CHAPTER FOUR

A GENERAL LINGUISTIC SURVEY AND A DETAILED SEMANTIC STUDY
OF IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS AND MULTI-WORD VERBS OF ENGLISH

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter intends to include the following:

- A general linguistic study (survey) of idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs of English encompassing the following levels:
  - Phonological and Orthographical
  - Grammatical (syntactic and morphological) and
  - Stylistic
- A detailed semantic study of idiomatic expressions and multi-words verbs of English:
  - Definition of idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs of English.
  - What is the relationship between idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs?
  - Lexico-semantic study.
- Also we shall contrast, compare and relate idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs of English to the native speech of our subjects in terms of metaphors and proverbs, colloquial (informal) Language, and slang-

4.2 A GENERAL LINGUISTIC STUDY OF IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS AND
MULTI-WORD VERBS OF ENGLISH

This general study attempted to cover the following:

- Phonological and Orthographical Survey
- Grammatical: Syntactic and Morphological
- Stylistic
4.2.1. Phonological And Orthographical Study Of Idiomatic Expressions and Multi-Word-Verbs Of English

4.2.1.1 Phonological Study Of Idiomatic Expressions and Multi-Word-Verbs Of English

Concerning Multi-Word Verbs of English the following points are to be made covering stress, intonation and rhythm.

Stress: General Introduction

Stress is the word for the 'strength' with which syllables are pronounced. In speech some parts of English words and sentences sound much louder than others. For example, the first syllable of CARpet, the second syllable of inSPECtion or the last syllable of conFUSE are usually stressed, while the other syllables in these words are not.

In the sentence ‘Don’t look at HIM- HE didn’t do it, the words ‘him’ and ‘he’ are stressed in order to emphasise them. Stressed syllables are not only louder; they may also have longer vowels, and they may be pronounced on a higher pitch.

Word Stress: English words with more than one syllable mostly have a fixed stress pattern. There are not many rules to show which syllable of a word will be stressed: One usually has to learn the stress pattern of a word along with its meaning, spelling and pronunciation.

Examples:
Stressed on first syllable: After, CApital, HAPpen, EXercise, EAzy.
Stressed on second syllable: inSTEAD, proNOUNCE, aGREEment, parTIcularly.
Stressed on third syllable: enterTAIN, underSTAND, concenTRAtion
Many short phrases and compounds also have a fixed stress pattern:
Front DOOR (Not FRONT door)
LIVing room (Not living ROOM)
Variable Stress: Some words have variable stress. In these words, the stress is at or near the end when the word is spoken alone, but it can move to an earlier position when the word is in a sentence, especially if another stressed word follows.

Many short phrases, for instance two-words verbs, have variable stresses e.g.:

- Their marriage broke 'up ...
- Many problems 'broke up their marriage.

Stress in multi-word verbs

In normal speech particles / prepositions are not usually given stress but with phrasal verbs the particle normally receives stress. Compare

- Look for that number_____that's the number to 'look for.
- Call up that number_____that's the number to 'call 'up.

Also, in respect of Multi-Word Verbs stress, it is worth mentioning that the particle in verbal combinations is normally stressed and, in final position, bears the nuclear tone, whereas the preposition in verbal constructions is normally unstressed and has the 'tail' of the nuclear tone on the lexical verb only:

- He called *up the man - the man was called lip.
- He 'called on the man - the man was 'called on.

The reader can find at the inside back cover of Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary of Current English the following treatment and discussion of stress in phrasal verbs:

'One type of phrasal verb has a single strong stress on the first word. Examples are:

'Come to sth, 'go for sb, 'look at sth.

This stress pattern is kept in all situations, and the second word is never stressed. If the second word is one which normally appears in a weak form, remember that the strong form must be used at the end of a phrase, for example:

- Look at I%\ I this
  but
- There's something to look at / set/.
Another type of phrasal verb is shown with two stresses. The patterns shown (in the dictionary), with the main stress on the second word, is the one which is used when the verb is said on its own, or when the verb as a whole is the last important word in a phrase:

- What time are you Coining 'back?
- He made it 'up.
- Fill them 'in

But the speaker will put a strong stress on any other important word if it comes later than the verb. The stress on the second of the verb is then weakened or lost, especially if it would otherwise be next to the strong stress. The important word which receives the strong stress may be between the two parts of the phrasal verb, or after both of them:

- We came back 'early.
- I filled in a 'form.
- Fill this 'form in.

**Stress in other Variations of Multi-Word Verbs**

Nominalized forms of phrasal verbs carry principal stress on the first element. Consider the following:
'downpour, 'offprint, 'upkeep.
'Outpouring, 'upbringing
'Break-in, 'flypast, 'glance - through

The above general rule is departed from only in cases such as the following, where an unliked form exists side by side with, and may sometimes be preferred to, a hyphenated one. Compare:

- a quick Look 'round
- a quick 'look-round.
A last point to mention, in this section, regarding stress in multi-word verbs is which made by (Swan: 1997:608): ’At the end of a clause, a preposition is usually unstressed, while an adverb particle is usually stressed. Compare:

- They are 'called on. (preposition)
- They were called 'up. (particle).

Stress in Idiomatic Expressions

In any idiomatic expression, we find that one word is always more strongly stressed (i.e. spoken with more force) than others. In most cases this is the last 'full' word (i.e. noun, adjective, verb or adverb) in the phrase or clause:

- Make oneself 'useful
- Cakes and 'ale
- Make sth 'work

The above examples follow a general rule. In other words, most idioms are used in speech just like any other phrase or sentence, i.e. the word with the main stress is the last noun (not pronoun), verb (not auxiliary), adjective or adverb.

For example in the idiomatic expressions 'a rough ride', 'take the biscuit' and 'run for it', the words ride, biscuit and run are stressed.

Notice that some idioms have an unusual or unpredictable stress. From the 'Inside back cover' of OALDCE under 'stress in idioms', we read the following:
'Most idioms are shown in the dictionary with at least one main stress:

- find one's 'feet.

The learner should not change the position of this stress when speaking, for the special meaning of the idiom may be lost.
Intonation in Idiomatic Expressions and Multi-word Verbs

Introduction

Intonation is the word for the 'melody' of spoken language: the way the musical pitch of the voice rises and falls. Intonation systems in languages are very complicated and difficult to analyse, and linguists disagree about how English intonation works. One way in which intonation seems to be used is to show how a piece of information fits in with what comes before and after. For instance, a speaker may raise his or her voice when taking over the conversation from somebody else, or to indicate a change of subject. A rise or fall on a particular word may show that this is the 'centre' of the message—the place where the new information is being given; or it may signal a contrast or a special emphasis. When a speaker ends on a falling tone, this often expresses some kind of conclusion or certainty; a rising tone at the end of a sentence may express uncertainty, suggest that there is more to be said, or invite another speaker to take over. Intonation (together with speed, voice quality and loudness) can also say things about the speaker's attitude. For instance, when people are excited or angry they often raise and lower their voices more.

Intonation in Multi-word Verbs

Multi-Word Verbs usually follow the general rules of intonation. Consider the following example, which contains verbal combinations in question and exclamative form.

• Why didn't you make up the beds?
• I did make them up!

Intonation in Idiomatic Expressions

Idiomatic expressions are usually subject to the normal rules of intonation which allow for a variety in pitch patterns which serve to distinguish between two or more expressions with the same spelling but different meanings. These pitch movements could be shown below:

• Do you 'mind'? = an enquiry as to whether sb objects to some action or event, ... medium rising tone on 'mind'.
• Do you 'mind'? = an expression of objection, often aggressive to sth which is occurring - a fall-rise tone on 'mind'.
Rhythm in Idiomatic Expressions and Multi-Word Verbs

General Introduction:

Rhythm is the word for the way stressed and unstressed syllables make patterns in speech. In sentences, we usually give more stress to nouns, ordinary verbs, adjectives and adverbs, and less stress to pronouns, determiners, prepositions, conjunctions and auxiliary verbs.

• She was SURE that the BACK of the CAR had been DAMaged.

Many Linguists feels that the rhythm of spoken English is based on a regular pattern of stressed syllables. These follow each other at roughly regular intervals, and are pronounced more slowly and clearly. Unstressed syllables are pronounced more quickly and less clearly, and are fitted in between the regular stressed syllables. If several unstressed syllables come together, these are pronounced even more quickly so as not to disturb the rhythm.

Compare the following two sentences. The second does not take much longer to say than the first: although it has three more unstressed syllables, it has the same number of stressed syllables.

She KNEW the Doctor.

She KNEW that there was a DOCTor.

Note, however, that this is a very complicated question, and not all experts agree about the way English rhythm works.

Rhythm in Idiomatic Expressions

A clear manifestation of rhythm in idiomatic expressions could be found in sayings form which is often made striking and memorable by rhythm, assonance, ... some examples are:

• Out of sight out of mind.
• When the cat’s away, the mice will play.

Rhythm in Multi-word Verbs

Since these verbal combinations are composed of verbs + particles and / or prepositions. The general rule for rhythm is applicable i.e. verbs received more stress than prepositions and particles.
4.2.1.2. **Orthographical Study Of Idiomatic Expressions and Multi-Word Verbs of English**

In general, idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs confine to the general spelling conventions of English. However, there are some exceptions namely those cases where multi-word verbs are transformed to nominalized forms, adjectival forms which have varieties of spellings (hyphenated, solid form (written as one word) or unlinked forms).

In nominalized forms, there is a considerable difference regarding spelling and punctuation: The choice of solid (=Linked form) e.g. *flypast*, unlinked form *a look round* or a hyphenated one *a look-round*.

Regarding the nominalized form which has the pattern *particle+verb*, it is important to mention that the British and American practice is to write them fully joined as in *offprint*; while some nouns exist in two forms (linked and hyphenated) in British.

Other examples of writing conventions of multi-word verbs are:

- *make up* (verb), *make-up* (noun)
- *break down* (verb), *breakdown* (noun)

In adjective transform, one notes the following spelling / punctuation as they appeared in the examples below:

- He glanced through the article.

  The quickly *glanced-through* article ...

- He eagerly looked forward to his retirement.

  His eagerly *looked-forward-to* retirement.

- We can play the recorded programmes back.

  The *played-back* programmes...

Phrasal verbs idioms consisting of two or several words may have related nominalizations, verbalizations and attribute formations which are written as one word or, in spoken utterances, accentuated as single words e.g.
To bring 'up (=rear, educate) versus the upbringing; to put in (=commit for processing - as in computer language) versus 'the input capacity' (where input, here, is an attribute) or the input (noun)-

In fact, whether the constituents of phrasal verbs are written as one word or not, or accentuated as one-word items when spoken, appear to make no difference in their semantic status in the language, since spelling convention as one word or the accentuation as one word (if spoken) by no mean actually convey the semantic content of the composite form in question. One-word spellings as well as accentuation are, then, best regarded as redundancy features of English orthography and phonology.

4.2.1.3. Summary
In this sub-section, an attempt has been made to survey the phonological and orthographical aspect of idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs of English. However, this examination reveals that these language components follow the general rules of phonology and orthography with rare exceptions.

4.2.2 Grammatical Study of Idiomatic Expressions and Multi-Word Verbs of English
4.2.2.1 Introduction
In this section, an attempt will be made to provide the reader with a general description of the grammatical behaviour of idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs of English. Information about the syntax and morphology of these two components of language is essential for a variety of reasons. It enables the reader to compare like with like and to build up a general categorization of idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs. It is also important for the reader to be able to locate and identify the exact point or points in idiomatic expressions at which lexical choice can operate. The syntactic relationship of the parts to the should be made explicit. And finally, how the grammar of an idiomatic expression can be affected by how idiomatic it is.
Regarding the syntax of idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs the following questions could be raised:

What kind of pattern(s) an idiomatic expression or multi-word verb correspond(s) to, how it can be broken into elements smaller than itself, and what other elements precede, follow or interrupt it?

The semantic and syntactic anomalies of such expressions as *kick the bucket* 'die', *spill the beans* 'give away a secret', *or fly off the handle* 'become angry' are of obvious interest for any description of language.

How can *kick the bucket* mean 'die'? Do the literal senses of *kick, the, bucket* contribute in any way to its grammatical behaviour?

Why is non literal *the bucket was kicked* impossible, especially given that *the beans were spilled* is perfectly acceptable? How these idiosyncratic variations best handled by a grammar? And so on.

However, in our presentation and description of the grammatical properties of idiomatic expressions (including idiomatic multi-word verbs i.e. phrasal verbs), we shall follow, here, the grammatical categorization provided by Feare 1980 in his book *Practice With Idioms*, who had originally drawn on Cowie et al’s texts, Oxford Dictionary of Idioms (1993) and Oxford dictionary of Phrasal Verbs, 1993 (for the original treatment see appendix.2 a and b).

Their treatment and categorization could be summarized as follows:

1. **Verbal Idioms**: These are multi-word verbs which are idiomatic (*phrasal verbs*).
2. **Nominal, adjectival and adverbial idioms**.
4.2.2.2 Verbal Idioms

Verbs are basic part of English grammar which are often used in idiomatic expressions. Some verbs are called transitive because they are followed by an object, which is always a noun phrase. Some verbs are called intransitive because they are not followed by an object. In general, we can distinguish and discuss below six categories of these verbal combinations.

Category 1
Intransitive Verbs with particles

Intransitive verbs can be followed by other parts of grammar such as around, on, through and up. Such words are called particles because they cannot be separated from the verbs by adverbial forms.

If we look carefully at the following sets of sentences we can figure out some of the grammatical rules governing the above type of verbal combinations (An asterisk (*) means that a sentence is incorrect):

1. •The student got ahead his school.
2. The old man got around with difficulty.
3. "The company fell through its plan.
4. The student got ahead in school.
5. The company's plan fell through.

In the incorrect sentences above (#1 and #3), the verbal idioms were followed by objects, which is not possible for intransitive forms. But other parts of grammar, such as adverbs and prepositional phrases, often occur with these verbal idioms.

By the same token, if we examine the following set of examples we can arrive at a certain rule.

2. •The chairman showed early up.
3. My friend caught on slowly.
4. *The Chairman early showed up.
5. My friend slowly caught on.
6. The Chairman showed up early.

The rule which could be formulated from the above examples indicates that, in general, no adverb can be placed between the verb and particle: The verb and particle are one unit of grammar. Only a manner adverb, which tells how something was done (quickly, quietly, slowly), can be placed both before and after the verb + particle, if it ends in (-ly)- A manner adverb such as 'well' cannot be placed before the verb + particle. Most adverbs, including time adverbs such as 'early' are placed after the idiomatic verbal combination. Thus '*my friend well caught on' is incorrect while 'my friend caught on well' is correct.

- Other Grammatical forms of Intransitive Verb + Particle : Transformation.

To be able to use verbal forms, in many different situations, you should know how to transform these verbal combinations into other grammatical forms. In this sub-section we shall look at some of the most important forms.

Nominalized Forms

Sometimes it is useful to change a verbal idiom into a nominalized form. An intransitive verb + particle can combine to form a noun. Examples:

- I was late because the bus broke down.
  I was late because of a bus breakdown.
- The pilot took off smoothly.
  The pilot made a smooth take-off.
- Did the plane take off smoothly?
  Did the plane have a smooth take-off!
- The baseball players warmed up before the game.
  The baseball players had a warm-up before the game.
- We stopped over at the nice motel on our trip.
  We made a stopover at the nice motel on our trip.
Note that only some intransitive verb + particle combinations can use this transformation.

**Passive Forms**

However, since there is no object in this verbal combination it does not admit passive transformation.

**Emphatic Transform**

This transform is used when one wants to make emphasis and this could be done through simple change of word order: putting words in initial position etc.

D The snow came down thick and fast.

Down came the snow thick and fast.

**Category 2**

**Intransitive verbs with prepositions**

In this sub-section, we shall look at verbal idioms that are composed of *intransitive verb + prepositions*. The preposition is followed by a noun phrase, and together they form a prepositional phrase.

Example:

D The lecturer *touched on* many interesting ideas.

Considering the above example, 'on' is a preposition which forms a unit of *meaning* with the *intransitive verb*, but a unit of *grammar* with the following *noun phrase*. The prepositional phrase, "on many interesting ideas" is a unit of grammar; the verbal idiom 'touch on' is a unit of special meaning.

An intransitive verbal idiom, as the term suggests, is never used with an object. For more clarification let's study the examples below:

1. The teacher touched quickly on many ideas.
2. *Because she is my friend, I believe in.*
3. The teacher quickly touched on many ideas.
4. Because she is my friend, I believe in her.
5. "The teacher touched on quickly many ideas.
6. The guests finally showed up.

From the above examples, one observes that adverbs may not be placed between a preposition and noun phrase, which shows that the preposition and noun phrase are a grammatical unit [#5]. But adverbs may be placed between the intransitive verb and preposition [#1].

To conclude, this description of the grammatical rules of intransitive verb + preposition, we summarize the main points as follows:

- The prepositional phrase is a unit of grammar; the verbal idiom is a unit of special meaning.
- Adverbs may be placed between the verb and preposition.

**Other Grammatical Forms of Intransitive Verb + Preposition: Transformation Nominalized Forms**

D He glanced through the article quickly.

He gave the article a quick glance-through.

**Passive Forms**

The noun phrase in this verbal combination (intransitive verb + preposition) may be moved to subject position after the unimportant subject has either moved to the end of the sentence or removed completely. The verbal idiom would be changed from the active to the passive form, just as regular verb would.

Examples are:

D The police looked into the murder.

The murder was looked into by the police.

The murder was looked into.

D He glanced through the article quickly.
The article was glanced through quickly.

Not all idioms can be put into a passive form, simply because some idioms sound strange or awkward in such form. Notice the unacceptability of the following sentence:

* Mary's mom is taken after (by Mary)
(as transformed from: Mary takes after mom.)

There is really no simple explanation as to why some verbal idioms can easily be made passive and others can't. We simply have to acquire this knowledge by paying attention to and carefully learning the uses of this passive construction as we learn new and different verbal idioms."

**Adjective Transform**

- He glanced through the article quickly.  
  The quickly glanced - through article ...

**Emphatic Transform**

- You can cope with these few extra people easily.  
  With these few extra people you can cope easily.

**Relative Transform**

- You can cope with these few extra people easily.  
  These people with whom you can cope easily.
Category 3
Intransitive **Verb + Particle + Preposition**

The verbal idioms in this category are composed of an intransitive + particle + preposition. The preposition is followed by a noun phrase, forming a prepositional phrase.

Example:

John *came up with* a fine solution.

In the above example 'up*' is a particle and 'with' is a preposition.

For more details about the grammatical behaviour of the above type of verbal idioms, consider the following set of sentences:

1. A student's question came up.
2. *A student came up a question.
3. A student came up with a question.
4. I greatly look forward to my vacation.
5. *I look greatly forward to my vacation.
6. I look forward greatly to my vacation.
7. *I look forward to greatly my vacation.

From those examples the rules as given below are figured out:

- The verbal idiom is not followed by an object but a prepositional phrase.
- The verb, particle and preposition are all connected in *meaning* but that, in *grammar*, the particle is connected to the verb and the preposition to the noun phrase. That is why an adverb, especially a manner adverb, can sometimes be placed between the particle and the preposition (#6).

- **Other Grammatical .___J of Intransitive Verb + Particle + Preposition: Transformation**

Nominalized **Form**

This type does not admit nominalization.
Adjective Transform
He eagerly looked forward to his retirement.
His eagerly looked-forward-to retirement.

Emphatic Transform
He just scraped along on this low salary.
On this low salary he just scraped along.

Relative Transform
He just scraped along on this low salary.
This low salary on which he just scraped along ...

Passive Transform
The students had to put up with the noise.
The noise had to be put up with (by the students).
frlany people looked up to the famous professor.
The famous professor was looked up to (by many people).
He eagerly looked forward to his retirements
His retirement was eagerly looked forward to (by him).

But the following sentence does not admit passivization:
We went in for soccer.
* Soccer was gone in for.

After presenting and illustrating the \textit{intransitive} verbal combinations (categories 1,2,3) we turn, in the following pages, to the \textit{transitive} verbal combinations (categories 4,5,6).
Category 4

Transitive Verbs with Movable and Immovable Particles

Some verbs are called transitive because they are followed by an object, which is always a noun phrase. In this section, we shall discuss verbal combinations which are composed of transitive verb + movable particle and those which consist of transitive verb + immovable particle.

Transitive Verbs with Movable Particles (Reversible)

Example:

The president cleared up the problem.
The president cleared the problem up.

In this example the particle may be placed on either side of the object, but not anywhere else in the sentence.

Consider the following for further clarification and illustration:

1. The president cleared up the problem carefully.
2. *The President cleared carefully up the problem.
3. The president cleared the problem up carefully.
4. *The president cleared up carefully the problem.
5. The president carefully cleared up the problem.

In the above sentences an adverb may not be placed between the verb + particle or between the particle and object because the verb + particle are connected in both meaning and grammar.

Also another rule concerning transitive verb + movable particle could be figured out from the sentences below:

1. The president cleared up the problem.
2. *The president cleared up it.
3. The president cleared it up.
4. The lawyer stuck to his argument.
5. The lawyer stuck to it.
6. •The lawyer stuck it to.
The general rule for pronouns is that they always precede particles, but always follow prepositions.

- **Other Grammatical Forms of Transitive Verb + movable Particles: Transformation**
  This pattern by its nature (movable particle) can be transformed using the simple operation of changing word-order:
  
  She made up her face. ───────────→
  She made her face up.

  However, as was true for other verbal idioms, it is important to know how to transform transitive verb + movable particle into other grammatical forms in order to be able to use them in different situations.

**Nominalized Forms**

Many transitive verb + movable particle combinations can be used in a nominalized form. Most forms combine without using a hyphen (-), but some do, so we have to memorize the different cases as we learn them. Consider the following:

- We tried out the new machine_________.
  We gave the machine a *tryout*.

- She made up her face.
  She made up her face.________.  
  She put on *makeup*.

- The company gave away many gifts.   
  The company had a gift *giveaway*.

- The military took over the country.   
  The country suffered a military *takeover*.
How many students make up this class?  
What is the makeup of this class?  
What is the make-up of this class?

We can play the recorded programmes back. /  
We can play back the recorded programmes.  
We can do a play-back of the recorded programmes.

Passive Forms

Sometimes the subject of a verbal combination (here transitive verb + movable particle pattern) is not very important, and we want to stress the object of the sentence. Objects can move to subject position after the unimportant subject has either been moved to the end of the sentence or removed completely.

Examples:

• We tried the machine out carefully- /  
  We tried out the machine carefully.  
  The machine was tried out carefully-

• We can play the recorded programmes (them) back. /  
  We can play back the recorded programmes-  
  The recorded programmes can be played back.

Adjective Transform

• We can play the recorded programmes (them) back. /  
  We can play back the recorded programmes-  
  The played-back programmes...

Grammar of Transitive Verbs with Immovable Particles (Non-reversible)

As the heading suggests the verbal constructions here are composed of a transitive verb + immovable particle. In this pattern, however, there are two different types of verbal combinations as the following examples indicate:
Type A:

My friends kicked my suggestion around.

Here the particle should come after the object. Thus I can not say:

*My friends kicked around my suggestion.

Type B:

Five rooms make up this house. (Here, the particle should come before the object).

So I can not say

*Five rooms make this house up.

With verbal combination type A, as the sentences below illustrate, the particle may only be placed after the object. The verb and particle are connected in both meaning and grammar, so an adverb cannot be placed anywhere between them.

1. I can tell the twins apart easily.
2. *I can tell apart the twins easily.
3. I can easily tell the twins apart.
4. *I can tell easily the twins apart.
5. *I can tell the twins easily apart.

While with type B, the particle may only be placed before the object.

The student found out the answer quickly.

not *The student found the answer out quickly.

However, when pronoun object is used, the particle can only be placed after it.

The student found it out quickly.

•The student found out // quickly.

Concerning the adverb position in relation to the verbal idiom in type B the following point can be made:

Since the verb and particle are connected in meaning and grammar, an adverb may not be placed between them. Consider in this respect the following sentences:
The student found out the answer quickly.
The student quickly found out the answer.
• The student found quickly out the answer.
"The student found out quickly the answer.

• **Other Grammatical Forms of Transitive Verbs with Immovable Paricles:**

**Transformation**

**Nominalized Forms**

Type A: (Verb + Object + particle)

• I want to walk you through (the ghost scene).

  I want to do a *walk-through* of the ghost scene.

Type B: (Verb + particle + Object noun)

• This is the reel which takes up the film.

  This is the *take-up* reel.

**Passive Forms**

Type A: (Verb + Object + Particle)

• You should do your work over soon.

  Your work should be done over soon.

• The technician will run that bit of tape (it) through again

  That bit of tape will be run through again.

Type B: (Verb + Particle + Object)

• Five rooms make up this house.

  This house is made up of five rooms.

• Unemployment brought down the last Government

  The last Government was brought down by unemployment.
Category 5

**Transitive Verbs with Prepositions.**

Under this heading one can distinguish *three* types:

**Type 1:** In this type the verb collocates with special preposition, e.g. The executive *devoted* much time *to* her work.

**Type 2:** Here, the verb comes with special object. Each verbal idiom in this type can only occur with one 'special’ object. e.g. The baby sitter *kept an eye on* the child.

**Type 3:** Each verbal idiom in this type can occur with one *special noun* in the noun phrase following the preposition. e.g. The instructor *took my illness into account.*

According to Cowie and Mackin 1993 : P.X. these three types are called *complex idioms:*

'A complex idiom is a verb + particle or a verb + preposition (or a verb + particle + preposition), but it always contains one or more other words as well’…

For more details let us discuss each of the above types in turn:

**Type 1:** Regarding the grammatical behaviour of this type, consider the sentences below:

1. The president left the work to his secretary.
2. *The president left to the work his secretary.
3. The senator put the bill through Congress.
4. *The senator put the bill Congress through.

In this type, the transitive verb will be followed by an object, and the proposition will be followed by a noun phrase.

From the above sentences we figure out the following rules.

A preposition may not be placed before the object because the proposition is connected to the following noun phrase in grammar. The preposition introduces the prepositional phrase, so it may not be placed after the noun phrase.
Concerning the position of adverbs, we find that it is unusual for an adverb to precede the preposition this verbal combination because an object follows the transitive verb. The normal position for an adverb, here, is at the end of the sentence, although manner adverbs ending in -ly are often put before the verb. The following examples are further illustration of the above-mentioned rules:

- The Senator put the bill through Congress quickly.
- The Senator quickly put the bill through Congress.
- The Senator put the bill through Congress last year.
- The Senator last year put the bill through Congress.
- f The Senator put the bill quickly through Congress (Unusual).

- Other Grammatical Forms of transitive verb + preposition pattern:
  Transformation
Transitive Verb with Preposition (Type 1)
- The executive devoted much time to her work.
- Peter foists all his problems on his unfortunate.

Nominalized Forms
  This verbal combination does not admit nominalization. So the above 2 sentences could not be transformed.

Passive Forms
- His friends held the crime against Joe.
  The crime was held against Joe (by his friends).

- Peter foists all his problems on his unfortunate friends.
  All his problems are foisted on his unfortunate friends.
Transitive Verb with Preposition (Type 2)

As it has been said in the general introduction to this category each verbal idiom in this type can only occur with one 'special' object. The noun form in the object cannot change in any way (e.g. singular or plural). Very often an adjective form can be placed in front of the noun.

Examples:
1. I carefully kept an eye on the child.
2. I kept a careful eye on the child.
3. *I carefully kept eyes on the child.
4. Tom unfairly took advantage of his friends.
5. Tom took unfair advantage of his friends.

- Other Grammatical Forms (of type 2): Transformation

Nominalized Forms
I have taken careful note of your remarks.

Here, this type of verbal idiom does not admit nominalized transformation because the object (note) is part of the verbal idiom.

Emphatic Transform
- I have taken careful note of your remarks.

Of your remarks I have taken careful note.

Relative Transform
- I have taken careful note of your remarks.

Remarks of which I have taken careful note….  

Passive Forms

As is true with other verbal combinations some transitive verbal idioms can more easily be made passive than others; at times a passive form sounds very awkward, as in the following examples:
• I lost track of my pen.
  * Track was lost of my pen.

☐ I have taken careful note of your remarks.
  * Your remarks have been taken careful note of.

Transitive Verbs with Prepositions: Type 3

Each verbal idiom of this type can occur with one special noun in the noun phrase following the preposition, e.g. The instructor took my illness into account.

The noun (in noun phrase) cannot change form or order in any way. Consider the following sentences.
1. Mary put her scholarship to good use.
2. *Mary put her scholarship to good uses.
3. The criminal brought the truth into the open.
4. *The Criminal brought into the truth the open.

- As it is true for transitive verbal idioms, adverbs should not be placed anywhere inside the verbal idiom because an object is used.
- May put her scholarship successfully to good use.

- Other Grammatical Forms of Verbs + Preposition (Type 3): Transformation Nominalized Forms

Since ‘a special noun’ in the noun phrase is a basic part of the verbal idiom (integrated element), this type of verbal combination does not admit nominalization.

Passive Forms

- The teacher brought the idea into focus.
  The idea was brought into focus (by the teacher.)
  But we cannot transform the following sentence, for example, into passive:

☐ Bob had many problems on his mind.
  • Many problems were had on bob's mind.
  (simply because it sounds awkward, strange etc)
Category 6
Transitive Verbs with Particles and Prepositions

Here, we will deal with verbal idioms which are composed of a transitive verb + particle + preposition. An object will follow the verb and a noun phrase will follow the preposition, e.g. The participants got many ideas out of the conference.

For the grammatical rules of this verbal combination, consider the following sentences.
1. You should set aside time for a meeting.
2. You should set time aside for a meeting.
3. I got many ideas out of the conference.
4. *I got out many ideas of the conference.
5. I turned it over to my associates.
6. *I turned over it to my associates.

From the above examples, the following rules could be deduced:
• The normal position for the object is before the particle but with certain verbal idioms the object may follow the particle (This issue has been discussed in this study in detail, under Transitive Verbs + (im)movable particles).
• A pronoun form will always be placed before the particle (#5).

• Other Grammatical Forms of Transitive Verbs + Particle + Preposition:
  Transformation
Nominalized Forms
• We eventually brought them around to our point of view.
  They had a brought - around- to our point of view...

Emphatic Transform
• We eventually brought them around to our point of view.
  To this point of view we knew we would eventually bring them around.
Relative Transform

- We eventually brought them round to our point of view.

A point of view to which we eventually brought them round...

Passive Forms

- We brought Joe around to our way of thinking
- Joe was brought around to our way of thinking
- We eventually brought them round to our point of view
- They were eventually brought round to our point of view.

Summary and Conclusion for the Grammatical Behaviour of Multi-Word Verbs of English

To summarize and conclude this section, about the grammatical behaviour of multi-word verbs of English, it might be useful to provide the reader with

a) an overview of the six grammatical patterns in which multi-word verbs occur as well as their transformations. (This summary is according to Cowie et al. 1993),

b) an emphasis of the prepositions / particles and idiomatic / non-idiomatic distinctions).

a) Overview of Verb Patterns and their Transforms

Category 1

[vp] Verb + particle

The pilot took off smoothly.
The snow came down thick and fast.

[vp nom] nominalized form

The pilot made a smooth take-off,

[vp emph] emphatic transform

Down came the snow thick and fast.
Category 2

[vpr] Verb + prepositional Phrase
He glanced through the article quickly.
You can cope with these few extra people easily,

[vprnom] nominalized form
He gave the article a quick glance - through,

[vpr pass] passive transform
The article was glanced through quickly,

(vpr adj) adjective transform
The quickly glanced-through article....

[vpr emph] emphatic transform
With these few extra people you can cope easily,

[vpr rel] relative transform
These people with whom you can cope easily.

Category 3

[vp pr] verb + particle + prepositional phrase
He eagerly looked forward to his retirement.
He just scraped along on this low salary,

[vp pr pass] passive transform
His retirement was eagerly looked forward to.

[vp pr adj] adjective transform
His eagerly looked-forward-to retirement,

[vp pr emph] emphatic transform
On this low salary he just scraped along,

[vp pr rel] relative transform
This low salary on which he just scraped along.
We can play the recorded programmes (them) back.
We can play back the recorded programmes.

We can do a play-back of the recorded programmes,

The recorded programmes can be played back,

The played-back programmes...

I want walk you through (the ghost scene).
The technician will run that bit of tape (it) through again
[I want to do a walk-through of the ghost scene,
That bit of tape will be run through again,

Unemployment brought down the last Government.
This is the reel which takes up the film,

Your remarks have been taken careful note of.

Peter foists all his problems on his unfortunate friends.
I have taken careful note of your remarks,

All his problems are foisted on his unfortunate friends,
Your remarks have been taken careful note of.
Of your remarks I have taken careful note,

Remarks of which I have taken careful note.

Category 6

verb + object noun + particle + prepositional phrase.

We eventually brought them round to our point of view,

They were eventually brought round to our point of view,

To this point of view we knew we would eventually bring them round,

A point of view to which we eventually brought them round.

b) **Particles / Prepositions and Idiomatic / Non-idiomatic distinction**

After presenting, illustrating and discussing the grammatical behaviour of multi-word verbs, in the light of Cowie et al. 1993 scheme of the six patterns of phrasal verbs and their transformation, we shall try in the following paragraphs to emphasize some salient points in respect of the grammar of multi-word verbs of English.

These points are:

- (Adverb) particles / prepositions distinction and their position in clauses, sentences in relation to objects etc.
- The grammar of idiomatic multi word verbs (phrasal verbs) versus non-idiomatic ones (literal verbal combinations).

- **(Adverb) Particles / Prepositions distinction**
  
  Words like *down, in, up* are not always prepositions. Compare

  - I ran *down* the road (preposition).
  
  Please sit *down* (particle).

  - He is *in* his office (preposition).
  
  You can go *in* (particle).
• Something's climbing up my leg (preposition).

She's not up yet. (particle).

hi the expressions down the road, in his office and up my leg, the words down, in and up are prepositions: they have objects (the road, his office and my leg). In sit down, go in and she's not up, the words down, in and up have no objects. They are adverbs not prepositions. Small adverbs like these are usually called adverb(ial) particles: they include: above, about, across, ahead, along, (a)round, aside, away, back, before, behind, below, by, down, forward, in, home, near, off, on, out, over, past, through, under, up. Many words of this kind can be used as both adverb particles and prepositions, but there are some exceptions: for example back away (only adverb particles); from, during (only prepositions). This particles / prepositions distinction is crucial. Suppose that one wishes to know whether a multi-word verb containing particle can also be used with a preposition. He/she may have seen an example like this (where 'in' is a particle). 'Her train pulled in ten minutes early* and he/she wants to know whether he/she can also say the following sentence (where into is a preposition).

Her train pulled into Bristol ten minutes early.

• The Distinction between Idiomatic Multi-word verbs (Phrasal Verbs) and Non-idiomatic ones (literal verbal combinations)

The fact that a particular combination of verb + particle, for example, is idiomatic need not affect its grammar. The combination make up as used in she made up her face is quite clearly an idiom (a unit of meaning). Yet the grammar of the idiomatic make up is similar in many respects to the grammar of the non-idiomatic carry away. For instance, the direct object can be changed around in both cases:

She made up her face She made her face up.

Bill carried away the rubbish I Bill carried the rubbish away.

Similarly, it is equally possible to move the particle to the front and the subject to the end of the sentence whether you use come down idiomatically (The prices came down / Down came the prices) or non-idiomatically (The ceiling came down / Down came the ceiling).
4.2.2.3 Grammatical behaviour of Nominal, Adjectival and Adverbial Idioms: 

Idiomatic Expressions other than verbal combinations

In the previous pages, we have tried to generally describe the grammatical behaviour of multi-word verbs of English (encompassing verbal combinations whether they are idiomatic or not). In what follows an attempt will be made to cover the grammatical aspect of idiomatic expressions (other than verbal idioms). These include:

- Nominal idioms
- Adjectival idioms
- Adverbial idioms

- **Nominal Forms: Pairs** of Nouns

  The nominal idioms are formed from different parts of grammar, such as *verbs*, *prepositions*, and *real nouns*. These idioms can be used as subjects, objects, or as noun phrases after prepositions.

  Examples:
  - *Ups and downs* are a part of life (prepositions)
    (Subject)
  - The athlete put his *heart and soul* into it (nouns)
    (Object)
  - Marriage is a matter of *give and take* (verbs)
    (Noun Phrase.)

  With these Idiomatic Expressions, the pair of forms can only be joined by the conjunction *'and'*'. In addition, the order of the forms is fixed. The two words cannot exchange position in any situation. Consider the following sentences:

  The manager put his *heart* and *soul* into his work (correct conjunction).
  • The manager put his heart *or* soul into his work (incorrect conjunction).

  The car suffered a lot of *wear* and *tear*, (correct order)
  • The car suffered a lot of *tear* and *wear* (incorrect order)
It is also important to remember that the singular forms can never be made plural and, likewise, that the plural forms cannot be made singular.

I accomplished a lot of odds and ends (correct plural form).

• I accomplished an odd and end. (incorrect singular form).

These people are my flesh and blood (correct singular form).

These people are my fleshes and bloods (incorrect plural form).

Regardless of whether these idioms were formed from verbs, prepositions, or nouns, the pairs joined by and are considered to be real noun forms. This fact, along with the fact that these forms have special meanings is why we call them idioms.

Various Adjective + Noun Combinations

Besides the above pairs of nouns we can find another type of nominal forms. This type of nominal idioms is composed of various adjective + noun combinations. These combinations can be used as subjects, objects, or as noun phrases after prepositions.

Examples:

White lies are never good.

Subject

That was a very close call!

Object

I'm tired of small talk.

Noun phrase

Because these combinations are idioms, certain unexplainable rules are used, just as was the case with all various types of idiomatic expressions. One rule is that some of the nouns must be used in the plural, while others must be singular, and still others may vary inform.

I had second thoughts about marriage (plural form)

* I had a second thought about marriage, (singular form incorrect)

Joe's actually full of hot air (singular form)

* Joe's actually full of hot airs (plural form: incorrect)
I had a close call.
I have had many close calls, (both singular and plural form are correct)

Another point is that the adjectives in these idioms are restricted in form. In general, only one particular adjective can be used with any noun form to create a special idiom, and this form usually cannot be deleted or altered in any way.
The race-car driver had many close calls (correct form).
*The race-car driver had many closer calls (no alteration possible).

He's really an eager beaver about work (correct form).
*He's really a beaver, about work (no deletion possible).

- Adjectival Forms

Pairs of Adjectives

The adjectival idioms in this part are formed from different parts of grammar, such as prepositions, verbs, nouns and real adjectives.

Examples:
The judge's decision was quite fair and square, (adjectives)
The heart operation was touch and go. (Verbs)
The race was neck and neck all the way. (nouns)
MW will be up and about in two weeks, (prepositions)

With the above type of idioms, the pair of forms can only be joined by the conjunction 'and'. In addition the order of the forms is fixed. The two words cannot change position in any way.
The judge's decision was quite fair and square (correct conjunction).
The judge's decision was quite fair or square (wrong conjunction).
The lecturer's speech was short and sweet, (correct order).
The lecturer's speech was sweet and short, (incorrect order).
With some of these pairs of adjectives, the adjective form may be placed before the noun if hyphens (-) are used; in other cases, this is not possible.

Examples:

1. Our vacations were few and far between.
2. *We had few-and-far-between vacations.
3. Joe's attitude towards work was free and easy.
4. Joe had a free-and-easy attitude towards work.

To conclude this treatment of the grammar of pairs of adjectives, the following point is to be mentioned and emphasized: Regardless of whether these idioms were formed from verbs, prepositions, nouns, or real adjectives, the pairs of forms are considered to be real adjective forms. This is one reason why they are called idioms (among other reasons is that they have special meaning).

Adjectival forms: Various Compounds

Under the heading: 'Adjectival Forms', we can deal also with another type: various compounds i.e. clear-cut: we have to reduce wasteful spending and increase productivity.

• Tom, at least, made a half-hearted attempt to offer some help.
• Jane remained close-mouthed about her dismissal from work.
Although the adjectival forms, here, are made from different parts of grammar, as adjectives they cannot be changed in any way.

1. Jill is quite level-headed (correct order).
2. *Jill is quite headed-level (incorrect order).
3. Tom and Jerry had a man-to-man talk (correct singular form)
4. Tom and Jerry had a men-to-men talk, (incorrect plural form)

- Adverbial Idioms
  
  Various Adverbial Forms
  
  The adverbial idioms related forms, treated in the following paragraphs, are formed from various parts of grammar, such as nouns, adjectives, prepositions, and real adverbs. Although most use the conjunction 'and', other forms also occur.

  Examples:

  He makes the same mistake time and again (noun and adverb).
  I go to work day in and day out (nouns and prepositions)
  * Little by little Tom’s grades improved (adjectives & preposition)
  All at once it started to rain, (adjective, preposition & adverb).

  The adverbial idioms cannot be changed in form in any way. This rule also applies to the related forms.

  I like to go to the beach now and again (correct conj.)
  * I like to go to the beach now or again (incorrect conj.)
  Day in and day out, Bob stays at home, (correct order)
  * Day out and day in, Bob stays at home, (incorrect order)

  Because each adverbial idiom is composed of more than one word, it is almost never placed anywhere in the middle of a single sentence: the normal positions are either at the beginning or at the end of a sentence or clause.

  I like to go to the beach now and again, (correct position)
  Now and again I like to go to the beach, (correct position)
  * I like to go now and again to the beach, (incorrect position)
For now Tom wants to save his money, (correct position)
* Tom wants to save for now his money, (incorrect position)

The exception to the above rule is the idiom *high and low*, which can occur in the middle of a sentence, after the verbs *search* and *look*.

Jim looked for his book high and low. (correct position)

4.2.2.4 Summary for the Grammatical behaviour of Idiomatic Expressions and Multi-Word Verbs of English

From the Oxford Dictionary of English Idioms 1993 (1997 ed): General Introduction: p.xi we quote the following: as a summary of the grammatical treatment idiomatic expressions as well as indication of the six patterns scheme of the verbal combinations in English.

'To turn from volume 1 to volume 2 is to be reminded of the *enormous structural variety of English idioms*. Those treated in the first volume could be allocated to six related patterns those deal with here are found in phrase patterns - a *bargain basement*, *easy on the eye, in the nick of time* - subjectless clause patterns - *cut one's losses, paint the town red, pay sb a compliment* - and simple or complex sentence patterns — *one swallow does not make a summer, give sb an inch and he 'II take a mile*. This is to give but small sample of the great range of construction types represented....

The spread is considerably, yet the majority of entries can be classified under two general headings - *phrase idioms* and *clause idioms*. Within these major groupings are several dominant sub-categories:

...The most common *clause patterns* spanned by idioms, for instance, are the following:
Verb + complement  
go berserk
Verb + direct object  
ease sb’s conscience / mind
Verb + direct object + complement  
paint the town red
Verb + indirect object + direct object  
do sb credit
Verb + direct object + adjunct  
take sth amiss

While the most commonly occurring phrase patterns are these:

Noun phrase  
a crashing bore
Adjective phrase  
free with one's money etc.
Prepositional phrase  
in the nick of time
Adverbial phrase  
as often as not

(Cowie et al 1993: Introduction)

Regarding the grammatical behaviour of Multi-Word Verbs especially the Phrasal Verbs six categories, we round off the discussion with quoting the following from the OUP Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs. With rare exceptions, the phrasal verbs, etc. treated in the dictionary can be shown to function in one or more of six simple, active sentence patterns. These basic patterns can be divided into two groups according to transitivity (i.e. according to whether or not they contain a Direct Object). Intransitive sentences are labelled [V] and transitive sentences [Vn]. Within each of [V] and [Vn] the sentence patterns are further subdivided into [P], [Pr] and [P.Pr] according to whether they contain a particle, a preposition, or a particle and a preposition.

The whole system of six basic patterns can be represented schematically, and illustrated, as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Intransitive</th>
<th>Transitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Particle</td>
<td>[Vp]</td>
<td>[Vn.P]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preposition</td>
<td>[Vpr]</td>
<td>[Vn.pr]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Particle + Preposition</td>
<td>[Vp.pr]</td>
<td>[Vn.p.pr]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The electricity supply went off.
We were backing on a change of heart.
The committee back on an earlier plan.
The awful food turns people off.
Peterwide to all his problems on his unfortunate friends.
You can put the shortage down to bad planning.

4.2.3 A General Stylistic Study of Idiomatic Expressions and Multi-Word Verbs of English

In this section an attempt is made to provide the reader with a general description of the stylistic aspect of idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs of English.

4.2.3.1 A General Stylistic Study of Idiomatic Expressions

No lexicographer can be content with simply detailing the meaning and grammatical properties of idiomatic expressions. As the readers will come to realize many idiomatic expressions are restricted to particular group of users or particular occasions of use, or indicate the speaker's attitude to the persons or events denoted, or are used to perform special functions (for example, greetings or warnings). The native speaker knows for instance that expressions such as drive sb crazy or be no great shakes are more likely to crop up during relaxed conversation between friends than in an official document or formal essay, while stand easy and mark time (in a non-figurative sense) suggest the specialized language or register of military commands.

The style of an idiom is regarded as the relation of certain variable factors in situations in that idiom is normally used. Among the most significant of those are:

i. The social relationship between the speakers or correspondents (which may be that of friend to friend, or employer to employee, etc),

ii. The setting (communication may take place over a drink in a bar, or at an official reception).
iii. The degree of seriousness, lightheartedness, etc adopted by the speaker - possibly as imposed or suggested by the setting (compare the pre-match banter in a changing-room with discussion at a board-meeting).

So, idioms can be said to differ along a scale from formal to informal according to the variation in the above factors considered together thus:

i. A 'formal' idiomatic expression will tend to reflect a distant rather than a close relationship; be more likely to be associated with an official setting; and tend to suggest a serious or elevated tone:

  e.g. (make answer / reply) -

  He presented an Address from the House of Commons to which her Majesty was graciously pleased to make reply -

ii. An 'informal' idiomatic expression reflects an intimate rather than a distant relationship; a domestic rather than an official occasion; an easy, relaxed attitude; e.g. take it easy.

  • You make a mistake in answering him back, though, mate. He doesn't like that, old Frank doesn't. Just take it easy,

  • Myra, love, you'd better take it easy.

(Here both examples are of reported conversation between close acquaintances; mate and love are indicators of intimacy)

Readers should note that most idioms are stylistically neutral in the sense that they fall somewhere between the limits represented by the labels (formal) and (informal). They should bear in mind / note also that stylistic values are constantly shifting, and that the conventions observed by individual speakers and writers differ considerably.

It is important also that idioms should not be confused with colloquial language or slang. Colloquial language is used when people are speaking informally and it may contain idioms, but not necessarily. Slang means informal words or expressions used by a particular group of people (e.g. young people) usually to distinguish themselves from
others. Again, Slang often contains idioms, but not necessarily. So idioms are not something 'special' or 'sub-standard*: They are a vital part of the standard language.

In the following paragraphs we shall treat briefly some important issues related to style: register, provenance and currency.

Register

The occupational or professional fields with which certain expressions are particularly associated are not ranged along a scale, and the labels used ... generally designate separate areas. The examples below show a selection of register variations / categorizations:

foul play (sport)
even odds (horse-racing)
break even (commerce)
a closed-shop (industrial relations)
grievous bodily harm (legal)
make (sth) fast (esp. nautical)
give sb etc his marching orders (military)

Provenance and Currency

Some idioms have different forms in British and American English. Note the American equivalent for each of these British idioms)

1. be left holding the baby. (B.E.)
   be left holding the bag. (A.E.)

2. have green fingers. (B.E.)
   have a green thumb. (A.E.)

3. throw a spanner in the works. (B.E.)
   throw a monkey wrench in the works. (A.E.)
4. be all fingers and thumbs. (B.E.)
be all thumbs. (A.E.)

5. blow your own trumpet. (B.E.)
blow your own horn. (A.E.)

However, there are idiomatic expressions which are solely, or principally, American which have a marginal status in British English. These are idioms which though not fully established in British usage, and still regarded as "American" by some speakers, are nonetheless used often enough to merit attention and consideration.

4.2.3.2 A General Stylistic Study of Multi-Word Verbs of English

Here, we shall try to provide the reader with a general description of the style aspect of multi-word verbs of English.

Since learners often find it difficult to identify, or use in right contexts, items which are restricted in style, evaluation or technical field, a clear indication of their labeling / markings should be presented to help them. Style markings / labelings given to multi-word verbs (in dictionaries) reflect various factors in the situations in which they are normally used. The most important of these factors are:

- The relationship between the speakers or correspondents (remote or official, or intimate and relaxed.).
- Whether one is speaking or writing (compare a spoken commentary on a football match with a newspaper report of it).
- The level of seriousness, detachment etc. suggested or imposed by the occasion (compare a speech at an official banquet with one given at a farewell party for a personal friend).

Considering the above factors, multi-word verbs can be said to differ along a scale (formal, informal, etc.)

So we can distinguish the following categories:
Formal

Reflecting distant rather than a close relationship; used when speaking or writing in a serious or official context (e.g. in a letter to a civil servant or a bank manager): *accrue* (to) (from) ... Interest at 8.5% *accrues* to *us from* a building society account.

Informal

Intimate rather than distant; spoken rather than written; relaxed and casual rather than grand or imposing; e.g. *pass out*:

I'd only have to point a gun at him and say bang, bang, and the little twerp (=unworthy person) would paw out cold from fright

Slang

Usually met in (and invariably derived from) the spoken language; suggesting an easy and intimate relationship between the speakers; serving to establish and reinforce the 'togetherness' of particular sub-groups in society, e.g. the police, the criminals, etc. and their distinctness from other groups; tending to date quickly, and therefore needing to be used with care by foreign speakers:

*bang up*: He said sex was no fun if you couldn't get a girl *banged up*.

Taboo

'Swear words: highly informal; generally avoided by educated male speakers when in the company of women and children, though conventions vary greatly from speaker to speaker, as well as from one social group to another, often expressing tension, irritation, anger, etc: best avoided by foreign speakers: e.g. *bugger off*:

If you' are going to be rude you can *bugger off*.

To conclude this section about the stylistic behaviour of multi-word verbs the following points might be necessary.

- We should note that it is impossible to assign fixed "stylistic values to most items which call for marking of some kind.

The boundary between 'formal' and 'informal' usage is constantly shifting, and the conventions observed by individual speakers and writers differ very considerably.
• It is often said that multi-word verbs tend to be rather 'colloquial' or 'informal', and more appropriate to spoken English than written, and even that it is better to avoid them and choose single-word equivalents or synonyms instead. Yet in many cases multi-word verbs and their synonyms have different ranges of use, meaning, or collocation, so that a single-word synonym cannot be substituted for a multi-word verb. Single word synonyms are much more formal in style than multi-word verbs, so that they seem out of place in many contexts, and students using them run the risk of sounding pompous or just unnatural.

• This stylistic difference between single-word verb and its equivalent multi-word could be shown by presenting and examining the following examples: (Note that in the first example, 'bring up' is mostly used for the moral and social training that children receive at home while educate is used for the intellectual and cultural training that people get at school and university)-

• Lucy was brought up by her grand parents and educated at the local secondary schools

• What time are you planning to turn up. (multi-word verb: informal)
  Please let us know when you plan to arrive? (Single-word verb more formal)

• Just keep on till you get to the crossroads (Multi-word verbs: informal).
  Continue as far as crossroads, (single-word verb:formal)

Sometimes a particular multi-word verb is only used in formal or technical contexts, or it is found mainly in either British English or American English.
4.2.3.3 Summary

In the previous paragraphs, we have tried to provide the reader with a general description of the stylistic behaviour of idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs of English. However as a conclusion for this section, it might be useful to mention the following two points which will be of particular interest to advanced foreign students and teachers:

- The first point focusses on the feature that proverbs and catchphrases may be structurally shortened for a variety of reasons and with a number of effects. Traditional sayings of a given structural type tend to be used in a narrow and stereotyped set of functions. Thus *a stitch in time saves nine* and *the early bird catches the worm* are typically used to comment approvingly on timely or judicious action or to reinforce a recommendation. Often it will be felt sufficient to hint at the whole by the use of a part, as in such utterances, as *'A stitch in time, you knowl* Sometimes, the fragment will take on a life of its own as a phrase idiom, as is the case with *an early bird.* This co-exists in present-day usage alongside the saying from which it originated.

- A second point is the creation of idiomatic expressions and the achievement of humorous effects by the manipulations of them normally regarded as fixed calls for a degree of cultural or literary awareness possessed only by mature native speakers of the language. Consider in this respect the following catchphrases:
  
  *The buck stops here* and *if you can't stand the heat, get out of the kitchen* which were first spoken by the Late President Truman; and their association with him, combined with the vigour and freshness of his language, ensured that they were taken up and repeated more widely. As in many similar cases, both the function and form of these catchphrases are varied from time to time, as the following quotation from an article on the Vietnam war makes clear:
  
  *The harsh truth is that the buck started here (i.e. in the US) and that it stops here as well.* This example of nonce variations in an expression whose original form is well-known brings us to the point that sentence idioms in particular are commonly refashioned by native speakers to achieve a variety of striking effects.

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In this section an attempt will be made to cover the following points:

- Definition of idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs of English.
- The relationship between idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs of English.
- Lexico-semantic study of idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs of English.

4.3.1. Definition of Idiomatic Expressions and Multi-Word Verbs of English

Why the two terms idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs are chosen as basic components in the title of this study? Before presenting and discussing the different definitions of idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs of English, I would like to account briefly for choosing these two terms as basic components of the title of this study. For the first one, idiomatic expressions, is preferable to the term *idioms* since it suggests that they are composed of more than one word: they are expressions - multi-word items. The second one, multi-word verbs, is chosen because of its breadth of coverage and focus. It includes idiomatic verbal combinations (known usually as phrasal verbs) and those which are non-idiomatic (literal verbal combinations). So, the term multi-word verbs has advantage over other terms such as 'phrasal verb', 'two-parts verbs' etc. The reader should be reminded that, in general, 'phrasal verbs' and 'idioms' are used interchangeably with the terms 'multi-words verbs' and 'idiomatic expressions' respectively throughout the relevant literature, but the researcher tried to confine himself to the latter pair i.e. idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs whenever it is possible and appropriate for context.

There is a wild diversity and disagreement over the exact definitions of idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs of English. The precision of the wording varies. So too, enormously, does the interpretation as Wood (1980) put it.

However, in the following pages, there will be a presentation and discussion of some of the definitions of idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs of English: (Note that some of the definitions provided in this section have been presented and discussed in chapter two of the present study)-
4.3.1.1 Definition of Idiomatic Expressions

It is apparent that many of the disagreements over how best to account for the nature and behaviour of idioms can be traced back to an initial disagreement over what actually is an idiom and why. It seemed more valuable therefore to work out, carefully and thoroughly a definition of idiomatic expression and its implications. In respect of the issue of diversity, disagreement etc. let us quote from Wood 1980: Introduction:

'... The wild diversity is also both an effect and a cause of disagreement, over the exact definition of 'idiom' and its interpretation. The vast majority of idiomatologists, after more or less reflection, settle for a definition along the lines of a complex expression / phrase whose meaning is not a compositional function of / not made up of the meaning of its parts': The precision of the wording varies. So too, enormously, does the interpretation. Must the meaning of the whole be completely unrelated to the meanings of the parts, or only not completely predicatable?

Need the expression be ambiguous?

Must the unit be a phrase and the parts words, or is a word related non-compositionally to its constituent morphemes an idiom? And so on': (Wood 1980: Introduction)

1. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary Definition of Idiomatic Expressions

IDIOM (Only sense 3 is relevant to our term).

1. The style of writing, music, art, etc. associated with a particular period, individual or group; today's idiom, popular / religious / classical idiom.

2. The language or dialect of a group of people or a country: have an ear for Irish idiom.

3. A phrase or sentence whose meaning is not clear from the meaning of its individual words and which must be learnt as a whole unit, e.g. give way, a change of heart, be hard put to it.

(OALDCE, 5th ed. 1996:589)
IDIOMATIC (adj):

1. Using or containing expressions that are natural to a native speaker of a language:
   *She speaks fluent and idiomatic French.*
2. Containing an idiom (sense 3 above) or idioms: an idiomatic expression / language.

An idiomatic rendering of a piano concerto.

(ODALDCE, 1996:589)

A more clarification of the term 'idioms' is given at Study Page A6 (between page 278-279) of the Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary of Current English. Under 'What are Idioms' we can read the following:

'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 comparisons:
- 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...

In OALDCE (P.XXVI), we can read also the following:
'... knowledge of the meaning and correct use of expressions such as make up one's mind, be all ears, with all one's heart etc.
These are called 'idioms' or idiomatic expressions. They are groups of two or more words which must be learnt as a whole because the meaning of the expression may be different from the meanings of its parts. An example is: hit the nail on the head, which means guess right'.

2. Ball's (1958) definition:
'...The use of familiar words in an unfamiliar sense" seems to me to be as adequate a definition as the foreign student is likely to need, and it has the merit of giving him a simple standard by which he can discriminate idiom from non-idiom. For instance, he knows the meaning of both words in Sunday Week, but unless he knows the idiom, its meaning of not next Sunday, but the Sunday after that will escape him. In the same way the use of it is unfamiliar in the question Who is if?; this is the way to challenge someone to give his name, who has just knocked at the door".

The above precise brief wording of the definition given by Ball is preceded by his consideration of seven features of language that are embraced by that definition (Ball: 1958:1):

1. **Ordinary Grammatical Usage**

Consider, for instance, the tense usages in the following:
It's time we went home (simple past).
When you *come* tomorrow, I will pay you back the one pound I owe you (present simple).
(both expressing future situations.)

2. **Deviations from Strict Grammar**

Many colloquial uses are strictly speaking "ungammatical". But it must not be assumed that all deviations from grammar are *bad English*. Thus we normally say:

// 's *me* (him, her, ...) and not // 's *I* (he, she, ...).

We say:

*It's ages since we met.*

3. **Allusive Expressions**

There is a kind of expression that appears to have straightforward interpretation, but idiomatically means something quite different. It is usually impossible to guess its meaning. Here are a few examples:

That will do (=enough).
Let's call it a day (=Let's stop work now).

4. **Conventional Phrases of Many Kinds**

Most of these are phrases which we use unthinkingly e.g.: the greeting *How d'you doi* (to which the correct response is the same phrase) does not ask about your health or how you are getting on.

5. **Many Uses of the Phrasal Verbs**

A few examples of this very important feature of colloquial idiom must suffice:
I can't *make out* what he is doing.
Don't *let on* what I told you.
I can't *put up with* it any longer.
6. The Phenomenon of English Word Order

English has lost most of its inflections and so has to rely on word order for meaning.

Compare

It may be well ahead of time.

and

It may well be ahead of time.

7. The picturesque and Metaphorical Types of Idioms

English people are less fond of the picturesque idiom (e.g. It rains cats and dogs) but the next largest class of idioms is that of well established sayings and proverbs. Some examples are:

Don't count your chickens before they're hatched.
Don't wash your dirty linen in public.

3. Charles Hockett's Definition

Hockett in his 1958 'Course in Modern linguistics' is the first of the modern western grammarians to give serious consideration on 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 in pronouns, proper names, figures of speech, and private family languages. Idioms formation is a constant process, and Hockett makes the significant point that:

'The less productive a pattern is, the more likely it is that if a new form does not get coined by the pattern, it will have idiomatic value'. (Hockett 1958: 308).

Hockett's definition offers some interesting contrasts with later ones:
Firstly, idiomaticity is taken to be completely pervasive (= present and seen or felt everywhere) of language.
Secondly, Hockett deliberately and carefully admits morphemes to idiom status. (While all the other definitions we shall look at exclude single morphemes (by referring to 'morphemes arrangements', 'a group of morphemes', or specifying an idiom as a complex, a morpheme as a complex expression) or even words).
And thirdly, it is not particular forms which are idioms but occurrences of forms in the context of particular utterances.

4. **Katz and Postal's (1963) Definition**
In their 'Semantic Interpretation of Idioms and Sentences Containing Them: 1963, the 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 1963:275).

5. **Alan Healey's (1968) Definition**
He defines an 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 subgrouping thereof.

(Healey 1968:73)
'A semantic unit—...one which does not have a direct symbolization of its own but which trades on the symbolization of another or (others) - can be called idiom'

(Chafe 1970:44)

7. Bruce Fraser's (1970) Definition
He claims that an idiom is
'a constituent or series of constituents for which the semantic interpretation is not a compositional function of the formatives of which it is composed'.

(Fraser 1970:22)

8. Uriel Weinreich's (1972) Definition
'... Idiomaticity - a phenomenon which may be described as the use of segmentally complex expression whose semantic structure is not deducible jointly from their syntactic structure and the semantic structure of their components'.

(Weinreich 1972:89)

'... almost every linguist, or philologist for that matter, who considered the problem, saw something else in idiomaticity. To some, it was a matter of UNUSUAL ENCODING, that is, a PHRASEOLOGICAL problem; to others a matter of MISUNDERSTANDABILITY, that is AMBIGUOUS DECODABILITY; and again to others the failure to understand a form despite previous familiarity with the meanings of its constituents, and so forth'.

(Makkai 1972: Preface)

'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)
10. **Ruhl's (1977) Definition**

'An idiom is a construction whose words occur elsewhere but never with the same meaning as in this construction. This definition allows the possibility that the words may contribute to, yet not fully account for, the meaning of the construction'.

(Ruhl 1977:455)

11. **Michael Swan's (1980) Definition**

Under 'what are Idioms'?

He writes,

'An expression like *turn up* (meaning 'arrive') *break even* (meaning 'make neither a profit nor a loss') or *a can of worms* (meaning 'a complicated problem') can be difficult to understand, because its meaning is different from the meanings of the separate words in the expression, (If you know *break* and *even* this does not help you at all to understand 'break even'). Expressions like these are called *idioms*. Idioms are usually special to one language and cannot be translated word for word (though related languages may share some idioms').

(Swan 1980:243).

On pages (243-4), in a sub-title: Collocations: (Conventional Combinations) we read the following:

'We can talk about *a burning desire* or *a blazing row*, but, we don't say *a blazing desire* or *a burning row*. Somebody can be *a heavy smoker* or *a devoted friend*, but not *a devoted smoker* or *a heavy friend*.

Expressions like these are also idiomatic, in a sense. They are easy to understand, but not so easy for a learner to produce correctly. One can think of many adjectives that might be used with *smoker* to say that *somebody smokes a lot* - for example *big, strong, hard, fierce, mad, devoted*. It just happens that English speakers have chosen to use *heavy*, and one has to know this in order to express the idea correctly. (A learner who uses the wrong words for an idea like this may be understood, but he or she will not sound natural)-

(Swan 1980: 243-4).
From the same reference above, we quote — under the heading 'Situational Language'- the following:

The expressions that are used in typical everyday situations are often idiomatic in the same sense. With the help of a dictionary and a grammar, one could invent various possible ways of expressing a particular idea but generally there are only one or two ways that happen to be used by English speakers and one has to know what they are in order to speak or write naturally. Some examples are:

- Could you check the oil?
  (More natural than Could you inspect the oil? Or Could you see how much oil there is in the engine?).
- Is it a direct flight or do I have to change?
  (More natural than Does the plane go straight there or do I have to get another one?).
- Sorry I kept you waiting.
  (More natural than Sorry I made you wait.)
- Could I reserve a table for three for eight O' clock?
  (More natural than Could you keep me a table for three persons for eight O' clock?)

(Swan 1997)

   In his book 'Practice with Idioms, page xvii, he provides the following definition for idiom:

   'What exactly is an idiom? This is not an easy question to answer, because many parts of speech be called idioms. In general, however, an idiom is an expression which has a special meaning, and this meaning cannot be understood completely by looking at the individual words in the idiom'.

   (Feare1980:xvii)

In their book "English Idioms" 1988 (5th ed): they give the following definition: (under the sub-heading 'What is an idiom?'), we read:

'It is important to realize that idioms are not only colloquial expressions, as many people believe. They appear in formal style and in slang, in poetry, in the language of Shakespeare and the Bible. What then is an idiom? An idiom can be defined as a number of words which, when taken together, have a different meaning from the individual meanings of each word'.

(Sedil and McMordie 1909:123).

14. The Dictionary of American Idioms' Definition

It gives the following definition, in its preface:

'An idiom is the assigning of a new meaning to a group of words which already have their own meaning'.

15. A Dictionary of Problems: Words and Expressions' Definition

On page 27 under the heading: 'Idiomatic Usage', it provides the following definition:

'The words idiom and idiomatic come from Greek terms the key meaning of which is "peculiar or individual". Idiomatic expressions conform to no basic principles in their formation and are indeed laws into themselves'.

16. Webster's Collegiate Dictionary's Definition

Sense 3

'An expression in the usage of a language, that is peculiar to itself either in • grammatical construction or in having a meaning which cannot be derived as a whole from the conjoined meanings of its elements'.
Michael J. Wallace's 1982 Definition

One of the problems is the problem of definition: the word idiom is often used in different ways to mean different things. Let us try, therefore, to establish a working definition. Here are some idioms with their meanings: Let the cat out of the bag (=reveal a secret); lick someone's boots (=humble oneself to gain someone's favour); rain cats and dogs (=rain heavily); Storm in a teacup (=fuss about something that is not really important); Off the cuff (=not prepared beforehand).

What is it that they have in common? One could suggest two things.

• First, these expressions are fixed collocations....

However, some collocations are fairly loosely related ...

With idioms, this freedom of collocation is much more restricted.

Using the examples we have noted, it would be odd to say:

They have let several cats out of bags (=revealed several secrets); he goes about licking people's sandals; yesterday it rained dogs and cats; the teacup has just had a storm; he made an off his-cuff remark, and so on. Generally speaking, however, idioms operate in some ways as if they were compound words, and the number of changes that can be made are very limited.

• The second important thing which all idioms have in common is that they cannot be decoded (understood) from the literal or ordinary meaning of the words they contain: we can say that they are semantically opaque. Going back to our examples, we can take let the cat out of the bag or rain cats and dogs. The meanings of these expressions have no obvious connection with cats, dogs or bags!.

However, it could be suggested that a practical definition of 'idiom' for teaching purpose will contain three elements:

• Idioms consist of more than one word:

1- Idioms are fixed collocations; and

2- Idioms are semantically opaque,


Under Functional Idioms: Sayings and Catchphrases p.xi, we read:

'... What such expressions have in common is that they are idioms; generally of sentence length, and often long established in usage, which are used to perform communicative functions (speech acts) of various kinds. These features can be illustrated by considering the form of the following catchphrase and its explanatory gloss: did he fall or was he pushed? (catchphrase) a humorous or ironic enquiry into the cause of some apparent injury or accident (originally a music hall joke).

The two categories can be further distinguished as follows:

(i) **Sayings** - Whose form is often made striking and memorable by rhythm, assonance etc. are used to make comments and recommendations, or issue warnings and prohibitions, which enshrine traditional values and sanctions. *Out of sight out of mind.* (Usually a comment on sb or sth that can easily be forgotten, or on sb of a forgetful nature).

(ii) **Catchphrases**: are expressions often originating with a person prominent in public life, or in the world of entertainment etc, and which on passing into more general currency acquire other functions or are used with reference to other events: *diamonds are a girl’s best friend* (diamonds, or gifts with a lasting cash value, esp. from a lover or succession of lovers, are an insurance for one’s future).

(Oxford Dictionary of English Idioms 1993:xii)


Wood (1981) precedes her definition by considering two terms: *Compositionality* and productivity.

'... Semantic compositionality constitutes a continuum, shading by gradual degrees from total non-compositionality to fully regular combination, for both phrases and compound words. True idioms must be wholly non-compositional, in contrast to collocations and other semi-compositional expressions. (This criterion is preferable to that of ambiguity, rules out decomposition of an idiom in the lexicon, and admits expressions with an opaque cranberry - constituent as idioms).
Productivity of form is similarly shown to be gradient, forming a continuum from complete frozenness to full freedom of combination: the term 'idiom' is (again) restricted to zero point. Structurally opaque expressions qualify as idioms, and compound words are not excluded. Our definition is therefore:

An idiom is a complex expression which is wholly non-compositional in meaning and wholly non-productive in form'.

(Wood 1981:6)

After quoting from Wood 1981:synopsis, we shall turn to the conclusion of her text (A definition of Idiom) for more clarification of her definition.

'... Our definition of idiom will invoke two principles, compositionality of meaning and productivity of form.'

She continued to formulate her definition.

'We are now in a position to attempt our own definition of idiom. Let us therefore recapitulate the decisions reached on the various questions and criteria we have discussed.

1. True idioms are wholly non-compositional, or opaque in meaning.
2. Ambiguity is a common but not a necessary feature of idiomaticity.
3. The meaning of an idiom should not be distributed over the entries of its constituents in a lexicon.
4. Form with a unique constituent need not be idioms, but those containing a cranberry-form are.
5. True idioms can be opaque in structure.
6. True idioms are wholly non-productive in form.
7. Single compound words can be idioms.

It is neither necessary nor appropriate to specify all the seven points in the wording of a definition. Most are implications or consequences ...

We therefore propose the following definition:

An idiom is a complex expression which is wholly non-compositional in meaning and wholly non-productive in form'.

(Wood 1981:95)
A comprehensive definition of idiomatic expressions is articulated in Cowie et al 1993 which might serve as summary and conclusion for this subsection:

'The best-known approach to the definition of idiomaticity, and one which linguists as well as dictionary-makers have helped to popularize, fastens on the difficulty of interpreting idioms in terms of the meanings of their constituent words. Definitions such as the following are representative of this approach:

... groups of words with set meanings that cannot be calculated by adding up the separate meanings of the parts.

... peculiarity of phraseology ... having meaning not deducible from those of the separate words ...

However, defining idioms in a way which throws emphasis on ease or difficulty of interpretation leaves a great deal unsaid ...

However, an approach based simply on the semantic opaqueness (or transparency) of whole combinations yield a very small class of idioms. It leaves out of account, for example, an important group of expressions which have figurative meanings (in terms, of the whole combination in each case) but which also keep a current literal interpretation. Among such 'figurative idioms' are catch fire and close rank. There is other evidence, too, especially the fact that a small number of words can be substituted in expressions often regarded as opaque (consider burn one's boats or bridges), that idioms are not divided as a small water-tight category from non-idioms but are related to them along a scale or continuum.

A view of idiomaticity which does full justice to the rich diversity of word-combinations in English must recognize that the meaning of a combination may be related to those of its components in a variety of ways, and must take account also of the possibility of internal variation, or substitution of part for part. The application of both criteria together produces a complex categorization:
i. **Pure idioms:** Though discussions of idiomaticity at both a technical and non-technical level are usually limited to the type illustrated by *blow the gaff* and *kick the bucket* (surely the most often quoted idiom of all), idioms in the strict sense comprise only one, and certainly not the largest, of a spectrum of related categories. Historically, pure idioms form the end point of a process by which word-combinations first establish themselves through constant re-use, then undergo-figurative extension and finally petrify or congeal.

ii. **Figurative idioms:** This category has already been identified. It is idiomatic in the sense that variation is seldom found (though note *act that part or role; a close, narrow shave*) and pronoun substitution unlikely (though consider *Bill had a narrow shave* and *Fred an even narrower one*). The merging of this group into that of pure idioms is illustrated by such expressions as *beat one's breast* and *(again) burn one's boats.* The literal senses of these expressions do not survive alongside their figurative ones in normal, everyday use and for some speakers they may indeed be unrelatable. For such speakers these expressions fall into the category of pure idioms.

iii. **Restricted Collocations:** In such combinations, sometimes referred to as 'semi-idioms', one word (i.e. in the case of two-word expressions) has a figurative sense not found outside that limited context. The other element appears in a familiar, literal sense (cf. the verb and noun, respectively, *in jog one 's/sb 's memory*) and the adjective and noun in *a blind alley.* Some members of this category allow a degree of lexical variation (consider, for instance, *a cardinal error, sin, virtue, grace*), and in this respect 'restricted' collocations resemble 'open' ones. Another point of similarity is that the 'literal' element is sometimes replaced by a pronoun.
4.3.1.2 Definition of Multi-Word Verbs Of English

One approach would be to use the familiar term 'phrasal verb' (itself indicating unity) to refer to idiomatic verbal combinations of various types though not to the non-diomatic ones. But, 'phrasal verb' is understood in different ways by different grammarians and teachers etc, and must be used with some care. However, in what follows an attempt will be made to define the broadest term 'multi-word verbs'.

1. **Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English's Definition**

'a simple verb combined with an adverb or a preposition, or sometimes both, to make a new verb with a meaning that is different from that of the simple verb, e.g. go in for, win over, blow up'.


Also in the same reference mentioned-above (A2 Study page) between pp.278 and 279, under What are Phrasal Verbs we read:

'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*.

2. **Michael Swan's (1980) Definition**

Swan 1980 (1997 ed: 15), under the heading Phrasal Verbs, writes:

'Adverb particles often join together with verbs to make two-word verbs, sometimes with completely new meanings (e.g. break down, put off, work out, give up). These are often called 'phrasal verbs'.

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On page 243 of the same reference, we read:

'Common short verbs like *bring, come, do, get, give, go, have, keep, make, put* and *take* are very often used with prepositions or adverb particles (e.g. on, off, up, away) to make two-word verbs. These are called 'prepositional' verbs' or 'phrasal verbs', and many of them are idiomatic.

Can you *look after* the cats while I'm away?

She just doesn't know how to *bring up* children.

I *gave up* chemistry because I didn't like it.

(Swan 1997:243)

For more details about multi-word verbs (phrasal and prepositional verbs as Swan referred to them) let us quote the following:

Under 'Verbs with Prepositions and Particles':

1. Two-word verbs

   Many English verbs can be followed by prepositions or adverbs particles:
   - Alan *walked down* the road without looking at anybody.
   - Do *sit down*.

   Some verbs and prepositions / particles are regularly used together: for example *look at, listen to, stand up, switch off*.

   These combinations are rather like two-word verbs. They are often called 'phrasal verbs' in grammars. The meaning of a two-word verb is sometimes very different from the meaning of the two parts taken separately:
   - Could you look after the kids while I'm out?
     
     *(Look after is not the same as look+qfter)*
   - We had to *put off* the meeting till Tuesday.
     
     *(put off is not the same as put+off.)*

   Then Swan mentioned another type of multi-word verbs -i.e a three word verb under the heading "verbs with prepositions and particles together":

   'Some verbs can be used with both an adverb particle and a preposition':
   - I *get on with* her quite well.
   - If you're on the road on Saturday night, *look out for* drunk drivers.

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A.F. Cowie and R. Mackin's Definition (1993)

Under the sub-heading What is a Phrasal Verb? Cowie and Mackin, in their 'Oxford Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs', provide the following definition:

'In English, verbs are often put together with short adverbs (or particles) as in run back, put (the dish) down, warm (the milk) up.

Verbs often combine with PREPOSITIONS too, as in come into (the room), drop (the vase) on (the floor), translate (the play) into (French).

All these combinations are easy to understand, because you can work out their meanings from those of the individual verbs and particles or prepositions. (So, put the dish down means place the dish in a lower position). But sometimes the combinations are more difficult to understand. Look at the combination break out (verb+particle) as it is used in this sentence:

Cholera broke out in the north of the country.

In this example, the verb break doesn't have the meaning it has in phrases like break a window or break a stick. And 'out' doesn't mean 'outside in the open'. The combination has to be understood as one unit of meaning 'start suddenly or violently'. When a verb + particle (or a verb + preposition) is a unit of meaning like this it is a phrasal verb.

Sometimes you will find a verb, a particle and a preposition combining to form one unit of meaning. A well-known example is 'put up with' (meaning 'tolerate'). This too is a phrasal verb'.

Cowie and Mackin 1993 (3rd impr 1994); xi.

The same reference above (page 423) provides the following in defining phrasal verbs:

'The basic requirement that expressions have to meet for inclusion in this volume is a simple one; all consist of, or include, a verb and a particle or preposition (i.e. one of the words down, for, in, off, on, up, with, etc). Most entries consist of simple combinations of verb + particle or verb + preposition, e.g., back down, fall through, close up, puzzle out; abide by, come across, run into, take to; but there is a sizeable group containing both a particle and a preposition - put up with, set down as, take out on. A considerable number of entries, too, deal with more complex types, many with a noun,
and sometimes also an adjective, as fixed elements in addition to the verb and preposition of particle: get access to, give scope for, let off steam, lose track of, make a mental note of

(Cowie & Makin 1993:423).


In his book: 'Teaching Vocabulary', he provides 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. Here are some examples of multi-word verbs:

abide by cave in move down take in
add up cross off own up take on
become of do without parcel up while away
burn down give up puff away workout
come down with cut back on
get off with stand up to


• What is not a multi-word verb?

An important point to mention, before concluding this sub-section, (in respect of the definition of multi-word verb) is: What is not a multi-word verb?

Take for instance, the verb + adjective combination which is very similar to multi-word verbs.

Compare:

*He put the cloth straight.*

*He put it out;*

where only 'put out' is considered a multi-word verb.

Both combinations form close units but the adjectives in the verb-adjective combinations have their individual meaning and their grammatical properties consider:

John didn't put the table cloth as [straight ] as Mary.

• out
Adjectives in combinations like *cut short, rub dry, scrub clean, set free, dye red, wash clean, work loose* etc., selected from a rather restricted range of adjectives are not multi-word verbs.

- Conclusion for the Definition(s) of Idiomatic Expressions and Multi-Word Verbs of English

Idiomatic Expressions Definition(s)

After considering the various definitions of idiomatic expressions the researcher is for Wood 1981 definition which is as follows:

'An idiom is a complex expression which is wholly non-compositional in meaning and wholly non-productive in form'.

In brief, the reason for this preference is that it seems comprehensive and valid. It caters for meaning and form of these expressions.

The researcher also found Michael Wallace's (1982) definition as one of the comprehensive and working definitions:

'... 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'.

(Wallace 1982:118)

The reader is also referred to Cowie et.al's (1993) definition which seems comprehensive and valid.

Multi-word verbs' & Definition(s)

Regarding multi-word verb the definitions below seem adequate and comprehensive
• OUP Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs 1994

'In English verbs are often put together with short adverbs or (particles) as in run back, put (the dish) down and warm (the milk) up. Verbs often combine with prepositions, too, as in come into (the room),...'

• M. Wallace 1982

'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. Here are some examples of multi-word verbs:

... add up,
... take on,
... workout'.


• Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of current English's definition represents one of the most adequate and comprehensive definitions of multi-word verbs:

'a simple verb combined with an adverb or a preposition or sometimes both, to make a new verb with a meaning that is different from that of the simple verb, e.g. go in for, win over, blow up.'


Also in the same reference (A2. Study Page) under "what are phrasal verbs", we read:

'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 called PARTICLES'.


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4.3.2 What is the relationship between idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs of English?

On encountering the title "Teaching and Learning of Idiomatic Expressions and Multi-Word Verbs of English (in the context of Sudan)" - the title of this research, the reader may well ask why idiomatic expressions and multi-word are brought together: What is the relation between these two parts? This section is a brief reply of some sort to this question.

In short, some of the idiomatic expressions are multi-word verbs particularly those which are termed phrasal verbs. Not all idiomatic expressions are phrasal verbs: there are other different idiomatic constructions: nominal, adjectival and adverbial categories. One can say that not all idiomatic expressions are multi-word verbs (there are others as indicated above) and not all multi-word verbs are idiomatic expressions: there is another type - beside the phrasal verbs - which is literal or non-idiomatic verbal combinations.

This relation between idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs could be diagrammed as follows: (The shaded area is the shared area between the two components)
Wallace (1982:124) indicates explicitly the relationship between idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs:

Idioms and multi-word verbs present many similarities in treatment from a teaching and a learning point of view largely because they occupy overlapping areas in language.

There are many phrasal verbs, of course, which are complete idioms ...

*Show someone up* (=humiliate),

*make something up* (=invent),

*smoke someone out* (=expose) and so on.

(Wallace 1982:124)

However, the relation between idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs could be clarified further by considering the following pairs of examples:

- He *took off the* table-cloth (multi-word verb: literal/non-idiomatic)
- He *took off the* Prime Minister to perfection (Multi-word verb: idiomatic / phrasal verb).
- It was a relief to *take off ova* wet boots (a multi-word verb: literal/non-idiomatic)
- The plane *took off at 7*. (Multi-word verb: a phrasal verb/idiomatic).

To sum up, idiomatic expressions are not always multi-word verbs; multi-word verbs are not always idiomatic expressions i.e. idiomatic expressions include other categories than verbal combinations: these are nominal, adjectival and adverbial idioms while multi-word verbs encompass, besides the idiomatic verbal combinations, literal constructions.
4.3.3 A Lexico-Semantic Study of Idiomatic Expressions and Multi-Word Verbs of English

In this section, we will try to provide the reader with a brief account of the lexico-semantic properties of idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs of English. The section will attempt to cover the following issues in respect of those two components of vocabulary:

a. Approach to a lexico-semantic description.

b. Idiomaticity and non-idiomaticity.

c. Collocation.

d. Synonymy, antonymy.

4.3.3.1 Lexico-semantic study of multi-word verbs of English

As an introduction to this sub-section, I will demonstrate and show that multi-word verbs carry meaning, in general, and particles / prepositions in particular, often have meanings which contribute to a variety of verbal combinations. In English, verbs are often put together with short adverbs (or particles), as in run back, put (the dish) down, warm (the milk) up. Verbs often combine with prepositions too, come into (the room), drop (the vase) on (the floor), translate (the play) into (French). All these combinations are easy to understand, because you can work out their meanings from those of the individual verbs and particles or prepositions (so, put the dish down means 'place the dish in a lower position'). But sometimes the combinations are more difficult to understand. Look at the combination 'break out' (verb + particle) as it is used in this sentence:

Cholera broke out in the north of the country: In this example, the verb break doesn't have the meaning it has in phrases like break a window or break a stick. And out doesn't mean outside in the open. The combination has to be understood as one unit, meaning 'start suddenly or violently'.

The component multi-word verbs is constantly growing and changing. New combinations appear and spread. Yet combinations are rarely made on a random basis, but form patterns which to some extent can be anticipated. Particles / prepositions often have particular meanings which they contribute to a variety of combinations and which are
productive, that is, these fixed meanings (of particles / prepositions) are used in order to create new combinations.

However, in the remaining of this sub-section we will consider the following headings:

b. Idiomaticity and non-idiomaticity of multi-word verbs of English.
c. Collocation in multi-word verbs.
d. Synonym / Antonym.

a. Approach to a lexico-semantic description of multi-word verbs of English

In an attempt to present a kind of a lexico-semantic description of multi-word verbs of English, it might be useful to summarize the discussion appeared in Quirk et al 1998:811-13, based on the following two sets of examples:

Set 1
• John called the man.
• John called up the man.
• John called on the man.
• John ptff up with the man.

Set 2
• John called^ow the office.
• John called after lunch.
• John c&Wcd from under the table.

The difference between the first set and second can be stated in terms of'cohesion'. In the first 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. The semantic unity in this type of multi-word verbs (the first set) can be manifested (tested) by substitution with (a) single-word verb(s), for example: visit for call on, summon for call up, omit for leave out, see for look at, etc.
Furthermore, these verbal combinations often have composite meanings which are not normally deducible from their parts, for example, make out ('understand'), take in ('deceive'), come by ('obtain').

Multi-word verbs are not, however, restricted to such idiomatic combinations, we can distinguish three subclasses within the first set:

a. The verb and the particle keep their individual lexical meanings, as in Hook over ('inspect'), set up ('organize'). The individuality of the components appears in possible contrastive substitution:

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

b. The verb alone keeps its basic lexical meaning and the particle has 'intensifying' function:

find out (discover), sweep (up) the crumbs, spread out...

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 q#"(postpone), turn up ('appear') and come in for ('receive').

In such combination above there is no possibility of contrastive substitution: there are no pair such as bring up / down, put off / on, give up / down, give in / out, etc. the adverbial, lexical values of the particles, in this type, 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:
b. Idiomaticity / non-idiomaticity of Multi-word verbs of English

Idiomaticity is largely a semantic matter, and that it is manifested in much the same way in expressions of different structural types. However, a tentative and simple answer to the question why idiomaticity is largely a semantic matter could be: because it is an area where considerations of meaning carry particular weight.

Clearly, the fact that very many verbs with particles or prepositions are used idiomatically is the central issue that we have to deal with in mastering this important area of the vocabulary. In addressing the crucial question of idiomaticity some complex issues are raised and it will be best to consider these under separate headings:

1. How in practice do we determine whether a given expression is idiomatic or not?
   We may sense for example that put up as used in the sentence: They’re having a memorial put up to him by public subscription is not idiomatic, whereas a well-wisher had put up the money (for the scheme) is idiomatic. What kinds of criteria can we call upon in support of our intuitions?

   In respect, of the distinction of idiomatic / non-idiomatic, let us quote Cowie and Mackin 1993:

   'How do we know whether the words fall out as used in "I was pleased with the way things had fallen out forms a unit of meaning (an idiom) or not? One test is to ask whether one word can be substituted for the phrase fall out. (we can substitute 'happen' and 'occur'.) Another test is to ask whether the second word can be deleted (it can't).
We can see from these tests alone that fall out cannot be broken up: its form is fixed...

These are clear indications that the combination is a unit of meaning (a phrasal verb).

(Cowie & Mackin 1993).

2. Is the distinction between non-idioms and idioms clear-out, or does the one type shade off gradually into the other?

3. What criteria in particular determine the inclusion of some items in a dictionary of idioms and the exclusion of others?

4. Finally, how should the conclusion we reach affect the grammatical labeling of the idiomatic combinations? If a combination such as put up (in the second example at 1) is shown to be a unit of meaning, should we not reflect this in the name we give to the combination? (The terms 'phrasal verb' is already available for this purpose).

C. Collocations in multi-word verbs

One of the simple definitions of collocation is "the co-occurrence of lexical items": Collocation could be 'normal' or 'abnormal':

• sudden death (normal)
• delicious death (abnormal)

Collocation is a feature of all language: this is what some people mean by language being 'idiomatic'. However, some collocations are fairly loosely related. When someone is trying to sell a house, for example, he or she might advertise it as a 'desirable residence' although this is a common collocation, it is not fixed. One could, for example, use the words in all kinds of structures, such 'a residence which many people would reckon to be desirable'; or the word 'desirable' could be used with another word, as in 'desirable property for sale' and so on.

To illustrate further this issue of collocation let us quote the following: From the oxford Dictionary of phrasal verbs (1993: xvi) under what is collocation?

'A native English speaker will know that it is a natural and normal to say carry out an investigation not 'carry on an investigation'. On the other hand, we normally say carry on a conversation Not * carry out a conversation.
Combinations of words that are natural and normal to native speakers are called collocations. The actual nouns etc. that can combine with a particular phrasal verb are called its collocates. (So 'conversation' is one of the collocates of 'carry on') Some of the collocates of 'carry out' are 'experiment, test, research, investigation' among others which can be used as direct objects of that phrasal verb. And the collocates of 'carry on' besides 'conversation' are 'talk', 'discussion'. With 'carry on' it is possible to use words that related in meaning as 'debate' and 'negotiations' (both of which are types of discussion). But look at the following example:

Police are keeping the suspects under observation.

Here instead of 'observation' we could use 'scrutiny' or 'surveillance'.

But it would not seem normal and natural to say keep under view, examination or -watch, even though those words are related in meaning to observation.

(Cowie & Mackin 1993: xvi).

D. Synonymy / Antonymy and Multi-word verbs

Generally speaking, synonyms are words which mean almost the same as each other, and antonyms are words which mean the opposite. There are very few cases where two words or expressions mean exactly the same as each other. There may be differences in grammar as well as differences in meaning (between synonyms). Many multi-word verbs have synonyms which are single words but these words are much formal e.g. bring up/educate.

Antonyms describe opposite processes such as: putting on / taking off; coming in / going out.

To illustrate and clarify further the above point regarding synonymy in multi-word verbs, let us look at shell out as used in this example:

I hate shelling out money on house repairs.

Instead of 'shell out' here we could use 'fork out', with no change of meaning or style (both are formal multi-word verbs). These two multi-word verbs are very close synonyms (they can be substituted for each other in various sentences without the cognitive and stylistic meanings of those sentences being affected as a result).
There also may be synonymous multi-word verbs but different in other ways, for instance in style, grammar, suppose that we have encountered the following sentences:
'If we keep calm and stick together we shall be all right'
'Stick together' can be replaced by 'stand together' with change of the style of the sentence making it more formal.

A last point to mention in respect of synonymy of multi-word verbs is that: particles and prepositions themselves have synonyms which alternate after verbs:
Examples are:

1. Synonymous particles: 'about, around / round'.
2. Synonymous prepositions (on, over, upon).

Also we find as other examples the particle *in* and the preposition *into* which are similar in meaning as well as form, often alternate alter a verb. Similarly *on* alternates with *onto* and *out* with *out of* So we have: breaking in., (or into a house)

4.3.3.2 A Lexico-Semantic Study of Idiomatic expressions

In this section, we shall try to treat the lexico-semantic aspect of idiomatic expressions under the following headings:

a. Approach to the lexico-semantic aspect of idiomatic expressions.
b. Idiomaticity / non-idiomaticity of English expressions.
c. Collocations.
d. Synonymy / Antonymy and other sense relations.

a. Approach to the lexico-semantic aspect of Idiomatic expressions

Approaching the lexico-semantic properties of idiomatic expressions, let us start by the following statement:
'If you do not know the meaning of a word or an expression call it an idiom'.
But idiomatic expression *has meaning* and one its meaning is established an idiom is unequivocal and (provided it is used in the right context) it means the same thing to every body.
However, the reader could bear in mind the following points when approaching the lexico-semantic aspect of idiomatic expressions:

1. The meaning of an idiomatic expression is more than the aggregate of words.
2. An idiomatic expression is a mutually sense-selecting construction, where each member has a sense that is possible only in construction with another item; an expression which has a meaning different from the meanings of its constituents; semantically an idiom behaves like one lexical item but grammatically the constituents behave like common words. For example:
   Kick the bucket (die); Kicked the bucket; • Kick the bucketed.

b. Idiomaticity / Non-idiomaticity of English Expressions

To highlight the distinction between idiomaticity and non-idiomaticity of English expressions, it might be useful to consider the following questions:

1. How can idiomaticity itself be recognized and defined?

   Idiomaticity is largely a semantic matter, and that it is manifested in much the same way in expressions of different structural types. How then can idiomaticity itself be recognized and defined?

Here it will be best to consider under separate headings the rather complex issues that face the analyst, the dictionary-maker, the teacher, etc.

   How in practice do we decide whether a particular expression is idiomatic or not? We may sense that/?// the sink as used in she filled the sink with hot water is not idiomatic, while/?// the bill (be satisfactory or adequate for a purpose) as in sometimes solid food doesn't fill the bill is idiomatic. What kinds of criteria can be called upon in support of our intuitions?

2. Is the distinction between idioms and non-idioms clear-cut, or do the two categories shade off into each other?

   Where do we draw the line between idioms and non-idioms?

3. What criteria in particular must expressions satisfy to merit inclusion in idioms' dictionaries?
In respect of the above questions, the following definitions and views of idiomaticity might help in clarifying the concept.

The best-known approach to the definition of idiomaticity, and one which linguists as well as dictionary-makers have helped to popularize, fastens on the difficulty of interpreting idioms in terms of the meanings of their constituent words. Definitions as the following are representative of this approach:

...groups of words with set meanings that cannot be calculated by adding up the separate meanings of the parts.

(Bolinger 1975).

...peculiarity of phraseology ... having meaning not deducible from those of the separate words ...


However, defining idioms in a way which throws emphasis on ease or difficulty of interpretation leaves a great deal unsaid. This characterisation does, it is true, identify what is odd about an expression such as blow the gaff (or kick the bucket).

An approach based simply on the semantic opaqueness (or transparency) of whole combinations yields a very small class of idioms. It leaves out of account, for example, an important group of expressions which have figurative meanings (in terms of the whole combination in each case) but which also keep a current literal interpretation. Among such 'figurative idioms' are catch fire and close ranks. There is other evidence, too, especially the fact that a small number of words can be substituted in expressions often regarded as opaque (consider burn one's boats or bridges), that idioms are not divided as a small water-tight category from non-idioms but are related to them along a scale or continuum.

A view of idiomaticity which does full justice to the rich diversity of word-combinations in English must recognize that the meaning of a combination may be related to those of its components in a variety of ways, and must take account also of the possibility of internal variation, or substitution of part for part. The application of both criteria together produces a complex categorization:
(j) Pure Idioms
Though discussions of idiomaticity at both a technical and non-technical level are usually limited to the type illustrated by blow the gaff and kick the bucket (surely the most often quoted idiom of all), idioms in the strict sense comprise only one, and certainly not the largest of a spectrum of related categories. Historically, pure idioms form the end-point of a process by which word-combinations first establish themselves through constant re-use, then undergo figurative extension and finally petrify (i.e. develop).

(ii) Figurative Idioms
This category is idiomatic in the sense that variation is seldom found (though note act the part or role; a close, narrow shave) and pronoun substitution unlikely (though consider Bill had a narrow shave and Freud an even narrower one). The merging of this group into that of pure idioms is illustrated by such expressions as beat one's breast and burn one's boats. The literal senses of these expressions do not survive alongside their figurative ones in normal, everyday use and for some speakers they may indeed be unrelatable. For such speakers these expressions fall into the category of pure idioms,

(iii) Restricted Collocations
In such combinations, sometimes referred to as semi-idioms, one word (i.e. in the case of two-word expressions) has a figurative sense not found outside that limited context. The other element appears in a familiar, literal sense (compare the verb and noun respectively, in jog one's/sb's memory and the adjective and noun in a blind alley). Some members of this category allow a degree of lexical variation (consider, for instance, a cardinal error, sin, virtue, grace), and in this respect 'restricted' collocations resemble 'open' ones.

(iv) Open Collocations
Most sharply and easily distinguished from idioms in the strict sense are combinations such as fill the sink and a broken window.
The use of the terms 'open' 'free' or 'loose' to refer to such collocations reflects the fact that, in each case, both elements (verb and object, or adjective and noun) are freely recombinable, as for example infill, empty, drain the sink and/ill the sink, basin, bucket. Typically also, in open collocation each element is used in a common literal sense.

In the previous paragraphs, we have discussed the nature of idiomaticity in some depth to throw light on the problem of deciding which word-combinations to consider as idiomatic. In the spectrum of categories set out earlier in this section, two were identified as idiomatic: pure idioms and figurative ones.

As regards the central area - the restricted collocations are counted in (=considered as idiomatic) while open collocations are excluded from the idioms category,

c. Collocation

To begin this sub-section the reader is reminded of one of the simple definitions of 'collocation':

'The co-occurrence of lexical items'.

Words which combine with other words, or with idioms, in particular grammatical constructions are said to collocate (to form collocations) with those words or idioms. So utterly, totally and violently, for instance, collocate as adverbs with the verb disagree, while restore,restore, retrieve(422,509),(472,540) and squander are among the verb collocates of the idiom the family fortune (s).

One case of the importance of information about collocation is where a word selected from a particular set of collocates (the set may be long or short) forms an integral part of the idiom itself. In the expression make a good etc. showing, for example, an adjective from a list which includes good, splendid, poor, unsatisfactory, must be chosen if the idiom is to be complete:

*make a showing is unacceptable.

A second case is where the set of words which can combine with an idiom at a given point is restricted. An example is catch etc. sb’s imagination, where in addition to forming a set
from which a selection must be made to give an acceptable idiom, the list *catch, capture, seize, grip, fire* virtually exhausts the possibilities of choice at *catch*.

The third type is one in which the idiom, while collocating fairly freely with verbs, say, combines much more regularly and predictably with some than with others. Among the verb collocates of *at a glance*, for instance, *know, realize, see* and *tell* will suggest themselves most readily to native speakers, though, *understand* and *gather* are not unacceptable and certainly make sense.

With idioms, this freedom of collocation is much more restricted: it would be odd to say:

- They have let several cats out of bags (=revealed several secrets);
- he goes about licking people’s sandals;
- yesterday it rained dogs and cats;
- the teacup has just had storm;
- he made an off-his cuff remark;

In general, collocation as a lexical issue determines lexical choice ... etc.

d. Synonymy / Antonymy etc. in Idiomatic Expressions

As illustration of sense relations in idiomatic expressions, we can discuss in this sub-section synonymy and antonymy:

Synonymy

Consider the following examples.

- *a saving grace* ... (= sth which prevents, saves one from being altogether bad).

> No one is completely evil, darling. They all have some saving grace, even the Templars.

- *A redeeming feature* ... (a characteristic in sb/sth that (partly) atones for other faults or shortcomings).

> He’s not so bad as my mother makes out. When she dislikes anybody she doesn’t allow them a single redeeming feature.

Many idioms which are explicitly linked as in the above two examples are close synonyms in the sense that they are interchangeable in given sentences without the cognitive or emotive meanings of these sentences being thereby affected.
It should be noted, however, that few idioms are exactly equivalent. Even when they share the same stylistic or emotive overtones, two synonymous idioms will be found to differ in one or more particulars. Thus while *a redeeming feature* usually denotes a characteristic of a person or thing, *a saving grace* normally refers only to a personal characteristic.

The reader / learner should be alert to these fine differences when comparing synonymous idiomatic expressions.

An idiom (or one of its meanings) may have two or more synonyms:

- backward(s) and forward(s) —> back and forth —> to and fro.
- odds and bobs / sods —> bits and bobs —> bits and pieces.

It might also be useful to discuss, in this sub-section, *false friends* (= expressions which are similar in form but not in meaning), (and so are apt to give rise to errors) and to show some important relations of meaning between idiomatic expressions, other than synonymy.

**False Friends**

Errors can arise in the use of idioms whenever one expression is sufficient close to another - either in the words which make it up or in the arrangement of those words - to be confused with. When, for example, two idioms are so close in form as to be almost indistinguishable they may be used in place of each other. Thus, it is possible for the learner to say *bargaining counter* ('sth used in the process of negotiations') when what he means is *bargain counter* (= a part of the store where bargains can be had).

Apart from-the case just quoted, which one idiom is almost indistinguishable from another, the following types of false friends should be noted:

i. One idiom may contain a word or words present in another and yet be quite unrelated in meaning to it:

- be damned (sb / sth mentioned or suggested ... is to be defied, rejected, refused, ignored).
- I'll be / I am damned = exclamation of pleased or displeased astonishment.
ii. Two semantically unrelated idioms may contain the same words in different arrangements:

- *The end justifies the means* =
  
  (If the result is considered to be important enough, then any method of achieving it … should be welcomed and pursued).

- *A/the means to an end* =
  
  (The way(s), method(s), or processes) that need to be adopted in order to achieve a particular result).

iii. Two idioms which are closely similar in form may differ to the extent that one idiom has two or more meanings:

- *hold sb's hand:* clasp or grasp another's hand. = comfort or support sb during difficult or trying period.

- *hold hands:* sit/walk etc beside another person with both or nearest hands linked, usually as a sign of affection.

Antonymy and other Semantic Relations

In the previous paragraphs mention was made to idioms that related in meaning (synonymy etc.). There are, however, many idioms that are semantically related, in various ways, and it is equally important to point these to the reader.

Therefore, the discussion below involved two groups:

i. The first group is made up of pairs of expressions which are *opposite* in meaning (Antonyms).

  Some of these contain *adjectives*, most of which, almost contrast when used non-idiomatically:

  - early on ... <-> later on
  - (the big time <-> (the) small time
  - have a closed mind ... <-> have an open mind.

  Some idioms which are opposite in meaning contain contrastive *verbs*:

  - gain ground <-> give / lose ground (to sb / sth)
  - open one's mouth <-> shut one's mouth.
  - Start the rot <-> stop the rot
Note that the verbs, and expressions of which they are part, denote a 'reversing' process: *one loses ground... only to gain it again - or gains it only to lose it.*

A smaller sub-group of contrastive idioms depend for their oppositeness on *nouns.*

- by accident ↔ by design.
- in the past ↔ in future, in the future.
- a matter of fact ↔ a matter of opinion.

ii. The second group is made up of pairs of idioms such as *blackfen) sb 's eye (for him)* and *have etc a black eye,* in which the meaning of one can be said to follow from, or be implied by, that of the other, (if someone blackens my eye, I have a black eye!)

Other examples are:

- run short (of sth) ↔ short of sth ...
- raise one's / sb's spirits ↔ one's spirits rise.
- raise the question etc. (of sth) ↔ the question of (sth) arises ...

4.4 **COMPARISON / CONTRAST OF IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS AND MULTI-WORD VERBS OF ENGLISH TO THE SPEECH OF SUDANESE LEARNERS**

The present section tries to compare and contrast idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs of English to the Speech of Sudanese learners of English (the population of this study) in terms of:

- metaphors
- colloquial (informal) language
- slang
- proverbs / sayings and catchphrases.

As it has been indicated in the previous chapter, the dominant speech of our subjects (Sudanese learners of English) is the *Sudanese Colloquial Arabic* — A variety of the standard classical Arabic. However, it is not far from the classical Arabic since Arabic is preserved or maintained by religious practices and it is the language of *QURAN.*
Generally speaking, Quran and the sayings of the Prophet Mohammed serve as a major source of idiomatic expressions used and understood by the Sudanese. Moreover, idiomatic expressions are found in and drawn from Sudanese culture and traditions. Regarding multi-word verbs, one can observe that they are less used and formulated in Sudanese Colloquial Arabic hence only few examples could be found.

However, in the following pages general and brief definitions of metaphors, colloquial language and slang etc. are given (in order to provide a theoretical background for comparing / contrasting idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs of English to the speech of the subjects of this study) as well as the comparison / contrast itself.

4.4.1 Metaphors

Let us start by the following definition of metaphors:

'The imaginative use of a word or phrase to describe sb/sth as another object in order to show that they have the same qualities and to make the description more forceful, e.g. 'She has a heart of stone'.

Another term, however, related to metaphors is 'figurative':

'A word, phrase etc. used in an imaginative or metaphorical way that is different from the usual or basic meaning 'He exploded with rage' shows a figurative use of the verb explode.'

'Kick the bucket' is often cited as the classic example of an obscure metaphor which also completely non-compositional in meaning. Ruhl's (1975) claim that 'kick' related systematically to dying is liable to be met with derision but it is true since we see that to end the life of ... somebody it might be through the method of kicking using different instruments (eg. Stick,...).

In general, English writing and speech abound in metaphors and consists of large number of common sayings which form part of the verbal background of the English people and are metaphorical or have a metaphorical content. By the same token, sayings and metaphorical expressions are used by Sudanese in their speech.
4.4.2 Sudanese Learner’s Speech and Informal (or Colloquial) Idiomatic Expressions and Multi-word Verbs

To begin this sub-section, it might be useful to clarify the distinction between formal and informal expressions. Formal expressions are usually only used in serious or official, especially written language and would be inappropriate in normal everyday conversation. Informal expressions are used between friends or people who know each other well, in a relaxed or unofficial context. They are not appropriate in formal situations.

Many people confuse idioms with slang and colloquial (informal) language. Slang and colloquial language are both informal kinds of speech. Colloquial expressions can be used by anyone, but not usually in formal situations. There is a very large number of idioms which are not colloquial; and not all colloquial language consists of idioms.

It is important to realize that idioms are not only colloquial expressions, as many people believe. They appear in formal style and in slang, in poetry, in the Language of Shakespeare and the Bible.

In sum, in the Sudanese speech we find informal idiomatic expressions while multi-word verbs are not exist in their usage.

4.4.3 Comparing and Contrasting Idiomatic Expressions and Multi-Word Verbs of English with the Speech of Sudanese Learners in terms of Slang

Slang is very informal language mainly used in speaking and sometimes restricted to a particular group of people, e.g. those who have similar interests or do the same job. Examples are: *dope* (=illegal drugs), *the fuzz* (=the police), *lolly* (=money), *naff* (=worthless).

The use of slang signifies a close and informal relationship between speakers, its chief characteristic is its function in identifying and reinforcing membership of particular sub-groups in society (e.g. criminals, the police, students, the military etc.).
Once slang terms become widely known outside the groups with which they originate they no longer serve this essential purpose and tend to merge into the wider category of informal usage. Nevertheless, a considerable number of slang idioms retain their currency with 'insiders' despite their widespread use by outsiders: Splice the main brace (nautical slang), six of the best (dated school slang).

Regarding the use and usage of idiomatic expressions in the slang of our subjects (Sudanese students of English), we observe that those expressions are widely used in their speech: e.g.

\textit{sb ate 'neem'} meaning he/she was fooled or tricked.

The above example is idiomatic slang since it is meaning is not deducible from the meanings of the words it contains: \textit{neem} is a kind of tree), and it (i.e. the expression) is used by 'particular' group (here, students).

4.4.4 Comparing / Contrasting Idiomatic Expressions and Multi-Word Verbs of English with the Speech of Sudanese Learners in Terms of Proverbs, Sayings and Catchphrases

In comparing/contrasting Idiomatic multi-word verbs of English to the speech of the Sudanese learners, of English, in terms of proverbs etc., it might be useful to equip the reader with the following definitions of these terms which could serve as a background for this task. In general, the above terms (proverbs, saying and catchphrases) are idiomatic in the broadest sense.

- Sayings

Sayings are well known fixed or traditional phrases, such as proverbs, that are used to make a comment, give advice, issue a warning etc. e.g.

- \textit{Look before you leap};
- \textit{You 're only young once}.

However, our subjects speech is rich with sayings. Some examples are typically Sudanese make-up and others are borrowed from other neighbouring Arab Countries or from other Languages esp. English.
From the typical Sudanese sayings and proverbs, the following could be given:

- **Stretch your legs according to your mattress length** (=meaning behave and spend etc., according to your status (economic, social, etc.)

- **They come to help him in burring his father body, he hid the (digging) instruments.** (meaning that he didn't help those who tried to help him and went further putting the obstacles on their ways).

- **Whose hand is in the cold water is not the same as whose is in the hot water.** (meaning that who is not in trouble or not suffering will not feel the same feeling as those who are in that situation).

A related term to sayings is ‘proverbs’ and sometimes it is used interchangeably with it.

**Proverb(s)**

A short well-known sentence or phrase that states a general truth about life or gives advice e.g. *better safe than sorry* or *don’t put all your eggs in one basket*.

However, in the speech of our subjects we encounter a variety of examples. In the following pages a (representative) list of sayings and proverbs which are used by Sudanese people. The Arabic equivalent scripts will not be given here for practical reasons (typing etc.) The notions, concepts and meanings expressed by these sayings and proverbs are well known to the subjects of this study and some could be translated. - literally or non-literally - from Sudanese Colloquial Arabic to English and vice versa. This shows that the subjects have command of this important aspect of their language through use and practice.

A list of some sayings and proverbs used by Sudanese in their speech

This collection of English proverbs / sayings has, more or less, their Arabic equivalent, in terms of the concepts and meaning they carry. They are given below in a alphabetical order:

1. A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.
2. A drawing man will clutch (or catch) at straw.
3. A fox is not taken twice in the same snare.
4. A friend in need is a friend indeed.
5. A man is known by the company he keeps.
6. A secret between more than two is no secret.
7. A word to a wise man is enough.
8. Absence makes the heart grow fonder.
9. All is not gold that glitters.
11. Better an (open) enemy than a false (ignorant) friend.
12. Better a devil you know than a devil you don’t know.
14. Curiosity killed the cat.
15. Cleanliness is next to godliness.
16. Diamonds cut diamonds.
17. Early to bed and early to rise makes a man healthy, wealthy and wise.
18. East or west, home is best.
19. Even Homer sometimes nods.
20. Everything comes to him who waits.
21. Forbidden fruit is sweet.
22. God (or Heaven) helps them who help themselves.
23. History repeats itself.
24. Hunger is the best cook / sauce.
25. If you want a thing well done do it yourself.
26. It is no use crying over spilt milk.
27. Let bygones be bygones.
28. Like father, like son.
29. Love is blind.
30. Man proposes and God disposes.
31. Misfortunes (or troubles) seldom come singly.
32. Necessity has (or knows) no law.
33. Necessity is the mother of invention.
34. Never put off till tomorrow what can be done today.
35. Never too old to learn (or seek knowledge from cradle to grave).
36. One man’s meat is another man’s poison.
37. People who live in glass houses should not throw stones.
38. Poverty is no sin.
39. Prevention is better than cure (or an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure).
40. Put your trust in God, but keep your powder dry,
41. Rome was not built in a day.
42. Short debts make long friends.
43. Silence gives consent.
44. Speech is silver, but silence is gold.
45. Still waters run deep.
46. Strike while the iron is hot.
47. The early bird catches the worm.
48. There is nothing impossible under the sun.
49. When the cat is away the mice will play.
50. When you are at Rome do as the Romans do.

• Comparing / Contrasting Idiomatic expressions and Multi-Word Verbs of English
to the Speech of Sudanese Learners in respect of Catchphrases

Catchphrases are well-known expressions that were often originally used by a public figure, an entertainer etc. and have now passed into more general use e.g. The buck stops here.

Catchphrases and sayings have in common that they are idioms, generally of sentence length, and often established in usage, which are used to perform communicative functions (speech acts) of various kinds. These features can be illustrated by considering the form of the following catchphrase and its explanatory gloss:

Did he fall or was he pushed?
a humorous or ironic enquiry into the cause of some apparent injury or accident (originally a music-hall joke).
Catchphrase(s) can be further distinguished as follows:

Catchphrases are expressions often originating with a person prominent in public life, or in the world of entertainment etc, and which on passing into more general currency acquire other functions or are used with reference to other events:

*Diamonds are a girl’s best friend*

Diamonds, or gifts with a lasting cash value, esp. from a lover or succession of lovers, are an insurance for one's future ... (from a song in the musical comedy *GENTLEMEN PREFER BLONDES, 1949*). In Oxford Dictionary of English Idioms 1993, we read: p.xv. ‘Catchphrases normally originate with a popular entertainer when they serve much the same purpose as a signature tune or with a well-known public figure:

*The buck stops here* and *if you can’t stand the heat, get out of the kitchen* were first spoken by the late President Truman; and their association with him, combined with the vigor and freshness of his Language, ensured that they were taken up and repeated more widely. As in many similar cases, both the function and form of these catchphrases are varied from time to time, as the following quotation from an article on the Vietnam war makes clear:

The harsh truth is that the buck started here (*i.e.* in the US) and *that it stops here as well.*

After this background about catchphrases in English, we can turn to contrast and compare them to the speech of our subjects - the Sudanese Learners of English. The following catchphrases from the students use and usage could illustrate this point:

- One of the Sudanese Presidents, when took over, described the country as a sea dead body meaning that ruling the country in that time is not a desired or rewarding task except for those who are compelled to do so (the relatives of the drowned / dead person) since the dead body, in this case, would be in bad condition and has a terrible smell.
Also we can mention in this respect what is said by ALI BN ABI TALIB - (The 4th Khalifa (ruler) after the Prophet Mohammed) who is famous for his eloquence and bravery. 'If poverty is a man, I will kill him'. This catchphrase is known by the majority of Arabic speakers and well-established in their usage - it is a part of their religious and cultural literacy.

4.4.5 Summary for section 4.4

The speech of Sudanese people — Colloquial Sudanese Arabic - contains idiomatic expressions of different kinds (fixed collocations, sayings / proverbs, catchphrases etc.) and these expressions are used widely by them. They are part of our subjects speech. However, multi-word verbs are few in classical Arabic thus in Sudanese colloquial Arabic. Therefore, the notion and the concept of the multiplicity of the words of verbs are not clear for the majority of our subjects. The researcher himself (helped by other native speakers) couldn't provide more than one or two examples of those verbal constitutions from classical Arabic. This claim is borne out by the questionnaire given to the students who were not able to give even a couple of examples of multi-word verbs in Arabic. As an example of a multi-word verb in Arabic, we can take the verbal combination 'Araagib...an' = do not like / believe in, as in the verse from Quoran (SURAT Mary am: 46) which has the translation:

'Art thou shrinking from my gods,

O Abraham?

If thou forbear not, I will indeed stone thee...."

Here, the verb (draagib) + the particle (an) have a meaning which is different if we combine the same verb with another particle e.g. (fi) it will give the opposite meaning, in this case 'like'.
4.5 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

In the present chapter, I have dealt with the linguistic aspect(s) of IEX / MWV. These multi-word lexical units have been surveyed and discussed considering the following levels: orthographical / phonological, grammatical (syntactic / morphological) and stylistic. Moreover, there has been an attempt to provide a semantic study of these 2 vocabulary components in some detail, covering the heading below:

- definition(s) of IEX / MWV and the relation between them.
- a lexico-sematic study.

In addition to the above linguistic survey and study, we have presented, in this chapter, a contrast and comparison of these multi-word lexical items with the native speech of the Sudanese learners in terms of metaphors and proverbs, colloquial (informal) language and slang.

However, the linguistic study of IEX/MWV revealed that they have their special linguistic properties. At the phonological level, IEX / MWV follow the general phonological principles and rules of the English phonology with the exception of the stress and accent in some verbal combinations. They have special stress patterns as the following examples demonstrate. In normal speech particles / prepositions are not usually given stress but with phrasal verbs the particle normally receives stress. Compare

Look for that number - that's the number to 'Look for'
Call up' that number - that's the number to 'call up'

Also in respect of MWV stress, it is worth mentioning that the particle in verbal combination is normally stressed and, in final position, bears the nuclear tone, whereas the preposition in verbal constructions is normally unstressed and has the 'tail' of the nuclear tone on the lexical verb only" He called 'up the man - the man was called 'up.

He 'called on the man - the man was 'called on.

As for the orthographical level, in general, idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs confine to the general spelling conventions of English. However, there are some
• exceptions namely those cases where multi-word verbs are transformed to nominalized forms, adjectival forms which have varieties of spellings (hyphenated, solid form (written as one word) or unlinked forms). In nominalized forms, there is considerable difference regarding spelling and punctuation: the choice of solid (=Linked form) e.g. flypast, unlinked form a look round or a hyphenated one a look-round.

Regarding the nominalized form which has the pattern particle + verb, it is important to mention that the British and American practice is to write them fully joined as in offprint; while some nouns exist in two forms (linked and hyphenated) in British.

Other examples of writing conventions of multi-word verbs are:
- make up (verb), make-up (noun)
- break down (verb), breakdown (noun).

In adjective transform, one notes the following spelling / punctuation as they appeared in the examples below:
- He glanced through the article • The quickly glanced-through article...
- He eagerly looked forward to his retirement • His eagerly looked-forward-to retirement.

The second major section in Chapter 4, deals with the grammatical aspect of IEX / MWV. Here, an attempt has been made to provide the reader with a general description of the grammatical behaviour of these multi-word lexical items. Information about the syntax and morphology of these two vocabulary components is essential for a variety of reasons. It enables the reader to compare like with like and to build up a general categorization of IEX / MWV. It is also important for the reader to be able to locate and identify the exact point or points in IEX / MWV at which lexical choice can operate. The syntactic of the parts to the whole would be made explicit. And finally, how the grammar of an IEX can be altered by how idiomatic it is.

The grammatical behaviour of MWV could be summarized by presenting the following overview of the grammatical patterns in which these verbal combinations occur
as well as their transformations. MWV can function in one or more of six simple, active sentence patterns. These basic patterns can be divided into two groups according to transitivity (i.e. according to whether or not they contain a Direct Object). Intransitive sentences are labelled [V] and transitive sentences [Vn]. Within each of [V] and [Vn], the sentence patterns are further subdivided into [P], [Pr] and [P.Pr] according to whether they contain a particle, a preposition, or a particle and a preposition.

The whole system of six basic patterns can be represented schematically, and illustrated, as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Intransitive</th>
<th>Transitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Particle</td>
<td>[Vp]</td>
<td>[Vn.P]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preposition</td>
<td>[Vpr]</td>
<td>[Vn.pr]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Particle + Preposition</td>
<td>[Vp.pr]</td>
<td>[Vn.p.pr]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[Vp] The electricity supply *went off.*

[Vpr] We were *backing on* a change of heart.

[Vp.pr] The committee *all back on* an earlier plan.

[Vn.p] The awful food *turns people off.*

[Vn.pr] Peter *foists* all his problems *on* his unfortunate friends.

[Vn. p.pr] You can *put* the shortage *down to* bad planning.

As for the grammatical aspect of idiomatic expressions, the following point should be emphasized. The grammatical behaviour of IEX reminded us of the enormous structural variety of English expressions. The patterns deal with in this respect are found in:

- Phrase pattern - *a bargain basement, easy on the eye, in the nick of time.*
- Subject-less clause patterns - *cut one's losses, paint the town red, pay sb a compliment* and
- Simple or complex sentence patterns - *one swallow does not make a summer, give sb an inch and he (will)'II take a mile.*
This is to give but small sample of the great range of these construction(s) types. The spread is considerably, yet they can be classified under 2 general headings: Phrase Idioms and Clause Idioms. Within these major groupings are several dominant sub-categories:

...The most common clause patterns spanned by idioms, for instance, are the following:

**TABLE-4**

**OUP DICTIONARY OF IDIOMS CLASSIFICATION OF THE CLAUSE PATTERNS OF IEX**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause Pattern</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Verb + complement</td>
<td>go berserk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb + direct object</td>
<td>ease sb’s conscience / mind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb + direct object + complement</td>
<td>Paint the town red</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb + indirect object + direct object</td>
<td>do sb credit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb + direct object + adjunct</td>
<td>take sth amiss</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While the most commonly occurring phrase patterns are these:

**TABLE - 5**

**OUP DICTIONARY OF IDIOMS’ CLASSIFICATION OF THE PHRASE PATTERNS OF IEX**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phrase Pattern</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Noun phrase</td>
<td>a crashing bore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjective phrase</td>
<td>free with one’s money etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prepositional phrase</td>
<td>in the nick of time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverbial phrase</td>
<td>as often as not</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In our survey of the grammatical behaviour of IEX / MWV we have also discussed the distinction between idiomatic multi-word verbs (phrasal verbs) and non idiomatic ones (literary verbal combinations) and the influence of this distinction on the grammar of MWV. The fact that a particular combination of verb + particle, for example, is idiomatic need not affect its grammar. The combination *make up* as used in *she made up her face* is quite clearly an idiom (a unit of meaning). Yet the grammar of the idiomatic *make up* is similar in many respects to the grammar of the non-idiomatic *carry away*. For instance, the direct object can be changed around in both cases:

She made up her face I She made her face up.

Bill carried away the rubbish I Bill carried the rubbish away.
Similarly, it is equally possible to move the particle to the front and the subject to the end of the sentence whether you use *come down* idiomatically (*The prices came down / down came the prices*) or non-idiomatically (*The ceiling came down / Down came the ceiling*).

After having provided a general linguistic survey of IEX / MWV at the phonological / orthographical and the grammatical levels, we have offered in subsequent paragraphs a treatment of the stylistic aspect of these multi-word lexical units. In these paragraphs, we have tried to provide the reader with a general description of the stylistic behaviour of idiomatic expressions and multi-word verbs of English. However, in this section, it might be useful recap the following points which will be of particular interest to advanced foreign students and teachers:

**Regarding the stylistic behaviour of multi-word verbs the following points might be necessary:**

- We should note that it is impossible to assign fixed stylistic values to most items which call for a marking of some kind. The boundary between 'formal' and 'informal' usage is constantly shifting, and the conventions observed by individual speakers and writers differ very considerably.

- It is often said that multi-word verbs tend to be rather 'colloquial' or 'informal', and more appropriate to spoken English than written, and even that it is better to avoid them and choose single-word equivalents or synonyms instead. Yet in many cases multi-word verbs and their synonyms have different ranges of use, meaning, or collocation, so that a single-word synonym cannot be substituted for a multi-word verb. Single word synonyms are much more formal in style than multi-word verbs, so that they seem out of place in many contexts, and students using them run the risk of sounding pompous or just unnatural.

This stylistic difference between single-word verb and its equivalent multi-word verb could be shown by presenting and examining the following examples:
Lucy was brought up by her grandparents and educated at the local secondary schools.

- What time are you planning to turn up. (multi-word verb: informal)

Please let us know when you plan to arrive! (single-word verb more formal)

Note that in the first example, 'bring up' is mostly used for the moral and social training that children receive at home while 'educate' is used for the intellectual and cultural training that people get at school and university.

As for the stylistic behaviour of IEX, the 2 points below could be emphasized:

- The first point focusses on the feature that proverbs and catchphrases may be structurally shortened for a variety of reasons and with a number of effects. Traditional sayings of a given structural type tend to be used in a narrow and stereotyped set of functions. Thus a stitch in time saves nine and the early bird catches the worm are typically used to comment approvingly on timely or judicious action or to reinforce a recommendation. Often it will be felt sufficient to hint at the whole by the use of a part, as in such utterances, as 'A stitch in time, you know'\Sometimes, the fragment will take on a life of its own as a phrase idiom, as is the case with an early bird. This co-exists in present-day usage alongside the saying from which it originated.

- A second point is the creation of idiomatic expressions and the achievement of humorous effects by the manipulations of them, normally regarded as fixed calls for a degree of cultural or literary awareness possessed only by mature native speakers of the language. Consider in this respect the following catchphrases: The buck stops here and if you can't stand the heat, get out of the kitchen which were first spoken by the Late President Truman; and their association with him, combined with the vigour and freshness of his language, ensured that they were taken up and repeated more widely. As in many similar cases, both the function and form of these catchphrases are varied from time to time, as the following quotation from an article on the Vietnam war makes clear:
The harsh truth is that the buck started here (i.e. in the US) and that it stops here as well. This example of nonce variations in an expression whose original form is well-known brings us to the point that sentence idioms in particular are commonly refashioned by native speakers to achieve a variety of striking effects.

Another major concern of this chapter is a detailed semantic study of IEX / MWV. A considerable space and time have been devoted to the semantic aspect of these multi-word lexical items since idiomaticity is largely considered as a semantic matter. In dealing with the semantic properties of these two vocabulary components, we have tried to cover some basic issues such as:

- The definition(s) of IEX / MWV and the relation between them
- Meaning of IEX/MWV
- Idiomaticity or non-idiomaticity
- Collocation
- Synonyms / antonyms and other semantic relations.

**For the definition(s) of IEX / MWV**, let us start by those of the IEX. After examining different and various definitions of this vocabulary component, we have opted for / singled out the following ones:

The comprehensive definition which is articulated in Cowie et al. 1993:

"The best-known approach to the definition of idiomaticity, and one which linguists as well as dictionary-makers have helped to popularize, fastens on the difficulty of interpreting idioms in terms of the meanings of their constituent words. Definitions such as the following are representative of this approach:

... groups of words with set meanings that cannot be calculated by adding up the separate meanings of the parts.

... peculiarity of phraseology ... having meaning not deducible from those of the separate words ...

However, defining idioms in a way which throws emphasis on *ease* or difficulty of interpretation leaves a great deal unsaid...
... an approach based simply on the semantic opaqueness (or transparency of whole combinations yield a very small class of idioms. It leaves out of account, for example, an important group of expressions which have figurative meaning (in terms, of the whole combination in each case) but which also keep a current literal interpretation. Among such 'figurative idioms' are catch fire and close rank. There is other evidence, too especially the fact that a small number of words can be substituted in expressions often regarded as opaque (consider burn one's boats or bridges), that idioms are not divided as a small water-tight category from non-idioms but are related to them along a scale or continuum.

A view of idiomaticity which does full justice to the rich diversity of word-combinations in English must recognize that the meaning of a combination may be related to those of its components in a variety of ways, and must take account also of the possibility of internal variation, or substitution of part for part. The application of both criteria together produces a complex categorization:

i. **Pure idioms:** Though discussions of idiomaticity at both a technical and non-technical level are usually limited to the type illustrated by blow the gaff and kick the bucket (surely the most often quoted idiom of all), idioms in the strict sense comprise only one, and certainly not the largest, a of a spectrum of related categories. Historically, pure idioms form the end point of a process by which word-combinations first establish themselves through constant re-use, then undergo-figurative extension and finally petrify or congeal.

ii. **Figurative idioms:** This category has already been identified. It is idiomatic in the sense that variation is seldom found (though note act that part or role; a close, narrow shave) and pronoun substitution unlikely (though consider Bill had a narrow shave and Fred an even narrower one). The merging of this group into that of pure idioms is illustrated by such expressions as beat one's breast and (again) burn one's boats. The literal senses of these expressions do not survive alongside their figurative ones in normal, everyday use and for some speakers they
may indeed be unrelatable. For such speakers these expressions fall into the category of pure idioms.

iii. **Restricted Collocations:** In such combinations, sometimes referred to as 'semi-idioms', one word (i.e. in the case of two-word expressions) has a figurative sense not found outside that limited context. The other element appears in a familiar, literal sense (cf. the verb and noun, respectively, *in jog one's sb's memory* and the adjective and noun in *a blind alley*). Some members of this category allow a degree of lexical variation (consider, for instance, *a cardinal error, sin, virtue, grace*), and in this respect 'restricted' collocations resemble 'open' ones. Another point of similarity is that the 'literal' element is sometimes replaced by a pronoun.

*Cowie et al. 1993*

- Moreover, after considering the various definitions of idiomatic expression(s) the researcher is for Wood (1981) definition which is as follows:

  'An idiom is a complex expression which is wholly non-compositional in meaning and wholly non-productive in form'. (Wood 1981:95).

In brief, the reason for this preference is that it seems comprehensive and valid. It caters for meaning and form of these expressions.

- The researcher also found Michael Wallace's (1982) definition as one of the comprehensive and working definitions:

  '... 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'.

  *(Wallace 1982:118)*
As for the definition(s) of MWV, we have considered and examined a lot of definitions.

The following seem adequate and valid:

- Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary Of Current English's Definition
  'a simple verb combined with an adverb or a preposition, or sometimes both, to make a new verb with a meaning that is different from that of the simple verb, e.g., go in for, win over, blow up (OALDCE 1996:869)

Under the sub-heading: What is a Phrasal Verb? Cowie and Mackin, in their 'Oxford Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs', provide the following definition:

  'In English, verbs are often put together with short adverbs (or particles) as in run back, put (the dish) down, warm (the milk) up.
Verbs often combine with prepositions too, as in come into (the room), drop (the vase) o « (the floor), translate (the play) into (French).
All these combinations are easy to understand, because you can work out their meanings from those of the individual verbs and particles or prepositions. (So, put the dish down means place the dish in a lower position). But sometimes the combinations are more difficult to understand. Look at the combination break out (verb+particle) as it is used in this sentence: Cholera broke out in the north of the county.
In this example, the verb break doesn't have the meaning it has in phrases like break a window or break a stick. And 'ou' doesn't mean 'outside in the open'. The combination has to be understood as one unit of meaning 'start suddenly or violently'. When a verb + particle (or a verb + preposition) is a unit of meaning like this it is a phrasal verb. Sometimes you will find a verb, a particle and a preposition combining to form one unit of meaning. A well known example is 'put up with' (meaning 'tolerate'). This too is a phrasal verb'.

M. Wallace 1982

'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. Here are some examples of multi-word verbs:

...addup, ...takeon, ...workout'.

(Wallace 1982:119)

Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of current English's definition represents one of the most adequate and comprehensive definitions of multi-word verbs:

'a simple verb combined with an adverb or a preposition or sometimes both, to make a new verb combined with an adverb or a preposition or sometimes both, to make a new verb with a meaning that is different from that of the simple verb, e.g. go in for, win over, blow up'.


Concerning the relation between IEX / MWV, we have attempted to clarify it as follows:

In short, some of idiomatic expressions are multi-word verbs particularly those which are termed phrasal verbs. Not all idiomatic expressions are phrasal verbs: there are other different idiomatic constructions: nominal, adjectival and adverbial categories. One can say that not all idiomatic expressions are multi-word verbs (there are others as indicated above) and not all multi-word verbs are idiomatic expressions: there is another type-beside the phrasal verbs - which is literal or non-idiomatic verbal combinations.

In the discussion of the meaning(s) of IEX/MWV, we have repeatedly emphasized the point that these multi-word lexical items carry meaning. In this respect, I have demonstrated and shown that MWV carry meaning, in general, and particle / prepositions, in particular, often have meanings which contribute to a variety of verbal combinations. In English, verbs are often put together with short adverbs (or particles), as in run back, put (the dish) down, warm (the milk) up. Verbs often combine with prepositions too, come into (the room), drop (the vase) on (the floor), translate (the play) into (French). All these combinations are easy to understand, because you can work out
their meanings from those of the individual verbs and particles or prepositions (so, *put the dish down* means 'place the dish in a lower position'). But sometimes the combinations are more difficult to understand. Look at the combination *break out* (verb + particle) as it is used in this sentence: *Cholera broke out in the north of the country*: In this example, the verb *break* doesn't have the meaning it has in phrases like *break a window* or *break a stick*. And *out* doesn't mean *outside in the open*. The combination has to be understood as one unit, meaning 'start suddenly or violently'.

The component multi-word verbs is constantly growing and changing. New combinations appear and spread. Yet combinations are rarely made on a random basis, but form patterns which to some extent can be anticipated. Particles/prepositions often have particular meanings which they contribute to a variety of combinations and which are productive, that is, these fixed meanings (of particles / prepositions) are used in order to create new combinations.

Approaching the **lexico-semantic properties of idiomatic expressions**, we have started by discussing the following statements regarding meaning:
'If you do not know the meaning of a word or an expressions call it an idiom'.
But idiomatic expression *has meaning* and one its meaning is established an idiom is unequivocal and (provided it is used in the right context) it means the same thing to everybody. However, the reader could bear in mind the following points when approaching the lexico-semantic aspect of idiomatic expressions:
1. The meaning of an idiomatic expression is more than the aggregate of words.
2. An idiomatic expression is a mutually sense - selecting construction, where each member has a sense that is possible only in construction with another item; an expression which has a meaning different from the meanings of its constituents; semantically an idiom behaves like one lexical item but grammatically the constituents behave like common words. For example:
Kick the bucket (die); Kicked the bucket; *Kick the bucketed.
In respect of collocation, we have mentioned that combinations of words that are natural and normal to native speakers are called collocations. The actual nouns etc. that can combine with a particular phrasal verb are called its collocates. (So 'conversation' is one of the collocates of 'carry on'). Some of the collocates of 'carry out' are: 'experiment, test, research, investigation' among others which can be used as direct objects of that phrasal verb. And the collocates of 'carry on' besides 'conversation' are 'talk', 'discussion'. With 'carry on' it is possible to use words that related in meaning as 'debate' and 'negotiations' (both of which are types of discussion). A native English speaker will know that it is a natural and normal to say carry out an investigation not *'carry on an investigation'. On the other hand, we normally carry on a conversation Not * carry out a conversation.

As for the collocation of IEX, we have offered the following discussion:

Here are some idioms with their meanings: Let the cat out of the bag (=reveal a secret); lick someone's boots (=humble oneself to gain someone’s favour); rain cats and dogs (=rain heavily); Storm in a teacup (=fuss about something that is not really important); Off the cuff (=not prepared before hand).

What is it that they have in common? One could suggest that these expressions are fixed collocations... However, some collocations are fairly loosely related... With idioms, this freedom of collocation is much more restricted.

Using the examples we have noted, it would be odd to say:

They have let several out of bags (=revealed several secrets); he goes about licking people's sandals; yesterday it rained dogs and cats; the teacup has just had a storm; he made an off his-cuff remarks, and so on. Generally speaking, however, idioms operate in some ways as if they were compound words, and the number of changes that can be made are very limited.

Regarding the sense relations of IEX, we have discussed synonymy (a saving grace / a redeeming feature), antonymy (early on / latter on; by accident / by design), false friends (hold sb’s hand / hold hands) and other semantic relations.
Many **multi-word verbs** have synonyms which are single words but these words are much formal e.g. bring up / educate.

Antonyms describe opposite processes such as: putting on / taking off; coming in / going out.

An important point to mention in respect of synonymy of multi-word verbs is that particle and prepositions themselves have synonyms which alternate after verbs:

Examples are:

- Synonymous particle: 'about, around / round'
- Synonymous prepositions (on, over, upon).

Idiomaticity has been touched upon briefly in this section. Clearly, the fact that very many verbs with particles or prepositions are used idiomatically is the central issue that we have to deal with in mastering this important area of the vocabulary. To highlight the distinction between idiomaticity and non-idiomaticity of English expressions, it might be useful to consider the following questions:

1. How can idiomaticity itself be recognized and defined?
   How in practice do we decide whether a particular expression is idiomatic or not?

2. Is the distinction between idioms and non-idioms clear-cut, or do the two categories shade off into each other? Where do we draw the line between idioms and non-idioms?

3. What criteria in particular must expressions satisfy to merit inclusion in idioms' dictionaries?

A view of idiomaticity which does full justice to the rich diversity of word-combinations in English must recognize that the meaning of a combination may be related to those of its components in a variety of ways, and must take account also of the possibility of internal variation, or substitution of part for part.

Before rounding off chapter 4, we have compared, contrasted and related IEX / MWV to the native speech of the Sudanese Learners in terms of metaphors, sayings and
proverbs, colloquial (informal) language and slang. However, the discussion has led us to the following conclusion:

The speech of Sudanese people - *Colloquial Sudanese Arabic* - contains idiomatic expressions of different kinds (*fixed collocations, sayings / proverbs, catchphrases* etc.) and these expressions are used widely by them. They are part of our subjects speech. However, multi-word verbs are few in classical Arabic thus in Sudanese colloquial Arabic. Therefore, the notion and the concept of the *multiplicity of the words of verbs* are not clear for the majority of our subjects. The researcher himself (helped by other native speakers) couldn't provide more than one or two examples of those verbal constructions from classical Arabic. This claim is borne out by the questionnaire given to the students who were not able to give even a couple of examples of multi-word verbs in Arabic.

Overall, the (4) previous chapters (the introduction, the literature review, the position / status of IEX/MWV in English and the syllabuses used in Sudan and the linguistic study of these multi-lexical items) which form the first part of this study, serve as a theoretical background / framework for the empirical / practical part of this research. (Chapters five and six as well as the general summary and conclusion for the whole thesis).