in "look over" ('inspect'), 'set up' ('organize'). The individuality of the components appears in possible contrastive substitutions:

| bring | in |
| take | out |
| turn | on |
| switch | off |

b) The verb alone keeps its basic lexical meaning and the particle has an 'intensifying' function: find (out) ('discover'), sweep (up) the crumbs, spread (out) the rug.

c) The verb and the particle are fused into a new idiomatic combination, the meaning of which is not deducible from its parts, for example, bring up ('educate'), come by ('obtain'), put off ('postpone'), turn up ('appear'), come in for ('receive').

In such combinations there is no possibility of contrastive substitution: there are no pairs such as bring up/down, give in/out, etc. for this subclass. The adverbial, lexical values of the particles have been lost, and the entire verb-particle combination has acquired a new meaning.

In some cases, the same verb-particle combination can belong to more than one subclass with a corresponding difference in meaning:

John went into the house (literal meaning)
John put up with Mary ('stay with')
John put up with Mary ('tolerate').
Using the same examples above Quirk et al applied the syntactic criteria below to distinguish the first set from the second one:

a. **Passivization**

The syntactic similarity of verbs in the first set can be seen in their acceptance of passivization.

First set: The man was called on called up put up with

Second set: * Lunch was called after * The table was called from under ? The office was called from

In the passive, the verbs of the first set behave identically as single-word transitive verbs (The man was called), whereas the verbs of the second set do not admit of the passive. Note that ambiguous combinations like 'put up with' take the passive only when they have the figurative meaning:

Mary couldn't easily be put up with (= 'tolerate' but not • 'stay with').

Combinations of verbs and prepositional phrases which are awkward in minimal sentences can, however, become more acceptable with appropriate contextualization: "This office has been called from so many times that it was natural to assume that it was, the source of the latest call".

b. **Pronominal Question Form**

The questions of the first set are formed with 'who(m)' for personal and with 'what' for non-personal objects:

Who(m) did John call up?
What did John look for?
c. Adverbial Question Form

The prepositional phrases of the second set have adverbial function, and have question forms with "where, when, how, etc.".

Where did John call from?
When did John call?

There is a certain amount of overlap between the two sets. If we apply the three criteria (P) passivization, (Qpro) Pronominal question form, and (Q adv) adverbial Question form, to sentences 8-12, their relations can be stated by means of a matrix:

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<tr>
<th>P</th>
<th>Qpro</th>
<th>Qadv</th>
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Looking back to the above table, one can notice the following:

Sentence 8 has both passive and pronominal question form:
More details might be asked for by the police [8p]
What might the police ask for? [8 Qpro]

Sentence [9] has only the pronominal question form: Who did John agree with? [9 Qpro] The passive is highly doubtful: ?Mary was agreed with by John. [9 P]

Sentence [10] can form no passive, but both types of question are possible; the pronominal one is rather ‘recapitulation’, whereas the adverbial one is the more natural question:
What did the car stop beside? [10 Qpro]
Where did the car stop? [10 Q adv]

Sentence [11] has only the adverbial question form:
When did she leave? [11 Q adv]
Sentence [12] finally shows its idiomatic nature by accepting none of the three criteria, resisting this kind of syntactic manipulation.

After distinguishing multi-word verbs (the first set) from prepositional phrases (the second one) Quirk et al indicate the internal differences of multi-word verbs. They divide them into the following:

a) phrasal verbs as in [2],
b) prepositional verbs as in [3] and
c) phrasal - prepositional verbs as in [4].

Then they defined prepositional verbs as:

"... we will count as prepositional verbs those which accept the passive and / or the pronominal question form but not the adverbial. ..., this dichotomy will separate [8] and [9] from [10] and [11], which will be analysed as single-word with prepositional phrases as adverbials. • [12] is a lexical idiom that does not obey productive syntactic rules of the kind we have discussed".

(Quirk et al 1972:815)

They continue their definition of multi-word verbs classes showing phrasal verbs, in comparison with prepositional ones:

‘Returning to the first set, it now remains to distinguish between phrasal and prepositional verbs: they display certain a) phonological and b) syntactic differences:

a) The particle in phrasal verbs is normally stressed and, in final position, bears the nuclear tone, whereas the particle in the prepositional verb is normally unstressed and has the ’tail’ of the nuclear tone on the lexical verb:

He called 'up the man - The man was called 'up
He 'called on the man - The man was 'called on

b) A syntactic difference is that the particle of a phrasal verb can often stand either before or after a noun, whereas it can only stand after a personal pronoun:

Call up the man,
Call the man up.

Call him up, but not

- Call up him (unless it has contrastive stress:
  Call up 'him, not his 'sister).

(Quirck et al 1982:815).

Then a table shows these and other criteria that distinguish the two classes of verbs as having different syntactic patterning with regard to 'noun object' (as in e): 'personal pronoun object' (b) and (f); 'position in relative clause' (d), and 'adverb insertion' (c). The table shows that prepositional verbs take (b) personal or (d) relative pronouns after the preposition, and admit (c) an inserted adverb: phrasal verbs, on the other hand, have particles which can separated from the verb by (e) a noun or (f) pronoun.

Diagnostic Frames for Phrasal and Prepositional Verbs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prepositional Verb</th>
<th>Phrasal Verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Call on = 'visit'</td>
<td>call up = 'summon'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) They 'call on the man</td>
<td>They call 'up the man</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) They 'call on him</td>
<td>*They call up him</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) They call 'early on the man *They call early up the man</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) The man on whom they call</td>
<td>*The man up whom they call</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) They call the man on</td>
<td>They call the man 'up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) They call him on</td>
<td>They call him 'up</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Quirk et al 1972:816)

Before proceeding to the third class of multi-word verbs (i.e. phrasal - prepositional verbs), there is a comparison between "verb - adjective combination" and phrasal verbs: (= discussing, here, what are not phrasal verbs?).

"There is a verb - adjective combination that is very similar to phrasal verbs.

o He put the cloth *straight* (adj)
o He put it *out* (adv. particle)
Where only 'put out' is considered a phrasal verb. Both combinations form close units but the adjectives in verb-adjective combinations have their individual meaning and grammatical properties:

John didn't put the table cloth as (straight as Mary)-
John didn't put the table cloth as (*out as Mary)-

(Quirk et al 1972:816)

Other examples of verb-adjective combinations are: cut short, set free,...

Then, quirk et al present the third class of multi-word verbs: Phrasal - prepositional verbs:

"Phrasal verbs are combinations of the two multi-word verb classes that we have discussed ..."

- 'We are all looking forward to your party on Saturday',
- 'He had to put up with a lot of teasing at school'.
- 'Why don't you look in on Mrs. Johnson on your way back?'
- 'He thinks he can get away with everything'.

(ibid.: 816-7)

To illustrate further the above three categories of multi-word verbs, Quirk et al give, in their text, a short list for each verb class with glossaries for meanings and illustrations.

To conclude this review of Quirk et al's 'Grammar of Contemporary English', one can say that this reference is very clear introduction to the subject of multi-word verbs of English especially pages (811-818). The term multi-word verbs appears in the reference as a jargon for these verbal combinations which consist of a verb + particle or / and prepositions: It is the broadest term which embraces those verbal combinations which are idiomatic and those which are "non-idiomatic" and, as we have seen in our review of earlier views on this component of vocabulary (and we shall see), most of the authors, dictionaries compilers, linguists, etc. use the term "phrasal verbs" which does not cover, according to its definitions, all verbal combinations but is limited only to those "idiomatic verbal combinations" - A reason for which the researcher opted for the term
'Multi-Word Verbs' as a second component of the title of the present study. The semantic or syntactic criteria discussed in this book equipped the reader with a rich source, especially the transformation operations which are discussed in detail.

In sum, the book is relevant to our present study and many other books in the subject referred to as an standard reference in this important area of vocabulary: multi-word verbs.

2.13 ADAM MAKKAI 1972

Makkai's Idiom Structure in English (1972), a revised version of his 1965 Yale Ph.D. thesis, is a full and detailed study, with some solid insights and distinctions. He begins with an extensive survey of earlier work and an admirably clear summary of the development and principles of stratificational grammar. In the central theoretical section, namely that 'Two Idiomaticity Areas in English' are set up, the lexemic and sememic. Lexemic Idioms are composed of more than one minimal free form (expressions with a unique constituent (pseudo - idioms: Cranberry, kith and kin) and compound words are thus excluded). They must also be able to mislead or 'disinform' an unwary listener. Sememic idioms such as proverbs are of sentence length and have both an acceptable literal meaning and an additional moral or message; they allow considerable transformation, modification and compression. Finally, Makkai, mentions the possibility of finding 'hypersememic' or 'pragmemic' idioms whose meaning depends on their use within a particular culture.

Idioms are then divided into six lexemic and nine sememic classes. The two most important are L/1, (Phrasal Verb Idioms), and L/2 (Toumune Idioms). Phrasal Verb Idioms are of the verb + particle type (bring up, take off), an enormous class, swollen here by their secondary derived formations (upbringing, take-off). Tournures, the largest lexemic idioms, contain at least three free lexons, and allow only limited inflectional change. Most are verbs. Makkai's sub-division according to the presence of compulsory //, a, the, irreversible binomial or "be" is probably not the most significant or useful that could be devised. Nor does he mention that they are usually (although not always)
metaphorical: *cheq the rag, smell a rat, pull up stakes*. They are, however, distinguished elsewhere as 'idioms of decoding' (which must be learned individually before they can be understood) from 'phraseological peculiarities, idioms of encoding', in which 'misunderstanding, unintelligibility, the ability to mislead and ambiguity ... are not involved (Makkai 1972:25), but which are still sufficiently unpredictable in form that they must be learned before they can be used (English *to drive at a certain speed*, French "avec" (with).

A short concluding section on 'Typological Implications of Idiomatic Analysis' foreshadows the interest in universality which is developed in some of Makkai's later work. The second half of the book comprises lists and partial analysis of idioms in the six lexemic classes, especially L/l. Here Makkai has crossed 100 common verbs with 25 formants' (i.e. prepositions or particles). Listing and cross-listing every idiom among the resulting forms, with graphs and percentages for the actual versus the potential number of occurrences for each constituent. The method and lists are interesting.

By 1973, in "The Cognitive Organization of Idiomaticity: Rhyme or Reason?’ Makkai has developed the notion of a 'Pragmo-Ecological Grammar' whose 'central axis' is the 'lexecon' (= ecological lexicon) a vast computerized web of 'lexemes' and 'sememe nests' with frequency listings and dialect markers (Makkai 1973:11). He is then committed to the notion of dismantling the meaning of an idiom and pigeon-holing it under the entries for its constituents in the 'lexecon'. Idiom is accordingly redefined:

'An idiom is an entry in the ecological dictionary of English whose number of cross references is twice the number of its constituent words (once for every lexeme as expression carrier, and once for every lexeme as to its belonging to a certain semantic nest) plus its own idiomatic meaning which is not deducible from its components (Makkai 1973:12).

The principal mechanism for the creation of new idiomatic forms is:

the multiple "reinvestability" principle ... Idioms come about in the course of the development of natural languages because the language is running out of raw material in its ever-increasing need for new terms as new discoveries are made, new items are named...

(ibid.: 16)
Many of the above ideas reappear in the 1978 paper 'Idiomaticity as a Language Universal'. The definition of idiom was virtually unchanged (Makkai 1978:413), and the 'ecological dictionary of English' was still shown as the prime objective.

'Multiple reinvestment' is again given as the principal and Language - Universal source of idiom, and it is suggested that unpleasant or sexual terms tend to be obsessively repeated in other senses and that meaning will always shift from the concrete towards the abstract. (ibid.:422-6,430-43).

Makkai's work is thorough and carefully organized, and in its earlier stages makes some good points: the encoding/decoding distinction is useful, for example, and the parallels between 'lexemic, sememic, and possible 'hypersememic' or cultural idioms are interesting as well as his arguments and his impressive collections of data.

2.14 SAUSSURE 1973

In modern linguistics, Saussure (1973:12) makes a brief mention of idioms which can be summarized as.: they couldn't be changed (transformed), according to usage restrictions, and they are unpredictable - they are made by the tradition. Saussure called them 'ready-made utterances' ('Locutions toutes faites'): expressions which are learned as unanalysable wholes and employed on particular occasions by native speakers.

2.15 CHARLES RUHL 1975

Rahl's first contribution is an obscure 1975 article entitled 'kick the bucket is not an Idiom.' The gist of his argument is that the verb 'kick' is associated with the notion of 'death' in a number of expressions, so that in this one the 'bucket' is the only idiomatic constituent. He followed this up with 'Idioms and Data' (1976, published 1977), attacking Makkai's Idiom Structure in English' for forming conclusions from insufficient data. According to him:

An idiom is a construction whose words occur elsewhere but never with the same meaning as in this construction.

(Ruhl 1977:459)
Ruhl suggests that many so-called idioms have one constant very abstract meaning which can account for their various surface uses, rather than being ambiguous (and thus there are many fewer idioms in a language than as generally thought).

**2.16 RONALD E. FEARE 1980**

The book to review in this section is *Practice with Idioms*. The purpose of this workbook is to encourage the active participation of the learner in acquiring knowledge of the *meaning* and *structure* of idiomatic expressions. This point is developed below:

It is believed that students of English especially those of the intermediate and advanced levels at which this book is aimed, are capable of searching for and discovering much of the relevant information regarding proper idiom usage with only minimal guidance and instruction from the teacher. This *active involvement* in the learning process can be of much greater benefit to the student than simple memorization.

(Feare 1980:ix)

Then, the writer explained the means which was used to realize the active involvement, mentioned above:

'To achieve this goal, the author has chosen to employ inductive, problem-solving techniques in this workbook. Much emphasis has been placed on the ability to guess meaning from the context within which an idiom is used, and on the ability to figure out the grammatical features which distinguished certain sets of idioms.'

(ibid.:ix)

He went further to assert that the results would be positive and greater if these important skills are acquired:

'Once students are equipped with the necessary skills for analysing and understanding idiomatic forms, they will be in a much better position to expand their knowledge beyond the scope of this workbook.'

(Ibid.: ix)
On page xiii, some instructions and guidelines are given to the instructor:

'Use of this workbook requires some basic awareness of English grammar. Such terms as "subject", "verb," "preposition", and "transitive/intransitive" should be well understood before an instructor attempts to use this book. The author would strongly suggest that the instructor preview the chapters before work with the students begins, especially those units which deal with the important grammatical characteristics.

'... The instructor should find the exercises to be self-explanatory for the most part and should have little trouble in advising students of the work to be done. The instructor should soon feel comfortable in guiding students through their work, helping them to discover and understand for themselves the rules and concepts associated with the various idiomatic expressions'.

The organization of 'Practice with Idioms' as it is shown by its author, is as follows:

'The idioms are divided into chapters according to their grammatical category. The chapters covering intransitive verbal idioms form Section I of the book; chapters covering transitive verbal idioms form Section II. Chapters covering nominal, adjectival, and adverbial idioms form Section III. It is believed that verbal forms are more useful in general and deserve far greater concentration and effort. This is the reason why they constitute the larger and more important sections of the book.'

(ibid.: xiii-xiv)

After outlining the general plan of the workbook, there follows a detailed description of how to work through a chapter. For the great importance of this description, in direct classroom practices and procedures, the researcher finds it is excusable to quote it at length: (The explicitly taught course, on idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs, given to the subjects of this study, made a good use of this description).
Working Through A Chapter

Part I, a guessing exercise which begins each chapter, requires the student to analyze the contextual setting of the idiom and to extract an appropriate definition or synonym. In addition, the student is asked to underline those clues in the sentence which help him to guess the possible meaning of the idiom. These tasks foster and refine the student's ability to rely on his own knowledge and skill in deciding on meaning. This exercise also promotes class discussion and tends to limit student dependence on dictionaries as a source of definition. It is important to realize that there are no "correct" answers at this initial stage: the student is merely trying to provide some possible, acceptable meanings for the idioms. No attention should be given at this point to the grammar of the idioms, as this is covered thoroughly in following parts and would be a premature consideration.

Part II, a matching exercise, provides the student with a way to check the guesses made in Part I. The definitions are listed on the left side of sentences which have blanks to be filled in with appropriate idioms; the sentences are comprised of context clues which are very similar to the ones found in Part I. The student can take a definition and check the context of the sentence, go back to Part I to match up the definition and context with the correct idiom, and then place that idiom in its proper blank. The instructor would guide the student through this process, helping him to notice similar contexts when difficulties arise. In this way the student can develop his ability to discover the meaning himself before resorting to outside references, such as dictionaries.

Part III provides a detailed explanation of each idiom. Information includes a listing of the most common noun phrases which are associated with each idiom. When necessary, further useful points on grammar or meaning are given. Some example sentences show how the common noun phrases are used with the particular idiom. A set of possible discussion topics is also provided to encourage student feedback and the sharing of ideas with each other and with the instructor.
Part IV focuses on *the grammatical features* which tie the idioms in each chapter together. A brief introduction provides the student with the basic grammatical framework of the chapter. The student is then asked to compare and analyze sets of contrasting sentences, some correct and some incorrect, which draw out the relevant grammatical features. After he has tried to discover the rules by answering the questions posed, the student finds an explanation of the information which he tried to uncover. It is highly recommended that the instructor preview this part before starting each new chapter.

Part V is a *multiple-choice test of idiom understanding and retention.* Review is cumulative through each of the first two sections of the book, so in later chapters the student must be careful to follow the correct grammar rules as well as pay attention to the important contextual information. In addition to discussing why an answer is correct, it is also useful to discuss the inappropriateness of other choices as a way to differentiate between the various verbal forms.

Part VI requires the student to write a brief, original sentence using an idiom in correct response to a specific question. The context is provided but must be developed appropriately.

All the exercises and parts of each chapter in Section I and II build on the idioms from previous chapters, so that idioms already learned are constantly being reviewed. This also applied to section III, although verbal forms are not included as review.

**REVIEW:**

'The review chapters for Section I and II also provide *valuable reinforcement* of *grammatical forms,* as well as *useful information about changing the verbal idioms into nominal (noun) and passive (verb) forms.* In addition, topics for paragraph writing, role-playing; and further discussion are provided as interesting ways for students to apply the knowledge they have learned.'

*(Ibid: xv)*
Under the heading "Teacher as Facilitator" the author clarifies the role of teacher in this workbook:

'Until students begin to feel comfortable with the new approach in this workbook, all exercises should be done in class, preferably as group activities or on an individual - student basis with the instructor moving around the room offering advice. Optimally, the first two chapters would be done entirely as group activities. It is the author's suggestion that the first two exercises in each chapter also be done in class in order to promote discussion and to discourage students from looking ahead to part III to find the answers. Only the last two exercises in each chapter are recommended for outside homework at any stage or level. The instructor should use his or her own discretion in differentiating class-work and home-work as he or she becomes familiar with the students abilities. The instructor will probably be most involved in the third and fourth parts of each chapter, as they delineate the semantic and syntactic features of the idioms, and therefore require more explanation.'

(ibid.: XVI)

After providing the instructor with some suggestions and guidelines for handling the material in this workbook as well as indicating explicitly his role, the author writes the following to the student:

'In this workbook, you will be studying the grammar rules of idioms, as well as meanings. These rules will describe and distinguish various kinds of idioms: if you are able to separate and understand these different types, you will have an easier time using the idioms you have studied as well as learning new ones ... This brief introduction should give you an idea of the new material you will be learning in this book, but learning new material is not all that you will be doing. Slowly but surely you will be learning new ways to guess the meaning of unfamiliar idioms by yourself. A student who develops the necessary skills of guessing will be better prepared to learn the new, and more difficult idioms he or she encounters outside of class.'

(ibid.: xvii)
To conclude, it goes without saying that the fact that this workbook is written by instructor (at the American Language Institute at San Diego State University) makes it a practical and useful material since it is the outcome of a practitioner close interaction with classroom needs and practices. It is also worth mentioning that the researcher makes use of this text in carrying out the experiments in the present study particularly in devising the pre-test, the proposed 'course content' on idiomatic expressions and 'multi-word verbs', and the post-test given to the subjects.

2.17 MICHAEL J. WALLACE 1982

In his book 'Teaching Vocabulary', Wallace (1982) devoted a whole chapter (chapter 8; pages 116-124) on idioms and multi-word verbs. The introductory sentence to this chapter reads as follows:

'... we are going to look at two special areas of vocabulary which cause a lot of concern to EFL teachers and learners: idioms and multi-word verbs.'

(Wallace: 116).

Then, he established a working definition of idioms:

'However, it could be suggested that a practical definition of 'idiom' for teaching purposes will contain three elements: (1) idioms consist of more than one word; (2) idioms are fixed collocations; and (3) idioms are semantically opaque.'

(ibid.: 118).

Depending upon the above definition, he went further to mention the following points concerning teaching and learning of idioms:

'First of all, there does not seem to be any point in grouping idioms together, and teaching them together, simply because of some words they have in common. In some books for teaching idioms, for example, several idioms which happen to mention animals (e.g. let the cat out of the bag; rain cats and dogs; lead a dog’s life, etc), are taught together. This is pointless since... the literal meaning of the words has little or nothing to do with the real meaning of the idiom. It is a bit like teaching the words 'football' and 'ballroom' together, because they both contain the word 'ball'.
The most sensible thing, in fact, is to treat idioms as unusually long words, and to teach them as one would teach any new word; that is, as they occur in a meaningful context.'

(ibid.: 118)

The second point made by Wallace, regarding teaching and learning of idioms, is the transformation possibility (or impossibility) of some idioms; Do they admit passivization, prenominalization etc.

It may be useful to indicate what changes the idiom can undergo, and this often relates to the idiom's underlying meaning ... Let us return to an example we have used often, 'let the cat out of the bag'. It is possible to make this expression passive and say: the cat has been let out of the bag. This is possible because the underlying meaning ('reveal a secret') can also be made passive ('the secret has been revealed'). An expression like, 'it was raining cats and dogs' ('it was raining heavily') obviously cannot be made passive because of the underlying meaning. But this will not always explain what is possible and what is not possible as far as altering the structure of idioms is concerned, and learners may need some help on this.

(Wallace 1982:118-9)

Wallace summed up his discussion of idioms saying that they are special form of collocation which will be encountered by every learner and that although there have been various attempts to classify idioms, there seems little to be gained by dealing with them under different linguistic categories: they are best treated as individual lexical items, to be learnt as such.

After giving the above account on idioms, Wallace turns to the second area of his chapter: multi-word verbs: providing the following definition:

'A multi-word verb is a verb plus a particle (i.e. preposition or adverb), or, sometimes, a verb plus two particles, which join to form a new structural unit.'

(ibid.:119)
Then, there follow some examples of multi-word verbs (*abide by, cross off, do without, come down with* etc.) and a categorization or division of multi-word verbs into: "Phrasal Verbs" and "Prepositional Verbs", and this is the way that they will be referred to in his discussion of these sub-sets.

Under the heading 'Teaching Multi-word Verbs', the writer mentioned three main areas of error:
1. in productive language, the use of the wrong particle with the verb - a problem of collocation;
2. receptively, not being able to understand these multi-word verbs which are also idioms;
3. generally, problems arising from the special nature of these verbs: their different structural patterns (eg. with pronouns), their special stress patterns, and so on.

Bearing in mind the phrasal / prepositional verbs distinction, Wallace discusses' in the following lines, some semantic and syntactic considerations which have their implications on teaching and learning of multi-word verbs:

'Look at these two sentences. Which one contains the prepositional verb?
1. She always *looked after* her father when he was ill.
2. Jane *arrived after* her uncle, who was early.

'... the first sentence which contains the prepositional verb (*looked after*), whereas the second sentence contains the verb plus preposition, (*arrived + after*). Because it is a structural unit, transformation can be applied to *look after* which cannot be applied to *arrived + after*. *Look after* can, for example, be made passive: *He was always looked after by his daughter when he was ill*.

The second sentence cannot be made passive. *Look after*, like many other prepositional verbs, is not only a structural unit, it also a semantic unit.'

(ibid.: 120-1)

Wallace developed the statement above (the semantic and structural unity of prepositional verbs) indicating its implications for the way they should be taught emphasizing the former:
...By this we mean that the verb and the particle has lost some or all of their original sense to form a new unit of meaning - in other words, it is an 'idiom' ... it means that there is little point in grouping prepositional verbs by either the verb or the particle.

In some textbooks, prepositional verbs are presented in lists in this way, e.g. look after, look for, look at ... might be presented at the same time. This is simply confusing for the learner.'

(ibid.: 121)

He then suggested a way of teaching prepositional verbs:

'Prepositional verbs should be taught as individual lexical items as they arise in context. Students should learn prepositional verbs as a unit, so they realize that the particle, is an integral part of the verb it goes with.'

(Ibid.: 121)

To complete his treatment of the teaching and learning points of multi-word verbs, the author went on to discuss the second category of these verbal combinations i.e. phrasal verbs. His concentration, here, is on objects, articles and pronouns position:

'Like prepositional verbs, phrasal verbs are structural units. The main difference in this respect is that with phrasal verbs the verb is often separated from its particle. So we can say:

Put down that book! Or
Put that book down!

Indeed the second sentence is perhaps the normal ('unmarked') form of a phrasal verb and its object. Of course a prepositional verb cannot be separated in this way.

The difference is even more striking if the object noun phrase is a 'pronoun', such as 'him, her, it, etc'. In that case the pronoun nearly always comes between the verb and its particle.

Put // down!
Look it up! (=check it in a reference boo, etc)
Take // away!

(ibid.: 121)
Then, there follows a suggestion for grading the examples, given to learners, starting with the most 'literal' or transparent ones, which can be easily situationalized in the classroom:

'… Put your books down.
Take these books back to the library.
Write these words down.'

After giving a considerable contribution in the syntactic treatment of phrasal verbs in classroom, Wallace provides the reader with the semantic handling of this category i.e. the treatment of the semantic aspect of phrasal verbs.

'If a teacher decides to cover the meaning aspect of phrasal verbs systematically, … the best strategy is probably to concentrate on the 'particle'.
One of the features which is often overlooked in teaching phrasal verbs is that the particles of such verbs often develop special meanings. The particle 'up', for example, is used with many verbs to give a sense of 'completeness' as in these examples: fill up, finish up, … tear up…'
Once examples of these meanings have been met with in context, students can be asked to give other examples from their vocabulary store, or to guess the meanings of sentences provided by the teacher.

(ibid.: 123)

An important point which relates phrasal verbs to idioms is made:
'There are many phrasal verbs …, which are complete idioms and have to be learnt as units, e.g. show someone up (=humiliate), make something up (= invent), smoke someone out (=expose) and so on.'

(Wallace 1982:124)

A concluding paragraph compares idioms and multi-word verbs in teaching / learning processes in this way:
'Idioms and multi-word verbs present many similarities in treatment from a teaching and learning point of view, largely because they occupy overlapping areas in language. Multi-word verbs are more capable of systematic treatment in certain respects, as we have indicated. As in other areas of vocabulary, most of the learning should be done in a realistic language context, if possible, exercises and drills should be confined to those occasions where such systematic treatment can speed the learner on towards his goal of mastery of the target language.

(ibid.: 124).

Before ending up this sub-section on reviewing Wallace, 1982, it is worth mentioning that Michael J. Wallace wrote or compiled a dictionary entitled "Dictionary of English Idioms" published 1981 (before the publication of 'Teaching Vocabulary' mentioned above).

However, his dictionary is a collection of English idioms. Each idiom is given a simple definition and an example sentence to show the context in which it is normally used. Priority is given to idioms in common use likely to cause difficulty to the foreign learner: Emphasis is on true idioms (according to him): Those expressions whose meanings cannot be easily worked out from the words they contain.


2.18 A.J THOMSON AND A.V. MARTINET 1986

In their book 'A Practical English Grammar', (4th ed. 1986) Thomson and Martinet devoted a 37-page chapter entitled 'Phrasal Verbs' in the introduction of which we can read:

In modern English it is very usual to place prepositions or adverbs after certain verbs so as to obtain a variety of meanings:

  - give away = give to someone/anyone;
  - give up = abandon (a habit or attempt);
  - look after = take care of;
  - look for = search for, seek;
On the same page, mentioned above, they advised the student to neglect the preposition / adverb distinction in such verbal combinations:

'The student need not try to decide whether the combination is verb + preposition or verb + adverb but should consider the expression as a whole...'

This advice which is questionable, as we shall see, in this study, that this distinction is very useful since it influences the syntactic behaviour of these verbal combinations.

They go on to mention the importance of learning whether the combination is transitive (i.e. requires an object) or intransitive (i.e. cannot have an object).

'... Note that it is possible for a combination to have two or more different meanings and to be transitive in one / some of these and intransitive in others. For example, 'take off' can mean 'remove'. It is then a transitive expression. 

He took off his hat.

'Take off' can mean "rise from the ground" (used for aircraft). Here it is intransitive eg. The plane took off at ten o' clock.'

(ibid.: 315).

Going back to page 104, from the same reference, we find that the writers stated that many words can be used as either prepositions or adverbs giving the following pairs of examples to illustrate this point:

1. He got off the bus at the corner, (pre)
   He got off at the corner, (adv)

2. They were here before six. (pre)
   He has done this sort of work before (adv)

3. ?etei is behind us. (Pre)
   He is a long way behind, (adv)
It is worth mentioning that there are some exercises concerning phrasal verbs (appeared in Exercises book 2, which accompanies the main book): twenty exercises, (spread over 28 pages (from 1 to 28), in respect of phrasal verbs) with answer key (pp. 166-170).

To round off this book review, we can say that this treatment of 'phrasal verbs', in standard reference of modern and practical English grammar, is closely relevant to our research topic especially its explicit mention of the possibility of combining verbs with prepositions or / and adverbs so as to provide new meanings - an issue which will be recurrent in discussing multi-word verbs of English the second component of the title of this study. It is also important to mention that Thomson and Martinet's: A Practical English Grammar and its companion: Exercise book 2 (20 exs, devoted to phrasal verbs, from p.1 to 28) proved useful and valuable for the pre-and post-tests given to the subjects in this study as well as its contribution in the contents of the explicit course given to the same subjects, (a full account of these tests and the explicit taught course will be provided in chapters 5 and 6 of this research).

2.19 JENNIFER SEIDL AND W. MC MORDIE 1988

Their book 'English Idioms and How to Use Them' (1988, 5th edition) is divided into ten chapters. Each chapter deals with various 'key words" (e..g high frequency adjectives or nouns, numbers, colours) or with a 'key structure' (e..g noun phrases, phrasal verbs, phrases with prepositions).

The contents of each chapter are arranged alphabetically for easy reference. The content lists show in detail where the various types of idioms are to be found and a full index makes the book particularly user - friendly.

Under the heading: "Where and When to Use Idioms" the following obstacles are mentioned:
'One of the main difficulties for learners is knowing in which situations it is correct to use an idiom. A further difficulty is knowing whether an idiom is natural or appropriate in a certain situation i.e. the level of style. Another difficulty is that of fixed idioms and idioms with variants...'

After citing the above general problems, the writers concentrate on those which are peculiar to phrasal verbs:

'A particular difficulty experienced by learners is the correct handling of expressions consisting of verbs in combination with prepositions or (adverbial) particles, for example, 'take off', 'sit in on', 'leave out'. Such verbs are a typical and frequent occurrence in all types of English esp. in everyday spoken English'.

...An additional problem is knowing how the combination is used in a sentence i.e. the problem of word-order. The word-order depends on whether the verb is followed by a preposition or by a particle, e.g.

I saw the plan through (particle)
I saw through the plan (preposition)

(Seidl and McMordie 1988:103).

2.20 JOHN SINCLAIR et. al 1989

As we have said, in our introduction to this chapter, Collins COBUILD Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs is one of the standard references in verbal combinations which will be given a considerable space in this review.

To begin with the compilers brief description of its content in their foreword:

'This dictionary concentrates on one particular aspect of the grammar and vocabulary of English: combinations of verbs with adverbial or prepositional particles, they are extremely common in English. This combinations are generally called phrasal verbs.'

(Sinclair et. al 1989:iv)
Then, there follows a table which summarizes the verbal combinations which are included in the Dictionary and those which are not.

**TABLE-2**
VERBAL COMBINATIONS INCLUDED IN COLLINS COBUILD DICTIONARY OF PHRASAL VERBS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Phrasal verb type</th>
<th>Included</th>
<th>Category No.</th>
<th>Reason</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>We went to town.</td>
<td>Idiom</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>'town' is part of the idiom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The town went up.</td>
<td>Non-literal</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Go up 10</td>
<td>New meaning- 'explode'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The number refers to the day.</td>
<td>Fixed particle</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Refer to 3</td>
<td>'refer' always occurs with 'to'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It's going along fine.</td>
<td>Completive</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Go along 4</td>
<td>Particle reinforces verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thomas hit back.</td>
<td>Semi-literal</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Hit back 1</td>
<td>Frequent occurrence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We went up the hill.</td>
<td>Literal</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Go up 1</td>
<td>Common verb and particle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don't walk on the grass.</td>
<td>Literal</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td></td>
<td>Meaning is clear</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Sinclair et al 1989:vi)

They go on to mention its statistical treatment and characteristics:

'...the dictionary has been based on a detailed computational study of the extensive "Birmingham Collection of English Texts".

(ibid.:vi)
After this brief description of the dictionary, there is explicit mention of several aching and learning points of phrasal verbs especially those related to problems and difficulties. These problems and difficulties are indicated on different occasions. A summary of these points follows below:

'Phrasal verbs are often of a particular problem for learners of English for the following reasons:
... one reason is that in many cases, even though students may be familiar with both the verb in the phrasal verb and with the particle, they may not understand the meaning of the combination, since it can differ greatly from the meanings of the two words used independently. For example, *make*, *put*, *-out* and *off* are all very common words which students will encounter in their first weeks of learning English, and yet the combinations *make out* and *put off* are not transparent. *Make out* can mean 'perceive' or 'imply' and *put off* can mean 'postpone' or 'deter', amongst other meanings, these meanings are unrelated to the meanings of the individual words in the combinations. The fact that phrasal verbs have a number of different meanings adds to their complexity.'

(ibid.:iv)

After discussing some of the meanings' problems of phrasal verbs. The writers turn to pinpoint the grammatical ones:

'There are some particular grammatical problems associated with phrasal verbs. For example, there are restrictions on the position(s) in which an adverb can be placed in relation to the object of a verb.
Some particles, such as *about*, *over*, *round*, and *through* can be used as both adverbs and prepositions in particular phrasal verbs combinations, although in other combinations they are used *either* adverbially or *prepositionally.*
Some phrasal verbs are not normally used with pronouns as "objects, others are normally only used with pronouns as objects.'

(ibid.:iv)
There is also mention of other difficulties, such as the fact that there are frequently strong
collocational associations between phrasal verbs and other words. Thus, in some cases a
particular word or small set of words is the only one normally found as the subject or
object of a particular verb.

Before concluding our review of this dictionary it is worth mentioning that this
dictionary contains, an index of the particles, showing their different meanings and listing
the phrasal verbs containing those meanings. In this way, you can understand the
patterns underlying the combinations and you can see the relationship in meaning
between, for example, cool off, ease off, and wear off, or between look up, join up and
link up:

'The particles Index is an extensive guide to the way in which particles are used in
English phrasal verbs. It acts as an index to the dictionary, listing phrasal verb
head-words alphabetically within given categories of meaning. It also gives the
actual number of occurrences of each particle, which will be of interest to
teachers, who may use this information to determine which phrasal verbs to focus
on...
The Index lists groups of phrasal verbs which share particular meanings, and thus
the patterns of meaning of the particles themselves can be seen …
The meanings of English phrasal verbs are not always obvious. Yet the particles
index shows very clearly how phrasal verbs are not just arbitrary combinations of
verbs and particles. Instead, they fit into the broad patterns of choice and
selection in English. When a new combination occurs, it too fits into these
patterns. 

The particles Index will help you to deal with these new combinations, and
phrasal verbs as a whole will become a more manageable part of the vocabulary
of English.'

(ibid.:449)
In general, Collins COBUILD Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs gives clear and extensive treatment of over 3000 phrasal verbs, with 12000 examples showing actual use. Synonyms and antonyms are included, as well as stylistic guidance. A unique particle index deals in depth with the adverbs and prepositions used in phrasal verb combinations.

To conclude, what we have summarized and quoted above (concerning the general features and characteristics of this dictionary as well as the teaching and learning points, appeared in various and on different occasions) made this reference closely relevant and valuable to our study.

2.21 A.P. COWIE AND R. MACKIN 1993

The 'Oxford Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs' (formerly published (1975) as the Oxford Dictionary of Current Idiomatic English, Volume 1) provides one of the most comprehensive and systematic surveys of phrasal verbs in English.

The contents and the main features of the Dictionary could be outlined below:

- Examples of use taken from a wide range of contemporary sources, many drawn from the New Oxford Corpus of the English Language.
- Synonyms, opposites and related verbs shown at the end of entries.
- Grammatical codes at each entry showing possible sentence patterns.
- Lists of typical collocates showing how the verb is most frequently used in everyday English.
- Explanations of unusual features of grammar and usage.

The scope and aims of the Dictionary are articulated as follows:

'Knowledge of a wide range of idiomatic expressions, and the ability to use them appropriately in speech and writing, are among the distinguishing features of a native-like command of English. Part of the great range consists of the two-word combinations usually known as phrasal verbs e.g. Step up (supplies) lay on (transport) and take up (the story).

Phrasal verbs are commonly used by native speakers but constitute a well-known stumbling block for foreign learners, who because of the associated problems of
structure or meaning may fall back on a more formal one-word equivalent - 
*increase, provide, continue.*

(Cowie and Mackin 1993:422)

Then the compilers stated that the most serious difficulties of phrasal verbs are those of 
*meaning:*

'A French speaker would surely understand 'continue' more readily than 'take up' while a native speaker might have difficulty in explaining the sense of the combination in terms of its constituent parts. In fact a close study of phrasal verbs (and of more complex idioms containing phrasal verbs such as 'make up one's mind') brings to light many curious anomalies of form and meaning. While we can equally well talk of 'angling for' or 'fishing for compliments', where the verbs are as freely interchangeable as when they are used in a literal sense, we would not say of a friend that "he had difficulty in making up his thoughts" (as distinct from his mind). And while we might want to say of him that "he found it hard to hit the nail on the head", we would not substitute 'strik™ for 'hit' unless we were thinking literally of his skill with the hammer rather than figuratively of his inability to say precisely what he meant. Among collocational pitfalls of this kind the mature speaker of the language picks his way with unconscious ease. The foreign student, though, looks for clear guidance on many hundreds of phrasal verbs in current use, often in considerable detail.'

(ibid.;422).

There follow other problems related to meaning, especially that of complex expressions (and those of the more numerous two-word combinations,) which learners face:

'... They may have difficulties of understanding or interpretation (especially when the form of an expression is a poor guide to its meaning. They may have trouble in discriminating accurately between various meanings of the 'same' item - those of put out, for example, or take in.
And again, they may need help in distinguishing between phrasal verbs which are related in form (cf. *level off* and *level up*) though not necessarily in meaning.'

(ibid.: 429)
Also, it is worth quoting at length the following paragraphs, in which the compilers of this dictionary address the crucial question of 'idiomaticity' considering some complex issues under the following headings of the brief introduction to this reference:

The vocabulary of English is full of short phrases consisting of a 'verb' and a 'particle' such as up, down, through, and across. Although they may appear simple, combinations such as break down, make up and take out represent one of the most complex and difficult problems for students of the language. There are three major areas of difficulty.

**Grammar**

The same combination of words may be used in a variety of grammatical structures.

Think of run up as used in A girl ran up, The spider ran up the wall, The soldier ran up a flag and Would you mind running me up the road? Here the sentence patterns are all quite different, even though the meanings are related ...

**Idiomatic or non-idiomatic**

How do we know whether the words fall out as used in I was pleased with the way things had fallen out form a unit of meaning (an idiom) or not? An idiom can be recognised by a number of simple tests, and these have to do with meaning rather than grammar. One test is to ask whether one word can be substituted for the whole phrase fall out. (We can substitute 'happen' and 'occur'). Another test is to ask whether the second word can be deleted. (It can’t.)...

**Complex Idioms**

Sometimes a pair of words, such as make up or blow off, seem to have an additional word (or words) attached to them in such a way that the whole phrase forms one complex idiom. Consider in this respect make one's mind up and blow off steam. It is not always easy for the learner to see that the extra words form part of a larger whole, one that must be learned as a single unit…

(ibid.: ix-x)
In the following pages, we shall look at one of the standard references on idioms in English: 'Oxford Dictionary of English idioms' which formerly published as: *The Oxford Dictionary of Current Idiomatic English Volume 2, 1983*. The main features of this Dictionary as stated by its compilers, are:

- Headphrases in this volume have been arranged in a strict alphabetical order to make the location of individual entries as easy as possible.
- Over 14000 references recorded and described.
- Explanations of unusual features of grammar and usage.
- Simple grammar scheme showing sentence patterns.
- A detailed index of all nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs used in headphrases.
- A second index of derived compounds and structural variants of expression.
- A thorough cross-reference system both to other entries in the dictionary and to relevant entries in its compassion volume, the Oxford Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs.

Generally speaking, under different and various headings, and on many occasions, there is mention to teaching and learning points, especially those related to *problems* and *difficulties*. The following is a summary of these points.

- To begin with these lines from the 'Foreword' in which Mackin writes (indicating the possible audience for this reference).
  '…the present dictionary was written primarily for the use of foreign learners of English, though for those at an advanced level'.
  
  (Cowie et. al. 1993: vi)

- Secondly, there is an explicit indication of the importance of idiomatic expressions for the native speaker and the foreign learner:
  'The accurate and appropriate use of English expressions which are in the broadest sense idiomatic is one distinguishing mark of a native command of the language and a reliable measure of the proficiency of foreign learners'.
  
  (ibid.: x)
Thirdly, the compilers go on to discuss the difficulties of the meaning of idiomatic expressions to the learners:

'...Of all the difficulties the most familiar is that of meaning: to the learner, idioms such as 'fill the bill' or 'spill the beans' do not mean what they appear to mean. The sense of the whole cannot be arrived at from a prior understanding of the parts.'

(Ibid.: x)

Fourthly, there is a precaution in respect of quantity and quality of words used in an idiomatic expression:

'Knowing how many words, and which words, to substitute is important for the learners, because failure to make the right choices, may result in combinations that no native speaker would produce. It is for this reason, among others, that many foreign learners steer clear of English idioms altogether. The student therefore needs clear guidance on these fine points of lexical detail'.

(ibid. p. xvi)

Finally, the issue of the syntactic and semantic freedom of idiomatic expressions or their fixation is discussed:

'One recurrent problem faced by foreign learners wishing to use or understand English idioms is that while some are entirely fixed others allow the speaker a measure of choice. ...the choices open to him may vary both in kind and in degree. Faced with the idiom burn one's boats, for example, he must understand that while the verb burn can be used in many of the tenses associated with its non-idiomatic use, idiomatic boats can only occur in the plural form. Moreover, while bridges (also plural) can be substituted for boats with no change of meaning, ships cannot. The extent to which the form of an idiom can be altered in these various ways is largely unpredictable, so errors can easily be made.'

(ibid.: xxi).
Malcolm Goodale 1993 wrote a workbook, accompanies the Collins COBUILD Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs, entitled Collins COBUILD Phrasal Verbs workbook. It goes without saying that the fact that the author is a teacher (at the United Nations in Geneva) makes it a practical teaching and learning material since it is originated from real teaching and learning situations. This stimulating book helps students from an intermediate and advanced level to master the meaning of phrasal verbs and use them effectively and appropriately. Practice is approached through the individual particles, such as in, out, and up, as described in the particles Index of the Dictionary. Ten units of workbook material offer carefully graded exercises that can be used in class or for self-study.

The following points are considered as general features of this workbook:

- Based on the evidence of COBUILD and including real examples.
- Around 300 phrasal verbs given detailed treatment.
- Graded activities to promote thorough understanding and natural use.
- Guidance on synonyms and register in 'Language Comments'.
- Full answer key included, to allow for successful independent use.

In the introduction to this workbook, the writer clarified its approach, the nature and content of the book, how to use it, and general information about sections division and exercises:

'...Though the workbook can be used on its own, more benefit will be gained by working closely with the Dictionary. The workbook practices the most important phrasal verbs, with around 300 different meanings. Almost 50% of these are formed with 18 common verbs. Six common verbs (bring, come, get, go, put and take) account for nearly 30% of the phrasal verbs in this workbook. This workbook is a vocabulary book rather than a grammar book.'
There are ten units of material. The first nine units deal with single particles and these units are arranged in alphabetical sequence in the book; the final unit concentrates on seven more particles. All the units follow a similar format, and can be studied in any order. As this book is designed both for classwork and self-study, an answer key to the exercises is given at the back of the book.

Every unit has an introductory page giving the important meanings of the particle being studied with lists of the phrasal verbs to be practiced in each section of the unit...

If a category of meaning includes phrasal verbs which are particularly difficult to understand, the first exercise, asks you to complete the definitions of some or all of the phrasal verbs, subsequent exercises involve matching phrases or sentences; choosing the phrasal verb that best fits a gapped sentence, from three alternatives provided; deciding on an appropriated phrasal verb to fill a gap, where no alternatives are given...

At the end of each unit there is a separate section on revision exercises, so that you can check your progress.'


To conclude, 'Collins CORBUILD Phrasal Verbs Workbook' is a useful and practical text that enables the learners to master this component of vocabulary. These characteristics make this book indispensable in teaching and learning phrasal verbs which represent a major part of multi-word verbs - the second element of the present study title.

Malcolm Goodale continued his effort to provide the readers with 'workbooks' to accompany COBUILD Dictionaries: After writing Collins COBUILD Phrasal Verbs Workbook (1993) (reviewed above), he published Collins COBUILD Idioms Workbook in 1996.

It focuses on 250 of the most common idioms in current use in British and American English. It is organized in 30 chapters, each of which looks at a group of idioms centering around a particular theme. The material is suitable for both classwork
and self-study. Again, the fact that it is written by a teacher makes it a reliable material since it is based on real classroom interaction and experience.

As his first workbook on phrasal verbs, this text is useful and closely relevant to the present study since it provides opportunities for practising idiomatic expressions: it could serve as one of the options of the sources to draw on while devising a course on this important component of vocabulary.

2.24 JOHN SINCLAIR et.al 1995

After reviewing 'Collins COBUILD Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs'(in Section 2.20), we shall turn in this section to its companion volume: the Collins COBUILD Dictionary of Idioms: In general, this is an important new dictionary from the innovative COBUILD team. It explains approximately 4400 current British and American English idioms. It gives in-depth treatment of their meanings, contexts of use, and pragmatics, and it includes a rich collection of examples taken from the Bank of English. The Bank of English provides a wealth of information about the frequencies, forms, and usage of idioms today. Because the COBUILD dictionary of Idioms is based on this unique resource, the information which it gives about this fascinating area of language is reliable and up to date.

From the introduction, of the same reference above, I quote the following lines to show the close relation between our research topic and this standard reference:

'Idioms are one of the most interesting and difficult parts of the English vocabulary. They are interesting because they are colourful and lively and because they are linguistic curiosities. At the same time, they are difficult because they have unpredictable meanings or collocations and grammar, and often have special connotations. Idioms are frequently neglected in general dictionaries and in classroom teaching, because they are considered marginal items which are quaint but not significant. Yet research into idioms shows that they have important roles in spoken language and in writing, in particular in conveying evaluations and in developing or maintaining interactions. The
COBUILD Dictionary of Idioms sets out to give detailed coverage of these points...
The COBUILD Dictionary of Idioms is primarily intended for teachers for English and intermediate and advanced learners.’

(Sinclair et al. 1995:iv)

2.25 A.S.HORNBY (5th ed. 1996)

In the Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary of Current English (5th edition 1996 by Jonathan Crowth), we find (besides its definitions of idioms and phrasal verbs as general entries) that it helps with understanding and using idioms and phrasal verbs. This help is given in what are called: the Study Pages A2-3 and A6-7, which are found between pages 278 and 279 of this Dictionary.

To begin with phrasal verbs one can read the following definition (under the sub-title what are phrasal verbs):

’Look at the verbs in the sentences below:
• Jan turned down the offer of a lift home.
• Buying that new car has really eaten into my savings.
• I don't think I can put up with his behaviour much longer.

Phrasal verbs (sometimes called multi-word verbs) are verbs which consist of two or sometimes three words. The first word is a verb and it is followed by an adverb (turn down) or a preposition (eat into) or both (put up with). These adverbs or prepositions are sometimes called PARTICLES.

There is a brief account about the meaning of these verbal combinations:
’Look at the following sentence:
* Sue fell down and hurt her knee badly.

The meaning of some phrasal verbs, such as fall down, is easy to guess because the verb and the particle keep their usual meaning. However, many phrasal verbs
have idiomatic meanings that you need to learn. The separate meanings of *put, up* and *with*, for example, do not add up to the meaning of *put up with* (tolerate).*

In the same reference, Hornby went on to state that *particles* have meaning(s);

'Some particles have particular meanings which are the same when they are used with a number of different verbs. Look at *around* in the sentences below:

- I didn't see the point of hanging *around* waiting for him, so I went home.
- We spent most of our holiday lounging *around* beside the pool.

*Around* adds the meaning of 'with no particular purpose or aim' and is also used in a similar way with many other verbs such as *play, sit and wait.*'

After discussing the meanings of phrasal verbs and particles, there follows an indication of the possibility of substituting a multi-word verb with a single word equivalent.

'The meaning of a phrasal verb can sometimes be explained with a one-word verb. However, phrasal verbs are frequently used in informal spoken English and, if there is a one-word equivalent, it is usually much more formal in style. Look at the following sentences:

- I wish my ears didn't *stick out* so much.
- The garage *projects* 5 metres beyond the front of the house.

Both *stick out* and *project* have the same meaning - 'to extend beyond a surface' - but they are very different in style. *Stick out* is used in informal contexts, and *project* in formal or technical contexts.'

Similarly, a short discussion of the grammar of phrasal verbs is provided:

'Phrasal verbs can be TRANSITIVE (they take an object) or INTRANSITIVE (they have no object). Some phrasal verbs can be used in both ways:

- He told me to *shut up* (intransitive).
- For heaven's sake *shut* her *up*\ She's said for too much already (transitive).'

Then follows explanation and elaboration of the issue of *transivity / intransivity* of phrasal verbs and subsequent rules:
'Look at the entry below:

*eat out.* to have a meal in a restaurant, etc rather than at home: I'm too tired to cook tonight - let's *eat out.*

*Eat Out* is intransitive, and the two parts of the verb cannot be separated by any other word. You cannot say, for example:

- Shall we *eat* tonight *out*?

The same reference went on to provide the user with the necessary information about *disposition of objects in relation to phrasal verbs:*

In order to use TRANSITIVE PHRASAL verbs correctly, you need to know where to put the object...

With some phrasal verbs (often called SEPARABLE verbs), the object can go either between the verb and the particle or after the particle:

- She *tore* the letter *up.*
- She *tore up* the letter.

When the object is a *long phrase,* it usually comes after the particle.

- She tore up *all the letters that he had ever sent her.*

When the object is a *pronoun,* (for example, 'it' standing for 'the letter'), it must always go between the verb and the particle:

- She read the letter and then tore it up.

When in other phrasal verbs (sometimes called INSEPARABLE verbs) the two parts of the verb cannot be separated by an object:

- John's *looking after* the children.

not

- John's *looking* the children *after.*

* John's looking after them,

not

* John's looking them after.

Under the sub-heading 'Related Nouns' we read the following:

'A particular phrasal verb may have a noun related to it. ... Look for example, at the nouns *break-in* and *break-out* in the entry for *break 1.*
break-in (n) an entry into a building using a force.

Police are investigating a break-in at the bank.

Break-out (n) an escape from prison, esp involving the use of force: a mass break-out of prisoners...."

The same reference, between pages 278-9, under Language Study A6-7, provides the following information about idioms: this information presented under the headings below:

What are idioms? Looking up idioms andUsing idioms.

'What are Idioms? 
An idiom is a phrase whose meaning is difficult or sometimes impossible to guess by looking at the meanings of the individual words it contains. For example, the phrase 'be in the same boat' has a literal meaning that is easy to interpret, but it also has a common idiomatic meaning:

I found the job quite difficult at first. But everyone was in the same boat; we were all learning.

Here, 'be in the same boat' means 'to be in the same difficult or unfortunate situation'.

Some idioms are colourful expressions, such as proverbs and sayings:

- A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush, (it is better to be content with what one has than to risk losing everything by trying to get much more).
- Too many cooks spoil the broth. (If too many people are involved in something, it will not be done well).

If the expression is well-known, part of it may be left out:
- Well, I knew everything would go wrong - it's the usual story of too many cooks.

Other idioms are short expressions that are used for a particular purpose:

- Hang in there! (used for encouraging somebody to remain firm in difficult circumstances),
- On your bike! (used to tell somebody to go away).
Other idioms make comparison:

- as light as air
- as hard as nails.

Many idioms, however, are not vivid in this way. They are considered as idioms because *their form is fixed:*

- for certain
- in any case

After defining and providing a sort of typology of idioms the dictionary offer guidance on how to look up and use those expressions.

2.26 MICHAEL MCCARTHY et. al 1997

After reviewing the Oxford pair of dictionaries (of phrasal verbs and of English idioms) and its counterparts of COBUILD, we will turn in the coming pages to review the third pair: Cambridge International Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs and Cambridge International Dictionary of Idioms.

Let's confine ourselves, in this sub-section, to that of phrasal verbs. In general this dictionary has the following audience and their needs in consideration: It has been designed specially for learners of English, using the latest research into the content and structure of Modern English. It contains the information the learner needs to use phrasal verbs confidently and accurately.

Some of the main features of this dictionary are:

- Over 4,500 phrasal verbs current in British, American and Australian English today.
- Thousands of example sentences showing phrasal verbs *in context.*
- A carefully controlled defining vocabulary made explanations easy to understand.
- Clear and detailed information on grammar and collocation.
- Theme panels presenting phrasal verbs in topic groups.
Photocopiable exercise material with answer key (specimen of this exercise material will be reprinted in the present study: (see appendix-6).

The introduction to this Dictionary mentioned the importance of phrasal verbs:
'Their importance lies in the fact that they form such a key part of everyday English'.

Then, there, it is stated that they are often problematic for the following reasons:
'...The meaning of a phrasal verb, for example, often bears no relation to the meaning of either the verb or the particle which is used with it. This means that phrasal verbs can be difficult both to understand and to remember. Neither does it help that many phrasal verbs have several different meanings nor that their syntactic behaviour is often unpredictable.'
(Michael McCarthy et. al 1997:vii)

The compilers made further claim, namely that they have solutions for the problems of learning and teaching phrasal verbs:
'The Cambridge International Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs addresses all the problems associated with this rich and complex area of the English Language and presents information in a way which is clear and helpful. 
...Information on the grammatical structure of each phrasal verb is presented in an explicit fashion ... Clear and precise definitions ... Every phrasal verb is illustrated with examples based on sentences from the Cambridge International Corpus...
In addition, this dictionary contains supplementary material in the form of theme panels (Phrasal verbs shown in groups according to their meanings) and photocopiable exercises. This makes it a unique resource which can be used not only for reference purposes but also as valuable classroom or self-study learning aid.'

(McCarthy et. al 1997:vii).
It is clear, from what we have quoted in the preceding paragraphs, that the work of Cambridge team on phrasal verbs is relevant to our research topic since it discussed and pinpointed the problems and difficulties faced the learner, in the course of mastering this area of vocabulary, and it provided material for teaching and learning these verbal combinations which form a major part of what we termed, in this study, as multi-word verbs.

2.27 MICHAEL MCCARTHY et al. 1998

In the following pages, we shall look at Cambridge International Dictionary of Idioms. To have a general idea about the main features and characteristics of this reference, let's consider the following points:

- Around 7,000 idioms current in British American and Australian English.
- Thousands of example sentences based on the Cambridge International Corpus.
- A carefully controlled defining vocabulary making explanations easy to understand.
- A full index, so idioms are easy to find.
- Photocopiable exercise material.
- Theme panels presenting idioms in topic groups.
- Guidance on the most useful idioms to learn.

After citing the previous general points describing this dictionary, I shall quote the following lines from its introduction, which mentioned some teaching and learning points, particularly the problems and difficulties encounter the learner.

'... Your language skills will increase rapidly if you can understand idioms and use them confidently and correctly. One of the main problems students have with idioms is that // is often impossible to guess the meaning of an idiom from the
words it contains. In addition, idioms often have a stronger meaning than non-
idiotic phrases. For example, 'look daggers at someone' has more emphasis
than 'look angrily at someone', but they mean the same thing.'

(McCarthy et al 1998:vi)

Then the compilers explained why this dictionary has the word (international) as
a part of its title:

'...It is truly international dictionary: it covers current British, American and
Australian idioms.'

(ibid.: vi).

They went on to show its content:

'...It includes:

• traditional idioms (e.g. turn a blind eye to sth, throw the baby out with the bath
  water).
• idiomatic compounds (e.g. fall guy, turkey shoot).
• similes and comparisons (e.g. as dull as ditch water, swear like a trooper).
• exclamation and sayings (e.g. Bully for you!, over my dead body'-)
• cliches (e.g. all part of life's rich tapestry, there's many a true word spoken in
  jest.)
• In addition, there are theme panels showing idioms groups according to their
  meaning or function.
• There are also photocopiable exercises at the back of the dictionary (NB; A
  sample of this exercise material will be reprinted in appendix 6 of our present
  research, since it serves as one of the optional materials we suggest(ed) for the
  proposed course for improving the learners knowledge and mastery of idioms)

The introduction is rounded off by claiming the usefulness of this dictionary in
learning idiomatic expressions - an issue which is closely related to our research topic:

'this dictionary aims to help you not only as a comprehensive reference book but
also as a valuable learning aid.'

(McCarthy et. al 1998:vi)
2.28 COMPARISON BETWEEN THREE PAIRS OF DICTIONARIES:

OXFORD DICTIONARY OF ENGLISH IDIOMS / OXFORD DICTIONARY OF PHRASAL VERBS; COLLINS COBUILD DICTIONARY OF IDIOMS / COLLINS COBUILD DICTIONARY OF PHRASAL VERBS; AND CAMBRIDGE INTERNATIONAL DICTIONARY OF IDIOMS / CAMBRIDGE INTERNATIONAL DICTIONARY OF PHRASAL VERBS.

As it has been indicated, in the introduction to this chapter, much space will be given to the above three pairs of references because of their obvious role as teaching and learning aid in the two overlapping areas of vocabulary: idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs of English. This importance is mainly a result of the nature of these two areas especially the first one since idiomaticity, as we have stated frequently, is largely a semantic matter whose treatment resides basically in dictionaries, for they deal with meanings. However, the researcher has no intention to prefer one pair over others but consider all of them as *semantic and syntactic warehouse* - as rich sources of teaching and learning materials besides their ready-made workbooks, exercise materials and other valuable information.

The researcher would like to restate that his position is being eclectic though he used the OUP workbook "Practice with Idioms (amongst other exercises books such as "A Practical English Grammar" Ex. Book 2...) in devising the outlines and detailing the contents of the *explicit taught course* to the subjects of the study, for practical considerations, related to the availability of these materials at the time of carrying the experiments. Therefore, the following comparison serves as a base for the reader to gain an overall view, of these references and make his own judgement, after considering these features appeared in the following pages, on which pair(s) he will concentrate. However, the comparison is made, more or less, in terms of the following issues / factors: Compilers, publishers, content (number of entries); whether the data (corpus) based on computational and statistical studies... availability of supplementary materials (course work etc), targeted audience; guidance for students and teachers etc.
In general, the following points could be deduced from the comparison: (for a full description and review of these dictionaries, see 2.20 - 2.22,2.24,2.26 and 2.27).

1. The six dictionaries are compiled by competent and innovative teams and they are published by well-known publishers (OUP, COLLINS and CUP).

2. These dictionaries based on computational and statistical studies (Oxford Corpus of the English Language, Collins COBUILD Bank of English and Cambridge International Corpus).

3. The Collins COBUILD pair of references are accompanied by two workbooks (both written by Malcolm Goodale) while the Cambridge pair is supplemented by 'Exercise and Theme Panels Materials' at the backs of these dictionaries. For OUP ones, there are neither accompanying workbooks nor exercise(s) material(s), yet there is one workbook entitled Practice with Idioms, by Ronald E. Feare, 1980, OUP who acknowledges A.P. Cowie and R. Mackin for their earlier version of "Oxford Dictionary of current Idiomatic English" which proved valuable in confirming the presentation of the grammatical categories used in his book, i.e. this workbook could be considered as the supplementary materials to OUP pair.

4. Regarding titles: the adjective 'English' attached to "Idioms" in OUP dictionary, the attribute 'international' described Cambridge ones indicating (according to their compilers their embracement of British English and American English as well as Australian English) while the same characteristic (i.e. international) could be found in Collins pair, particularly in the abbreviation 'COBUILD' which stands for: Collins Birmingham University International Language Data Base. Again the word 'English', is not mentioned in the idioms one of CUP pair.

5. The three pairs cater for some teaching and learning points giving guidance to learners and teachers etc. yet OUP pair is singled out in his explicit indication of the "Foreign learners" as target subjects.
2.29 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

To sum up this chapter, on the literature review of some publications on idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs of English, the researcher would like to restate that this chapter is an attempt to give a detailed survey of all known approaches to idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs in order to provide a reliable theoretical framework for the present study. That is to try to show objectively why the researcher finds some works more suitable than all others to build on his research. However, the following points might summarize and conclude this review.

- The term *idiom* has been around since the antiquity and used in a variety of senses with some more frequently and consistently used than others. In fact the practice of most grammarians and linguists who have chosen to study idiomatic expressions indicate concern with the decoding aspect of idiomaticity—understanding the meanings of these expressions.

- Despite the quantity of material dealing with idioms, a surprisingly large number of prominent linguists have steered clear of idioms almost completely.

The concept of idiomaticity is not even mentioned in Bloomfield's 'Postulates' (1926) and no discussion of idioms is provided in "Language" (1933). Harris in his 'Methods in Structural Linguistics' (1951) chooses not to mention idiomaticity at al. As Healey points out (1968:71) some authors avoid the term deliberately, each disliking it for some or other reason. According to Palmer (1938:xii) it is too broad; this view is echoed by Bolinger (1947:241). Joos (1964:135) charges that the term is too often applied to some difficult expressions in order to avoid describing them.

- Outside of Language textbooks proper; special idiom dictionaries as well as phrasal verbs ones have been in wide use. Their organization and underlying theoretical concept of idiomaticity is similar to that found in the sampling
language text books, reviewed at the previous pages of this chapter, that is, *phraseological units are alphabetically intermixed with specialized one word-items.*

- The works, we have surveyed in this chapter, show that there are various dimensions and a considerable number of grammarians, writers, linguists and dictionaries compilers in the areas of idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs (phrasal verbs particularly): The Indian tradition eventually upholds indeterminacy of word meaning and graded degrees of compositionality and Hockett shared with the Indian grammarians the primary interest in "the meanings of the expressions" they are dealing with. The "generative movement", led off here (in this review) by Katz and Postal with Weinreich, Fraser, and Chafe among the more important followers, describe the syntactic deficiency in this finite class of anomalies (i.e. idioms).

Bolinger, Ruhl and Mitchell, are all concerned with 'semantics' more than syntax, sentence meaning rather than word meaning...with the pervasiveness of idiomaticity throughout language.

The stratificational grammar in this review, is represented by Adam Makkai (1972) who deals with idiomatic expressions and phrasal verbs in detail.

- However, the direct concern and treatment of Teaching and learning of idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs of English, in general, is manifested in Michael Wallace, 1982 (who devoted a whole chapter (Ch.8) in his book *Teaching Vocabulary* to Idioms and Multi-Words) and Ronald E.Feare, 1980 in his workbook 'Practice with Idioms', among other useful vocabulary books and references. Moreover, there are some of the specialized idiom-dictionaries and phrasal verbs ones which are discussed in detail in this review besides an attempt to compare some of them. The general theme of these dictionaries is that the entries found in them are not ordinary vocabulary. Oxford Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs / Oxford dictionary of English Idioms; Collins COBUILD Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs / Collins COBUILD Dictionary of Idioms and Cambridge

In spite of the large amount of literature on idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs of English, unfortunately no research has been carried out on the teaching and learning of idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs of English in the context of Sudan. Therefore, the present study attempts to fill a gap and provide a starting point for further research on this topic.