English Phrasal Verbs in Use

ENGLISH PHRASAL VERBS IN USE

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Preface

Phrasal verbs are very common in spoken and written English so we need them to understand and speak natural English. A **phrasal verb** is a combination of a verb and a preposition, a verb and an adverb, or a verb with both an adverb and a preposition, any of which are part of the syntax of the sentence, and so are complete semantic units. Sentences may contain direct and indirect objects in addition to the phrasal verb. Phrasal verbs are particularly frequent in the English language. A phrasal verb often has a meaning which is different from the original verb. According to Tom McArthur:

> ...the term 'phrasal verb' was first used by Logan Pearsall Smith, in "Words and Idioms" (1925), in which he states that the OED Editor Henry Bradley suggested the term to him.

Alternative terms for phrasal verb are 'compound verb', 'verb-adverb combination', 'verb-particle construction (VPC)', AmE 'two-part word/verb' and 'three-part word/verb' (depending on the number of particles), and multi-word verb (MWV). Prepositions and adverbs used in a phrasal verb are also called particles in that they do not alter their form through inflections (are therefore uninflected: they do not accept affixes, etc.). Because of the idiomatic nature of phrasal verbs, they are often subject to preposition stranding.

This publication titled, "English Phrasal Verbs in Use" provides readers with an introductory overview of phrasal verbs including a phrasal verb dictionary. The focus also lies on verb, adverb, preposition and postposition along with model verb and preposition dictionary.

Additional focus lies on word, grammatical particle, preposition stranding and separable verb. Special focus has been laid on noun phrase, English phrasal verbs in use and advanced phrasal verb besides, English irregular verbs.

Attempts have been made towards avoidance of phrasal verbs and focus on related items. A list of English phrasal verbs has been given as appendix.

This publication titled, "English Phrasal Verbs in Use" is completely user-friendly as it also gives readers a glossary, bibliography and index.

—Editor

1

Introduction to Phrasal Verb

PHRASAL VERB

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Phrasal Verbs in Informal Speech

Phrasal verbs are usually used informally in everyday speech as opposed to the more formal Latinate verbs, such as "to get together" rather than "to congregate", "to put off" rather than "to postpone", or "to get out" rather than "to exit".

Literal Usage

Many verbs in English can be combined with an adverb or a preposition, and readers or listeners will easily understand a phrasal verb used in a literal sense with a preposition:

- "He *walked across* the square."

Verb and adverb constructions can also easily be understood when used literally:

- "She opened the shutters and *looked outside*."
- "When he heard the crash, he *looked up*."

An adverb in a literal phrasal verb modifies the verb it is attached to, and a preposition links the verb to the object.

Idiomatic Usage

It is, however, the figurative or idiomatic application in everyday speech which makes phrasal verbs so important:

- "I hope you will *get over* your operation quickly."
- "Work hard, and *get* your examination *over with*."

The literal meaning of "to get over", in the sense of "to climb over something to get to the other side", no longer applies to explain the subject's enduring an operation or the stress of an examination which they have to overcome. It is when the combined meaning of verb plus adverb, or verb plus preposition is totally different from each of its component parts, that the semantic content of the phrasal

verb cannot be predicted by its constituent parts and so becomes much more difficult for a student learning English to recognise.

Other idiomatic usages of phrasal verbs show a verb + direct object + preposition/adverb + indirect object construction:

In her introduction to "Longman Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs, What this dictionary contains", Rosemary Courtney includes as a third category

> 3. Idioms which are formed from phrasal verbs, such as *let the cat out of the bag*. These idioms are printed in heavy type. Idioms have a meaning which is different from the meaning of the single words, and usually have a fixed word order.

Courtney then cites among many other examples in the dictionary such phrases as "to add insult to injury", "to add fuel to the flames", "to leave someone in the lurch", "to scare someone out of their wits", etc.

Phrasal Verb Patterns

A phrasal verb contains either a preposition or an adverb (or both), and may also combine with one or more nouns or pronouns.

Particle Verbs

Phrasal verbs that contain adverbs are sometimes called "particle verbs", and are related to separable verbs in other Germanic languages. There are two main patterns: intransitive and transitive. An intransitive particle verb does not have an object:

- "When I entered the room he *looked up*."

A transitive particle verb has a nominal object in addition to the adverb. If the object is an ordinary noun, it

can usually appear on either side of the adverb, although very long noun phrases tend to come after the adverb:

- *Switch off* the light.
- *Switch* the light *off*.
- *Switch off* the lights in the hallway next to the bedroom in which the president is sleeping.

With some transitive particle verbs, however, the noun object must come after the adverb. Such examples are said to involve "inseparable" phrasal verbs:

- The gas *gave off* fumes. (not The gas *gave* fumes *off*.)

According to, still other transitive particle verbs require the object to precede the adverb, even when the object is a long noun phrase:

- I cannot *tell* the dogs *apart*. (not I cannot *tell apart* the dogs.)
- I cannot *tell* the bulldogs and the pugs who look like them *apart*.

However, some authors say that the particle must be adjacent to the verb *whenever* the noun phrase is lengthy and complicated.

With all transitive particle verbs, if the object is a pronoun, it must, with just one type of exception, precede the adverb:

- *Switch* it *off*. (not *Switch off* it.)
- The smell *put* them *off*. (not *put off* them)
- They *let* him *through*. (not they *let through* him)

The exception occurs if the direct object is contrastively stressed, as in

- *Figure out* THESE, not THOSE.

Gorlach asserts that the position of the nominal object before or after the adverb has a subtle effect on the degree to which the phrase has resultative implication, as seen in this example involving the simple verb *eat* and the phrasal verb *eat up*:

- *to eat* the apple (neutral for result)
- *to eat up* the apple (greater possibility for result)
- *to eat* the apple *up* (compulsory claim for result)

Prepositional Verbs

Prepositional verbs are phrasal verbs that contain a preposition, which is always followed by its nominal object. They are different from inseparable transitive particle verbs, because the object still follows the preposition if it is a pronoun:

- On Fridays, we *look after* our grandchildren.
- We *look after* them. (not *look* them *after*)

The verb can have its own object, which usually precedes the preposition:

- She *helped* the boy *to* an extra portion of potatoes.
- with pronouns: She *helped* him *to* some.

Prepositional verbs with two prepositions are possible:

- We *talked to* the minister *about* the crisis.

Phrasal-Prepositional Verbs

A phrasal verb can contain an adverb and a preposition at the same time. Again, the verb itself can have a direct object:

- no direct object: The driver *got off to* a flying start.
- direct object: Onlookers *put* the accident *down to* the driver's loss of concentration.

Phrasal Verbs and Modifying Adverbs

When modifying adverbs are used alongside particle adverbs intransitively (as particle adverbs usually are), the adverbs can appear in any verb/particle/adverb positions:

- "He *unhappily looked round*."
- "He *looked unhappily round*."
- "He *looked round unhappily*."

The particle adverb here is "round" and the modifying adverb is "unhappily". ("Round" is a particle because it is not inflected — does not take affixes and alter its form. "Unhappily" is a modifying adverb because it modifies the verb "look").

With a transitive particle verb, the adverb goes either before the verb or after the object or particle, whichever is last:

- "He *cheerfully picked* the book *up*."
- "He *picked up* the book *cheerfully*." (not *picked cheerfully up* the book)
- "He *picked* the book *up cheerfully*."

Prepositional verbs are different from transitive particle verbs, because they allow adverbs to appear between the verb and the preposition:

- "He *cheerfully looked after* the children.
- "He *looked after* the children *cheerfully*.
- "He *looked cheerfully after* the children.

Phrasal Verbs Combined with Special Verb Forms and Clauses

Courtney also includes special verb forms and clauses in phrasal verb constructions.

Phrasal Verbs Combined with wh-Clauses and that-Clauses

Sentences which include verb + particle + object(s) + wh-clauses

- "The teacher tries to *dictate to* his class *what the right thing to do is*"
  = transitive verb + preposition (dictate to) + indirect object (his class) + wh-clause (what the right thing to do is).
- "My friends *called for* me *when the time came*"
  = transitive verb + preposition (called for) + pronoun (me) + wh-clause (when the time came).
- "*Watch out that you don't hit your head on the low beam*"
  = intransitive verb + adverb (watch out) + that-clause (that you don't hit your head on the low beam).

Phrasal Verbs Combined with Verb-ing Forms

- "You can't *prevent* me *from seeing her*"
  = transitive verb + pronoun (prevent me) + preposition (from) + verb-ing form (seeing) + pronoun (her).

Phrasal verb is the name given to an English verb which is composed of two or three words. One verb is combined with a preposition (like *on, in, under)* or an adverb (like *up, down, away*). Sometimes a phrasal verb can have a meaning that is very different to the meaning of at least one of those two or three words separately. Some text books call these verbs multi-word verbs. Phrasal verbs are used more frequently in everyday speech than in formal, official writing or speaking.

Here are some examples:

Maria didn't know the word, so she looked it up *in the dictionary.*

Oh no, we've run out of *milk! I'll have to buy some more.*

Farmers have to get up *early in the morning.*

The rocket took off *with a loud roar.*

Often these phrasal verbs have a one-word equivalent in other languages. In Spanish, to get up can be translated as *levantarse*, in French as *se lever* etc.

Many students of English as a foreign language panic when they hear the term "phrasal verbs", but in fact phrasal verbs are just vocabulary to memorize, and not some strange, secret grammatical formula. In fact many native speakers of English do not know the term "phrasal verb" at all, even though they probably use them very often!

Types of Phrasal Verbs

There are four different types of phrasal verbs. These are:

- Phrasal verbs which take objects and are separable
- Phrasal verbs which take objects and are inseparable
- Phrasal verbs which do not take objects (these are always inseparable)
- Three-word phrasal verbs

Instead of "separate" or "separable", some text books use the word "split" or "splittable".

A useful piece of advice to confused students of English is this:

> If you do not know if a phrasal verb is separable or inseparable ALWAYS use a noun or noun phrase and do not try to separate the verb.

First used in print by Logan Pearsall Smith, in Words and Idioms (1925), in which he states that the OED Editor Henry Bradley suggested the term to him], also verb phrase, compound verb, verb–adverb combination, verb–particle construction (VPC), AmE two-part word/verb and three-part word/verb (depending on number of particles: see below).

A type of VERB in English that operates more like a phrase than a WORD, such as *go up* (as in *The balloon went up*), *put off* (as in *Don't put it off any longer*), *and take down* (as in *That'll take him down a peg or two*). Such composites derive primarily from verbs of movement and action (*go*, *put*, *take*) and ADVERBIAL PARTICLES of direction and location (*up*, *off*, *down*). The base verbs are mainly monosyllabic and may underlie a range of phrasal verbs: for example, get underlying *get up*, *get down*, *get in*, *get out*, *get on*, *get off*, *get away*, *get back*. The combinations are used both literally and figuratively, and are often idioms or elements in idioms: *to get away with murder*, *to get on like a house on fire*, *to get back at someone*, *to get up to mischief*.

History

Although the phrasal verb has been present in English for many centuries, it has only recently been described in detail. Citations in the OED date from Middle English: for example, *turne aboute* 1300; *gon doun* 1388. They are common in Shakespeare: 'So long, that ninteen Zodiacks haue gone round' (Measure for Measure, 1603). Such verbs have often been used to translate Latin verbs (*to putte downe … calare*, *deponere*: Catholicon Anglicum, 1483) and to define verbs of Latin origin in English (*abrogate … take away*: Cawdrey, Table Alphabeticall, 1604). The 18c lexicographer Samuel JOHNSON was among the first to consider such formations seriously:

There is another kind of composition more frequent in our language than perhaps in any other, from which arises to foreigners the greatest difficulty. We modify the signification of many words by a particle subjoined; as to *come off*, to escape by a fetch; to *fall on*, to attack; to *fall off*, to apostatize; to *break off*, to stop abruptly … These I have noted with great care (Preface, Dictionary of the English Language, 1755).

Grammar

Grammarians have adopted two main position with regard to the nature and use of phrasal verbs: (1) That the literal use of a form like *go up* is not a phrasal verb as such, but a verb operating with a particle: *The balloon went up into the air*. The term *phrasal verb* should properly be reserved for figurative and idiomatic uses: *The balloon went up* (= The crisis finally happened). Here, it is the holistic and semantic aspect of *go up* which is considered to identify the type, not syntax or morphology. (2) That the term covers both the literal and figurative/idiomatic uses and therefore includes syntax, morphology, and semantics: that is, both senses of *go up*, as above. This is the position adopted in the following review, which begins with a consideration of the grammatical aspects of phrasal verbs under three headings: transitivity and word order; particles functioning as adverbs and/or prepositions; and the position of adverbs.

Transitivity and Word Order

Phrasal verbs may be intransitive ('When they *went away*, she *got up* and *went out*') or transitive ('She *put* the book *down*, then *picked* it *up* again'). If the verb is transitive, the object can go before or after the particle without affecting meaning: *She put the book down*, *She put down the book*. If, however, the object is a pronoun, it comes between verb

and particle: *She put it down*, not. She put down it. However, young children and occasionally adults for emphasis have been known to place the pronoun last: *Put down IT!*

Adverbial and Prepositional Particles

A sentence containing a verb followed by a prepositional phrase can usually (but not always) be shortened so as to turn preposition into adverb: *He carried the box up the stairs* becoming *He carried the box up* (stairs understood). If a further prepositional phrase is added, two particles (the first adverbial, the second prepositional) may occur in sequence: *He carried the box up to his room*. The syntactic relationships in such sentences can be shown by bracketing: (*He carried the chair up*) (*to his room*). Usage may appear inconsistent with regard to compound forms: *into*; *out of*; BrE *on to*, AmE *onto*; *off of*, non-standard in BrE, often standard in AmE. However, in terms of phrasal verbs, such usage is straightforward: the sentences *She took the books into the room*, *She took the books out of the room*, *She lifted the books on to/onto the table*, and *She lifted the books off* (*of*) *the table* all reduce to *She took the books in/out* and *She lifted the books on/off*. The particle out is followed in England by of in such sentences as *They looked out of the window*, but in AmE, CanE, ScoE the form is generally *They looked out the window*.

The Position of Adverbs

Adverbs often appear alongside the particles of phrasal verbs. With intransitive usages, the adverb can take any of the positions in: *He happily ran away*, *He ran happily away*, *He ran away happily*, the last probably commonest. With transitive usages, the adverb goes either before the verb or after the object or particle, whichever is last: *She eagerly picked the letter up*, *She picked up the letter eagerly*,

She picked the letter up eagerly, *She picked it up eagerly*, no usage predominating, but in most contexts there are no such forms as *She picked the letter/it eagerly up*. (Notes such relatively rare possibilities as *He pushed the letters clumsily through*).

Adverbial Particles

The particles commonly used are: *aback*, *about*, *ahead*, *along*, *apart*, *aside*, *around*, *away*, *back*, *beyond*, *down*, *forth*, *in*, *off*, *on*, *out*, *over*, *past*, *round*, *through*, *up*. The commonest are *down*, *in*, *off*, *on*, *out*, *up*. BrE favours *about* (*running about*), AmE (a)round (*running around*). A verb–particle combination may have: any of the meanings of the verb plus any of the meanings of the particle, and any meanings that emerge jointly in particular contexts, including a distinct figurative and often holistic meaning. For example: (1) The phrasal verb *get up* may be intransitive (*They got up*) or transitive (*Get them up*), may mean 'move from lower to higher' (*He got the child up on to the wall*), 'move from far to near' (*One of the other runners got up to him and passed him*), 'gather, accumulate' (*The engine got up steam*), 'organize, make' (*He can get up the plot of a new film in no time at all*), and something like 'put on special clothes' (*They got themselves up as pirates*). (2) The particle *up* can mean upward direction (*The smoke rose up*), approaching direction (*He swam up to the boat*), completion in the sense that nothing is left (*They used up all the oil*), completion in the sense that something is done as fully as possible (*They tidied the room up*), and emphasis (*Hurry up!*). It may also have several nuances, as with *Drink up!*, both completive and emphatic.

The Use of Phrasal Verbs

Such verbs are often informal, emotive, and slangy, and may contrast with Latinate verbs, as in *They used up/*

consumed all the fuel; *They gathered together / assembled / congregated in the hall*; *The soldiers moved forward / advanced*. *Putting off* a meeting parallels *postponing* it; *driving back* enemy forces *repels* them; *putting out* a fire *extinguishes* it; *bringing back* the death penalty *restores* it. However, such pairing often depends on context and collocation. In some cases, one phrasal verb may match several Latinate verbs: *bring back* = *restore* (the death penalty), *return* (money to someone), *retrieve* (a shot bird or animal from where it has fallen). In other cases, one Latinate verb may match several phrasal verbs: *demolish* matching *knock down*, *tear down*, *blow up* as variants in destructive style. It is sometimes possible to match the elements of phrasal verbs and Latinate verbs: *climb up* with *a / scend*, *climb down* with *de / scend*.

Literal and Figurative Usages

The verb *bring in* is used literally in *The milkman brought in the milk*, figuratively in *The prime minister brought in a new policy*. Only in the second sense can *bring in* be matched with *introduce* (itself originally metaphorical in Latin): not *The milkman introduced the milk*, unless a joke is intended. Jokes and cartoons are often based on a deliberate confusion of phrasal-verb meanings: as when someone says, '*Put* the kettle *on*' (taken to mean heat some water in a kettle for tea), then notes with appreciation, 'Mmm, it suits you' (crossing over to *putting on* clothes and leaving the listener to imagine someone wearing a kettle). An artist might build a cartoon round the literal/figurative contrast in *Where did you pick up that idea?*, with someone searching through garbage for inspiration, and the headline *OIL WILL RUN OUT SOON* might be supported by a picture of barrels with legs leaving a room.

Derived Phrasal Verbs

In addition to the traditional combination of verb of movement plus directional particle, phrasal verbs are commonly created from adjectives, nouns, and Latinate verbs: (1) From adjectives. Basically, with *-en* verbs: *brighten / brighten up*, *flatten down / out*, *freshen up*, *harden off*, *loosen off / up*, *slacken off / up*, *smarten up*, *soften up*, *tighten up*, *toughen up*. Where verbs in *-en* cannot be formed (that is, from adjectives ending in *n*, *ng*, *m*, *l*, *r*, *th*, or a spoken vowel), the particle is added directly: *calm down* to become/make calm, *cool off* become/make cool, *even out* to become/make even, *tidy up* to make tidy. (2) From nouns. By telescoping an expression containing a phrasal verb and a special noun: *hammer out* encapsulating *beat out with a hammer*; *channel off* telescoping *carry or run off by means of a channel*; *brick up* meaning *close up with bricks*. many phrasal verbs emerge in this way: *bed down*, *board up*, *book out*, *button up*, *dish out*, *fog up*, *gang up*, *hose down*, *iron out*, *jack up*, *mist up*, *saddle up*, *sponge down*, *wall in*. (3) From Latinate verbs. Particles are added, usually as completives and intensives, to two- and three-syllable verbs of Latin origin: *contract out*, *divide off / up*, *level off*, *measure off / out*, *select out*, *separate off / out*. Such usages are sometimes described as barbarous and pleonastic, but such criticism does not affect their widespread use.

Nouns From Phrasal Verbs

Two kinds of noun are formed from such verbs: (1) The major pattern. In speech, the level stress of *bréak dówn* changes to the compound stress of *BREAKdown*. In writing and print, nouns like this are either solid (*breakdown*) or hyphenated (*round-up*). The solid form is common when a usage is well established and is favoured in AmE. Hyphenation is common for newer usages and is favoured in BrE, in which a solid form may seem confusing or odd,

especially when vowels come together: *cave-in* as *cavein*, *make up* as *makeup*. Typical nouns are: *blackout*, *breakout*, *breakup*, *build-up*, *getaway*, *get-together*, *hold-up*, *mix-up*, *sit-in*, *take-off*, *white-out*. (2) The minor pattern. By a process of inversion: when a disease *breaks out*, there is an *outbreak* of that disease. Again, compound stress occurs: *OUTbreak*. In writing and print, the presentation is usually solid. Typical nouns are: *input*, *onrush*, *outflow*, *output*, *overflow*, *overspill*, *throughput*, *upkeep*, *upsurge*, *uptake*. The contrasting patterns sometimes prompt different forms with different meanings: a *breakout* usually of people, an *outbreak* usually of disease and trouble; a *layout* in design and decoration, an *outlay* of money and goods; a *lookout* posted to observe, an *outlook* usually relating to weather, attitude, and prospects. Most phrasal nouns relate to situations. The few which relate to things and people tend to be dialectal, idiomatic, and slangy: BrE *layabout* someone who lays/lies idly about; AmE *dropout* someone who drops out of society or education; *write-off* a car so badly damaged that it is written off the books of an insurance company; *blow-up* a photograph blown up like a balloon. As with the verb forms, phrasal nouns can run parallel with Latinate nouns that tend to be elevated, technical, and formal where the phrasal nouns are colloquial, informal, and slangy: *break-up / disintegration*, *checkup / examination*, *letdown / disappointment*, *let-up / relaxation*, *sellout / betrayal*, *shake-up / reorganization*.

Compounds and Attributives

Phrasal nouns can occur in compound and attributive formations: (1) With the phrasal noun first: *blackout regulations*, *breakdown service*, *check-up period*, *getaway car*, *input time*, *overflow pipe*, *round-up time*. (2) With the phrasal noun second: *aeroplane take-off / airplane takeoff*, *traffic holdup*, *cholera outbreak*, *enemy build-up*, *population*

overspill, *student sit-in*. (3) With the phrasal noun between other nouns: *cattle round-up time*, *truck break-down service*, *population overspill problem*.

Phrasal-Verb Idioms

Idiomatic usages are usually colloquial and informal, more or less obvious figurative extensions of ordinary uses. Expressions used to gloss them are often more formal, less direct, and less emotive, as with: *bring down* or defeat (a government), *bring* in or introduce (a new law), *bring off* or clinch (a deal), *bring on* or encourage and train (a student), *bring out* or publish (a book), *bring up* or raise (a child); be *carried away* or overwhelmed (by one's emotions), *carry off* or win (a prize), *carry on* or continue (one's work), *carry out* or perform (one's duty), *carry through* or sustain (a project, to the end); a machine *coming apart* or disintegrating, a deal *coming off* or succeeding, work *coming on* or improving, soldiers *coming through* or surviving, something *coming up* or happening; *cutting back* or economizing (on expenses), *cutting down* or reducing (one's expenses), *cutting in on* or interrupting (a conversation), *cutting* people *off* or isolating them, *cutting* something *out* or excising or eliminating it; *getting down* or alighting (from a train), *getting* all the information *in* or collecting it, *getting on* or succeeding (in life), *getting off* or disembarking, or being allowed to go free, after an offence, *getting out of* or escaping from (a prison), and *getting out* or producing and publishing (a magazine), *getting up* or increasing (pressure), and *getting up* or rising from one's bed in the morning. Similar lists can be made for such other everyday verbs as *be*, *do*, *go*, *keep*, *make*, *pass*, *pull*, *put*, *run*, *set*, *take*, *turn*.

Phrasal Verbs and Prepositions

There is a continuum between the phrasal verb as

described above and verbs followed by phrases in which the preposition may or may not be part of the phrase. A phrasal verb can be formed elliptically from a verb plus prepositional phrase (like *He took the box up* from *He took the box up the stairs*). A transitive usage may not be separable (like *pick up the book*/*pick the book up*), but may have distinct meanings depending on where the particle is placed (*get round someone*, *get someone round*). Particles may not be clearly either adverbial or prepositional, as with off in BrE *get off the bus* (compare widespread AmE *get off of the bus*). Some prepositions may be attached to verbs preceding them, usually for figurative reasons: where the sentence *He came across the street* is analysable as (*He came*) (*across the street*), the sentence *He came across an old friend* makes more sense as a phrasal form: (*He came across*) (*an old friend*), *come across* glossed as *meet by chance*. Some grammarians and lexicologists call a usage like *come across* a *prepositional verb*, because the particle is not adverbial but prepositional. Such a terminology, if extended, should turn phrasal verbs proper into 'adverbial verbs', but has not yet done so. Other commentators call the usage a *fused* or *non-separable phrasal verb*, because the preposition has been 'stolen' from its own phrase and fused with the preceding verb in an idiom. Others still consider some particles so equivocal that they are neither adverbs as such nor prepositions as such, but 'adpreps'. Usages include: *act for* represent, *bargain for* expect, *call for* demand, *come by* obtain, *get at* imply, *go for* attack. The issue is further complicated by occasions when the fusion occurs between a phrasal verb proper and a following preposition, as with *look down on* hold in contempt, *check up on* investigate, *go along with* accept, *face up to* confront, *look back on* recall, *look forward to* have good expectations of, *look up to* admire, *meet up with* encounter.

Stress

In normal speech, if no special emphasis is employed, the adverbial particle in a phrasal verb proper is stressed: *to pick úp a bóok/pick a bóok úp*. The preposition in a two-part fused (prepositional) verb is not usually so stressed: *They dídn't bárgain for thát*. In a three-part fusion, the stresses combine the patterns: *to lóok UP to sómeone*, *lóok DOWN on sómeone*.

Productivity

Phrasal verbs have always been common, but have increased in number since the mid-19c and even more so since the mid-20c, especially in AmE. As a result, a number of dictionaries of phrasal verbs have been published since 1974 and increasingly dictionaries for both native and foreign users have given phrasal verbs main-entry or high secondary status. They are increasingly the subject of special attention in courses for foreign learners of English, and it was in this area that the category came of age as a distinct aspect of grammar, word-formation, and usage.

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DENNIS OLIVER'S PHRASAL VERBS

act up (no object): misbehave (for people); not work properly (for machines).

> "The babysitter had a difficult time. The children **acted up** all evening."

"I guess I'd better take my car to the garage. It's been **acting up** lately."

act like (inseparable): behave in a way that's like _____ .

"What's wrong with Bob? He's **acting like** an idiot."

Note: This phrasal verb is very informal.

add up (1. no object): logically fit together.

"His theory is hard to believe, but his research **adds up**."

Note: This phrasal verb is often negative.

"His theory seems, at first, to be plausible, but the facts in his research don't **add up**."

add up (2. separable): find the total.

"What's the total of those bills? Could you **add** them **up** and see?"

add up to (inseparable): to total.

"The bills **add up to** $734.96. That's more than I expected!"

ask out (separable): ask for a date.

"Nancy has a new boy friend. Joe **asked** her **out** last night."

back down (no object): not follow a threat.

"Tom was going to call the police when I told him I'd wrecked his car, but he **backed down** when I said I'd pay for the damages."

back off (no object): not follow a threat.

"Tom was ready to call the police when I told him I'd wrecked his car, but he **backed off** when I said I'd pay for the damages."

back up (1. no object): move backward; move in reverse.

> "You missed the lines in the parking space. You'll have to **back up** and try again."

> "The people waiting in line are too close to the door. We won't be able to open it unless they **back up**."

back up (2. separable): drive a vehicle backwards (in reverse).

> "You're too close! **Back** your car **up** so I can open the garage door."

back up (3. separable): confirm a story, facts, or information.

> "If you don't believe me, talk to Dave. He'll **back** me **up**."

back up (4. separable): make a "protection" copy to use if there are problems with the original.

> "When my computer crashed, I lost many of my files. It's a good thing I **backed** them **up**."

beg off (no object): decline an invitation; ask to be excused from doing something.

> "At first Lily said she would be at the party. Later she **begged off**."

ablow up (1. separable): inflate.

> "We needs lots of balloons for the party. Will you **blow** them **up**?"

blow up (2. separable): explode; destroy by exploding.

> A: "That old building really came down quickly!"
>
> B: "That's because the construction company used dynamite to **blow** it **up**."

blow up (3. no object): suddenly become very angry.

> "When I told Jerry that I'd had an accident with his car, he **blew up**."

bone up on (inseparable): review / study thoroughly for a short time.

> "If you're going to travel to Peru, you'd better **bone up on** your Spanish."

break down (1. separable): separate something into component parts.

> "We spent a lot of money at the supermarket. When we **broke** the total cost **down**, we spent more on cleaning supplies than food."

break down (2. no object): stop working / functioning.

> "Sharon will be late for work today. Her car **broke down** on the freeway."

break in (1. often no object; with an object, **break into**—inseparable): enter by using force (and breaking a lock, window, etc.)

> "Jane's apartment was burglarized last night. Someone **broke in** while Jane was at the movies." / "Somebody **broke into** Jane's apartment while she was at the movies.

break in (2. separable): wear something new until it's / they're comfortable.

> "These are nice shoes, but they're too stiff. I hope it doesn't take too long to **break** them **in**."

break in (3. separable): train; get someone / something accustomed to a new routine.

> "I hope I can learn my new job quickly. The manager hasn't scheduled much time for **breaking me in**."

break up (1. no object): disperse; scatter.

"What time did the party **break up** last night?"

break up (2. usually no object; with an object, **break up with** [inseparable)]): end a personal relationship.

"Tim and Julie aren't going steady any more. They got really angry with each other and **broke up**."

"Have you heard the news? Julie **broke up with** Tim!"

"I'm sorry to hear that their marriage **broke up**. I'm sure the divorce will be difficult for the children."

bring / take back (separable): return something.

"Yes, you can borrow my pen, don't forget to **bring** it **back** to me when you're finished."

"This book is due tomorrow. I guess I should **take** it **back** to the library."

bring off (separable): accomplish something difficult; accomplish something people had considered impossible or unlikely.

"No one thought Chuck could get an A in that course, but he **brought** it **off**. "

bring up (1. separable): mention (as a topic of discussion).

"We planned to discuss overtime pay in the meeting. Why didn't someone **bring** that topic **up**?"

bring up (2. separable): raise; rear.

"Lucy's parents died when she was a baby. Her grandparents **brought** her **up**."

brush up on (inseparable): review / study thoroughly for a short time.

"If you're going to travel to Peru, you'd better **brush up on** your Spanish."

burn down (no object): become destroyed / consumed by fire.

Note: For upright things—trees, buildings, etc.—only.

"Lightning struck Mr. Kennedy's barn last night. It **burned down** before the fire fighters arrived."

burn up (1. no object): become destroyed / consumed by fire.

Note: For people and non-upright things only.

"All of Mr. Kennedy's hay **burned up** when his barn burned down."

burn up (2. separable): cause someone to become very angry.

"Did you hear how rudely Fred talked to me? That really **burned** me **up**!"

butt in (no object): impolitely interrupt (a conversation, an action).

"Hey, you! Don't **butt in**! Wait for your turn!"

butter up (separable): praise someone excessively with the hope of getting some benefit.

"I guess Marty reall wants to be promoted. He's been **buttering** his boss **up** all week."

call off (separable): cancel something that has been scheduled.

"We don't have school today. The mayor **called** classes **off** because of the snow."

call on (inseparable): ask someone for an answer in class.

> "I don't know why the teacher never **calls on** you. You always know the answer."

calm down (with or without an object; with an object, separable): become calm / less agitated or upset; help someone become calm / less agitated or upset.

> "Why are you so upset? Suzie didn't intend to spill orange juice on you. **Calm down**!"
> "I know Ralph is upset, but can you **calm** him **down**? He's making so much noise that he's irritating everyone in the office."

(not) care for (1. inseparable): like; want.

> **Note**: This phrasal verb is usually negative, though it may be used affirmatively in questions.
>
> A: "Would you **care for** something to drink? We have coffee, tea, or orange juice."
> B: "Could I have water, please? I don't **care for** coffee, tea, or juice."

care for (2. inseparable): take care of; supply care to; attend / watch..

> "Amy's father got out of the hospital last week. The family is **caring for** him at home."

catch on (no object): develop understanding or knowledge of something.

> "Bill had never used a computer until he took this class, but he **caught on** very quickly and is now one of the best students."

catch up (with) (often without an object; with an object, inseparable): stop being behind.

"Terry stopped to rest for a few minutes. He'll **catch up / catch up with** us later."

check in(to) (inseparable): register for / at a hotel, conference, etc.; let someone know officially that you have arrived.

"My plane will arrive around 5:00 PM. I should be able to **check into** the hotel by 6:00 or 6:30."

"When you arrive at the convention, be sure to **check in** at the registration desk."

check off (separable): make a mark to indicate that something on a list has been completed.

"Here are the things you need to do. Please **check** each one **off** when you've finished it."

check out (of) (1. inseparable): follow procedures for leaving (a hotel, etc.)

"Don't forget to take your room key to the front desk when you **check out** (when you **check out of** the hotel)."

check out (2. separable): follow procedures for borrowing something (usually for a limited period of time).

"I'm sorry, but you can't take that encyclopedia home. The library won't allow you to **check** reference books **out**."

cheer up (separable): help someone feel less worried / depressed / sad.

"Suzie's brother was depressed about not getting a promotion, so she sent him a funny card to **cheer** him **up**."

chew out (separable): scold someone severely; berate.

"Tom's father was really angry when Tom didn't come home until 3:00 AM. He **chewed** Tom **out** and then said Tom had to stay at home for two weeks."

chicken out (no object): lose the courage or confidence to do something—often at the last minute.

"Sam said he was going to ask Lulu for a date, but he **chickened out**."

chip in (inseparable): contribute / donate (often money) to something done by a group.

"We're going to buy a birthday cake for our boss and I'm collecting donations. Do you want to **chip in**?"

clam up (inseparable): suddenly become quiet / refuse to talk about something.

"Lila wouldn't talk about the accident. When I asked her what happened, she **clammed up**."

come across (inseparable): find (unexpectedly).

"I've lost my extra car keys. If you **come across** them while your'recleaning the room, please put them in a safe place."

come down with _____ (inseparable): become ill with _____ .

"George won't be at the office today. He **came down with** the flu over the weekend."

come to (1. inseparable): total.

"Your charges **come to** $124.38. Will you pay by check, in cash, or with a credit card?"

come to (2. no object): regain consciousness.

"When I told Gina that she'd won a million dollars, she fainted. When she

came to, I told her it was a joke and she almost hit me!"

count on (inseparable): depend on; trust that something will happen or that someone will do as expected.

"I'm **counting on** you to wake me up tomorrow. I know I won't hear the alarm."

cross out (separable): show that something written is wrong or unnecessary by making an X across it.

"We can't afford to buy everything on your shopping list, so I've **crossed** all the unnecessary things **out**."

cut back (on) (often without an object; with an object, **cut back on** [inseparable]): use less of something.

"You drink too much coffee. You should **cut back**."

"You should **cut back on** the amount of coffee that you drink."

do in (1. separable): cause to become very tired.

"Those three games of tennis yesterday afternoon really **did** me **in**. I slept for ten hours after I got home."

do in (2. separable): to kill; to murder.

"The said that the murdered man was **done in** between 10 and 11 o'clock last night."

do over (separable): do something again.

"Oh, no! I forgot to save my report before I turned the computer off! Now I'll have to **do** it **over**!"

drag on (no object): last much longer than expected or is necessary.

> "I thought the meeting would be a short one, but it **dragged on** for more than three hours."

draw up (separable): create a formal document.

> "The Ajax and Tip-Top Banks have decided to merge. Their lawyers will **draw** all the official documents **up** sometime this month."

drop off (separable): deliver something; deliver someone (by giving him/her a ride).

> "Yes, I can take those letters to the post office. I'll **drop** them **off** as I go home from work."
> "You don't have to take a taxi. You live fairly close to me, so I'll be happy to **drop** you **off**."

drop in (on) (inseparable): visit informally (and usually usually without scheduling a specific time).

> "If you're in town next month, we'd love to see you. Please try to **drop in**. (Please try to **drop in on** us."

drop by (inseparable): visit informally (and usually without scheduling a specific time).

> "If you're in town next month, we'd love to see you. Please try to **drop by** the house."

drop out (of) (inseparable): stop attending / leave school or an organization.

> "No, Paul isn't at the university. He **dropped out**. / He **dropped out of** school."

draw out (separable): prolong something (usually far beyond the normal limits).

> "I thought that speech would never end. The speaker could have said everything important in about five minutes, but he **drew** the speech **out** for over an hour!"

eat out (no object): have a meal in a restaurant.

> "I'm too tired to cook tonight. Why don't we **eat out**?"

egg on (separable): urge / encourage greatly toward doing something (usually something negative).

> "At first Bob and Chuck were just having a mild argument, but Bob's friends **egged** them **on** until they started fighting."

end up (1. no object): finally arrive at; arrive at an unexpected place.

> "We got lost last night and **ended up** in the next town."

end up (2. no object): arrive somewhere as a result or consequence.

> "You're working too hard. If you don't take it easy, you'll **end up** in the hospital!"

face up to (inseparable): admit to; take responsibility for.

> "You can't pretend that you're doing OK in this course, Joe. Sooner or later, you'll have to **face up to** the fact that you're failing it."

fall through (no object): not happen. (**Note:** describes something that was planned but didn't happen.)

> "We had originally intended to go to Mexico for our vacation, but our trip **fell through** when I got sick."

fall through (no object): not happen. (**Note:** describes something that was planned but didn't happen.)

> "We had originally intended to go to Mexico for our vacation, but our trip **fell through** when I got sick."

feel up to (inseparable): feel strong enough or comfortable enough to do something.

> "I know the accident was a terrible shock. Do you **feel up to** talking about it?"

figure out (1. separable): logically find the answer to a problem; solve a problem by thinking about it carefully.

> "For a long time I couldn't understand the last problem, but I finally **figured** it **out**."

figure out (2. separable): understand why someone behaves the way she/he does.

> "I can't **figure** Margie **out**. Sometimes she's very warm and friendly and sometimes she acts as if she doesn't know me."

fill in (1. separable): add information to a form.

> "The office needs to know your home address and phone number. Could you **fill** them **in** on this form?"

fill in (on) (2. separable): supply information that someone doesn't know.

> "I wasn't able to attend the meeting yesterday, but I understand that it was important. Could you **fill** me **in**? / Could you **fill** me **in on** what was discussed?"

fill in for (inseparable): temporarily do someone else's work; temporarily substitute for another person.

> "Professor Newton is in the hospital and won't be able to teach for the rest of the term. Do you know who's going to **fill in for** her?"

fill out (1. separable): complete a form by adding required information.

> "Of course I completed my application! I **filled** it **out** and mailed it over three weeks ago!"

fill out (2. no object): become less thin; gain weight.

> "Jerry used to be really skinny, but in the last year he's begun to **fill out**."

find out (about) (inseparable): learn / get information (about).

> "I'm sorry that you didn't know the meeting had been canceled. I didn't **find ou**t (**find out about** it) myself until just a few minutes ago."

get across (separable): make something understood; communicate something understandably.

> "Alan is really intelligent but sometimes he has problems **getting** his ideas **across**."

get along (with) (inseparable): have a friendly relationship (with); be friendly (toward).

> "Why can't you and your sister **get along**? Everyone else **gets along with** her just fine!"

get around (1. inseparable): avoid having to do something.

> "Teresa **got around** the required math classes by doing well on a math proficiency test."

get around (2. no object): move from place to place.

"She doesn't have a car. She **gets around** by bicycle, bus, or taxi."

get around to (inseparable): do something eventually.

"I really should wash the dishes, but I don't feel like it. Maybe I'll **get around to** them tomorrow morning."

get by (no object): survive, financially, in a difficult situation.

"It's going to be hard to pay the rent now that you've lost your job, but somehow we'll **get by**."

get in (1. inseparable): enter a small, closed vehicle.

"I don't know where Carole was going. She just **got in** her car and drove away."

get in (2. no object): arrive.

"Do you know what time Fred's plane **gets in**?"

get on (inseparable): enter a large, closed vehicle.

"I'm sorry, but you're too late to say goodbye to Angela. She **got on** the plane about 20 minutes ago."

get off (1. inseparable): leave a large, closed vehicle.

"When you **get off** the bus, cross the street, turn right on Oak Street, and keep going until you're at the corner of Oak and Lincoln Boulevard."

get off (2. separable): be excused (for a period of time) from work, class, or other regularly scheduled activities.

"Some schools **got** President's Day **off** but ours didn't. We had classes as usual."

get off (3. separable): make it possible for someone to avoid punishment.

> "Everyone knew he was guilty, but his lawyer was clever and **got** him **off**."

get out of (1. inseparable): leave a small, closed vehicle.

> "There's something wrong with the garage door opener. You'll have to get out of the car and open it by hand."

get out of (2. inseparable): escape having to do something.

> "Lisa said she had a terrible headache and **got out of** giving her speech today."

get over (1. no object): finish. (**Note**: for individual activities, not ones that happen again and again.)

> "What time do your classes **get over**?"

get over (2. inseparable): recover from an illness or painful experience.

> "Katy was really upset when she failed the test. She thought she would never **get over** feeling so stupid."

get rid of (1. inseparable): dispose of; give away or throw away.

> "That shirt is really ugly. Why don't you **get rid of** it?"

get rid of (2. inseparable): dismiss someone; fire someone from a job; cause someone to leave.

> "The treasurer of the XYZ company was spending too much money so the company president **got rid of** him."

get up (usually no object; with an object, separable): leave bed after sleeping and begin your daily activities.

"You'll have to **get up** much earlier than usual tomorrow. We have to leave by no later than 6:00 AM."

"I know I won't hear the alarm tomorrow morning. Can you **get** me **up** at 6:00 AM?"

give up (1. separable): stop doing something (usually a habit).

"He knows smoking isn't good for his health, but he can't **give** it **up**."

give up (2. no object): decide not to try (unsuccessfully) to solve a problem.

A: "What's black and white and red all over?"

B: "I **give up**. What?"

A: "An embarrassed zebra!"

go out with (inseparable): have a date with.

"You **went out with** Sharon last night, didn't you?"

go with (1. no object): look pleasing together. (**Note:** for clothes, furniture, etc.)

"You should buy that shirt. It will **go** well **with** your dark brown suit."

go with (2. no object): date regularly and steadily.

"Is Gina **going with** Jim? I see them together all the time."

goof off (no object): be lazy; do nothing in particular.

A: "Do you have any special plans for your vacation?"

B: "No. I'm just going to stay home and **goof off**."

grow up (1. no object): spend the years between being a child and being an adult.

"Did you know that Frank **grew up** in Malaysia?"

grow up (2. no object): behave responsibly; behave as an adult, not a child.

A: "Lee really irritates me sometimes. He's really silly and childish."
B: "I agree. I wish he would **grow up**."

hand in (separable): submit homework, an assignment, etc.

"You'd better get started on your report. You know that you have to **hand** it **in** at 8:30 tomorrow morning!"

hand out (separable): distribute.

"Why don't you have a course description and list of assignments? The teacher **handed** them out on the first day of class."

hang up (no object): end a phone conversation by replacing the receiver.

"I'd like to talk longer, but I'd better **hang up**. My sister needs to make a call."

have to do with (inseparable): be about.

"This class **has to do with** the behavior of people in groups."

hold up (1. separable): raise; lift to a higher-than-normal position.

"The winner of the race proudly **held** his trophy **up** for all to see."

hold up (2. separable): delay.

> "I'm sorry I'm late. There was an accident on the freeway and traffic **held** me **up**."

hold up (3. separable): rob; threaten someone with harm unless he/she gives her/his money or other valuable things.

> "Sarah is very upset. When she was walking home last night, two men **held** her **up** and took her purse and jewelry."

iron out (separable): mutually reach an agreement; mutually resolve difficulties

> "Yes, I know we disagree on lots of things, Susan, but we can **iron** them **out**."

jack up (1. separable): raise / life by using a jack.

> "We'll have to **jack** the back of the car **up** before we can change the tire."

jack up (2. separable): raise (used for prices).

> "The car dealer bought my old Ford for $750 and **jacked** the price **up** to $1,500 when they sold it."

jump all over (inseparable): severely scold someone; berate someone.

> "Arthur is really upset. His boss **jumped all over** him because he's been late for work three times this week."

keep on (1. inseparable—followed by an -ing verb): continue

> "I'm not ready to stop yet. I think I'll **keep on** working for a while."

keep on (someone) (2. inseparable): continue to remind someone to do something until he/she does it (even if this irritates her/him).

> "Bill's very forgetful. You'll have to **keep on** him or he'll never do all the things you want him to do."

kick out (separable): expel; force someone to leave because of his/her poor performance or unacceptable behavior.

> "Jim's club **kicked** him **out** because he didn't pay his dues or come to meetings."

knock out (separable): make unconscious.

> "The boxing match ended when one boxer **knocked** the other one **out**."
>
> "That medicine really **knocked** me **out**. I slept for 14 hours straight!"

knock oneself out (separable): work much harder than normal or than what is expected.

> "We completed the project on timebecause of Chuck. He **knocked** himself **out** to be sure we didn't miss the deadline."

lay off (separable): dismiss someone from a job because of lack of work or money (not because of poor performance)

> "I feel really sorry Sally's family. Her father was **laid off** yesterday."

leave out (separable): forget; omit.

> "Oh, no! When I made the list of those who attended the meeting, I **left** your name **out**!"

let down (separable): disappoint.

"I know I **let** you **down** when I didn't do what I promised. I'm really sorry."

let up (no object): become less intense or slower.

"It's been raining hard for a long time. Will it ever **let up**?"

look back on (inseparable): remember; reflect on / consider something in the past.

"When they **looked back on** their many years together, they realized that their marriage had been a very happy one."

look down on (inseparable): hold in contempt; regard as inferior.

"It's not surprising that Fred has few friends. He seems to **look down on** anyone who doesn't like the same things that he does."

look forward to (inseparable): anticipate pleasantly; think about a pleasant thing before it happens

"I'm really **looking forward to** vacation. I can't wait for it to begin!"

look in on (inseparable): visit in order to check something's / someone's condition.

"My father just came home from the hospital. I plan to **look in on** him today after I finish work."

look into (inseparable): investigate / get more details about something.

"Someone said there was a meeting at 9:30 but I haven't heard anything about it. Shall I **look into** it?"

look like (inseparable): resemble (in appearance).

"Does he **look like** his father or his mother?"

look over (separable): check; review.

"I think I may have some typos in this report. Could you **look** it **over**?"

look up (1. separable): find something in a reference work.

"I'm sorry, but I don't know what that word means. I'll have to **look** it **up**."

look up (2. separable): find where someone lives or works and visit him/her.

"Thanks for giving me your brother's address. When I'm in Chicago next month, I'll be sure to **look** him **up**."

look up to (inseparable): respect.

"Everyone **looks up to** Joyce because she always makes time to help others."

luck out (no object): be unexpectedly lucky.

"Gloria was worried because she wasn't prepared to give a report at the meeting, but she **lucked out** because the meeting was postponed."

make fun of (inseparable): make jokes about (usually unkindly).

"I agree that Bob looks ridiculous since he shaved his head, but don't **make fun of** him. You'll hurt his feelings."

make up (1. separable): invent / create (imaginary) information.

"Judy's story is hard to believe. I'm sure she **made** it **up**."

make up (2. separable): compensate for something missed or not done by doing extra or equivalent work.

"I'm sorry I missed the test. May I **make** it **up**?"

make up (with) (3. inseparable): re-establish a friendly relationship by admitting guilt.

"Jack and his girlfriend were very angry with each other, but last night they finally **made up**."\
"Jack and his girlfriend were very angry with each other, but last night they finally **made up with** each other."

make out (separable): see / hear something well enough to understand what it means. (**Note:** often negative.)

"Ruth's writing is very small. I almost need a magnify glass to **make** it **out**."

"What were the last two examples that he gave? I couldn't **make** them **out**."

make for (1. inseparable): go to or toward.

"Her teen-aged children are always hungry. As soon as they arrive home from school, they **make for** the refrigerator."

make for (2. inseparable): result in; cause.

"Many hands **make for** light work. (If many people work together, there's less work for everyone.)"

mark up (separable): increase the price (for resale).

"Mrs. White's import shop is profitable because she buys things inexpensively and then **marks** them **up**."

mark down (separable): reduce the price (as an incentive to buy).

"These shoes were really a bargain! The store **marked** them **down** by 40%!"

mix up (separable): cause to become confused.

"I didn't complete the assignment because I didn't know how. The directions **mixed** me **up**."

nod off (no object): fall sleep (usually unintentionally).

"The speech was so boring that several people in the audience **nodded off** before it was finished."

pan out (no object): succeed; happen as expected (for plans). (**Note:** almost always negative when in statements.)

"I'll be here next week after all. My trip to Chicago didn't **pan out**."

pass away (no object): die.

"I was very sorry to hear that your grandfather **passed away**."

pass out (1. no object): faint; lose consciousness.

"When Ella heard that she'd won a million dollars, she was so shocked that she **passed out**."

pass out (2. separable): distribute.

"Everyone in the room needs one of these information sheets. Who will help me **pass** them **out**?"

pick out (separable): choose; select.

"Billy's grandmother especially liked her birthday card because Billy had **picked** it **out** himself."

pick up (1. separable): lift; take up.

"Those books don't belong on the floor. Will you help me **pick** them **up**?"

pick up (2. separable): arrange to meet someone and give her/him a ride.

> "Of course we can go there together. What time should I **pick** you **up**?"

pick up (3. separable): get; buy.

> "The children just drank the last of the milk. Could you **pick** some more **up** on your way home this evening?"

pick up (4. separable): refresh; revitalize.

> "He was feeling a little tired, so he drank a glass of orange juice. It **picked** him **up** enough to finish his work."

pick on (inseparable): bully; intentionally try to make someone upset.

> "You should be ashamed of teasing your little brother, Bob! **Pick on** someone your own size!"

pitch in (no object): help; join together to accomplish something.

> "We'll be finished soon if everyone **pitches in**."

pull over (no object): drive a vehicle to the side of the rode.

> "When the policeman indicated that I should **pull over**, I knew he was going to give me a ticket."

put away (separable): return something to the proper place.

> "I just took these clothes out of the dryer. Will you help me **put** them **away**?"

put off (1. separable): postpone; delay; avoid

"I can't **put** this work **off** any longer. If I don't do it soon, it'll be impossible to finish it in time." \
"When will Mr. Smith agree to a meeting? I keep asking for an appointment, but he keeps **putting** me **off**."

put on (1. separable): begin to wear; don.

"It's a little bit chilly outside. You'd better **put** a sweater **on**."

put on (2. separable): try to make someone believe something that is ridiculous or untrue.

"Don't believe a word of what Jim was saying. He was just **putting** us **on**."

put (someone) **out** (separable): inconvenience someone.

"I hate to **put** you **out**, but I need a ride to the train station and hope you can take me."

put up (1. separable): return something to the proper place.

"Your toys are all over the floor, Timmy. Please **put** them **up**."

put up (2. separable): provide someone with a place to sleep.

"There's no need for you to check into a hotel. I'll be happy to **put** you **up**."

put up with (inseparable): tolerate.

"It's really important to come to work on time. The boss won't **put up with** tardiness."

put back (separable): return something to the proper place.

"I've finished with these books. Do you want me to **put** them **back** on the shelves?"

rip off (separable): cheat; take advantage of; charge too much.

"Don't even think about buying a car there. They'll **rip** you **off**."

round off (separable): change from a fraction to the nearest whole number.

"**Round** all prices **off** to the closest whole-dollar amounts. For example, **round** $33.73 **off** to $34.00."

run into (inseparable): meet by chance.

"Yesterday at the supermarket, Jan **ran into** her former roommate. Before yesterday, they hadn't seen each other for nearly five years."

run out of (inseparable): use the last of.

"On the way home from work, Art **ran out of** gas."

set up (separable): make arrangements for something.

"You'll see Mr. Thomas tomorrow. I've **set** a meeting **up** for 9:30 AM."

set back (1. separable): cause a delay in scheduling.

"We've had some problems with the project that have **set** us **back** at least two days . We'll give you a progress report tomorrow."

set back (2. separable): cost.

"I wonder how much Bill's new car **set** him **back**?"

slip up (no object): make a mistake.

"You **slipped up** here. The amount should be $135.28, not $132.58."

stand out (no object): be noticeably better than other similar people or things.

"Good job, Ann! Your work really **stands out**!"

stand up (1. no object): rise to a standing position.

"When the Chairperson entered the room, everyone **stood up**."

stand up (2. separable): make a date but not keep it.

"Angela was supposed to go to the dance with Fred, but she **stood** him **up** and went with Chuck instead."

show up (1. no object): arrive; appear.

"The boss was very upset when you didn't **show up** for the meeting. What happened?"

show up (2. separable): do a noticeably better job (often unexpectedly) than someone else.

"Everyone thought Marsha would win, but Jean did. Actually, Jean really **showed** Marsha **up**."

stand for (1. no object): represent.

"These letters seem to be an abbreviation. Do you know what they **stand for**?"

stand for (2. inseparable): tolerate; permit (usually negative).

"I'm not surprised that Mrs. Johnson rejected your report. She won't **stand for** shoddy work."

take after (inseparable): resemble; favor (in appearance).

Note: used for people.

"Both my sister and I **take after** our father."

take / bring back (separable): return.

"This book is due tomorrow. I guess I should **take** it **back** to the library."
"Yes, you can borrow my pen, but don't forget to **bring** it **back** to me when you're finished."

take care of (1. inseparable): provide care for; watch one's health.

"Lois has been **taking care of** her father since he returned home from the hospital."
"You've been working too hard lately. You'd better **take care of** yourself!"

take care of (2. ineparable): make arrangements (for something to happen); take responsibility for.

"Will you **take care of** making reservations for our flight to Boston?"

take off (1. separable): remove (something you're wearing).

"Please **take** your hat **off** when you go inside a building."

take off (2. no object): leave; depart (often suddenly or quickly).

"Was something wrong with Jill? She **took off** without saying goodbye."

"When does your plane **take off?**"

take off (3. separable): make arrangements to be absent from work.

"Susan isn't here today. She's **taking** today and tomorrow **off**."

take up (separable): begin (a hobby or leisure-time activity).

> A: "Do you like to ski?"
>
> B: "I've never been skiing, but I think I'd like to **take** it **up**."

tell (someone) **off** (separable): speak to someone bluntly and negatively, saying exactly what she/he did wrong.

> "Julie was really angry at Bob; she **told** him **off** in front of all of us."

tick off (1. separable): irritate someone; make someone upset or angry.

> "It really **ticks** her **off** when someone is late for an appointment."

tick off (2. separable): show that something has been completed by putting a tick (check) beside it.

> "Here are the things you need to do. **Tick** each one **off** when you finish it."

throw away (separable): discard; put in the garbage.

> "You shouldn't **throw** those newspapers **away**; they're recyclable."

throw out (1. separable): discard; put in the garbage.

> "This food smells bad. You'd better **throw** it **out**."

throw out (2. separable): forcibly make someone leave (usually because of bad behavior).

> "Those people are drunk and making everyone uncomfortable. The manager should **throw** them **out**."

throw up (usually no object; with an object, separable): vomit.

> "Paul was so nervous about his job interview that he **threw up** just before he left for it."

try on (separable): wear something briefly to check its fit, how it looks, etc.

> "I'm not sure that jacket is large enough. May I **try** it **on**?"

try out (separable): use a machine briefly to determine how well it works.

> "I really like the way this car looks. May I **try** it **out**?"

try out (for) (inseparable): try to win a place on a team or other organization.

> "I know you want to be on the football team. Are you going to **try out**?"

> "If you like to sing, you should **try out for** the choir.

turn around (1. usually no object): move so that you are facing the opposite direction.

> "Everyone **turned around** and stared when I entered the meeting late."

turn around (2. separable): move so that someone / something is facing the opposite direction.

> "I don't want this chair facing the window. Will you help me **turn** it **around**?"

turn around (3. separable): make changes so that something that was unprofitable is profitable.

"The company was doing poorly until it hired a new president. He **turned** it **around** in about six months and now it's doing quite well."

turn down (1. separable): decrease the volume.

"Your music is giving me a headache! Please **turn** it **down** or use your headphones!"

turn down (2. separable): refuse.

"I thought I could borrow some money from Joe, but when I asked, he **turned** me **down**."

turn in (1. separable): give / deliver / submit to someone.

"I've written my report, but I haven't **turned** it **in**."

turn in (2. no object): go to bed.

"I'm pretty tired. I guess I'll **turn in**."

turn in (3. separable): report or deliver wrongdoers to the authorities.

"Two days after the robbery, the thieves **turned** themselves **in**."

turn off (1. separable): stop by turning a handle or switch.

"I'm cold. Do you mind if I **turn** the air conditioner **off**?"

turn off (2. separable): bore; repel (very informal).

"That music **turns** me **off**. Please play something else!"

turn on (1. separable): start by turning a handle or switch.

"It's cold in here. I'm going to **turn** the heater **on**"

turn on (2. separable): interest very much; excite (very informal).

"What kind of music **turns** you **on**?"

turn up (1. separable): increase the volume.

"I can barely hear the TV. Can you **turn** it **up** a little?"

turn up (2. no object): appear unexpectedly.

"We were all surprised when Pam **turned up** at the party. We didn't even know she was in town."

wait on (1. inseparable): serve (usually customers in a restaurant, shop, etc.)

"I want to make a complaint. The person who just **waited on** me was very impolite."

wait for (inseparable): wait until someone / something arrives or is finished with something else.

"When will Kenny be finished with work? I've been **waiting for** him for almost an hour!"
"I'm tired of **waiting for** the bus. I guess I'll take a taxi instead."

wake up (1. no object): stop sleeping.

"I usually **wake up** around 5:00 AM each day."

wake up (2. separable): rouse someone; cause someone to stop sleeping.

"I have an important meeting tomorrow and I'm afraid I won't hear my alarm. Will you **wake** me **up** at 6:00 AM?"

watch out for (inseparable): be careful of; beware of.

"There's a school at the end of this block. **Watch out for** children crossing the street."

"If you take that road, **watch out for** ice during the winter."

wear out (1. separable): wear something / use something until it can no longer be worn / be used.

"I need a new pencil sharpener. I **wore** this one **out**."

"I suppose I should get some new shoes. I've almost **worn** this pair **out**."

wear out (2. separable): cause to become exhausted; cause to become very tired.

"I had four different meetings today. They **wore** me **out**."

"I suppose I should get some new shoes. I've almost **worn** this pair **out**."

work out (1. no object): exercise (usually in a gym, etc.) to build muscles, body tone, etc.

"Instead of eating lunch on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday, Sheila goes to the recreation center to **work out**."

work out (2. separable): solve a problem / resolve a difficult situation (usually by working together).

"I know we disagree on many points, but I believe we can **work** things **out**."

wrap up (1. no object): wear enough clothes to keep warm.

"It's really cold today. Be sure you **wrap up** when you leave the house."

wrap up (2. separable): finish something; bring something to a conclusion.

> "We've been talking about the problem for nearly three hours.
>
> I hope we'll be able to **wrap** the discussion **up** soon."

write down (separable): record something in writing.

> "Could you tell me your e-mail address again? I want to **write** it **down**."

write up (separable): record; report in writing.

> "You'll need to make a report on your business meetings. Be sure you **write** them **up** as soon as possible after you return from your trip."

zonk out (no object): fall asleep quickly because of exhaustion.

> "I intended to go shopping after work, but I was so tired that I **zonked out** as soon as I got home."

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2

Focus on Verb, Adverb, Preposition and Postposition

VERB

A verb, from the Latin *verbum* meaning *word*, is a word (part of speech) that in syntax conveys an action (*bring*, *read*, *walk*, *run*, *learn*), or a state of being (*be*, *exist*, *stand*). In the usual description of English, the basic form, with or without the particle *to*, is the infinitive. In most languages, verbs are inflected (modified in form) to encode tense, aspect, mood and voice. A verb may also agree with the person, gender, and/or number of some of its arguments, such as its subject, or object.

Agreement

In languages where the verb is inflected, it often agrees with its primary argument (the subject) in person, number and/or gender. With the exception of the verb *to be*, English shows distinctive agreement only in the third person singular, present tense form of verbs, which, in regular verbs, is marked by adding "-s" (*I walk*, *he walks*). The rest of the persons are not distinguished in the verb (*I walk*, *you walk*, *they walk*, etc.).

Latin and the Romance languages inflect verbs for tense/mood/aspect and they agree in person and number

(but not in gender, as for example in Polish) with the subject. Japanese, like many languages with SOV word order, inflects verbs for tense/mood/aspect as well as other categories such as negation, but shows absolutely no agreement with the subject - it is a strictly dependent-marking language. On the other hand, Basque, Georgian, and some other languages, have *polypersonal agreement*: the verb agrees with the subject, the direct object and even the secondary object if present, a greater degree of head-marking than is found in most European languages.

Valency

The number of arguments that a verb takes is called its *valency* or *valence*. Verbs can be classified according to their valency:

- Intransitive (valency = 1, monovalent): the verb only has a subject. For example: "he runs", "it falls".
- Transitive (valency = 2, divalent): the verb has a subject and a direct object. For example: "she eats fish", "we hunt nothing".

In English, it is impossible to have verbs with zero valency. Weather verbs are often impersonal (subjectless, or avalent) in null-subject languages like Spanish, where the verb *llueve* means "It rains". In English, they require a dummy pronoun, and therefore formally have a valency of 1.

This intransitive and transitive are typical, but the impersonal and objective are somewhat different from the norm. In this sense you can see that a verb is a person, place, thing, or link. In the objective the verb takes an object but no subject, the nonreferent subject in some uses may be marked in the verb by an incorporated dummy pronoun similar to the English weather verb. Impersonal

verbs take neither subject nor object, as with other null subject languages, but again the verb may show incorporated dummy pronouns despite the lack of subject and object phrases. Tlingit lacks a ditransitive, so the indirect object is described by a separate, extraposed clause.

English verbs are often flexible with regard to valency. A transitive verb can often drop its object and become intransitive; or an intransitive verb can take an object and become transitive. In the first example, the verb *move* has no grammatical object. (In this case, there may be an object understood – the subject (I/myself). The verb is then possibly reflexive, rather than intransitive); in the second the subject and object are distinct. The verb has a different valency, but the form remains exactly the same.

In many languages other than English, such valency changes are not possible like this; the verb must instead be inflected in order to change the valency.

Tense, Aspect, and Modality

Depending on the language, verbs may express *grammatical tense*, *aspect*, or *modality*. Grammatical tense is the use of auxiliary verbs or inflections to convey whether the action or state is before, simultaneous with, or after some reference point. The reference point could be the time of utterance, in which case the verb expresses absolute tense, or it could be a past, present, or future time of reference previously established in the sentence, in which case the verb expresses relative tense.

Aspect expresses how the action or state occurs through time. Important examples include:

- perfective aspect, in which the action is viewed in its entirety though completion (as in "I saw the car")

- imperfective aspect, in which the action is viewed as ongoing; in some languages a verb could express imperfective aspect more narrowly as:
- habitual aspect, in which the action occurs repeatedly (as in "I used to go there every day"), or
- continuous aspect, in which the action occurs without pause; continuous aspect can be further subdivided into
- stative aspect, in which the situation is a fixed, unevolving state (as in "I know French"), and
- progressive aspect, in which the situation continuously evolves (as in "I am running")
- perfect, which combines elements of both aspect and tense, and in which both a prior event and the state resulting from it are expressed (as in "I have studied well")

Aspect can either be lexical, in which case the aspect is embedded in the verb's meaning (as in "the sun shines", where "shines" is lexically stative); or it can be grammatically expressed, as in "I am running".

Modality expresses the speaker's attitude toward the action or state given by the verb, especially with regard to degree of necessity, obligation, or permission ("You must go", "You should go", "You may go"), determination or willingness ("I will do this no matter what"), degree of probability ("It must be raining by now", "It may be raining", "It might be raining"), or ability ("I can speak French"). All languages can express modality with adverbs, but some also use verbal forms as in the given examples. If the verbal expression of modality involves the use of an auxiliary verb, that auxiliary is called a modal verb. If the verbal expression of modality involves inflection, we have the special case of mood; moods include the indicative (as in "I

am there"), the subjunctive (as in "I wish I *were* there"), and the imperative ("Be there!").

Voice

The voice of a verb expresses whether the subject of the verb is performing the action of the verb or whether the action is being performed on the subject. The two most common voices are the active voice (as in "I saw the car") and the passive voice (as in "The car was seen by me" or simply "The car was seen").

Verbal Noun and Verbal Adjective

Most languages have a number of verbal nouns that describe the action of the verb. In Indo-European languages, there are several kinds of verbal nouns, including gerunds, infinitives, and supines. English has gerunds, such as *seeing*, and infinitives such as *to see*; they both can function as nouns; *seeing is believing* is roughly equivalent in meaning with *to see is to believe.* These terms are sometimes applied to verbal nouns of non-Indo-European languages.

In the Indo-European languages, verbal adjectives are generally called participles. English has an active participle, also called a present participle; and a passive participle, also called a past participle. The active participle of *break* is *breaking*, and the passive participle is *broken*. When used adjectivally, the active participle describes nouns that perform the action given in the verb, e.g. *I heard the sound of breaking glass*. The passive participle describes nouns that have been the object of the action of the verb, e.g. *I saw the broken glass scattered across the floor.*

Other languages have attributive verb forms with tense and aspect. This is especially common among verb-final languages, where attributive verb phrases act as relative clauses.

PREPOSITION AND POSTPOSITION

In grammar, a preposition is a part of speech that introduces a prepositional phrase. For example, in the sentence "The cat sleeps on the sofa", the word "on" is a preposition, introducing the prepositional phrase "on the sofa". In English, the most used prepositions are "of", "to", "in", "for", "with" and "on". Simply put, a preposition indicates a relation between things mentioned in a sentence. Many style guides instruct that prepositions should not be placed at the end of a sentence unless it is necessary to maintain sentence structure or avoid awkward phrasing. However, Winston Churchill said, "This is a rule up with which we should not put." Another simpler term, a preposition is a prior explanation, typically found before a noun, pronoun, or substantives, that explains the noun, pronoun, or substantive. Examples would be beneath, between, under, above, below, upon, atop, into, onto, within, without, or across. (The princess found the pea 'underneath' her mattress.) A postposition would be for the same use but used after the noun, pronoun, or substantive. (He drew a line on the map from one state and 'across'.)

In many languages (e.g. Urdu, Turkish, Hindi and Japanese), the words that serve the role of prepositions come after, not before, the dependent noun phrase. Such words are commonly called postpositions; similarly, circumpositions consist of two parts that appear on both sides of the dependent noun phrase. The technical term used to refer collectively to prepositions, postpositions, and circumpositions is adposition. In more technical language, an adposition is an element that, prototypically, combines syntactically with a phrase and indicates how that phrase should be interpreted in the surrounding context. Some linguists use the word "preposition" instead of "adposition" for all three cases.

In linguistics, adpositions are considered members of the syntactic category "P". "PPs", consisting of an adpositional head and its complement phrase, are used for a wide range of syntactic and semantic functions, most commonly modification and complementation. The following examples illustrate some uses of English prepositional phrases:

- as a modifier to a verb
  - o sleep throughout the winter
  - o danced atop the tables for hours
- as a modifier to a noun
  - o the weather in May
  - o cheese from France with live bacteria
- as the complement of a verb
  - o insist on staying home
  - o dispose of unwanted items
- as the complement of a noun
  - o a thirst for revenge
  - o an amendment to the constitution
- as the complement of an adjective or adverb
  - o attentive to their needs
  - o separately from its neighbors
- as the complement of another preposition
  - o until after supper
  - o from beneath the bed

Adpositions perform many of the same functions as case markings, but adpositions are syntactic elements, while case markings are morphological elements.

Definition

Adpositions form a heterogeneous class, with boundaries that tend to overlap with other categories (like verbs,

nouns, and adjectives). It is thus impossible to provide an absolute definition that picks out all and only the adpositions in every language. The following features, however, are often required of adpositions.

- An adposition combines syntactically with exactly one complement phrase, most often a noun phrase (or, in a different analysis, a determiner phrase). (In some analyses, an adposition need have no complement. See below.) In English, this is generally a noun (or something functioning as a noun, e.g., a gerund), called the *object of the preposition*, together with its attendant modifiers.
- An adposition establishes the grammatical relationship that links its complement phrase to another word or phrase in the context. In English, it also establishes a semantic relationship, which may be spatial (*in*, *on*, *under*, ...), temporal (*after*, *during*, ...), or logical (*via*, ...) in nature.
- An adposition determines certain grammatical properties of its complement (e.g. its case). In English, the objects of prepositions are always in the objective case. In Koine Greek, certain prepositions always take their objects in a certain case (e.g., ί always takes its object in the dative), and other prepositions may take their object in one of several cases, depending on the meaning of the preposition (e.g. takes its object in the genitive or in the accusative, depending on the meaning).
- Adpositions are non-inflecting (or "invariant"); i.e., they do not have paradigms of forms (for different tenses, cases, genders, etc.) in the same way as verbs, adjectives, and nouns in the same language. There are exceptions, though, for example in Celtic languages.

Properties

The following properties are characteristic of most adpositional systems.

- Adpositions are among the most frequently occurring words in languages that have them. For example, one frequency ranking for English word forms begins as follows (adpositions in bold):

  the, of, and, to, a, in, that, it, is, was, I, for, on, you, …
- The most common adpositions are single, monomorphemic words. According to the ranking cited above, for example, the most common English prepositions are the following:

  on, in, to, by, for, with, at, of, from, as, …
- Adpositions form a closed class of lexical items and cannot be productively derived from words of other categories.

Stranding

Preposition stranding is a syntactic construct in which a preposition with an object occurs somewhere other than immediately next to its object. For example: *Who did you give it to?* where *to* refers to *who*, which is placed at the beginning of the sentence because it is an interrogative word. The above sentence is much more common and natural than the equivalent sentence without stranding: *To who(m) did you give it?* Preposition stranding is most commonly found in English, as well as North Germanic languages such as Swedish. The existence of preposition stranding in German and Dutch is debated. Preposition stranding is also found in languages outside the Germanic family, such as Vata and Gbadi (languages of the Niger-Congo) and the dialects of some North American French speakers.

Classification

Adpositions can be organized into subclasses according to various criteria. These can be based on directly observable properties (such as the adposition's form or its position in the sentence) or on less visible properties (such as the adposition's meaning or function in the context at hand).

Simple vs Complex

Simple adpositions consist of a single word, while complex adpositions consist of a group of words that act as one unit. Some examples of complex prepositions in English are:

- in spite of, with respect to, except for, by dint of, next to

  The boundary between simple and complex adpositions is not clear-cut and for the most part arbitrary. Many simple adpositions are derived from complex forms (e.g. *with* + *in* —> *within*, *by* + *side* —> *beside*) through grammaticalization. This change takes time, and during the transitional stages the adposition acts in some ways like a single word, and in other ways like a multi-word unit. For example, current German orthographic conventions recognize the indeterminate status of the following adpositions, allowing two spellings:
- anstelle / an Stelle ("instead of"), aufgrund / auf Grund ("because of"), mithilfe / mit Hilfe ("thanks to"), zugunsten / zu Gunsten ("in favor of"), zuungunsten / zu Ungunsten ("to the disadvantage of"), zulasten / zu Lasten ("at the expense of")

The boundary between complex adpositions and free combinations of words is also a fuzzy one. For English, this involves structures of the form "preposition + (article) + noun + preposition". Many sequences in English, such as

in front of, that are traditionally regarded as prepositional phrases are not so regarded by linguists. The following characteristics are good indications that a given combination is "frozen" enough to be considered a complex preposition in English:

- It contains a word that cannot be used in any other context: *by dint of*, *in lieu of*.
- The first preposition cannot be replaced: *with a view to* but not *for*/*without a view to*
- It is impossible to insert an article, or to use a different article: *on an*/*the account of*, *for the*/*a sake of*
- The range of possible adjectives is very limited: *in great favor of*, but not *in helpful favor of*
- The number of the noun cannot be changed: *by virtue*/*virtues of*
- It is impossible to use a possessive determiner: *in spite of him*, not *in his spite*

Complex prepositions develop through the grammaticalization of commonly used free combinations. This is an ongoing process that introduces new prepositions into English.

Classification by Position

The position of an adposition with respect to its complement allows the following subclasses to be defined:

- A preposition precedes its complement to form a prepositional phrase.

  German: auf dem Tisch, French: sur la table, Polish: na stole ("on the table")
- A postposition follows its complement to form a postpositional phrase.

The two terms are more commonly used than the general *adposition*. Whether a language has primarily prepositions or postpositions is seen as an important aspect of its typological classification, correlated with many other properties of the language.

It is usually straightforward to establish whether an adposition precedes or follows its complement. In some cases, the complement may not appear in a typical position. For example, in preposition stranding constructions, the complement appears before the preposition:

- {How much money} did you say the guy wanted to sell us the car for?
- She's going to the Bahamas? {Who} with?

In other cases, the complement of the adposition is absent:

- I'm going to the park. Do you want to come with?
- French: Il fait trop froid, je ne suis pas habillée pour. ("It's too cold, I'm not dressed for [the situation]."")

The adpositions in the examples are generally still considered prepositions because when they form a phrase with the complement (in more ordinary constructions), they must appear first.

Some adpositions can appear on either side of their complement; these can be called ambipositions (Reindl 2001, Libert 2006):

- He slept {through the whole night}/{the whole night through}.
- German: {meiner Meinung nach}/{nach meiner Meinung} ("in my opinion")

An ambiposition entlang (along). It can be put before

or after the noun related to it (but with different noun cases attached to it).

die Straße entlang

entlang der Straße

along the road

Another adposition surrounds its complement, called a circumposition:

- A circumposition has two parts, which surround the complement to form a circumpositional phrase.
  - English: from now on
  - Dutch: naar het einde toe ("towards the end", lit. "to the end to")
  - Mandarin: cóng bîngxîang lĐ ("from the inside of the refrigerator", lit. "from refrigerator inside")
  - French: à un détail près ("except for one detail", lit. "at one detail near")

"Circumposition" can be a useful descriptive term, though most circumpositional phrases can be broken down into a more hierarchical structure, or given a different analysis altogether. For example, the Mandarin example above could be analyzed as a prepositional phrase headed by *cóng* ("from"), taking the postpositional phrase *bîngxîang lĐ* ("refrigerator inside") as its complement. Alternatively, the *cóng* may be analyzed as not a preposition at all.

- An inposition is an adposition between constituents of a complex complement.
- Ambiposition is sometimes used for an adposition that can function as either a preposition or a postposition.

Melis (2003) proposes the descriptive term interposition for adpositions in the structures such as the following:

- mot à mot ("word for word"), coup sur coup ("one after another, repeatedly"), page après page ("page upon page")

An interposition is not an adposition which appears inside its complement as the two nouns do not form a single phrase (there is no *mot mot* or *page page*). Examples of actually interposed adpositions can be found in Latin (e.g. *summa cum laude*, lit. "highest with praise"). But they are always related to a more basic prepositional structure.

Classification by Complement

Although noun phrases are the most typical complements, adpositions can in fact combine with a variety of syntactic categories, much like verbs.

- noun phrases: *It was on {the table}.*
- adpositional phrases: *Come out from {under the bed}.*
- adjectives and adjective phrases: *The scene went from {blindingly bright} to {pitch black}.*
- adverbs or adverb phrases: *I worked there until {recently}*
- infinitival or participial verb phrases: *Let's think about {solving this problem}.*
- interrogative clauses: *We can't agree on {whether to have children or not}*
- full sentences

Some adpositions could be described as combining with two complements:

- {*With* Sammy president}, we can all come out of hiding again.

- {*For* Sammy to become president}, they'd have to seriously modify the Constitution.

It is more commonly assumed, however, that *Sammy* and the following predicate first forms a [small clause], which then becomes the single complement of the preposition. (In the first example above, a word (such as *as*) may be considered to be ellided, which, if present, would clarify the grammatical relationship.)

Semantic Classification

Adpositions can be used to express a wide range of semantic relations between their complement and the rest of the context. The following list is not an exhaustive classification:

- spatial relations: location (inclusion, exclusion, proximity), direction (origin, path, endpoint)
- temporal relations
- comparison: equality, opposition, price, rate
- content: source, material, subject matter
- agent
- instrument, means, manner
- cause, purpose
- Reference

Most common adpositions are highly polysemous, and much research is devoted to the description and explanation of the various interconnected meanings of particular adpositions. In many cases a primary, spatial meaning can be identified, which is then extended to non-spatial uses by metaphorical or other processes.

In some contexts, adpositions appear in contexts where their semantic contribution is minimal, perhaps altogether absent. Such adpositions are sometimes referred to as functional or case-marking adpositions, and they are lexically

selected by another element in the construction, or fixed by the construction as a whole.

- English: dispense with formalities, listen to my advice, good at mathematics
- Spanish: soñar con ganar el título ("dream with [i.e. about] winning the title"), consistir en dos grupos ("consist in [i.e. of] two groups")

It is usually possible to find some semantic motivation for the choice of a given adposition, but it is generally impossible to explain why other semantically motivated adpositions are excluded in the same context. The selection of the correct adposition in these cases is a matter of syntactic well-formedness.

Subclasses of Spatial Adpositions

Spatial adpositions can be divided into two main classes, namely directional and static ones. A *directional* adposition usually involves motion along a *path* over time, but can also denote a non-temporal path. Examples of directional adpositions include *to, from, towards, into, along* and *through*.

- Bob went to the store. (movement over time)
- A path into the woods. (non-temporal path)
- The fog extended from London to Paris. (non-temporal path)

A *static* adposition normally does not involve movement. Examples of these include *at, in, on, beside, behind, under* and *above*.

- Bob is at the store.

Directional adpositions differ from static ones in that they normally can't combine with a copula to yield a predicate, though there are some exceptions to this, as in *Bob is from Australia*, which may perhaps be thought of as special uses.

- Fine: Bob is in his bedroom. (*in* is static)
- Bad: Bob is to his bedroom. (*to* is directional)

Directional spatial adpositions can only combine with verbs that involve motion; static prepositions can combine with other verbs as well.

- Fine: Bob is lying down in his bedroom.
- Bad: Bob is lying down into/from his bedroom.

When a static adposition combines with a motion verb, it sometimes takes on a directional meaning. The following sentence can either mean that Bob jumped *around* in the water, or else that he jumped so that he *ended up* in the water.

- Bob jumped in the water.

In some languages, directional adpositions govern a different case on their complement than static ones. These are known as casally modulated prepositions. For example, in German, directional adpositions govern accusative while static ones govern dative. Adpositions that are ambiguous between directional and static interpretations govern accusative when they are interpreted as directional, and dative when they are interpreted as static.

- in seinem Zimmer (in his-DATIVE room) "in his room" (static)
- in sein Zimmer (in his-ACCUSATIVE room) "into his room" (directional)

Directional adpositions can be further divided into telic ones and atelic ones. *To, into* and *across* are telic: they involve movement all the way to the endpoint denoted by their complement. Atelic ones include *towards* and *along*. When telic adpositions combine with a motion verb, the result is a telic verb phrase. Atelic adpositions give rise to atelic verb phrases when so combined.

Static adpositions can be further subdivided into projective and non-projective ones. A non-projective static adposition is one whose meaning can be determined by inspecting the meaning of its complement and the meaning of the preposition itself. A *projective* static adposition requires, in addition, a *perspective* or *point of view*. If I say that *Bob is behind the rock*, you need to know where I am to know on which side of the rock Bob is supposed to be. If I say that *your pen is to the* left *of my book*, you also need to know what my point of view is. No such point of view is required in the interpretation of sentences like *your pen is on the desk*. Projective static prepositions can sometimes take the complement itself as "point of view," if this provides us with certain information. For example, a *house* normally has a *front* and a *back*, so a sentence like the following is actually ambiguous between two readings: one has it that Bob is at the back of the house; the other has it that Bob is on the *other side* of the house, with respect to the speaker's point of view.

- Bob is behind the house.

A similar effect can be observed with *left of*, given that objects that have fronts and backs can also be ascribed *lefts* and *rights*. The sentence, *My keys are to the left of the phone,* can either mean that they are on the *speaker's* left of the phone, or on the *phone's* left of the phone.

Classification by Grammatical Function

Particular uses of adpositions can be classified according to the function of the adpositional phrase in the sentence.

- Modification
  - o adverb-like

    The athlete ran {across the goal line}.
  - o adjective-like
    - § attributively

A road trip {with children} is not the most relaxing vacation.

- in the predicate position

  The key is {under the plastic rock}.

- Syntactic functions
  - complement

    Let's dispense with the formalities.

Here the words *dispense* and *with* complement one another, functioning as a unit to mean *forego*, and they share the direct object (*the formalities*). The verb *dispense* would not have this meaning without the word *with* to complement it.

{In the cellar} was chosen as the best place to hide the bodies.

Adpositional languages typically single out a particular adposition for the following special functions:

- marking possession
- marking the agent in the passive construction
- marking the beneficiary role in transfer relations

Overlaps with Other Categories

Adverbs

There are many similarities in form between adpositions and adverbs. Some adverbs are clearly derived from the fusion of a preposition and its complement, and some prepositions have adverb-like uses with no complement:

- {down the stairs}/downstairs, {under the ground}/underground.
- {inside (the house)}, {aboard (the plane)}, {underneath (the surface)}

It is possible to treat all of these adverbs as intransitive prepositions, as opposed to transitive prepositions, which select a complement (just like transitive vs intransitive verbs). This analysis could also be extended to other adverbs, even those that cannot be used as "ordinary" prepositions with a nominal complement:

- here, there, abroad, downtown, afterwards, …

A more conservative approach is to say simply that adverbs and adpositional phrases share many common functions.

Particles

Phrasal verbs in English are composed of a verb and a "particle" that also looks like an intransitive preposition. The same can be said for the separable verb prefixes found in Dutch and German.

- give up, look out, sleep in, carry on, come to
- Dutch: opbellen ("to call (by phone)"), aanbieden ("to offer"), voorstellen ("to propose")
- German: einkaufen ("to purchase"), aussehen ("to resemble"), anbieten ("to offer")

Although these elements have the same lexical form as prepositions, in many cases they do not have relational semantics, and there is no "missing" complement whose identity can be recovered from the context.

Conjunctions

The set of adpositions overlaps with the set of subordinating conjunctions (or complementizers):

- (preposition) before/after/since the end of the summer
- (conjunction) before/after/since the summer ended
- (preposition) It looks like another rainy day

- (conjunction) It looks like it's going to rain again today

All of these words can be treated as prepositions if we extend the definition to allow clausal complements. This treatment could be extended further to conjunctions that are never used as ordinary prepositions:

- unless they surrender, although time is almost up, while you were on the phone

Coverbs

In some languages, the role of adpositions is served by coverbs, words that are lexically verbs, but are generally used to convey the meaning of adpositions.

For instance, whether prepositions exist in Chinese is sometimes considered an open question. Coverbs are often referred to as prepositions because they appear before the noun phrase they modify. However, unlike prepositions, coverbs can sometimes stand alone as main verbs.

Case Affixes

From a functional point of view, adpositions and morphological case markings are similar. Adpositions in one language can correspond precisely to case markings in another language. For example, the agentive noun phrase in the passive construction in English is introduced by the preposition *by*. While in Russian it is marked by the instrumental case: "oy", "om", or "ami", depending on the noun's gender and number. Sometimes both prepositions and cases can be observed within a single language. For example, the genitive case in German is in many instances interchangeable with a phrase using the preposition *von*.

Despite this functional similarity, adpositions and case markings are distinct grammatical categories:

- Adpositions combine syntactically with their complement phrase. Case markings combine with a noun morphologically.
- Two adpositions can usually be joined with a conjunction and share a single complement, but this is normally not possible with case markings:

  {of and for the people} vs. Latin populi et populo, not populi et -o ("people-*genitive* and *-dative*")
- One adposition can usually combine with two coordinated complements, but this is normally not possible with case markings:

  of {the city and the world} vs. Latin urbis et orbis, not urb- et orbis ("city and world-*genitive*")
- Case markings combine primarily with nouns, whereas adpositions can combine with phrases of many different categories.
- A case marking usually appears directly on the noun, but an adposition can be separated from the noun by other words.
- Within the noun phrase, determiners and adjectives may agree with the noun in case (case spreading), but an adposition only appears once.
- A language can have hundreds of adpositions (including complex adpositions), but no language has this many distinct morphological cases.

It can be difficult to clearly distinguish case markings from adpositions. For example, the post-nominal elements in Japanese and Korean are sometimes called case particles and sometimes postpositions. Sometimes they are analysed as two different groups because they have different characteristics (e.g. ability to combine with focus particles), but in such analysis, it is unclear which words should fall into which group.

- Japanese: (*densha de*, "by train")
- Korean: (*Hangug-e, "to Korea")*

Turkish and Finnish have both extensive case-marking and postpositions, and here there is evidence to help distinguish the two:

- Turkish: (case) sinemaya (cinema-*dative*, "to the cinema") vs (postposition) sinema için ("for the cinema")
- Finnish: (case) talossa (house-*inessive*, "in the house") vs (postposition) "talon edessä (house-*gen* in-front, "in front of the house")

In these examples, the case markings form a word with their hosts (as shown by vowel harmony, other word-internal effects and agreement of adjectives in Finnish), while the postpositions are independent words.

Some languages, like Sanskrit, use postpositions to emphasize the meaning of the grammatical cases, and eliminate possible ambiguities in the meaning of the phrase. In this example, "RâmeGa" is in the instrumental case, but, as its meaning can be ambiguous,the postposition *saha* is being used to emphasize the meaning of company.

In Indo-European languages, each case often contains several different endings, some of which may be derived from different roots. An ending is chosen depending on gender, number, whether the word is a noun or a modifier, and other factors.

Word Choice

The choice of preposition (or postposition) in a sentence is often idiomatic, and may depend either on the verb preceding it or on the noun which it governs: it is often not clear from the sense which preposition is appropriate. Different languages and regional dialects often have different

conventions. Learning the conventionally preferred word is a matter of exposure to examples. For example, most dialects of American English have "to wait *in* line", but some have "to wait *on* line". Because of this, prepositions are often cited as one of the most difficult aspects of a language to learn, for both non-native speakers and native speakers. Where an adposition is required in one language, it may not be in another. In translations, adpositions must be dealt with on a case-by-case basis, and one may be either supplied or omitted. For instance:

- Those learning English may find it hard to choose between *on*, *in*, and *at*, as other languages may use only one or two prepositions as the equivalents of these three in English.
- Speakers of English learning Spanish or Portuguese have difficulty distinguishing between the prepositions *por* and *para*, as both frequently mean *for* in English.
- The German preposition *von* might be translated as *by*, *of*, or *from* in English depending on the sense.

ADVERB

An adverb is a part of speech. It is any word that modifies any part of speech or other verbs other than a noun (modifiers of nouns are primarily adjectives and determiners). Adverbs can modify verbs, adjectives (including numbers), clauses, sentences and other adverbs.

Adverbs typically answer questions such as *how?*, *in what way?*, *when?*, *where?*, and *to what extent?*. This function is called the adverbial function, and is realized not just by single words (i.e., adverbs) but by adverbial phrases and adverbial clauses.

Adverbs in English

In English, adverbs of manner (answering the question *how?*) are often formed by adding *-ly* to adjectives. For example, *great* yields *greatly*, and *beautiful* yields *beautifully*. (Note that some words that end in *-ly*, such as *friendly* and *lovely*, are not adverbs, but adjectives, in which case the root word is usually a noun. There are also underived adjectives that end in *-ly*, such as *holy* and *silly*.)

The suffix *-ly* is related to the Germanic word *"lich"*. (There is also an obsolete English word *lych* or *lich* with the same meaning.) Both words are also related to the word *like*. The connection between *-ly* and *like* is easy to understand. The connection to *lich* is probably that both are descended from an earlier word that meant something like "shape" or "form".

In this way, -ly in English is cognate with the common German adjective ending *-lich*, the Dutch ending *-lijk*, the Dano-Norwegian *-lig* and Norwegian *-leg*. This same process is followed in Romance languages with the ending -mente, -ment, or -mense meaning "of/like the mind".

In some cases, the suffix *-wise* may be used to derive adverbs from nouns. Historically, *-wise* competed with a related form *-ways* and won out against it. In a few words, like *sideways*, *-ways* survives; words like *clockwise* show the transition. Again, it is not a foolproof indicator of a word being an adverb. Some adverbs are formed from nouns or adjectives by prepending the prefix *a-* (such as *abreast*, *astray*). There are a number of other suffixes in English that derive adverbs from other word classes, and there are also many adverbs that are not morphologically indicated at all.

Comparative adverbs include *more*, *most*, *least*, and *less* (in phrases such as *more beautiful*, *most easily* etc.).

The usual form pertaining to adjectives or adverbs is called the positive. Formally, adverbs in English are inflected in terms of comparison, just like adjectives. The comparative and superlative forms of some (especially single-syllable) adverbs that do not end in *-ly* are generated by adding *-er* and *-est* (*She ran faster*; *He jumps highest*). Others, especially those ending *-ly*, are periphrastically compared by the use of *more* or *most* (*She ran more quickly*) — while some accept both forms, e.g. *oftener* and *more often* are both correct. Adverbs also take comparisons with *as ... as*, *less*, and *least*. Not all adverbs are comparable; for example in the sentence *He wore red yesterday* it does not make sense to speak of "more yesterday" or "most yesterday".

Adverbs as a "Catch-All" Category

Adverbs are considered a part of speech in traditional English grammar and are still included as a part of speech in grammar taught in schools and used in dictionaries. However, modern grammarians recognize that words traditionally grouped together as adverbs serve a number of different functions. Some would go so far as to call adverbs a "catch-all" category that includes all words that do not belong to one of the other parts of speech.

A more logical approach to dividing words into classes relies on recognizing which words can be used in a certain context. For example, a noun is a word that can be inserted in the following template to form a grammatical sentence:

The _____ is red. (For example, "The hat is red".)

When this approach is taken, it is seen that adverbs fall into a number of different categories. For example, some adverbs can be used to modify an entire sentence, whereas others cannot. Even when a sentential adverb has other functions, the meaning is often not the same. For example, in the sentences *She gave birth naturally*

and *Naturally, she gave birth*, the word *naturally* has different meanings. *Naturally* as a sentential adverb means something like "of course" and as a verb-modifying adverb means "in a natural manner". This "naturally" distinction demonstrates that the class of sentential adverbs is a closed class (there is resistance to adding new words to the class), whereas the class of adverbs that modify verbs isn't.

Words like *very* and *particularly* afford another useful example. We can say *Perry is very fast*, but not *Perry very won the race*. These words can modify adjectives but not verbs. On the other hand, there are words like *here* and *there* that cannot modify adjectives. We can say *The sock looks good there* but not *It is a there beautiful sock*. The fact that many adverbs can be used in more than one of these functions can confuse this issue, and it may seem like splitting hairs to say that a single adverb is really two or more words that serve different functions. However, this distinction can be useful, especially considering adverbs like *naturally* that have different meanings in their different functions. Huddleston distinguishes between a *word* and a *lexicogrammatical-word*.

The category of adverbs into which a particular adverb falls is to some extent a matter of convention; and such conventions are open to challenge as English evolves. A particular category-breaking use may spread after its appearance in a book, song, or television show and become so widespread that it is eventually acknowledged as acceptable English. For example, "well" traditionally falls in a category of adverb that excludes its use as a modifier of an adjective, except where the adjective is a past-participle adjective like "baked". However, imitating characters in television shows, a growing number of English speakers (playfully or even without reflection) use "well" to modify

non-past-participle adjectives, as in "That is well bad!" It is possible that this usage will one day become generally accepted. Similarly, other category-breaking uses of adverbs may, over time, move some English adverbs from a restricted adverbial class to a less-restricted one.

Not is an interesting case. Grammarians have a difficult time categorizing it, and it probably belongs in its own class

The Azerbaijan linguistic school does not consider an adverb to be an independent part of speech, as it is an adverbialized form of other parts of speech. I.e., recognition of its equity with other parts of speech violates the second and fourth laws of logic division. Adverbs are derived from other parts of speech. Their functions are performed by other parts of speech when they play the role of "means of expression" for an adverbial. That is, other parts of speech, playing the role of adverbial, automatically transform (convert) into an adverb.See Mammadov J.M.: Separation of parts of speech.

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3

Focus on Word, Grammatical Particle, Preposition Stranding and Separable Verb

WORD

In language, a **word** is the smallest free form that may be uttered in isolation with semantic or pragmatic content (with literal or practical meaning). This contrasts with a morpheme, which is the smallest unit of meaning but will not necessarily stand on its own. A word may consist of a single morpheme (for example: *oh!, rock, red, quick, run, expect*), or several (*rocks, redness, quickly, running, unexpected*), whereas a morpheme may not be able to stand on its own as a word (in the words just mentioned, these are *-s, -ness, -ly, -ing, un-, -ed*).

A complex word will typically include a root and one or more affixes (*rock-s, red-ness, quick-ly, run-ning, un-expect-ed*), or more than one root in a compound (*black-board, rat-race*). Words can be put together to build larger elements of language, such as phrases (*a red rock*), clauses (*I threw a rock*), and sentences (*he threw one too but he missed*).

The term *word* may refer to a spoken word or to a written word, or sometimes to the abstract concept behind either. Spoken words are made up of units of sound called

phonemes, and written words of symbols called graphemes, such as the letters of English.

Definitions

The ease or difficulty of deciphering a word depends on the language. Dictionaries categorize a language's lexicon (i.e., its vocabulary) into lemmas. These can be taken as an indication of what constitutes a "word" in the opinion of the writers of that language. Words make up a language.

Semantic Definition

Leonard Bloomfield introduced the concept of "Minimal Free Forms" in 1926. Words are thought of as the smallest meaningful unit of speech that can stand by themselves. This correlates phonemes (units of sound) to lexemes (units of meaning). However, some written words are not minimal free forms, as they make no sense by themselves (for example, *the* and *of*).

Some semanticists have proposed a theory of so-called semantic primitives or semantic primes, indefinable words representing fundamental concepts that are intuitively meaningful. According to this theory, semantic primes serve as the basis for describing the meaning, without circularity, of other words and their associated conceptual denotations.

Features

In the Minimalist school of theoretical syntax, words (also called *lexical items* in the literature) are construed as "bundles" of linguistic features that are united into a structure with form and meaning. For example, the word "bears" has semantic features (it denotes real-world objects, bears), category features (it is a noun), number features (it is plural and must agree with verbs, pronouns, and demonstratives in its domain), phonological features (it is pronounced a certain way), etc.

Word Boundaries

The task of defining what constitutes a "word" involves determining where one word ends and another word begins—in other words, identifying word boundaries. There are several ways to determine where the word boundaries of spoken language should be placed:

- **Potential pause**: A speaker is told to repeat a given sentence slowly, allowing for pauses. The speaker will tend to insert pauses at the word boundaries. However, this method is not foolproof: the speaker could easily break up polysyllabic words, or fail to separate two or more closely related words.
- **Indivisibility**: A speaker is told to say a sentence out loud, and then is told to say the sentence again with extra words added to it. Thus, *I have lived in this village for ten years* might become *My family and I have lived in this little village for about ten or so years*. These extra words will tend to be added in the word boundaries of the original sentence. However, some languages have infixes, which are put inside a word. Similarly, some have separable affixes; in the German sentence "Ich **komme** gut zu Hause **an**", the verb *ankommen* is separated.
- **Phonetic boundaries**: Some languages have particular rules of pronunciation that make it easy to spot where a word boundary should be. For example, in a language that regularly stresses the last syllable of a word, a word boundary is likely to fall after each stressed syllable. Another example can be seen in a language that has vowel harmony (like Turkish): the vowels within a given word share the same *quality*, so a word boundary is likely to occur whenever the vowel quality changes. Nevertheless, not all languages have such convenient

phonetic rules, and even those that do present the occasional exceptions.

In practice, linguists apply a mixture of all these methods to determine the word boundaries of any given sentence. Even with the careful application of these methods, the exact definition of a word is often still very elusive.

Orthography

In languages with a literary tradition, there is interrelation between orthography and the question of what is considered a single word. Word separators (typically spaces) are common in modern orthography of languages using alphabetic scripts, but these are (excepting isolated precedents) a relatively modern development.

In English orthography, compound expressions may contain spaces. Examples are *ice cream*, *air raid shelter*, *get up*, and these must thus be considered as more than one word. (*Ice*, *cream*, *air* etc. indisputably exist as free forms, the case of *get* is less clear.) In contrast, *brownstone* is spelt as a single word and would thus be considered as such for most purposes even though *brown* and *stone* are free forms. Vietnamese orthography, although using the Latin alphabet, delimits monosyllabic morphemes, not words. East Asian orthography (languages using CJK characters) also tend to delimit syllables rather than full words. Conversely, synthetic languages often combine many lexical morphemes into single words, making it difficult to boil them down to the traditional sense of words found more easily in analytic languages; this is especially difficult for polysynthetic languages, such as Inuktitut and Ubykh, where entire sentences may consist of a single word.

Morphology

In synthetic languages, a single word stem (for example,

love) may have a number of different forms (for example, *loves*, *loving*, and *loved*). However for some purposes these are not usually considered to be different words, but rather different forms of the same word. In these languages, words may be considered to be constructed from a number of morphemes. In Indo-European languages in particular, the morphemes distinguished are

- the root
- optional suffixes
- a desinence.

Philosophy

Philosophers have found words objects of fascination since at least the 5th century BC, with the foundation of the philosophy of language. Plato analyzed words in terms of their origins and the sounds making them up, concluding that there was some connection between sound and meaning, though words change a great deal over time. John Locke wrote that the use of words "is to be sensible marks of ideas", though they are chosen "not by any natural connexion that there is between particular articulate sounds and certain ideas, for then there would be but one language amongst all men; but by a voluntary imposition, whereby such a word is made arbitrarily the mark of such an idea". Wittgenstein's thought transitioned from a word as representation of meaning to "the meaning of a word is its use in the language."

Classes

Grammar classifies a language's lexicon into several groups of words. The basic bipartite division possible for virtually every natural language is that of nouns vs. verbs.

The classification into such classes is in the tradition of Dionysius Thrax, who distinguished eight categories:

noun, verb, adjective, pronoun, preposition, adverb, conjunction and interjection.

GRAMMATICAL PARTICLE

In grammar, a particle is a function word that does not belong to any of the inflected grammatical word classes (such as nouns, pronouns, verbs, or articles). It is a catch-all term for a heterogeneous set of words and terms that lack a precise lexical definition. It is mostly used for words that help to encode grammatical categories (such as negation, mood or case), or fillers or discourse markers that facilitate discourse such as *well*, *ah*, *anyway*, etc. Particles are uninflected. In English, the infinitive marker *to* and the negator *not* are examples of words that are usually regarded as particles.

Related Concepts

Depending on its context, the meaning of the term may overlap with such notions as "morpheme", "marker", or even "adverb" as in phrasal verbs such as *out* as in *get out*. Under the strictest definition, which demands that a particle be an uninflected word, English deictics like *this* and *that* would not be classed as such (since they have plurals) and are therefore inflected, and neither would Romance articles (since they are inflected for number and gender).

English

Articles, Infinitival, Prepositional, and Adverbial Particles

- The definite article *the* (the indefinite article *a* or *an* cannot really be classed as uninflected, due to their inherently singular meaning disbarring them from plural usage)
- the infinitive *to*, as in *to walk*

- prepositions, such as *over* in *I went over the hill*
- adverbs and adverbial portions of phrasal verbs, such as *off* in *we put it off too long*

Interjections, Sentence Connectors, and Conjunctions

Sentence connectors, tags or tag questions, and conjunctions connect to what has been said in a previous clause or sentence. These three types of grammatical particles (similarly to modal particles in some other languages) also reflect the speaker's mood and attitude toward what has come before in the conversation, or is likely to follow later. A particle may be defined simply as an invariable word, in that interjections are to be classed as particles. Because of their similar functions, interjections, sentence connectors, and conjunctions should be grouped together:

Interjections

- ah
- alas
- farewell
- goodbye
- hello
- hi
- hmm
- hum
- no
- oh
- ouch
- wow
- yes

The list of interjections is probably never-ending as it belongs to the open class word category and is subject to new creations at all times.

Sentence Connectors

- so (as in *So what*)
- well (as in *Well, we can't help that*)
- still (as in *Still, it could have been a lot worse*)
- yet (as in *I am older now, yet I still enjoy some of the things I used to do*)
- as
- also
- however
- nevertheless
- otherwise
- moreover
- in addition
- furthermore
- besides
- first
- second
- finally
- last but not least
- lastly
- thus
- hence
- on the other hand
- anyway
- then
- too (as in *that, too, has been said in the past*)

Conjunctions

- and (together with)
- or
- nor
- but

- while (as in *The repair takes only a short time while you wait.*)
- although/though
- for (as in *she could not see the film, for she was too young*)
- because
- unless
- since (as in *since you asked, I will tell you*)

Other Languages

The term *particle* is often used in descriptions of Japanese and Korean, where they are used to mark nouns according to their case or their role (subject, object, complement, or topic) in a sentence or clause. Some of these particles are best analysed as case markers and some as postpositions. There are sentence-tagging particles such as Japanese and Chinese question markers. Thai also has particles.

PREPOSITION STRANDING

Preposition stranding, sometimes called P-stranding, is the syntactic construction in which a preposition with an object occurs somewhere other than immediately adjacent to its object. (The preposition is then described as stranded or hanging.) This construction is widely found in Germanic languages, including English and the Scandinavian languages; whether or not German and Dutch exhibit legitimate preposition stranding is debatable. Preposition stranding is also found in languages outside the Germanic family, such as Vata and Gbadi, two languages in the Niger-Congo family, and certain dialects of French spoken in North America.

Preposition Stranding in English

In English, preposition stranding is commonly found

in three types of constructions: Wh-questions, pseudo-passives, and relative clauses.

- In Wh-constructions, the object of the preposition is a Wh-word in deep structure but is fronted as a result of the Wh-movement. It is commonly assumed in transformational approaches to syntax that the movement of a constituent out of a phrase leaves a silent trace. In the case of Wh-movement leaving a stranded preposition, the Wh-word is fronted to the beginning of the interrogative clause, leaving a trace after the preposition:

  What are you talking about ___?

- Pseudopassives are the result of the movement of the object of a preposition to fill an empty subject position for a passive verb. This phenomenon is comparable to regular passives, which are formed through the movement of the object of the verb to subject position. In pseudopassives, unlike in Wh-movement, the object of the preposition is not a Wh-word but rather a noun or noun phrase:

  This chair$_i$ was sat on ___.

- Relative clauses in English can also exhibit preposition stranding, whether with a complementizer introducing the clause or without:

  This is the book$_i$ that$_i$ I told you about ___.

  This is the book$_i$ I told you about ___.

Overzealous avoidance of stranded prepositions leads to unnatural-sounding sentences, especially when the preposition is part of an idiomatic phrasal verb, such as the following, apocryphally attributed to Winston Churchill (Note the verb here is the phrasal verb "put up with," split to humorous effect):

> This is the sort of nonsense up with which I will not put.

Natural English occasionally uses sentences that involve many stranded prepositions in a row, such as in the following statement said by a young boy to his mother, who has just brought a book up from downstairs to read to her son. The boy wanted a different book.

What did you bring that $book_2$ that I_3 didn't want to be read to___ out of___ up for___?

The *up* in the preceding example is not actually a stranded preposition but an adverb of movement. It can of course be moved to a position earlier in the sentence, sacrificing a little of the naturalness, whereas the true stranded prepositions can really only occur at the end in all but the most formal speech.

The sentence now ends in a string of four words which are all stranded prepositions.

Origin of Prescription Against Preposition Stranding

The prescription against preposition stranding in English was created by John Dryden in 1672 when he objected to Ben Jonson's 1611 phrase *the bodies that those souls were frightened from*. Dryden didn't provide the rationale that gave rise to his suggestion that the sentence should be restructured to front the preposition.

Preposition Stranding in French

A few non-standard dialects of French seem to have developed preposition stranding as a result of linguistic contact with English. Preposition stranding is found in areas where the Francophone population is under intense contact with English, including certain parts of Alberta, Northern Ontario, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, and Louisiana. It is found (but heavily decried) in very

informal Quebec French. For example, Prince Edward Island French permits all three types of preposition stranding:

- ***Wh-movement:*** *Qui-ce que tu as fait le gâteau pour?*

  Whom did you bake the cake for?

  Standard French: *Pour qui as-tu fait le gâteau?*

- ***Pseudopassives:*** *Robert a été parlé beaucoup de au meeting.*

  Robert was much talked about at the meeting.

  Standard French: *On a beaucoup parlé de Robert au meeting.*

- ***Relative clauses:*** *Tu connais pas la fille que je te parle de.*

  You don't know the girl that I'm talking to you about.

  Standard French: *Tu ne connais pas la fille dont je te parle.*

  Another, more widespread non-standard variant: *Tu ne connais pas la fille que je te parle.*

However, not all dialects of French allow preposition stranding to the same extent. For instance, Ontario French restricts preposition stranding to relative clauses with certain prepositions; in most dialects, stranding is impossible with the prepositions. A superficially similar construction is possible in standard French in cases where the object is not moved, but implied, such as *Je suis pour* ("I'm all for it") or *Il faudra agir selon* ("We'll have to act accordingly").

Preposition Stranding in Dutch and German

There are two kinds of preposition stranding constructions in Dutch, both of which in fact involve the stranding of *postpositions*.

Directional Constructions

The first case involves directional constructions. A number of common Dutch adpositions can be used either prepositionally or postpositionally, with a slight change in possible meanings; for example, Dutch *in* can mean either *in* or *into* when used prepositionally, but can only mean *into* when used postpositionally. When postpositions, such adpositions can be stranded:

- Wh-movement: *Welk bos$_i$ liep hij ___$_i$ in?*
  literally, *Which forest$_i$ walked he ___$_i$ into?*
  i.e., *What forest did he walk into?*
- short-distance movement: *[…] dat hij zo'n donker bos niet in durft te lopen […]*
  literally, *[…] that he such-a dark forest not into dares to walk […]*
  i.e., *[…] that he doesn't dare walk into such a dark forest […]*

Another way to analyze examples like the first one above would be to allow arbitrary "postposition + verb" sequences to act as transitive separable prefix verbs (e.g. *in* + *lopen* —> *inlopen*); but such an analysis would not be consistent with the position of *in* in the second example. (The postposition *can* also appear in the verbal prefix position: *[…] dat hij zo'n donker bos niet durft in te lopen […].*)

R-pronouns

The second case of preposition stranding in Dutch is much more widespread. Dutch prepositions generally do not take the ordinary neuter pronouns (*het*, *dat*, *wat*, etc.) as objects. Instead, they become postpositional suffixes for the corresponding *r*-pronouns (*er*, *daar*, *waar*, etc.): hence, not *over het* (*about it*), but *erover* (literally *thereabout*).

However, the *r*-pronouns can sometimes be moved to the left, thereby stranding the postposition:

- *Wij praatten er niet over.*
  literally, *We talked there not about.*
  i.e., *We weren't talking about it.*
- *Waar praatten wij over?*
  literally, *Where talked we about?*
  i.e., *What were we talking about?*

Some regional varieties of German show the same phenomenon with *da(r)-* and *wo(r)-* forms. For example:

- Standard German requires *Ich kann mir davon nichts kaufen.*
  literally, *I can me therefrom nothing buy.*
  i.e., *I can't buy anything with this.*
- Some dialects permit *Ich kann mir da nichts von kaufen.*
  literally, *I can me there-*[clipped] *nothing from buy.*
  i.e., *I can't buy anything with this.*
- Alternatively, one might also say *Da kann ich mir nichts von kaufen.*
  literally, *There-*[clipped] *can I me nothing from buy.*
  i.e., *I can't buy anything with this.*

Again, although the stranded postposition has nearly the same surface distribution as a separable verbal prefix, it would not be possible to analyze these Dutch and German examples in terms of the reanalyzed verbs *overpraten* and *vonkaufen*, for the following reasons:

- The stranding construction is possible with

prepositions that never appear as separable verbal prefixes (e.g., Dutch *van*, German *von*).

- Stranding is not possible with any kind of object besides an *r*-pronoun.

SEPARABLE VERB

A separable verb is a verb that is composed of a lexical verb root and a separable second root (particle). In some verb forms, the verb and the particle appear in one word, whilst in others the verb stem and the particle are separated. Note that the particle cannot be accurately referred to as a prefix because it can be separated from the "main lexical" root of the verb. German, Dutch, and Hungarian are notable for having many separable verbs.

For example, the Dutch verb *aankomen* is a separable verb. Compare the following sentences:

- Hij is *aangekomen*. – He has arrived.
- Ik *kom* morgen *aan* – I shall arrive tomorrow.

The Dutch verb whose infinitive is *aankomen* appears as a single-word participle in the first sentence, and as a separated finite verb (two words) in the second sentence.

In German:

- Er ist *angekommen*. – He has arrived.
- Ich *komme* morgen *an* – I shall arrive tomorrow.

The German verb whose infinitive is *ankommen* appears both joined and separated.

Some Hungarian examples:

- *Leteszem* a telefon. — I hang up the phone.
- Nem *teszem le* a telefon. — I do not hang up the phone.

The verb *letesz* is separated in the negative sentence. Affixes are separated from the verb in imperative and prohibitive moods, too. Moreover, word order influences the strength of prohibition, as the following examples show:

- Ne *tedd le* a telefon! — Do not hang up the phone.
- *Le* ne *tedd* a telefon! — Don't you hang up the phone! (stronger prohibition)

English has many phrasal or compound verb forms which are somewhat analogous. However, in English the preposition or verbal particle is either an invariable prefix ("understand") or is always a separate word ("give up"), without the possibility of grammatically conditioned alternations between the two such as can be seen in the examples from other languages given above. An adverbial particle can be separated from the verb by intervening words (e.g. *up* in the phrasal verb *to screw up* appears after the direct object, "things", in the sentence: "He is always screwing things up").

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4

Focus on Noun Phrase, English Phrasal Verbs In Use and Advanced Phrasal Verb

NOUN PHRASE

In grammar, a noun phrase, nominal phrase, or nominal group (abbreviated NP) is a phrase based on a noun, pronoun, or other noun-like word (*nominal*) optionally accompanied by modifiers such as adjectives.

Noun phrases are very common cross-linguistically, but some languages like Tuscarora and Cayuga have been argued to lack this construct.

Form

Noun phrases normally consist of a head noun, which is optionally modified ("premodified" if the modifier appears before the noun; "postmodified" if the modifier follows the noun). Possible modifiers include:

- determiners: articles (*the*, *a*), demonstratives (*this*, *that*), numerals (*two*, *five*, etc.), possessives (*my*, *their*, etc.), and quantifiers (*some*, *many*, etc.). In English, determiners are usually placed before the noun;

- adjectives (*the red ball*); or
- complements, in the form of a prepositional phrase (such as: *the student of physics*), or a That-clause (*the claim that the earth is round*);
- modifiers; pre-modifiers if before the noun and usually either as nouns (*the university student*) or adjectives (*the beautiful lady*), or post-modifiers if after the noun. A postmodifier may be either a prepositional phrase (*the man with long hair*) or a relative clause (*the house where I live*). The difference between modifiers and complements is that complements complete the meaning of the noun; complements are necessary, whereas modifiers are optional because they add information about the noun.

Noun phrases can make use of an apposition structure. This means that the elements in the noun phrase are not in a head-modifier relationship, but in a relation of equality. An example of this is *I, Caesar, declare ...,* where "Caesar" and "I" do not modify each other.

The head of a noun phrase can be implied, as in "*The Bold and the Beautiful*" or Robin Hood's "*rob from the rich and give to the poor*"; an implied noun phrase is most commonly used as a generic plural referring to human beings. Another example of noun phrase with implied head is *I choose the cheaper of the two*.

That noun phrases can be headed by elements other than nouns—for instance, pronouns (*They came*) or determiners (*I'll take these*)—has given rise to the postulation of a determiner phrase instead of a noun phrase. The English language is stricter than some other languages with regard to possible noun phrase heads. German, for instance, allows adjectives as heads of noun phrases, as in *Gib mir die Alten* for *Give me the olds* (i.e. old ones).

In addition to pronouns and demonstratives, numerals and adjectives may function as the head of the noun phrase, and take modifiers as a noun would. For example, *The Secret Seven, something wild, the first few, we three, all this, only you, just mine.*

Grammatical Unit

In English, for some purposes, noun phrases can be treated as single grammatical units. This is most noticeable in the syntax of the English genitive case. In a phrase such as *The king of Sparta's wife*, the possessive clitic "-'s" is not added to the *king* who actually has the wife, but instead to *Sparta*, as the end of the whole phrase. The clitic modifies the entire phrase *the king of Sparta*.

Grammatical Function

Noun phrases are prototypically used for acts of reference as in "The blonde girl shouts" or "She kissed the man". Also possible, but found less often, is the use of noun phrases for predication, as in "Suzy is a blonde girl". Note that in English the use of the copula *is* indicates the use of a noun phrase as predicate, but other languages may not require the use of the copula. Finally, noun phrases are used for identifications like "The murderer was the butler", where no ascription is taking place. The possibility for a noun phrase to play the role of subject and predicate leads to the constructions of syllogisms.

PHRASAL VERBS

Phrasal verbs are mainly used in spoken English and informal texts. (The more formal a conversation or text, the less phrasal verbs are found.)

Phrasal verbs consist of a verb plus a particle (preposition, adverb). The particle can change the meaning of the verb completely, e.g.:

- look up – consult a reference book (look a word up in a dictionary)
- look for – seek (look for her ring)
- look forward – anticipate with pleasure (look forward to meeting someone)

There are no rules that might explain how phrasal verbs are formed correctly - all you can do is look them up in a good dictionary and study their meanings. In our lists, you will find some frequently used phrasal verbs and their meanings.

Frequently Used Phrasal Verbs with:

- break, bring, call, carry, come, do, fall, get, go, keep, look, make, put, run, set, take, turn

Position of the Particle

The particle is placed either after the verb or after the object.

Example:

Write *down* the word. / Write the word *down*.

If the object is a pronoun, however, the particle has to be placed after the pronoun (object).

Example:

Write it *down*.

Exercises on Phrasal Verbs

- Phrasal Verbs with 'up' Level: lower intermediate
- Phrasal Verbs with 'on' Level: lower intermediate
- Phrasal Verbs with 'turn' Level: lower intermediate
- Mixed Exercise 1 Level: lower intermediate
- Mixed Exercise 2 Level: lower intermediate
- Phrasal Verbs with 'out' Level: intermediate
- Phrasal Verbs with 'down' Level: intermediate

- Phrasal Verbs with 'look' Level: intermediate
- Mixed Exercise 1 Level: intermediate
- Mixed Exercise 2 Level: intermediate
- Phrasal Verbs with 'up' Level: upper intermediate
- Phrasal Verbs with 'out' Level: upper intermediate
- Phrasal Verbs with 'off' Level: upper intermediate
- Phrasal Verbs with 'come' Level: upper intermediate
- Phrasal Verbs with 'get' Level: upper intermediate
- Phrasal Verbs with 'go' Level: upper intermediate
- Mixed Exercise 1 Level: upper intermediate
- Mixed Exercise 2 Level: upper intermediate

ENGLISH IRREGULAR VERBS

The **English language** has a large number of **irregular verbs**. In the great majority of these, the past participle and/or past tense is not formed according to the usual patterns of English regular verbs. Other parts of the verb — such as the present 3rd person singular *-s* or *-es*, and present participle *-ing* — may still be formed regularly.

Among the exceptions are the verb *to be* and certain defective verbs which cannot be conjugated into certain tenses.

Most English irregular verbs are native, originating in Old English (an exception being 'catch' from Old North French 'cachier'.) They also tend to be the most commonly used verbs. The ten most commonly used verbs in English are all irregular.

Steven Pinker's book *Words and Rules* discusses how mistakes made by children in learning irregular verbs throw light on the mental processes involved in language acquisition.

All loanwords from foreign languages are regular, as

are verbs that have been recently coined and all nouns used as verbs use standard suffixes. Almost all of the least commonly used words are also regular, even though some of them may have been irregular in the past.

Origin

Most irregular verbs exist as remnants of historical conjugation systems. What is today an exception actually followed a set, normal rule long ago. When that rule fell into disuse, some verbs kept the old conjugation. An example of this is the word *kept*, which before the Great Vowel Shift fell into a class of words where the vowel in *keep* (then pronounced kehp) was shortened in the past tense. Similar words, such as *peep*, that arose after the Vowel Shift, use the regular -ed suffix. Groups of irregular verbs include:

- The remaining strong verbs, which display the vowel shift called ablaut and sometimes have a past participle in *-en* or *-n*: e.g., *ride* / *rode* / *ridden*. This verb group was inherited from the parent Proto-Germanic language, and ultimately from the Proto-Indo-European language, and was originally an entirely regular system. In Old English and still in modern German, it is more or less regular, but in modern English the system of strong verb classes has almost entirely collapsed. For the history of these, see the article Germanic strong verb.
- Weak verbs that have been subjected to sound changes over the course of the history of English that have rendered them irregular. Many of these acquired a long vowel in the present stem, but kept a short vowel in the preterite and past participle; e.g., *hear* / *heard* / *heard*.
- Weak verbs that show the vowel shift are sometimes called "Rückumlaut" in the present tense e.g. *think* /

thought. On these, see the articles Germanic umlaut and Germanic weak verb.

- Weak verbs that end in a final *-t* or *-d* that made the addition of the weak suffix *-ed* seem redundant; e.g., *cost* / *cost* / *cost*.
- A handful of surviving preterite-present verbs. These can be distinguished from the rest because their third person simple present singular (the *he, she, or it* form) does not take a final *-s*. These are the remnants of what was once a large Indo-European class of verbs that were conjugated in the preterite or perfect with present tense meaning. All of the surviving verbs of this class are modal verbs, that is, a class of auxiliary verbs or quasi-auxiliaries; e.g., *can* / *could* / *could*.
- Verbs that contain suppletive forms, which form one or more of their tenses from an entirely different root. *Be* is one of these, as is *go* / *went* / *gone* (where *went* is originally from the verb *to wend*). On the history of their paradigms, see: go (verb) and Indo-European copula.

Other verbs have been changed due to ease of pronunciation so that it is shorter or more closely corresponds to how it is spelled.

- A number of verbs whose irregularity is chiefly due to the peculiarities of English spelling; e.g., *lay* / *laid* / *laid*.
- Past tense ending *-ed* written phonetically when devoiced to *-t*; e.g., *burn* / *burnt* / *burnt* (which also has a regular conjugation with a [d] pronunciation).
- Weak verbs that have been the subject of contractions; e.g., *have* / *had* / *had*.

There are fewer strong verbs and irregular verbs in modern English than there were in Old English. Slowly over time, the number of irregular verbs is decreasing. The force of analogy tends to reduce the number of irregular verbs over time. This fact explains the reason that irregular verbs tend to be the most commonly used ones; verbs that are more rarely heard are more likely to switch to being regular. For instance, a verb like *ablate* was once irregular, but today *ablated* is the standard usage. Today irregular and standard forms often coexist, a sign that the irregular form may be on the wane. For instance, seeing *spelled* instead of *spelt* or *strived* instead of *strove* is very common. On the other hand, contraction and sound changes can increase their number. Most of the strong verbs were regular, in that they fell into a conventional plan of conjugation, in Old English; there are so few of them left in contemporary English that they seem irregular to us.

In common with most Indo-European languages, in English, such common verbs as *to be*, *to go*, *to do*, and *to have* are extremely irregular. Many also have pronunciations that are not predictable from the spelling. Common patterns of irregularity in the past tense include:

- Change the vowel to TÐ (the THOUGHT vowel), orthographically represented by *ough* or *augh*, e.g.,
  - Present *bring* —> Past, past participle *brought*
  - *buy* —> *bought*
  - *catch* —> *caught*
  - *seek* —> *sought*
  - *teach* —> *taught*
  - *think* —> *thought*
- Change the vowel to os (the GOAT vowel or "long O"), orthographically represented by *o* with a word-final *e*, e.g.,

- Present *break* —> Past *broke*, Past participle *broken*
- *choose* —> *chose*, *chosen*
- *freeze* —> *froze*, *frozen*
- *speak* —> *spoke*, *spoken*
- *steal* —> *stole*, *stolen*

- No change, e.g.,
  - Present *bet* —> Past, past participle *bet*
  - *bid* —> *bid*
  - *broadcast* —> *broadcast*
  - *burst* —> *burst*
  - *cast* —> *cast*
  - *cost* —> *cost*
  - *cut* —> *cut*
  - *fit* —> *fit* (esp. U.S.)
  - *hit* —> *hit*
  - *hurt* —> *hurt*
  - *knit* —> *knit*
  - *let* —> *let*
  - *put* —> *put*
  - *quit* —> *quit*
  - *rid* —> *rid*
  - *set* —> *set*
  - *shed* —> *shed*
  - *shut* —> *shut*
  - *slit* —> *slit*
  - *split* —> *split*
  - *spread* —> *spread*
  - *thrust* —> *thrust*

Note that *broadcasted* is also acceptable as the past participle and past simple of the verb *broadcast*.

IRREGULAR VERB

In contrast to regular verbs, **irregular verbs** are those verbs that fall outside the standard patterns of conjugation in the languages in which they occur. The idea of an irregular verb is important in second language acquisition, where the verb paradigms of a foreign language are learned systematically, and exceptions listed and carefully noted. Thus for example a school French textbook may have a section at the back listing the French irregular verbs in tables. Irregular verbs are often the most commonly used verbs in the language.

In linguistic analysis, the concept of an irregular verb is most likely to be used in psycholinguistics, and in first-language acquisition studies, where the aim is to establish how the human brain processes its native language. One debate among 20th-century linguists revolved around the question of whether small children learn all verb forms as separate pieces of vocabulary or whether they deduce forms by the application of rules. Since a child can hear a verb for the first time and immediately reuse it correctly in a different tense which he or she has never heard, it is clear that the brain does work with rules, but irregular verbs must be processed differently. Historical linguists rarely use the category irregular verb. Since most irregularities can be explained historically, these verbs are only irregular when viewed synchronically, not when seen in their historical context. When languages are being compared informally, one of the few quantitative statistics which are sometimes cited is the number of irregular verbs. These counts are not particularly accurate for a wide variety of reasons, and academic linguists are reluctant to cite them. But it does

seem that some languages have a greater tolerance for paradigm irregularity than others.

Prefixed Verbs

In English, *to withhold* conjugates exactly like *to hold*, and in Spanish, *detener* ("to detain") conjugates exactly like *tener* ("to have"). In each case, it is questionable if the compound verb and the main verb are both irregular verbs, or as a single irregular verb, with an optional prefix. The question is compounded by the fact that it is not always predictable if the compound conjugates the same as the base. In Spanish, *bendecir* ("to bless") conjugates almost exactly like *decir* ("to say"), but there are significant differences in a few tenses that are impossible to foresee.

Irregular in Spelling Only

For the purposes of psycholinguistics and first language acquisition studies, only irregularities in the spoken form are relevant. In the foreign language classroom, however, the focus can be on the written form, and here irregularities of spelling are equally important.

Some verbs are irregular only in their spelling, but not in their pronunciation. For example, in Spanish, the verb *rezar* ("to pray") is conjugated in the present subjunctive as *rece*, *reces*, *rece*, etc. The substitution of "c" for "z" does not affect the pronunciation. It is strictly a matter of orthography and can be perfectly predicted (if one knew the rules of Spanish pronunciation and orthography but had never seen the verb "rezar" before, one would still know that the verb would have to be spelled with a "c" in the present subjunctive). Therefore, this verb is not considered to be irregular. Another example of a verb similar to *rezar* is *pagar* - to pay. In this verb, *g* always changes to a *gu* before an *e*.

English has similar cases; the verb "pay" *sounds* regular: "I pay", "I paid", and "I have paid" are all pronounced as expected. But the spelling is irregular and that cannot be perfectly predicted—for example, "pay" and "lay" turn into "paid" and "laid", but "sway" and "stay" turn into "swayed" and "stayed".

PHRASAL VERBS LIST

This is a list of about 200 common phrasal verbs, with meanings and examples. Phrasal verbs are usually two-word phrases consisting of verb + adverb or verb + preposition. Think of them as you would any other English vocabulary. Study them as you come across them, rather than trying to memorize many at once. Use the list below as a reference guide when you find an expression that you don't recognize. The examples will help you understand the meanings. If you think of each phrasal verb as a separate verb with a specific meaning, you will be able to remember it more easily. Like many other verbs, phrasal verbs often have more than one meaning. As well as learning their meanings, you need to learn how to use phrasal verbs properly. Some phrasal verbs require a direct object (*someone* / something), while others do not. Some phrasal verbs can be separated by the object, while others cannot. Review the grammar lesson on phrasal verbs from time to time so that you don't forget the rules!

Most phrasal verbs consist of two words, but a few consist of three words, which always stay together.

Verb	*Meaning*	*Example*
ask *someone* out	invite on a date	Brian asked Judy out to dinner and a movie.
ask around	ask many people the same question	I asked around but nobody has seen my wallet.
add up to *something*	equal	Your purchases add up to $205.32.

back *something* up	reverse	You'll have to back up your car so that I can get out.
back *someone* up	support	My wife backed me up over my decision to quit my job.
blow up	explode	The racing car blew up after it crashed into the fence.
blow *something* up	add air	We have to blow 50 balloons up for the party.
break down	stop functioning (vehicle, machine)	Our car broke down at the side of the highway in the snowstorm.
break down	get upset	The woman broke down when the police told her that her son had died.
break *something* down	divide into smaller parts	Our teacher broke the final project down into three separate parts.
break in	force entry to a building	Somebody broke in last night and stole our stereo.
break into *something*	enter forcibly	The firemen had to break into the room to rescue the children.
break *something* in	wear something a few times so that it doesn't look/feel new	I need to break these shoes in before we run next week.
break in	interrupt	The TV station broke in to report the news of the president's death.
break up	end a relationship	My boyfriend and I broke up before I moved to America.
break up	start laughing (informal)	The kids just broke up as soon as the clown started talking.
break out	escape	The prisoners broke out of jail when the guards weren't looking.
break out in *something*	develop a skin condition	I broke out in a rash after our camping trip.
bring *someone* down	make unhappy	This sad music is bringing me down.
bring *someone* up	raise a child	My grandparents brought me up after my parents died.
bring *something* up	start talking about a subject	My mother walks out of the room when my father brings up sports.
bring *something* up	vomit	He drank so much that he brought his dinner up in the toilet.
call around	phone many different places/people	We called around but we weren't able to find the car part we needed.

call *someone* back	return a phone call	I called the company back but the offices were closed for the weekend.
call *something* off	cancel	Jason called the wedding off because he wasn't in love with his fiancé.
call on *someone*	ask for an answer or opinion	The professor called on me for question 1.
call on *someone*	visit someone	We called on you last night but you weren't home.
call *someone* up	phone	Give me your phone number and I will call you up when we are in town.
calm down	relax after being angry	You are still mad. You need to calm down before you drive the car.
not care for *someone / something*	not like (formal)	I don't care for his behaviour.
catch up	get to the same point as someone else	You'll have to run faster than that if you want to catch up with Marty.
check in	arrive and register at a hotel or airport	We will get the hotel keys when we check in.
check out	leave a hotel	You have to check out of the hotel before 11:00 AM.
check *someone / something* out	look at carefully, investigate	The company checks out all new employees.
check out *someone / something*	look at (informal)	Check out the crazy hair on that guy!
cheer up	become happier	She cheered up when she heard the good news.
cheer *someone* up	make happier	I brought you some flowers to cheer you up.
chip in	help	If everyone chips in we can get the kitchen painted by noon.
clean *something* up	tidy, clean	Please clean up your bedroom before you go outside.
come across *something*	find unexpectedly	I came across these old photos when I was tidying the closet.
come apart	separate	The top and bottom come apart if you pull hard enough.
come down with *something*	become sick	My nephew came down with chicken pox this weekend.

come forward	volunteer for a task or to give evidence	The woman came forward with her husband's finger prints.
come from somewhere	originate in	The art of origami comes from Asia.
count on *someone*/*something*	rely on	I am counting on you to make dinner while I am out.
cross *something* out	draw a line through	Please cross out your old address and write your new one.
cut back on *something*	consume less	My doctor wants me to cut back on sweets and fatty foods.
cut *something* down	make something fall to the ground	We had to cut the old tree in our yard down after the storm.
cut in	interrupt	Your father cut in while I was dancing with your uncle.
cut in	pull in too closely in front of another vehicle	The bus driver got angry when that car cut in.
cut in	start operating (of an engine or electrical device)	The air conditioner cuts in when the temperature gets to 22°C.
cut *something* off	remove with something sharp	The doctors cut off his leg because it was severely injured.
cut *something* off	stop providing	The phone company cut off our phone because we didn't pay the bill.
cut *someone* off	take out of a will	My grandparents cut my father off when he remarried.
cut *something* out	remove part of something (usually with scissors and paper)	I cut this ad out of the newspaper.
do *someone*/*something* over	beat up, ransack (Br.E., informal)	He's lucky to be alive. His shop was done over by a street gang.
do *something* over	do again (N.Amer.)	My teacher wants me to do my essay over because she doesn't like my topic.
do away with *something*	discard	It's time to do away with all of these old tax records.
do *something* up	fasten, close	Do your coat up before you go outside. It's snowing!
dress up	wear nice clothing	It's a fancy restaurant so we have to dress up.

drop back	move back in a position/group	Andrea dropped back to third place when she fell off her bike.
drop in/by/over	come without an appointment	I might drop in/by/over for tea some time this week.
drop *someone*/*something* off	take someone/something somewhere & leave them/it there	I have to drop my sister off at work before I come over.
drop out	quit a class, school etc.	I dropped out of Science because it was too difficult.
eat out	eat at a restaurant	I don't feel like cooking tonight. Let's eat out.
end up	eventually reach/do/decide	We ended up renting a movie instead of going to the theatre.
fall apart	break into pieces	My new dress fell apart in the washing machine.
fall down	fall to the ground	The picture that you hung up last night fell down this morning.
fall out	separate from an interior	The money must have fallen out of my pocket.
fall out	(of hair, teeth) become loose and unattached	His hair started to fall out when he was only 35.
figure *something* out	understand, find the answer	I need to figure out how to fit the piano and the bookshelf in this room.
fill *something* in	to write information in blanks (Br.E.)	Please fill in the form with your name, address, and phone number.
fill *something* out	to write information in blanks (N.Amer.)	The form must be filled out in capital letters.
fill *something* up	fill to the top	I always fill the water jug up when it is empty.
find out	discover	We don't know where he lives. How can we find out?
find *something* out	discover	We tried to keep the time of the party a secret, but Samantha found it out.
get *something* across/over	communicate, make understandable	I tried to get my point across/over to the judge but she wouldn't listen.

get along/on	like each other	I was surprised how well my new girlfriend and my sister got along on.
get around	have mobility	My grandfather can get around fine in his new wheelchair.
get away	go on a vacation	We worked so hard this year that we had to get away for a week.
get away with *something*	do without being noticed or punished	Jason always gets away with cheating in his maths tests.
get back	return	We got back from our vacation last week.
get *something* back	receive something you had before	Liz finally got her Science notes back from my room-mate.
get back at *someone*	retaliate, take revenge	My sister got back at me for stealing her shoes. She stole my favourite hat.
get back into *something*	become interested in something again	I finally got back into my novel and finished it.
get on *something*	step onto a vehicle	We're going to freeze out here if you don't let us get on the bus.
get over *something*	recover from an illness, loss, difficulty	I just got over the flu and now my sister has it.
get over *something*	overcome a problem	The company will have to close if it can't get over the new regulations.
get round to *something*	finally find time to do (N.Amer.: get around to *something*)	I don't know when I am going to get round to writing the thank you cards.
get together	meet (usually for social reasons)	Let's get together for a BBQ this weekend.
get up	get out of bed	I got up early today to study for my exam.
get up	stand	You should get up and give the elderly man your seat.
give *someone* away	reveal hidden information about someone	His wife gave him away to the police.
give *someone* away	take the bride to the altar	My father gave me away at my wedding.
give *something* away	ruin a secret	My little sister gave the surprise party away by accident.

give *something* away	give something to someone for free	The library was giving away old books on Friday.
give *something* back	return a borrowed item	I have to give these skates back to Franz before his hockey game.
give in	reluctantly stop fighting or arguing	My boyfriend didn't want to go to the ballet, but he finally gave in.
give *something* out	give to many people (usually at no cost)	They were giving out free perfume samples at the department store.
give *something* up	quit a habit	I am giving up smoking as of January 1st.
give up	stop trying	My maths homework was too difficult so I gave up.
go after *someone*	follow someone	My brother tried to go after the thief in his car.
go after *something*	try to achieve something	I went after my dream and now I am a published writer.
go against *someone*	compete, oppose	We are going against the best soccer team in the city tonight.
go ahead	start, proceed	Please go ahead and eat before the food gets cold.
go back	return to a place	I have to go back home and get my lunch.
go out	leave home to go on a social event	We're going out for dinner tonight.
go out with *someone*	date	Jesse has been going out with Luke since they met last winter.
go over *something*	review	Please go over your answers before you submit your test.
go over	visit someone nearby	I haven't seen Tina for a long time. I think I'll go over for an hour or two.
go without *something*	suffer lack or deprivation	When I was young, we went without winter boots.
grow apart	stop being friends over time	My best friend and I grew apart after she changed schools.
grow back	regrow	My roses grew back this summer.
grow up	become an adult	When Jack grows up he wants to be a fireman.
grow out of *something*	get too big for	Elizabeth needs a new pair of shoes because she has grown out of her old ones.

grow into *something*	grow big enough to fit	This bike is too big for him now, but he should grow into it by next year.
hand *something* down	give something used to someone else	I handed my old comic books down to my little cousin.
hand *something* in	submit	I have to hand in my essay by Friday.
hand *something* out	to distribute to a group of people	We will hand out the invitations at the door.
hand *something* over	give (usually unwillingly)	The police asked the man to hand over his wallet and his weapons.
hang in	stay positive (N. Amer., informal)	Hang in there. I'm sure you'll find a job very soon.
hang on	wait a short time (informal)	Hang on while I grab my coat and shoes!
hang out	spend time relaxing (informal)	Instead of going to the party we are just going to hang out at my place.
hang up	end a phone call	He didn't say goodbye before he hung up.
hold *someone*/*something* back	prevent from doing/going	I had to hold my dog back because there was a cat in the park.
hold *something* back	hide an emotion	Jamie held back his tears at his grandfather's funeral.
hold on	wait a short time	Please hold on while I transfer you to the Sales Department.
hold onto *someone*/*something*	hold firmly using your hands or arms	Hold onto your hat because it's very windy outside.
hold *someone*/*something*up	rob	A man in a black mask held the bank up this morning.
keep on doing *something*	continue doing	Keep on stirring until the liquid comes to a boil.
keep *something* from *someone*	not tell	We kept our relationship from our parents for two years.
keep *someone*/*something* out	stop from entering	Try to keep the wet dog out of the living room.
keep *something* up	continue at the same rate	If you keep those results up you will get into a great college.
let *someone* down	fail to support or help, disappoint	I need you to be on time. Don't let me down this time.

let *someone* in	allow to enter	Can you let the cat in before you go to school?
look after *someone / something*	take care of	I have to look after my sick grandmother.
look down on *someone*	think less of, consider inferior	Ever since we stole that chocolate bar your dad has looked down on me.
look for *someone / something*	try to find	I'm looking for a red dress for the wedding.
look forward to *something*	be excited about the future	I'm looking forward to the Christmas break.
look into *something*	investigate	We are going to look into the price of snowboards today.
look out	be careful, vigilant, and take notice	Look out! That car's going to hit you!
look out for *someone / something*	be especially vigilant for	Don't forget to look out for snakes on the hiking trail.
look *something* over	check, examine spelling mistakes?	Can you look over my essay for
look *something* up	search and find information in a reference book or database	We can look her phone number up on the Internet.
look up to *someone*	have a lot of respect for	My little sister has always looked up to me.
make *something* up	invent, lie about something	Josie made up a story about about why we were late.
make up	forgive each other	We were angry last night, but we made up at breakfast.
make *someone* up	apply cosmetics to	My sisters made me up for my graduation party.
mix *something* up	confuse two or more things	I mixed up the twins' names again!
pass away	die	His uncle passed away last night after a long illness.
pass out	faint	It was so hot in the church that an elderly lady passed out.
pass *something* out	give the same thing to many people	The professor passed the textbooks out before class.
pass *something* up	decline (usually something good)	I passed up the job because I am afraid of change.

pay *someone* back	return owed money	Thanks for buying my ticket. I'll pay you back on Friday.
pay for *something*	be punished for doing something bad	That bully will pay for being mean to my little brother.
pick *something* out	choose	I picked out three sweaters for you to try on.
point *someone / something* out	indicate with your finger	I'll point my boyfriend out when he runs by.
put *something* down	put what you are holding on a surface or floor	You can put the groceries down on the kitchen counter.
put *someone* down	insult, make someone feel stupid	The students put the substitute teacher down because his pants were too short.
put *something* off	postpone	We are putting off our trip until January because of the hurricane.
put *something* out	extinguish	The neighbours put the fire out before the firemen arrived.
put *something* together	assemble	I have to put the crib together before the baby arrives.
put up with *someone / something*	tolerate	I don't think I can put up with three small children in the car.
put *something* on	put clothing/accessories on your body	Don't forget to put on your new earrings for the party.
run into *someone / something*	meet unexpectedly	I ran into an old school-friend at the mall.
run over *someone / something*	drive a vehicle over a person or thing	I accidentally ran over your bicycle in the driveway.
run over/through *something*	rehearse, review	Let's run over/through these lines one more time before the show.
run away	leave unexpectedly, escape	The child ran away from home and has been missing for three days.
run out	have none left	We ran out of shampoo so I had to wash my hair with soap.
send *something* back	return (usually by mail)	My letter got sent back to me because I used the wrong stamp.
set *something* up	arrange, organize	Our boss set a meeting up with the president of the company.
set *someone* up	trick, trap	The police set up the car thief by using a hidden camera.

shop around	compare prices	I want to shop around a little before I decide on these boots.
show off	act extra special for people watching (usually boastfully)	He always shows off on his skateboard
sleep over	stay somewhere for the night (informal)	You should sleep over tonight if the weather is too bad to drive home.
sort *something* out	organize, resolve a problem	We need to sort the bills out before the first of the month.
stick to *something*	continue doing something, limit yourself to one particular thing	You will lose weight if you stick to the diet.
switch *something* off	stop the energy flow, turn off	The light's too bright. Could you switch it off.
switch *something* on	start the energy flow, turn on	We heard the news as soon as we switched on the car radio.
take after *someone*	resemble a family member	I take after my mother. We are both impatient.
take *something* apart	purposely break into pieces	He took the car brakes apart and found the problem.
take *something* back	return an item	I have to take our new TV back because it doesn't work.
take off	start to fly	My plane takes off in five minutes.
take *something* off	remove something (usually clothing)	Take off your socks and shoes and come in the lake!
take *something* out	remove from a place or thing	Can you take the garbage out to the street for me?
take *someone* out	pay for someone to go somewhere with you	My grandparents took us out for dinner and a movie.
tear *something* up	rip into pieces	I tore up my ex-boyfriend's letters and gave them back to him.
think back	remember (often + to, sometimes + on)	When I think back on my youth, I wish I had studied harder.
think *something* over	consider	I'll have to think this job offer over before I make my final decision.
throw *something* away	dispose of	We threw our old furniture away when we won the lottery.
turn *something* down	decrease the volume or strength (heat, light etc)	Please turn the TV down while the guests are here.

turn *something* down	refuse	I turned the job down because I don't want to move.
turn *something* off	stop the energy flow, switch off	Your mother wants you to turn the TV off and come for dinner.
turn *something* on	start the energy, switch on	It's too dark in here. Let's turn some lights on.
turn *something* up	increase the volume or strength (heat, light etc)	Can you turn the music up? This is my favourite song.
turn up	appear suddenly	Our cat turned up after we put posters up all over the neighbourhood.
try *something* on	sample clothing	I'm going to try these jeans on, but I don't think they will fit.
try *something* out	test	I am going to try this new brand of detergent out.
use *something* up	finish the supply	The kids used all of the toothpaste up so we need to buy some more.
wake up	stop sleeping	We have to wake up early for work on Monday.
warm *someone* / *something* up	increase the temperature	You can warm your feet up in front of the fireplace.
warm up exercise	prepare body for	I always warm up by doing sit-ups before I go for a run.
wear off	fade away	Most of my make-up wore off before I got to the party.
work out	exercise	I work out at the gym three times a week.
work out	be successful	Our plan worked out fine.
work *something*	make a calculation out	We have to work out the total cost before we buy the house.

ENGLISH PHRASAL VERBS

These exercises are about using the verb 'to ask ' combined with particles:

'to ask after' someone means to ask for information about how they are and what they are doing.

- Sue was asking after you. I told her you were fine.

- He asked after my mother. He wanted to know how she was doing.

'to ask around' means to ask several people for help or information.

- I asked around to see if anyone knew someone who could rent me a room.
- When I needed to buy a new car, I asked around and someone offered me this one.

'to ask for' means to say that you want something.

- I asked for the chicken but you have brought me the beef.
- I must remember to ask for a receipt so that I can get reimbursed.

'to ask for' can also mean to do something which is likely to lead to trouble or problems.

- Walking around the streets alone at night was asking for trouble.
- If you go to that part of town, you're asking for trouble. It's very dangerous there.

'to ask for someone' means to ask to speak to them.

- He asked for Carol but there is no one working here called Carol.
- If you need anything, ask for Henry. He'll be able to help you.

'to ask someone in' means to invite them into the room or your home.

- If someone comes to the door, don't ask them in.
- Sometimes when I'm out in the garden, the neighbours ask me in for a drink.

'to ask someone out' means to invite them to go somewhere with you.

- He asked me out so I expected him to pay for dinner.
- We often invite our friends out for a drink in the pub.

'to ask someone over' means to invite them to come visit you in your home.

- I've asked Diane from across the road over for a cup of coffee later.
- He asked me over to see what they had done in the garden.

These exercises are about using the verb 'to back ' combined with particles:

'to back away from' something or someone means to retreat or move backwards from something, usually slowly, because you are frightened of them.

- When I saw the snake, I slowly backed away from it and called for help.
- He tried to back away from the man with the knife but was trapped.

'to back away from' an idea or suggestion means to disassociate yourself from it and not support it.

- He was going to say yes to the proposal but then backed away from it and didn't.
- He backed away from plans for a vote of no confidence.

'to back down' means to admit that you were wrong or that you have been defeated.

- When he was confronted with the facts, he quickly backed down.
- He wouldn't back down. He maintained his position in spite of all the evidence.

'to back off' means avoiding a difficult situation by not becoming involved in it.

- Let me deal with this. Just back off .
- At first she was very aggressive but then she backed off.

'to back onto' describes how the back of a house or building faces in a specific direction.

- The house backs onto the river. We have a lovely view.
- The building backs onto the car park in the city centre.

'to back out' means to withdraw from an agreement that has been made.

- He is no longer going to pay the amount we agreed. He has backed out of our agreement.
- We were going to go on holiday together but then he backed out at the last minute.

'to back out' your car means to reverse it from a place or position.

- I broke the mirror backing out of the parking lot.
- It is illegal to back out of your garden on to the road.

'to back up' means to give an idea support or to prove it.

- He had figures from some very reliable sources to back up his arguments.

- He didn't have any receipts to back up his insurance claim after the burglary.

'to back up' also means to make a copy of something in case the original is damaged, especially on the computer.

- Before you start installing new software, back up your files.
- I have to back up my work regularly so that I don't lose it if the computer goes down.

'to back someone up' means to support or to help them.

- That's exactly what happened. The others will back me up.
- Nobody backed me up. I was left alone to defend myself against the criticism.

These exercises are about using the verb 'to be' combined with particles:

'**to be away**' means to have gone to another place.

- Sandra won't be back until next month, she is away in China at the moment.
- I'm sorry but Martin is away on holiday this week. Can I help you?

'**to be down**' means to be unhappy or depressed.

- Until I found a new job, I was down for a long time.
- Sue has been down since she turned 50.

'**to be down**' can also mean the opposite of 'to be up', to have fallen or got smaller.

- The dollar is down one cent against the euro.
- Profits are down this quarter due to bad sales in Europe.

'**to be in**' means to be at home.

- I tried to phone Donna last night but she wasn't in so I couldn't speak to her.
- I'll be in this afternoon if you'd like to come for tea.

'**to be off**' means to leave or to start on a journey.

- I'll see you tomorrow morning, I'm off now. Have a nice evening.
- We're off to Florida on Tuesday. The flight leaves at ten o'clock.

'**to be off**' can also mean that food is old and has gone bad.

- Don't eat that yoghurt, I think it's off. It's been in the fridge for ages.
- Smell the milk, I think it's off.

'**to be on**' means that something is taking place

- That documentary is on TV tonight but I don't know which channel it is on.
- Let's go shopping on Saturday. The sales are on at the moment.

'**to be on**' can also mean to be working or switched on.

- I think he must be deaf, the TV was on very loud.
- When I arrived, the lights were on but nobody was at home.

'**to be out**' is the opposite of 'to be in' so means to not be at home or to be absent.

- I'm sorry but Jack's out. Can I take a message?
- Marie is out until lunchtime. She's got an appointment at the dentist this morning.

'**to be up**' means to have risen, got higher.

- Prices are up more than ten per cent.

- Unfortunately our costs are up more than twenty per cent because of the increase in the cost of petrol.

These exercises are about using the verb 'to blow ' combined with particles:

'to blow about' means that the wind moves something in different directions.

- After the concert, there was a lot of litter blowing about in the park.
- We tried to collect up all the rubbish and plastic bags that were blowing about in the wind.

'to blow away' means that the wind blows something from the place it was in to another.

- We fixed the tent securely so that it wouldn't be blown away in the strong wind.
- The wind blew all the labels away so I didn't know what I had planted in the garden.

'to blow back' means that the wind blows something in the direction it came from.

- When I turned the corner, the wind was so strong I just got blown back.
- The wind blew the smoke back down the chimney into the room.

'to blow down' means that the wind makes something fall to the ground.

- A tree was blocking the road. It had been blown down in the storm.
- The hurricane had blown down the traffic signals and electricity cables all over town.

'to blow off' means that the winds removes something

from a position on something.

- I was trying to pick up my hat that had been blown off in the wind.
- The wind was so strong, I got blown off my bicycle.

'to blow out' means to extinguish a fire or flame.

- I couldn't light the campfire. The wind kept blowing it out.
- Happy Birthday! Blow out the candles on your cake.

'to blow over' means that an argument or some trouble has come to an end.

- I thought that the argument would quickly blow over but it didn't.
- All that has blown over now. We've forgotten about it.

'to blow up' means to destroy something by an explosion.

- The vehicle was blown up when it drove over a landmine.
- They were carrying homemade bombs to blow up the plane mid-flight.

'to blow up' also means to lose your temper, to become very angry.

- He was furious. He just blew up and started shouting at everyone.
- My parents blew up when they found me smoking. They were so angry.

'to blow up' also means to put air into something.

- That tire looks flat. I must go blow it up.
- I spent the afternoon blowing up balloons for the party.

These exercises are the first part about using the verb 'to break ' combined with particles:

'to break away' means to stop being part of a group because you disagree with them.

- Several members broke away and formed their own group.
- Some of the members of the party disagreed with their policy and broke away to form their own party.

'to break away' also means to separate or move away from someone who is holding you.

- She broke away from her mother and ran out of the room.
- Although he was holding her by the arms, she managed to break away.

'to break down' is used when a machine or vehicle stops working.

- We broke down about two kilometres out of town and had to walk home.
- This machine is very old and is always breaking down. We need to change it.

'to break down' is also used when a discussion or arrangement fails due to disagreement.

- Talks have broken down. They are unable to reach an agreement.
- Negotiations broke down when the unions turned down the company's latest offer.

'to break down' an idea or work means to separate it into small pieces in order to deal with it more easily.

- If you break down the big jobs into individual tasks, they are much more manageable.

- We have broken the costs down by area so we can see what regions are less profitable.

'to break down' also is used when someone starts crying uncontrollably or becomes very ill when they cannot cope with their problems.

- When we told her what had happened she broke down and cried.
- When she broke down after a long period of stress and was hospitalised for several months.

'to break in' means to enter a property by force or illegally.

- Burglars have broken into several properties in the area recently.
- They broke in through the window and stole jewellery, cash and my laptop.

'to break in' also means to interrupt someone when they are speaking.

- As usual, when I was talking, she broke in and didn't let me finish my story.
- We were talking about Ralph when Sue broke in and said we didn't know anything about him.

These exercises are about using the verb 'to come' combined with particles. Here are some of the most common:

'**to come across**' means to find something by chance.

- Here is an old photo of me. I came across it when I was looking for my passport.
- I love this painting. I came across it in the attic when I was cleaning up.

'**to come apart**' means to break into separate pieces.

- It broke when I picked it up. Everything just came apart.
- It's quite big but you can pack it into a small box. It comes apart very easily.

'**to come down**' means to fall, to decrease.

- The price of petrol has come down since the beginning of the year. It's much cheaper now.
- She has taken some aspirin so her temperature has come down.

'**to come from**' = to have as your country or place of origin.

- You know by his accent that he comes from South Africa.
- I come from York, a beautiful city in the north of England.

'**to come out**' = to be released, to be available to the public

- His new book comes out next month. I'm sure it will be a bestseller.
- Their new CD came out only a few weeks ago and has already sold millions.

'**to come out**' can also mean to leave a room or a building

- He stayed in his office until he had finished the report. He didn't come out all day.
- He was waiting for me when I came out of work.

'**to come up**' = to arise unexpectedly

- I'm sorry but I'll be late. Something has come up.
- A great opportunity has just come up for a job in the marketing department.

'**to come up**' = to be mentioned, talked about

- We were talking about different people we knew and his name came up in the conversation.
- I don't want to talk about it so I hope it doesn't come up.

'**to come up with**' = to think of, imagine a solution or idea

- I asked Larry for some suggestions and he came up with a lot of very good ideas.
- I'm sorry but I haven't come up with any solution yet. I don't know what we can do.

'**to come off**' = to become unstuck

- I don't know what is in the box, the label has come off.
- When I tried to open the door, the handle came off in my hand!

These exercises are about using the verb 'to cut ' combined with particles:

'to cut across' means to take a shortcut over an area instead of going around the edge.

- It'll be quicker to cut across the field.
- She quickly cut across the car park to where he was standing.

'to cut back' means to reduce the amount of money being spent.

- The government has cut back on education with less teachers.
- I've had to cut back on my spending as I'm not making any money at the moment.

'to cut down' means to remove a tree or plant by cutting it near the base.

- To make bigger fields, the farmer has cut down a lot of the hedges.
- We cut down the old tree in the garden as it blocked all the light.

'to cut down' also means to reduce the number or quantity of something.

- The article was too long and so I had to cut it down to fit the space.
- I have cut down the number of hours I work to only thirty a week now.

'to cut in' = to interrupt someone when they are speaking.

- I was trying to explain it when she cut in and started talking.
- He really annoys me. He's always cutting in and never lets me speak.

'to cut off' = to stop supplies of something like electricity or water

- They didn't pay the bills and the electricity was cut off.
- The water was cut off while they repaired the leaking pipes.

'to cut off' can also mean to stop a telephone connection.

- I'll ring him back. We got cut off in the middle of the conversation.
- I'm sorry but I pressed the wrong button and cut you off.

'to cut out' = when an engine or piece of machinery suddenly stops working

- There's a problem with my car. The engine keeps cutting out.
- When I stopped at the lights, the engine cut out.

'to cut through' difficulty means to be able to deal with the problems or bureaucracy quickly

- To get the permits in time, we had to find a way to cut through all the bureaucracy.
- She can cut through the complex legal language and get to the point.

'to cut up' = to divide something into smaller pieces

- It was too big to go into the bin so I cut it up.
- At the end, there was a cake left so we cut it up and each took a piece home.

These exercises are about using the verb 'to do ' combined with particles:

'**to do away with**' means to get rid of something or to stop using something.

- We did away with all the old equipment and invested in some new.
- Let's do away with formality and use first names.

'**to be done in**' is used to mean you are very tired, totally exhausted.

- When I got home, I collapsed into bed. I was completely done in.
- Working in the garden really did me in. I'm going to have an early night.

'**to do out**' means to clean and tidy a place thoroughly.

- I've done my wardrobes out and given away all my old clothes.

- I can't get the car in the garage anymore. I'm going to have to do it out and make some space.

'**to do out in**' means to decorate a place in a certain color or style.

- The bedroom was done out in blue and looked very cold.
- The whole house was done out in a country style with lots of wood and flowers everywhere.

'**to do over**' means to do something again.

- I don't like it, so I have decided to do it over and paint it another color.
- I had to do it over because my computer crashed and I hadn't saved it.

'**to do up**' means to fasten something.

- Can you do the zip up for me, please? I can't do it myself.
- Do up your laces before you trip over them.

'**to do up**' also means to renovate an old building or house.

- They bought an old house in France and spent a few years doing it up.
- Old warehouses along the river have been done up and made into beautiful flats.

'**to do with**' is used to explain there is a connection from one thing to another.

- It's got nothing to do with me. I'm not responsible for that.
- He's something to do with health but I don't think he is a doctor.

'**to do with**' is also used to say that you would like to have something.

- I could do with something to eat. I haven't eaten since breakfast.
- I could do with a good night's sleep. I haven't had one for weeks.

'**to do without**' means you manage to live despite not having something.

- I forgot to buy milk so we'll just have to do without.
- I don't need your help. I can do without it.

These exercises are about using the verb 'to fall' combined with particles. Here are some of the most common:

'to fall apart' means to break into pieces because it is badly made.

- It was a cheap dress. The first time I wore it, it fell apart.
- I had terrible problems assembling the shelves, then they fell apart as soon as I put something on them.

'to fall apart' also means to stop working properly or efficiently.

- The group fell apart when two or three members left and no one replaced them.
- Without Joe's leadership, the department just fell apart and was unable to work as it had before.

'to fall back on something' means to use something when everything else has failed, to use something reliable.

- If I don't get this job, I don't have any savings to fall back on.

- They don't have very much capital to fall back on if this venture fails.

'to fall behind' means to do something more slowly than others so that you are behind.

- I couldn't walk as fast as everyone else and soon fell behind.
- When she fell behind the other runners, no one thought she would catch up and win the race.

'to fall behind' also means to not be on schedule.

- We didn't want to fall behind so we worked late into the night.
- The problems we have had mean that we have fallen behind and won't meet the deadline.

'to fall down' means to go from a vertical position to the ground.

- The old oak tree in the garden fell down in the storm.
- I slipped on the sidewalk and fell down and hurt my back.

'to fall down' means an argument or an idea is not complete or doesn't work.

- That's where your argument falls down. What you say isn't logical.
- This is the difficult part where everyone falls down. Nobody knows how to do it.

'to fall for' means to fall in love with.

- He is besotted. He has really fallen for her in a big way.
- He fell for her the first time he saw her and asked her to marry him the second time!

'to fall for' also means to be taken in by a trick or something that is not true.

- That is such an obvious lie. Nobody is going to fall for that.
- He told me he was going to invest the money for me and I fell for it.

These English phrasal verb exercises continue looking at 'to fall' combined with particles. Here are some more of the most common:

'to fall in with' means to become friendly with a group.

- He stopped going to school when he fell in with a bad crowd.
- At university, she fell in with a group that introduced her to the theatre.

'to fall into' a category or group means that it belongs to that group.

- It isn't a romantic comedy or a drama. It doesn't really fall into either category.
- The work falls into three distinct parts; administrative, planning and financial.

'to fall off' means to separate from something it was attached to.

- When I got home I was surprised to see that picture had fallen off the wall.
- I still haven't picked up the apples that fell off during the strong winds last week.

'to fall off' also means to become less or lower.

- Demand for our products is falling off in Europe although it remains high in America.

- The number of tourists falls off during the wet season but quickly goes back up as soon as it is over.

'to fall out' means to have an argument and no longer be friendly with that person.

- It's not that important. I don't want to fall out over it.
- They fell out over money when they started a business together and haven't spoken since.

'to fall out' also means something drops to the ground from the container it was in.

- When I opened the cupboard, it fell out and broke on the floor.
- I held on very tightly to the side of the boat. I couldn't swim so I didn't want to fall out.

'to fall over' means to become unbalanced and end up lying on the ground.

- I tripped on the edge of the sidewalk and fell over into the road.
- During the play, some of the stage set fell over and hit one of the actors on the head.

'to fall through' is used about a plan or arrangement that goes wrong and cannot be completed.

- I'm not doing anything this weekend. Our plans have fallen through.
- The deal fell through when the seller started demanding too much money.

This lesson is the first in two lessons about using the verb 'to get' combined with particles. Here are some of the most common:

'**to get across**' means to communicate, make people understand.

- I'm not sure I got that across very well. I don't think they really understood.
- He's an excellent speaker. He can get across even the most complicated ideas.

'**to get away**' means to go on holiday.

- We had a lovely holiday. We got away for a few days on the beach.
- I don't think we can get away until the end of the month. We're too busy.

'**to get back**' means to return from a trip or a journey.

- She's still in Taiwan. She doesn't get back until next week.
- I get back on Friday afternoon. I'll call you then.

'**to get back**' can also mean to have returned something you lent to someone.

- I lent him some money last year and I never got it back.
- We have only got back fifty percent of the questionnaires we gave out.

'**to get back to**' = to speak again with someone or to return a phone call

- When I have more information, I'll get back to you.
- He got back to me yesterday afternoon with his answer.

'**to get by**' means to just have enough money or to just manage financially

- At the end of the month, I have no money left. It is difficult to get by on my salary.

- If we are careful, we can get by on less than $20 a day.

'**to get down to**' means to start some work or a task

- If everybody is here, let's get down to business.
- I didn't start it until the last moment. I just couldn't get down to it.

'**to get in**' means to arrive home or at the office

- I'm really tired this morning. I didn't get in until after midnight last night.
- He's always the last to arrive. He never gets in before 9.30.

'**to get in**' can also mean to enter

- He opened the door so I could get in the car.
- You need to have some photo id to get in the company.

'**to get off**' means to leave a bus, train or plane

- Take the 23 bus and get off at the last stop. I live very near there.
- To go to the National Gallery, take the underground and get off at Trafalgar Square.

Here is the second part about using the verb 'to get' combined with particles:

'to get behind' means to be late or behind schedule.

- I'll stay late and finish it today. I don't want to get behind with my work.
- We don't want to get behind schedule on this project.

'**to get into**' means to become involved in, for example trouble or debt.

- I thought he'd get into trouble after the problems he caused.
- We got into debt when we had a lot of unexpected bills to pay.

'**to get on**' means to have a good relationship.

- I like working with him. We get on really well.
- He's not an easy person. I don't get on with him very well.

'**to get on**' can also mean to continue an activity.

- I must get on or I will never get this report finished.
- I can't get on. He is always interrupting and asking me to jobs for him.

'**to get out**' means to leave a car or building

- I often don't get out of work until after seven pm.
- After the accident, the door was stuck and I couldn't get out of the car.

'**to get out of**' means to avoid doing something.

- I don't want to do it. How can I get out of it?
- He is always getting out of the difficult jobs and I have to do them!

'**to get over**' means to communicate, to make people understand.

- They are not convinced. I didn't get my ideas over very well.
- I just can't get over the idea we need to be more careful. They just don't want to understand.

'**to get over**' can also mean to recover from something.

- I still don't feel very well. I haven't got over that bad cold.

- She has not got over Richard. He broke her heart.

'**to get round to**' means to finally do something after a time

- Two months later, he finally got round to finishing that report.
- I'm sorry but I haven't done it yet. I haven't got round to it.

'**to get through**' means to contact by phone

- I've been trying all day. I can't get through to her.
- I rang her ten times. I didn't get through until almost seven in the evening.

Let's have a look at the verb 'to give' combined with particles. Here are some of the most common expressions:

'**to give away**' means to give something for free, for no payment.

- In this issue of the magazine, they are giving away a free CD
- I gave away all my old clothes that were too small for me.

'**to give back**' means to return something borrowed.

- I still have your book at home. I must remember to give you it back.
- Every time he borrows money from me, he never gives it back.

'**to give in**' means to stop making an effort.

- You're doing really well. Don't give in now. Keep going.
- He has refused again and again. He's not going to give in and change his mind.

'**to give out**' means to distribute.

- As people arrive, can you give out these questionnaires for them to fill in.
- He was giving out leaflets on the street.

'**to give out**' means to break down or stop working from tiredness or overuse

- It was a very old machine. It's not surprising it has given out.
- My car finally gave out last week. I will have to buy a new one.

'**to give up**' means to stop doing something permanently.

- I haven't had a cigarette for over a month. I have given up smoking.
- I have given up playing football. I'm too old for it.

'**to give up**' means to abandon or end, a search for example.

- The key is nowhere to be found. We have given up looking for it.
- I've given up waiting for him. He is not going to come so I'm going home.

This lesson is the first lesson about using the verb 'to go' combined with particles. Here are some of the most common:

'**to go about**' means to deal with or tackle a task or job.

- Do you know how to enrol on the course? I don't know how to go about it.
- How can I go about getting a copy of my birth certificate?

'**to go after**' means to try to get.

- I sent in my application today. I'm going after that job.
- He went after a very well paid job but didn't get it.

'**to go after**' can also mean to follow or chase.

- Michelle left suddenly then Pierre went after her.
- I didn't go after her when she left. I think she needed to be on her own.

'**to go ahead**' means to begin or proceed with something.

- Even though the risks were high, we decided to go ahead with the project.
- It went ahead without any problems. We're very happy.

'**to go along with**' means to agree with a person or idea.

- I said it wouldn't work. I didn't go along with it from the beginning.
- In the end, he went along with Jack even though he had said he agreed with me.

'**to go away**' means to leave a place or a person's company.

- Did you stay at home or did you go away over the holidays?
- Please go away. I'd like to be alone for a while.

'**to go back**' means to return to a place.

- We had a great holiday in Spain last year. We are going back this year.
- I had forgotten my passport and had to go back to get it.

'**to go back on**' means to change your position on a promise or agreement.

- I said I would do it. I can't go back on it now.
- He went back on his promise and didn't help me out.

'**to go by**' for time means to pass

- A couple of hours went by before he phoned me back.
- Twenty years went by before I saw him again.

'**to go by**' can also mean to go past or pass

- I love sitting at a street café watching the world go by.
- He didn't see me. He just went by without saying a word.

Here is the next lesson about using the verb 'to go' combined with particles. Here are some more of the most common expressions:

'**to go down**' means to get smaller or decrease.

- They are much cheaper than before. The price has gone down by at least ten percent.
- The price of laptop computers has gone down considerably over the last five years.

'**to go down**' can also mean be received or be reacted to.

- Everybody laughed. I think my speech went down well.
- The news didn't go down well. Everyone is now worried about their jobs.

'**to go for**' means to choose.

- He doesn't like spending money so he went for the cheapest option.
- We have decided to go for the house in Dunbar Street. It's lovely.

'**to go in**' means to enter.

- He went in his office and closed the door.
- She didn't knock on the door, she just went in.

'**to go in**' can also mean to fit in something.

- I've got too many clothes. They won't go in my suitcase.
- The sofa is too big. It won't go in the sitting room.

'**to go into**' means to describe something in detail.

- We can talk about the problem later. I don't want to go ;into it now.
- We don't have time to go into all the details.

'**to go into**' can also mean to enter a place.

- She often goes into that shop and tries on lots of clothes but never buys anything.
- We'll go into the sitting room. We'll be more comfortable there.

'**to go off**' means to stop functioning (of a light, electricity or heating).

- I was only half way up the stairs when the light went off.
- The heating goes off at midnight and comes back on before we get up.

'**to go off**' can also mean to stop liking someone or something.

- I used to love this café but I've gone off it since the waiter changed.
- I don't want to do it now. I've gone off the idea.

'**to go off**' can also mean to decay or go bad.

- I think the milk has gone off. It smells.
- Don't eat it, it has gone off.

Let's continue looking at the verb 'to go' combined with particles. Here are some more common ones:

'**to go on doing something**' means to continue doing something.

- He didn't even look at me. He just went on working.
- I can't go on working so hard. I'm going to make myself ill.

'**to go on to do something**' means to move on to something after you have finished.

- First he told us about the present situation, then he went on to tell us about the future.
- If you have no further questions, I'd like to go on to the next part of my talk.

'**to go on**' means to happen.

- What's going on outside? There's a lot of noise.
- There's not much going on this afternoon. It's very quiet.

'**to go out**' means to leave home to go to the cinema or the pub for example.

- I won't be home tonight. I'm going out with Kelly.
- We're going out for a beer tonight. Would you like to come?

'**to go over**' means to review something to check it.

- I'm not sure my figures are accurate. Can we go over them again?
- He went over the main points again to be sure we had understood.

'**to go through**' means to experience an unpleasant or difficult time.

- It was terrible. I don't want to go through that again.
- He's going through a very difficult time what with his divorce etc.

'**to go through**' also means to examine something carefully.

- The customs officer went through their bags looking for drugs.
- I've been through his papers but I can't find the one I'm looking for.

'**to go under**' means to fail or go bankrupt.

- Three thousand companies have gone under so far this year.
- Cash flow is the reason that most companies go under.

'**to go up**' means to increase or rise.

- The number of jobless went up 0.5 percent last month.
- It's very expensive now. The price has gone up by ten percent since January.

'**to go with**' means to support an idea or the people proposing a plan.

- I think Jack's right. I have to go with him.
- We should go with Sue's idea. It's the best idea yet.

In today's lesson we are going to look at using the verb 'to hold' combined with particles. Here are some more of the most common expressions:

'**to hold back**' means to restrain or stop something working.

- High rates of tax are holding back economic growth.
- He could easily get promotion if he were more a team player. His attitude is holding him back.

'**to hold back**' can also mean to not say or do something.

- I wanted to tell him but something held me back.
- Although she didn't agree, she held back and didn't say anything.

'**to hold down**' means to stop something increasing.

- Government is trying to hold down public spending.
- We have to hold down costs if we want to increase our margins.

'**to hold down**' also means to keep a job even if it is difficult.

- There are lots of women who hold down high powered jobs and have children.
- She was holding down a very responsible position when she was only twenty-three.

'**to hold off**' means to delay doing something or delay making a decision about it.

- That house won't be on the market very long. Don't hold ;off making an offer.
- You can't hold off much longer, you have to give him an answer.

'**to hold on**' means to wait for a short time.

- Let's see if he arrives. We can hold on a couple of minutes.
- We can't hold on much longer, we're going to miss the train. We'll have to go without him.

'**to hold on**' is used frequently on the phone to ask people to wait a few moments.

- I'll just check that for you if you'd like to hold on.
- Could you hold on please while I see if he's available?

'**to hold out**' means to put something in front of you.

- He was very formal. He held out his hand for me to shake it.
- She held out her glass so that I could refill it.

'**to hold out for**' means to wait for what you want and not accept less.

- They were on strike for a long time. Holding out for a 10% increase in salary.
- I think we should hold out for a better price. House prices are beginning to rise again.

'**to hold up**' means to delay something.

- The construction was held up by bad weather.
- Jim was late again. He got held up in heavy traffic on the motorway.

This lesson looks at the verb 'to keep' combined with particles:

'**to keep at**' something means to continue doing something even if it is hard or unpleasant.

- Learning phrasal verbs is hard so you have to keep at it every day.
- I had to finish so I kept at it for an hour before I took a break.

'**to keep back**' means to not use or give away all of something.

- Keep back some of the cream to put on top of the dessert.
- We kept back some of the money for emergencies.

'**to keep down**' means to stop the number or level of something from rising.

- If we want to make a profit this year, we have to keep costs down as much as possible.
- I try to eat well and exercise regularly to keep my weight down.

'**to keep off**' = means to not go onto an area.

- Please keep off the grass.
- Keep off the motorway in the morning, there are always traffic jams at that time.

'**to keep off**' can also mean to not talk about a particular subject.

- He started talking about it. I tried to keep off the subject.
- He can't keep off the question of climate change, he never stops talking about.

'**to keep on**' means to continue with something.

- All night long he kept on asking me questions about it.
- I asked him to stop but he just kept on.

'**to keep out of**' means to not get involved in something.

- It's not my business. I keep out of their arguments.
- It's got nothing to do with me. I'm keeping out of it.

'**to keep to**' means stay on a subject when talking.

- We don't have much time so can we keep to the agenda, please?
- Can you keep to the point, please?

'**to keep up**' means to go at the same speed as someone or something.

- She was walking so fast that I couldn't keep up with her.
- I've got too much to do at the moment. I can't keep up with my work.

This next lesson is about using the verb 'to let' combined with particles. Here are some more of the most common expressions:

'**to let down**' means to disappoint someone.

- I promised to do it, I can't let her down.
- They let us down badly by not completing the work on time.

'**to let in**' means to allow someone to enter.

- I have a front door key. I can let myself in.
- They're at the door. Can you let them in?

'**to let in**' can also mean to allow water, light or air into something which is normally sealed.

- I opened the curtains to let in the sunshine.
- I need some new boots for winter. These let water in.

'**to let in for**' means to be involved in something difficult or unpleasant.

- This job is very hard. I didn't realise what I was letting myself in for.
- She didn't realise how much work she was letting herself in for doing this course.

'**to let in on**' means to tell someone about something which is secret.

- I don't know what they're doing. They wouldn't let me in on their plans.
- She let me in on her secret. She's getting married!

'**to let off**' means to not punish someone when they have done something wrong.

- He was caught smoking in the office but they let him off because it was the first time.
- I'll let you off this time but if you do it again, you'll be severely punished.

'**to let off**' can also mean to allow someone to not do something they should do.

- I owed him some money but he let me off. I didn't have to pay him back.
- I was supposed to work until 10 pm but my boss let me off at 9.

'**to let out**' means to allow someone to leave a place, usually by opening a door.

- He stopped at the traffic lights to let me out.
- Let me out at the end of the road. I can walk the rest of the way.

'**to let out**' means to make a particular sound.

- When she heard the news, she let out a huge sigh of relief.
- They all let out a groan when they heard the bad news.

'**to let up**' means to cease or to decrease in intensity.

- We'll go out for a walk if the rain lets up.

- The pressure at work is non-stop. It never lets up.

Today we're going to start looking at the verb 'to look' combined with particles. Here are some of the most common:

'**to look after**' means to take care of someone or something.

- When I have to travel on business, my parents usually look after my children.
- I look after the office when my colleagues are away on business.

'**to look ahead**' means to think about and plan the future.

- We have to look ahead and try to estimate our needs for the next few years.
- In this business, it's very difficult to look ahead and predict what will happen.

'**to look at**' means to read something quickly and not very thoroughly.

- Could you look at my report and tell me if you think it's OK?
- I looked at your figures and they seem fine to me.

'**to look at**' can also mean to investigate or think carefully about a problem or situation.

- Costs are getting out of control. We need to look at them closely.
- John looked at renting cars but it would be too expensive.

'**to look back**' means to think about something that happened in the past.

- I realise I was very naive when I look back.

- If we look back over the last three years, we can see many times when we were very successful.

'**to look down on**' means to think something or someone is inferior.

- The people who work in Headquarters always look down on the people in the branches.
- Don't look down on him just because he left school at 16. He has been very successful.

'**to look for**' means to try to find something lost or that you need.

- My assistant is leaving at the end of the month. I'm looking for a new one.
- He has been looking for a job for ages now.

'**to look forward to**' means to feel excited and happy about something that is going to happen.

- I'm seeing him on Tuesday. I'm really looking forward to it.
- We're looking forward to our holidays. It will be wonderful to get away.

'**to look in**' means to visit someone for a short time.

- I'll look in on my way home and we can have a cup of tea.
- Look in on Jenny and check that she is still working.

'**to look into**' means to examine a problem or situation.

- My boss asked me to look into ways to do it more efficiently.
- We have set up a working group to look into the problem.

Let's continue looking at the verb 'to look' combined with particles:

'**to look on**' means to watch something happen.

- The Police just looked on as the demonstrators marched peacefully through the streets.
- Nobody helped me. They just looked on as I struggled to get up off the street.

'**to look on**' also means to consider someone or something in a special way.

- We are very close. I look on him as my brother.
- Don't look on not getting the job as a failure. It's not.

'**to look out**' means be careful. It is always an order.

- Look out! The boss is coming.
- Look out! You're going to fall.

'**to look out for**' means to watch carefully around you so you will notice something or someone in particular.

- When you go to the conference, look out for Anna. She will be there.
- Janet is twenty next week. Can you look out for a present when you are in the shops?

'**to look out for**' can also mean to take care of someone.

- Will is a great brother. He always looks out for his sisters.
- She's very selfish. She just looks out for herself.

'**to look over**' means to quickly examine something.

- At the end of the exam, I only had a few minutes to look over what I had written.

- The doctor quickly looked him over before sending him for an x-ray.

'**to look round**' means to walk through a building or place to have a look at it.

- When you travel on business, you don't have time to look round the places you visit.
- The first time we looked round the house, we knew it was the house for us.

'**to look through**' means to quickly examine a text or some things.

- I decided to give half my clothes away when I had looked through them.
- We looked through the list of applicants and made a shortlist of the six best qualified.

'**to look up**' means to find a piece of information in a book or other source of information.

- I didn't know the word so I looked it up in the dictionary.
- I looked their address up in the Yellow Pages.

'**to look up to**' means to respect and admire someone.

- My father's wonderful. He's the person I most look up to.
- All his employees look up to him and admire him.

Let's now look at the verb 'to make' combined with particles. Here are some more of the most common expressions:

'to make for' means to go on the direction of.

- He got up and made for the exit.
- When he came into the room, he made straight for me.

'**to make of**' means think of, have an opinion about.

- He's a complete mystery to me. I don't know what to make of him.
- What do you make of his new girlfriend?

'**to make off**' means to leave somewhere very quickly, often to escape.

- The car didn't stop after the accident but made off at speed towards the town centre.
- He snatched her bag and made off down the street through the crowd.

'**to make off with**' means to steal and escape with something.

- The thieves made off with over one million dollars in cash.
- They broke into the house and made off with jewellery and silver.

'**to make out**' means to manage to be able to see or hear something.

- He was speaking very quietly. I couldn't make out what he was saying.
- It was too dark to see. I couldn't make him out clearly.

'**to make out**' can also mean to pretend that something is true.

- He made out he was very rich when, in fact, he wasn't.
- She often makes out she is the boss when, really, she is only an assistant.

'**to make up your mind**' means to decide.

- I bought them both because I couldn't make up my mind which one to buy.
- Make your mind up! Which one do you want?

'**to make up**' means to say or write something that is not true, to invent a story.

- It wasn't true at all. They just made it up.
- I told him I couldn't go and made up an excuse.

'**to make up**' can also mean to forgive someone and become friendly with again after an argument.

- We had a huge argument and but made up later.
- Half the fun of arguing is making up afterwards!

'**to make up for**' means to compensate for something bad that they have done or that has happened.

- He bought me some flowers to make up for being late.
- What can I do to make up for forgetting your birthday?

Our next verb is 'to pull' combined with particles. Here is the first lesson about some of the most common. Read the examples carefully then do the exercises on the right.

'**to pull apart**' means to separate two or more things.

- I didn't like the dress when I had finished, so I pulled it apart and started again.
- The teacher had to pull the two boys apart to stop them fighting.

'**to pull apart**' can also mean to criticise an idea or something written.

- She pulled my argument apart in about thirty seconds.

- The newspaper critics pulled his latest novel apart saying it wasn't as good as his last.

'**to pull away**' is when a vehicle starts moving .

- He knocked the cyclist over as he was pulling away from the junction.
- The bus pulled away just as I arrived at the stop.

'**to pull back**' means to move something in a backwards direction.

- He thought I was standing too close to the edge so he pulled me back.
- When I pulled back the covers, I found a little kitten hidden in the bed.

'**to pull down**' means to demolish a building or other structure.

- The old theatre was pulled down and replaced by a block of flats.
- They pulled down a lot of houses when they built the new ring road around the city.

'**to pull down**' can also mean to move something from a higher position to a lower one.

- The sun was shining in my eyes so I pulled down the blinds.
- Her T-shirt was too short. She had to keep pulling it down to cover her stomach.

'**to pull in**' is when a vehicle is driven to a place to stop.

- The bank's over there. Stop and pull in behind that car. I'll get out here.
- We have very little petrol left. We'll have to pull in at the next service station and get some.

'**to pull in**' can also mean to attract.

- He's a very popular singer at the moment. He can pull in an enormous crowd.
- The music festival pulls in huge numbers of tourists every year.

'**to pull off**' means to succeed in doing something.

- We'll make a lot of money if we can pull off this deal.
- I don't know how good she is. Do you think she can pull it off?

'**to pull on**' means to put on clothes quickly.

- Come on, get dressed. Pull on a sweater and let's go.
- When I arrived he was almost ready. He was just pulling on his hat and gloves.

Let's continue with 'to pull', here are some of the most common:

'**to pull out**' means to extract something.

- It was very painful. The dentist pulled out two of my teeth.
- Somebody had pulled some pages out of the book.

'**to pull out of**' means decide not to continue with an activity or agreement.

- We signed a contract. We can't pull out of the deal.
- They pulled out of the negotiations after only two hours.

'**to pull out**' is used when a vehicle driven out of a place into the road.

- I didn't see the man on the bicycle as I was pulling out of the car park.
- The car pulled out in front of the bus.

'**to pull over**' means to drive a car to the side of the road.

- The car was making a strange noise so I pulled over to have a look at it.
- I pulled over to ask someone the way.

'**to pull through**' means recover after a serious illness.

- The doctor came to tell me that John would pull through.
- Nobody thought he'd pull through after the accident.

'**to pull yourself together**' means to regain control of your emotions.

- Stop crying. It's time to pull yourself together.
- He took a long time to pull himself together.

'**to pull together**' means to cooperate and work as a group to achieve something.

- We can do this, if we all pull together.
- We have to pull together during difficult times.

'**to pull up**' is used when a car slows down and stops.

- It started to rain just as we pulled up in front of the restaurant.
- A taxi pulled up just as I came out of the airport.

'**to pull up**' a chair means you move it in order to sit down.

- Come and join us. Pull up a chair.
- He pulled up a chair and sat down.

'**to pull up**' also means to criticise someone when they make a mistake.

- If you make a mistake, they will pull you up on it every time.
- He's always pulling me up on my grammar.

Now we are going to look at the verb 'to put' combined with particles. Here are some more of the most common expressions:

'**to put across**' means to explain or to express something.

- We have to put the message across a little bit more clearly.
- Not a very good presentation. He didn't put his ideas across very well at all.

'**to put aside**' means to save money

- He's got enough money. He has put some aside.
- I've put aside £100 a month for over a year.

'**to put at**' means to roughly calculate a cost or figure.

- The first estimate put the damage at about £10 000.
- I think he's the same age as my father. I would put him at 50.

'**to put away**' means to replace something in the place it is normally kept.

- Can you put all your toys away please, darling?
- I've put the clean clothes away except your shirts. I don't know where to put them.

'**to put back**' means to return something to its original place.

- I put the books back on the shelf after I had looked at them.
- When you have finished, can you put everything back, please?

'**to put back**' can also mean to change the time of an event until a later time.

- I can't make it on Thursday. Can we put it back until Friday?
- My appointment has been put back until next month.

'**to put behind**' means to try to forget about something unpleasant.

- I've forgotten all about it. I've put it behind me.
- You have to put everything behind you and move on with your life.

'**to put down**' means to stop carrying or holding something.

- My bag was heavy so I put it down on the floor.
- Don't put your cup down there. It will leave a mark on the table.

'**to put down**' can also mean to criticize someone or their ideas.

- He's always criticizing, always putting people down.
- You never support me. You are always putting me down.

'**to put down**' the phone means to end a phone call.

- I was so angry, I just put the phone down on him.
- After I put the phone down, I remembered why I'd called you.

Let's continue with more expressions with the verb 'to put' combined with particles. Here are some more of the most common ones:

'**to put on**' a piece of clothing means to place it over a part of the body to wear it.

- It's cold in here. I'm going to put a sweater on.
- Before going out, he put his boots, coat and hat on.

'**to put on**' the light means to turn it on.

- It's dark in here. Can you put the light on, please?
- I didn't put the light on because I didn't want to disturb you.

'**to put on**' weight means to gain a few kilos.

- I must go on a diet, I've put five kilos on since the holidays.
- He was looking a little fatter. I think he has put some weight on.

'**to put out**' a light means to turn it off.

- We don't need the light now. Could you put it out?
- We put out the light and sat in the dark.

'**to put out**' something burning means to extinguish it.

- You can't smoke in here. Please put that cigarette out.
- It took only a few minutes for the fire-fighters to put the fire out.

'**to put out**' somebody means to cause them extra trouble.

- Please don't go to any trouble. I don't want to put you out.

- I'd be happy to do it. You're not putting me out at all.

'**to put over**' an idea or opinion means to express it.

- He expresses himself very well and puts his ideas over very clearly.
- I don't think I put my point of view over very well.

'**to put someone through**' something means you make them do something unpleasant or to suffer it.

- I'm sorry, we have to do it. But believe me, I really don't want to put you through it.
- We can't put him through the ordeal of more surgery. He isn't strong enough.

'**to put someone through**' on the phone means to connect the caller to another person.

- Please hold the line, I'm putting you through.
- Good morning. Could you put me through to Mr Davies, please?

'**to put something together**' means to assemble it.

- This modern flat pack furniture is very easy to put together.
- We've put together an excellent team to work on this project.

Let's finish with the verb 'to put' combined with particles. Here is the final list of expressions:

'**to put money towards**' something means to use a sum of money to pay a part of the cost of something.

- When he died, he left me some money which I am going to put towards a house.
- I'm going to put my Christmas bonus towards my summer holiday.

'**to put up**' a building or structure means to erect.

- Where the old theatre used to be, they have put up a new apartment block.
- They're putting up a new sports stadium just outside the town.

'**to put up**' something which is folded means to open it.

- She hit me with her umbrella as she was putting it up.
- It only took fifteen minutes to put up the tent.

'**to put up**' money means to provide money for a project.

- Without guarantees, the bank won't put up any money for the project.
- The people in the city put up most of the money for the restoration of the theatre.

'**to put up**' a price means to increase it.

- We're not making a profit. We need to put up our prices.
- Their prices are really high now because they have put them up by ten per cent.

'**to put someone up'** means to let them stay in your home for a short time.

- If you go to Australia, I'm sure some of the family will put you up during your stay.
- I can put you up for a few days while the painters finish your flat.

'**to put someone up to**' If you put someone up to something you encourage them to do something wrong or silly.

- I don't think it was his idea. I think someone put him up to it.
- I wonder if John put him up to it. He wouldn't have done it alone.

'**to put up with**' something means to tolerate it

- He's impossible to work with. I don't know how you put up with him.
- I really don't like it but I know I'm going to have to put up with it.

Let's now have a look at the verb 'to run' combined with particles. Here are some of the most common expressions:

'**to run across someone**' means to meet them by accident.

- I hadn't seen Gloria for ages when I ran across her in the supermarket.
- I ran across an old friend in town today. I hadn't seen him for ages.

'**to run around**' means to be very busy doing lots of things.

- I'm always running around trying to get everything done on time.
- I spent all morning running around trying to find the things you needed.

'**to run away**' means to leave, often secretly, because you're unhappy.

- He was very unhappy in boarding school and ran away twice.
- She ran away from home at sixteen and went to live with a friend in London.

'**to run down**' means to move quickly to a place in a lower position.

- When I called her, she ran down so fast she nearly fell.
- When I heard the news I ran down the street to tell Lily who lives at the bottom.

'**to run down**' also means to deliberately reduce the size of something, for example stock.

- Stock is very expensive. We're trying to run it down to a minimum.
- They are running the company down by not replacing people who leave.

'**to run someone down**' means to hit a person when driving your car.

- I was crossing the road when a car nearly ran me down.
- She's in hospital after being run down by a car on Market Street.

'**to run into**' problems means to meet or encounter difficulties.

- We ran into huge financial difficulties when the construction went over budget.
- The company has run into difficulties since the introduction of the euro.

'**to run into**' something when you're driving means to hit something.

- When I was parking, I ran into a post.
- I didn't brake quickly enough and ran into the car in front.

'**to run off**' means to escape or leave a place quickly.

- The boys took some sweets from the shop and ran off laughing.
- She waved goodbye and ran off to play with her friends.

'**to run off with**' something is to steal it.

- They hit the man and ran off with his wallet and mobile phone.
- The financial manager ran off with half a million of the company's money.

Let's continue looking at the verb 'to run' combined with particles. Here are some more of the most common expressions:

'**to run into**' someone means to meet them unexpectedly.

- I ran into Jane in reception. I hadn't seen her for ages.
- Sara ran into her ex-boyfriend in the supermarket. She said it was very embarrassing.

'**to run on**' diesel or electricity means to use them for power in order to function.

- The motor runs on electricity so it's very quiet.
- We have a generator that runs on diesel which we use during power cuts.

'**to run out of**' something means to have no more left.

- I can't make a cake, we've run out of eggs.
- When I was a student and my money ran out, I lived on pasta.

'**to run out**' means to pass the time limit or expire.

- I need to get a new passport. It runs out next month.

- I hope they will give me a new contract when my present one runs out at the end of he month.

'**to run over**' means to hit with a vehicle.

- He's in hospital. He was run over by a car last night.
- You need to know where everything is in case I'm run over by a bus!

'**to run through**' means to repeat or rehearse something to practice or check

- We quickly ran through the program to check that everything was OK.
- Can we run through it again just to be sure we haven't forgotten anything.

'**to run to**' means to go to someone for help.

- She always runs to me when she needs some help.
- I'm too old to go running to my parents every time I need some money.

'**to run up**' debts or bills means to owe money.

- He very quickly ran up an enormous debt on his credit card.
- We ran up a big bill in the hotel drinking in the bar.

'**to run up against**' problems means to meet difficulties unexpectedly.

- We had no idea about the difficulties we would run up against.
- We ran up against a few problems at the beginning but now it's fine.

Now we are going to look at the verb 'to send' combined with particles. Here are some of the most common:

'**to send away for**' something means to write to an organization to have something delivered to you.

- I couldn't find it in the local shops. I had to send away for it.
- I don't know what they are like. I'm going to send away for some samples.

'**to send back**' means to return something because it is not right or damaged.

- The food was cold when it was served so we sent it back.
- When it arrived, I didn't like the colour so I sent it back.

'**to send for**' means to send a message asking someone to come to see you

- The baby was very ill so she sent for the doctor.
- I knew I was in trouble when the boss sent for me.

'**to send in**' means to send something to an organization.

- Please send in the completed forms before January 31st.
- The TV show is funny family videos that viewers send in.

'**to send someone in**' means to tell a person to enter a room or office.

- I'd like to speak to James. Can you send him in, please?
- I'm ready now. Can you send in the first patient?

'**to send off**' means to post a letter or parcel.

- You should have got it by now. I sent it off two days ago.

- I packed everything up and sent it off last week.

'**to send on**' means to forward a document or mail.

- Here is my new address. Can you send my mail on to me?
- My colleague is dealing with this. I'll send a copy of your email on so she can deal with it.

'**to send out**' means to send to a lot of people at the same time.

- The wedding is in two months. We need to send out the invitations.
- We sent out copies of the new brochure to all our existing clients.

'**to send out**' also means to emit a sound or light.

- This tiny transmitter sends out a signal strong enough to be picked up a kilometre away.
- The phone mast sends out radio waves that some people think are dangerous.

'**to send out for**' means to phone an order to a restaurant for food to be delivered

- I don't want to cook. Let's send out for a pizza.
- It's almost lunchtime. Shall we send out for some sandwiches or snack.

The next verb we're going to look at is 'to set' combined with particles. Here are the first of the most common:

'**to set about**' is to dealing with something in a particular way.

- I need to find a new flat but I'm not sure how to set about looking for one.
- I don't think you are setting about it the right way.

'**to set against**' means balance one thing against another.

- The advantages are not so big when set against the disadvantages.
- We can set our expenses against the tax.

'**to be set against**' something means to be opposed to doing it.

- He won't change his mind. He is absolutely set against it.
- His parents were set against him becoming a musician and made him study engineering.

'**to set aside**' means to use something, often time or money, for a specific purpose.

- I have enough money for the deposit set aside.
- I've set aside Monday and Tuesday to work on it.

'**to set back**' is to cause a delay.

- Bad weather was the reason that the launch of the rocket was set back until Monday.
- The whole project has been set back by the late delivery of some of the parts.

'**to set down**' something you are holding means to put it down.

- She lifted up the teapot but set it down again without pouring any tea.
- The waitress set down an enormous plate of steak and salad in front of me.

'**to set down**' your ideas or some facts means to record by writing them.

- Here is the leaflet where we have set down guidelines for our employees.

- We were all asked to set down our views on what had happened.

'**to set in**' is when something unpleasant starts and seems likely to continue.

- It looks as if the rain has set in for the afternoon.
- Panic didn't really set in until just before I was due to give my presentation.

'**to set off**' means to start on a journey.

- Sorry we're late. We didn't set off until half past eight.
- The weather was perfect when we set off but it was raining when we got back.

Now let's look at the verb 'to sit'. Here are some common expressions using this verb combined with particles:

'**to sit around**' means to spend time doing very little.

- They just sit around and do nothing all day.
- We sat around in the hotel until it stopped raining.

'**to sit back**' means to wait for something to happen while deliberately not being involved.

- She just sat back and waited for us to do everything.
- You can't just sit back and expect me to do everything.

'**to sit down**' means to lower your body into a sitting position.

- We looked for somewhere to sit down.
- She sat down beside me on the sofa and started talking.

'**to sit in on**' something means to be present during a meeting or event but not participate.

- He asked me to sit in on the discussion and report back to him.
- When I was new to the department, I sat in on meetings to learn the procedures.

'**to sit on**' a committee or panel means to be a member.

- As the representative of the personnel, I sat on the board of directors.
- He sat on many committees dealing with education.

'**to sit out**' means to be outside rather than inside.

- While the weather was good, we sat out and had lunch.
- We went to the pub and sat out at the tables in the garden.

'**to sit out**' something means to wait for it to finish.

- His injury meant that he had to sit out the rest of the competition.
- When it started raining, we decided to sit out the storm in the café.

'**to sit over**' someone is to watch them very carefully to check up on them.

- I sat over him and made sure he took his medicine.
- She sat over me until I had finished everything.

'**to sit through**' means to remain until something is finished, especially if it is unpleasant.

- They sat through a very long meeting.
- We had to sit through a very boring lecture before we could go for a drink.

'**to sit up**' means to not go to bed until it very late.

- I sat up and waited for him to come home.

- She sat up all night to finish her project before the deadline.

Now let's look at the verb 'to stand. Here are some common expressions using this verb combined with particles:

'**to stand around**' mean to stand in a place doing very little or waiting for something.

- We just stood around for half an hour waiting for the concert to begin.
- Lots of teenagers just stand around on street corners because they have nothing to do.

'**to stand aside**' means to move to a position where you do not block others.

- I told everyone to stand aside to let them pass.
- Everyone stood aside to let the rescue workers pass.

'**to stand back**' means to move a short distance away from something.

- Please stand back from the objects. You must not touch them.
- You can see the paintings better if you stand back a little.

'**to stand back**' also means to take a bit of distance from a problem in order to understand it

- It's difficult to stand back and be objective when you are talking about your children.
- We need to stand back and think about this.

'**to stand by**' means to be waiting and ready for something.

- Riot Police were standing by in case the demonstration got out of hand.

- Ambulance teams were standing by in case any of the participants got into difficulties.

'**to stand by**' also means to continue to support someone or something.

- We stand by our decision in spite of the opposition to it.
- His wife stood by him through the scandal.

'**to stand down**' mean to leave or resign from an important position.

- The Prime Minister stood down after the defeat in the elections.
- Even though he still had the support of the shareholders, he decided to stand down.

'**to stand for**' means is an abbreviation for.

- BBC stands for British Broadcasting Corporation.
- What does PGCE stand for?

'**to stand for**' can mean to support or represent an idea or attitude.

- I agree with everything that Greenpeace stand for.
- The Conservative Party stands for family values.

'**to stand for**' also means to accept someone's behaviour without complaining.

- I don't see why I should stand for his bad behaviour.
- I don't know how she stands for it. He's impossible to live with.

Now let's look at some common expressions using the verb 'to stay' combined with particles:

'**to stay ahead**' of someone or something means to remain in a better position than them

- We have to invest in new equipment if we want to stay ahead of the competition.
- The company is always looking for a way to stay ahead of the others.

'**to stay away from**' someone or a place means to avoid them, not to go near them.

- I told you to stay away from that part of town, it is dangerous.
- I prefer to stay away from discussing politics. It always causes an argument.

'**to stay behind**' means to remain in a place after everyone else has left.

- The teacher asked me to stay behind after class to finish my work.
- I stayed behind after the meeting to discuss a few things that were not on the agenda.

'**to stay in**' means to not go out but to remain at home.

- I'm going to stay in tonight and get an early night.
- We didn't go out. We stayed in and watched TV yesterday evening.

'**to stay off**' means to not go to work or school.

- Stay off until you're feeling better. Don't come in to work tomorrow.
- I stayed off for three days until I felt better.

'**to stay on**' means to remain in a place or job longer than planned.

- He stayed on as a consultant after he retired as chairman.
- You can leave school at sixteen but I stayed on until I was eighteen.

'**to stay out**' means to remain away from home.

- We stayed out all night and took the subway home as people were going to work.
- As I was leaving, my mother told me not to stay out too late.

'**to stay out of**' something means to not get involved or take part.

- Stay out of this. It doesn't concern you.
- I'm staying out of this. I don't want to get involved.

'**to stay over**' means to spend the night at someone's instead of leaving.

- Why don't you stay over? You're going to miss the last train.
- I stayed over at my friend's because I don't like driving at night.

'**to stay up**' means to not go to bed at the usual time.

- I'm really tired today. I stayed up until two last night.
- He stayed up all last night working. He had an essay to finish.

These exercises are about using the verb 'to stop ' combined with particles:

'**to stop away**' means to deliberately not go back to a place.

- Since the beach was polluted by petrol, people have been stopping away.
- After the terrorist attacks on London, tourists stopped away for a while.

'**to stop back**' means to return to a place at a later time.

- I didn't have time to talk so I told him to stop back later when I had some free time.
- I'll stop back on the way home from work and see how you are.

'**to stop behind**' means to stay in a place after everyone else has left.

- I stopped behind after the meeting to talk to Bill.
- Stop behind after class so I can give you some extra work to do.

'**to stop by**' means to visit a place quickly.

- I'm going to stop by Jim's house on the way home.
- Stop by for a coffee when you are next here.

'**to stop in**' means to not go out.

- I'm not going to the cinema with them this evening. I've decided to stop in.
- I'm stopping in and watching TV tonight. I can't afford to go out.

'**to stop off**' means to stay in a place in the middle of a journey.

- We stopped off in Paris on the way to Nice to visit some friends.
- I'll stop off at the shops on the way home and buy some bread.

'**to stop out**' means to stay out late at night.

- When I was a student, I often stopped out all night and came home for breakfast.
- He often stops out all night during the holidays and comes home at dawn.

'**to stop over**' means to spend a night in a place in the middle of a journey.

- On the way to Australia, we are stopping over in Singapore.
- On the round the world ticket, we can stop over in five different countries.

'**to stop up**' means to not go to bed until much later than usual.

- Don't stop up too late. You've got school tomorrow.
- We all stopped up until midnight to see the New Year in.

These exercises are about using the verb 'to stop ' combined with particles:

'**to stop away**' means to deliberately not go back to a place.

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- Don't stop up too late. You've got school tomorrow.
- We all stopped up until midnight to see the New Year in.

Now let's begin looking at some common expressions using the verb 'to take ' combined with particles:

'**to take after**' means to resemble a parent or family member.

- She's blond with blue eyes. She takes after her father.
- He is good at maths. He doesn't take after me!

'**to take along**' means you take someone or something with you when you go somewhere.

- I took Sue along to the party. She really enjoyed it.
- Shall we take a bottle along? That is always appreciated.

'**to take apart**' means to separate something into the parts it is made up of.

- He took the machine apart and couldn't reassemble it.
- The machine needs taking apart and cleaning and oiling then it'll work.

'**to take aside**' means to isolate a person from the rest of a group to talk to them privately.

- After the meeting, he took me aside and asked me what I really thought.
- She took Danny aside and explained what she wanted him to do.

'**to take away**' means to remove something from its place and put it elsewhere.

- Someone had cleaned the room and taken away all the dirty dishes.
- Take that away! I don't want it in here.

'**to take away**' also means to remove something and stop them having it again.

- His passport was taken away so he can't leave the country.
- Security was very strict in the airport, they even took away my bottle of water!

'**to take back**' means to return something you have bought or borrowed.

- When I got home I discovered it didn't work so I took it back to the shop.
- When you've finished using it, can you take it back to the kitchen and put it away, please?

'**to take down**' means to go to a lower level or place with something.

- I took them down to the beach for the day as the weather was beautiful.
- Can you take that down, please? It shouldn't be up here in your bedroom.

'**to take down**' also means to remove something that is attached to a wall or other object.

- When I went into the sitting room, I noticed that he had taken down all the pictures.
- Now the election is over, all the posters have been taken down.

Here is the third part of our look at some common expressions using the verb 'to take ' combined with particles:

'**to take someone out**' means to spend time with them at the restaurant or cinema for example.

- He took me out on Friday night to a lovely restaurant.

- I took the children out for the day to the beach.

'**to take out**' money means to withdraw it from your bank account.

- I went to the cash machine and took out $100 this morning.
- He took out $1000 from his savings account to pay for his car.

'**to take out on**' If you take something out on someone it means that you are unpleasant to someone because you are angry or upset.

- Don't take your anger out on me. It's not my fault.
- When he's fed up, he takes his anger out on his family.

'**to take over**' means to gain control of another company by buying it.

- All the high street shops have been taken over by the large chains stores.
- My parent's factory was taken over by a large group that wanted production locally.

'**to take over**' a job or responsibility means you start doing it and replace the previous person who was doing it.

- I've taken over from Fiona. She left at the end of last month.
- Rafael takes over as Managing Director in June when Pierre retires.

'**to take over**' also means to become more important or successful than something else.

- It has now taken over as our biggest selling product.
- Less people buy CDs now. Buying on the internet has taken over as the way to buy music.

'**to take round**' means to take someone to a place and show them it.

- When I arrived, she took me round and introduced me to everyone.
- She took me round the house and showed me all the changes they had made.

'**to take through**' means to explain something to someone so they understand how to do it.

- He took me through the registration process and explained it all.
- I took Jim through the schedule and explained how it works.

'**to take to**' means to begin to like something.

- I've really taken to my French class. I enjoy it very much.
- I didn't think she'd take to it but she seems to love it.

These exercises are about using the verb 'to talk ' combined with particles:

'**to talk at**' someone means to speak to someone without listening to them, there is no dialogue.

- She just talks at me. She never lets me say a word.
- He doesn't talk to you, he just talks at you.

'**to talk round**' a problem or subject means that you avoid discussing the important point.

- I feel we didn't get to the point, we talked around it for hours.
- She just talked round the problem but didn't say anything of importance.

'**to talk back**' means to reply rudely instead of being polite.

- He was very polite and didn't talk back to his parents.
- Her children are not at all well brought up. They talk back to everyone.

'**to talk down**' means to reduce the importance of something, make something smaller than it is.

- He is forever talking me down and making me feel useless.
- They talked down the success of our project as they were very jealous.

'**to talk down to**' someone is to speak to someone as if they were inferior to you.

- She talked down to me as if I was a child.
- The teacher talks down to her students as if they were idiots.

'**to talk someone into**' means to persuade someone to do something.

- He doesn't want to do it but I think I can talk him into it.
- She talked me into going with her even though I didn't want to.

'**to talk someone out of**' means to persuade someone not to do something.

- I talked her out of buying that car. She doesn't need to spend so much money.
- I wanted to do a parachute jump but he talked me out of it saying it was dangerous.

'**to talk over**' means to discuss a problem or situation before making a decision.

- I want to talk things over with Freddie first. He always gives good advice.
- Can we talk it over? I think you are being too hasty.

'**to talk through**' means to help someone to understand something by explaining the details.

- Can you talk me through the procedure? I'm not sure what I have to do.
- I'll talk you through it step by step as you do it.

'**to talk up**' means to speak enthusiastically about something so that it appears more interesting.

- When you demonstrate the products, talk up the advantages of buying them.
- I'm sure he talked up my skills to his boss to make him sure he hired me.

These exercises are about using the verb 'to think' combined with particles:

'**to think ahead**' means to make plans or arrangements for the future.

- Just concentrate on today and try not to think too far ahead.
- We're already thinking ahead to what will happen after the elections.

'**to think back**' means to look back over things that have happened.

- When I think back on what I did, I feel embarrassed.
- Think back to when I first lived here and what the house was like then.

'**to think of**' a fact or something that exists means you know it and can suggest it to someone else.

- I can't think of any examples of something he has done well.
- Can you think of any reason I should do it? I'm not going to get paid.

'**to think of**' also means to consider the possibility of doing something.

- I'm thinking of going to Portugal for the holidays.
- He's thinking of starting his own business.

'**to think out**' means to prepare or plan something fully before you start doing it.

- He obviously hadn't thought it out properly before starting.
- It was very well thought out. He had obviously spent a lot of time on it.

'**to think over**' means to consider something carefully before deciding.

- We've got all the information we need. We'd like to think it over.
- I just needed a bit of time to think it over before I told him what I had decided.

'**to think through**' means to consider something carefully with all the possible consequences.

- It sounds like a good idea but we need to think it through to see if it will work.
- I haven't had time to think it through at all. I don't know what will happen.

'**to think up**' means to create something using your imagination.

- I don't want to go to their party but I can't think up an excuse.
- We'll have to think up a very good reason why we didn't make the deadline.

These exercises are about using the verb 'to turn' combined with particles. Here are some of the most common:

'**to turn against**' means to change opinion to not liking or agreeing with someone or something.

- Since they declared war, the country has turned against the government.
- He is always spreading nasty stories in an attempt to turn everyone against me.

'**to turn around**' means to turn so that you are facing the opposite direction.

- When I'm speaking to you, turn around and look at me.
- I recognised him even from behind. He didn't need to turn around so I could see his face.

'**to turn someone away**' means to refuse them entry to a place.

- We only have fifty places so we have to turn people away every day.
- The restaurant has a strict dress code. It turns away anyone in shorts and T-shirt.

'**to turn away**' also means to refuse to help someone.

- Nobody is turned away. We help everyone who comes to us.
- He's my nephew, I can't turn him away without giving him some money.

'**to turn back**' means to fold a part of something so that it covers another part.

- She marked her place in the book by turning back the page.
- When we arrived in the room, the maid had turned back the bedcovers.

'**to turn back**' also means to return to the place you came from.

- The road was impassable after the snow so we had to turn back.
- I forgot to pick up the street map and guide book so we had to turn back and go get them.

'**to turn back**' also means to change your plans.

- There was no turning back once she had said she was going to do it.
- We have invested a lot of time and money in this project, there's no turning back now.

'**to turn down**' means to refuse something.

- He was offered a job there but he turned it down as it was too far from home.
- I turned down an invitation to dinner to come and spend the evening with you.

'**to turn down**' also means to reduce the amount of heat or sound produced.

- Turn the TV down. It is far too loud.
- It's rather hot in here. Shall I turn the heating down now?

'**to turn in**' means to give something to someone in authority to deal with it.

- To get a new driver's licence, I had to turn in my old one.
- There was an amnesty and you could turn in guns and knives without any consequence.

These exercises continue looking at the verb 'to turn' combined with particles. Here are some of the most common:

'**to turn in**' means to go to bed.

- It's very late, I'm going to turn in.
- Come on, let's turn in and get a good night's sleep.

'**to turn in**' also means to produce results, usually very good results.

- The company turned in it's best results yet. Turnover is up 20% on last quarter.
- All of the students turned in excellent work this term.

'**to turn into**' means to change and become something different.

- If we are not careful, this little setback could turn into a major problem.
- The old warehouses along the river have been turned into very expensive flats.

'**to turn off**' means to use a switch to stop something working.

- Before you go up to bed, remember to turn the TV off.
- Don't turn off the light in the hall. I usually leave it on all night.

'**to turn off**' also means to leave a road to travel on a different one.

- After a couple of miles, you turn off the main road and go down a little lane.
- You turn off the motorway at junction 6 and follow the signs to the airport.

'**to turn on**' means to use a switch to start something working.

- First thing I do in the morning, is turn on my computer and the coffee machine.
- It was dark in the house when I went in. Nobody had turned the lights on.

'**to turn on**' also means to attack or criticise someone.

- They had always supported the Prime Minister but now they have turned on him.
- That race of dog is very unpredictable, they can suddenly turn on you.

'**to turn out**' means to have a particular result.

- We had a very good afternoon. The weather turned out well.
- I was so pleased with the food. Even the cakes turned out perfectly.

'**to turn out**' also means to produce, often in big quantities.

- They turn out hundreds every day which they sell all over the country.
- The new machines in production mean we can turn out twice as many at half the price.

'**to turn out**' also means people go and participate at or watch an event.

- Thousands turned out to see the Queen when she opened the new hospital.

- A very high percentage of voters turned out to vote at the last elections.

These exercises continue looking at the verb 'to turn' combined with particles. Here are some of the most common:

'**to turn over**' means to move yourself or something so that you or it are facing in the opposite direction.

- I'd like to see the other side. Can you turn it over, please?
- Turn over and lie on your back.

'**to turn over**' means to give something to someone in authority.

- During the investigation all the documents were turned over to the police.
- They were turned over to the immigration authorities as soon as they landed at the airport.

'**to turn round**' means to make a business profitable after an unsuccessful period.

- It lost a lot of money last year but the new management have turned it round.
- All political parties promise to turn the economy round if elected but they never do!

'**to turn round**' also means to change the way something is expressed or considered.

- Let's turn that question round and look at it from a different point of view.
- He always turns what I say round to make me look stupid.

'**to turn to**' someone means to ask them for help or sympathy.

- I need help and I don't know who to turn to.
- She doesn't seem to have any friends to turn to when she needs help.

'**to turn to**' can also mean to focus on something.

- Let's turn our attention to the question of finance next.
- Let's move on and turn to an important problem we are facing – drop in sales.

'**to turn up**' means to increase the amount of something, especially heat or volume.

- It is cold in here. Can you turn up the heating, please?
- I can't hear it. Can you turn it up, please?

'**to turn up**' also means to arrive at a place.

- He finally turned up at my house half an hour late.
- You don't need to book. You can just turn up and buy a ticket at the door.

'**to turn up**' can also mean that someone or something arrives when not expected.

- You'll find a job. I'm sure something will turn up quite soon.
- Jane didn't call to ask if she could come, she just turned up and stayed the weekend.

These exercises look at the verb 'to work' combined with particles. Here are some of the most common:

'**to work against**' means to cause problems for someone or something, make it harder to achieve.

- When you are applying for a job, age often works against you.

- Their image works against them. They need to change it if they are going to succeed.

'**to work away at** ' means to continue working hard at something for a long time.

- When I got back to the office, he was still working away at his report.
- He's been working away at it all afternoon but you can't really see what he has achieved.

'**to work around**' something means that you find a way of organizing an activity avoiding any problems.

- We can't change it. We'll just have to work around it.
- The deadlines are very short but I'm sure you can find a way to work around them.

'**to work off**' means to overcome the effects of something by doing something energetic or different.

- I feel totally stressed. I'm going to go work it off at the gym.
- We ate too much at lunch so we went out into the garden to work it off.

'**to work on**' something means you spend time and effort trying to perfect it.

- In training, he's been working on improving the weak parts of his game.
- I've been working on my level of fitness before I go on this walking holiday.

'**to work out**' means to calculate the solution to a mathematical problem.

- I've never been very good at maths. I couldn't work out the rate per week.

- The bill is $98, so who can work out how much each of us must pay?

'**to work out**' also means to think carefully to find a solution to a problem.

- We don't want a strike. I hope that someone can work out a way to avoid it.
- Nobody has worked out a solution to this problem. We are still spending too much.

'**to work out**' also means to do physical exercise to improve your fitness.

- He runs at the weekend and works out twice a week in the gym.
- I worked out a lot when I was younger but now I prefer easier exercise like walking!

'**to work yourself up**' means to make yourself angry or anxious about something.

- It's not very important. Don't get so worked up about it!
- He got very worked up about the interview. He really wanted the job and got very stressed about it.

'**to work up to**' something means to gradually do more of something until you reach a certain level.

- He started training with small weights and worked up to 100 kilos.
- You should start by doing a few minutes exercise and work up to half an hour a day.

These exercises look at the verb 'to write' combined with particles. Here are some of the most common:

'**to write away for**' something means to send a letter or form asking for something.

- I want a free copy so I'll write away for one.
- She has written away for a brochure with details of the course.

'**to write back**' means to reply.

- I sent him a letter but he didn't write back.
- I wrote back saying that we would be happy to accept their invitation.

'**to write down**' means to record something on paper.

- So I don't forget, can you write that down, please?
- I wrote down his phone number on a piece of paper but I can't find it now.

'**to write in**' to an organisation means to send a letter to them.

- To give us your comments on today's show, write in to the usual address.
- The first one hundred people who write in will receive a free copy.

'**to write off**' means that you decide someone or something is unimportant or not to be considered further.

- Children who are not academic are often written off by schools instead of being helped.
- Most companies write off any employee over fifty-five as they assume they are profitable.

'**to write off**' a car means to crash it so that it cannot be repaired.

- She has had only one accident but she did write the car off.

- There really isn't much damage to the car. It won't be written off by the insurance.

'**to write off**' a debt means to cancel it.

- The rich countries in the West should write off the debts of the Third World.
- We had to write off quite a lot of bad debts at the end of the year.

'**to write out**' means to note all the necessary information on a cheque or prescription.

- Can you write me out a receipt for my accounts, please?
- The doctor wrote out a prescription for the drugs and handed it to me.

'**to write up**' your notes means to record them on paper in a neat form.

- After every class, I always write up my notes straight away.
- She wrote up the minutes of the meeting and distributed them the next day.

'**to write up**' means to note something on a notice or board on a wall.

- The teacher wrote her name up on the board.
- If you want to join, just write your name up on the notice board.

ENGLISH PHRASAL VERBS IN USE ADVANCED

This new level of English Phrasal Verbs in Use is specifically designed for advanced level students looking to improve their knowledge of this often difficult area of the English language. The book includes many phrasal

verbs useful to students preparing for the Cambridge CAE, CPE and IELTS examinations.

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- Contains a mini-dictionary with easy-to-understand definitions and cross references to units in the book.

PHRASAL VERB DICTIONARY

What are Phrasal Verbs?

1. A phrasal verb is a verb plus a preposition or adverb which creates a meaning different from the original verb.

   Example:

   I ran into my teacher at the movies last night. run + into = meet

   He ran away when he was 15. run + away = leave home
2. Some phrasal verbs are intransitive. An intransitive verb cannot be followed by an object.

   Example:

   He suddenly showed up. “show up” cannot take an object

3. Some phrasal verbs are transitive. A transitive verb can be followed by an object.

   Example:

   I made up the story. "story" is the object of "make up"

4. Some transitive phrasal verbs are separable. The object is placed between the verb and the preposition. In this Phrasal Verb Dictionary, separable phrasal verbs are marked by placing a between the verb and the preposition / adverb.

   Example:

   I talked my mother into letting me borrow the car.

   She looked the phone number up.

5. Some transitive phrasal verbs are inseparable. The object is placed after the preposition. In this Phrasal Verb Dictionary, inseparable phrasal verbs are marked by placing a + after the preposition / adverb.

   Example:

   I ran into an old friend yesterday.

   They are looking into the problem.

6. Some transitive phrasal verbs can take an object in both places. In this Phrasal Verb Dictionary, such phrasal verbs are marked with both and + .

   Example:

   I looked the number up in the phone book.

   I looked up the number in the phone book.

7. WARNING! Although many phrasal verbs can take an object in both places, you must put the object between the verb and the preposition if the object is a pronoun.

   Example:

   I looked the number up in the phone book.

   I looked up the number in the phone book.

I looked it up in the phone book. correct
I looked up it in the phone book. incorrect.

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5

Towards Avoidance of Phrasal Verbs and Focus on Related Items

AVOIDANCE OF PHRASAL VERBS: THE CASE OF CHINESE LEARNERS OF ENGLISH

Introduction

The phenomenon of avoidance behaviors in SLA was first brought to light by Schachter (1974), who pointed out the importance of examining not only the L2 forms that were actually produced by the learners of a foreign language, but also the L2 forms they seem to avoid using consistently. Since then, it has drawn the attention of many researchers (e.g., Dagut & Laufer, 1985; Hulstijn & Marchena, 1989; Kamimoto, Shimura & Kellerman, 1992; Kleinmann, 1977, 1978).

When comparing the errors in relative clauses (RCs) made by native speakers (NSs) of Chinese, Japanese, Persian, and Arabian learners in their English compositions, Schachter (1974) found that the difficulty of RC for Chinese and Japanese students, which was predicted by Contrastive Analysis (CA), manifested itself not in the number of errors made by these two groups of learners, but in the number of RCs produced, which was much smaller than that produced by the Persian and Arabian speakers. She concluded that

"if a student finds a particular construction in the target language difficult to comprehend it is very likely that he will try to avoid producing it" (p. 213). She further pointed out that Error Analysis, which had been prevailing in previous transfer studies, was deficient in SLA because it was incapable of explaining the phenomenon of avoidance.

Schachter's study is inconclusive despite the important revelation of the avoidance behaviors. For one thing, it did not control proficiency level and the frequency of RCs in the texts. Furthermore, as Kleinmann (1977, 1978) argued, "to be able to avoid some linguistic feature presupposes being able to choose not to avoid it, i.e., to use it" (1977, p. 97). However, in Schachter's study, there was no proof that the learners had the ability to use RCs. Therefore, the Chinese and Japanese learners' so-called avoidance of producing English RCs may have resulted simply from their ignorance of the structure rather than conscious avoidance. Avoidance, as interpreted by Kleinmann, was a strategy that L2 learners might resort to when, with the knowledge of a target language word or structure, they perceived that it was difficult to produce.

To better pinpoint avoidance behavior, Kleinmann (1977, 1978) examined four English grammatical structures (passive, present progressive, infinitive complement, and direct object pronoun structures) performed by two groups of intermediate level ESL learners: NSs of Arabic, and NSs of Spanish and Portuguese. Before looking at any possible avoidance behavior, Kleinmann administered comprehension tests to establish the presence of the learners' knowledge of the four structures in question. The results of the study showed an avoidance pattern in accordance with CA difficulty predictions. The frequency of use of the target structures was also correlated with various affective measures (e.g., confidence, facilitating anxiety). The findings

in this aspect, together with the avoidance pattern, led to the suggestion that "while CA is a fairly good predictor of avoidance, there is an interaction of linguistic and psychological variables in determining learner behavior in a second language in that structures which otherwise would be avoided are likely to be produced depending on the affective state of the learner" (Kleinmann, 1977, p. 93). Therefore, the study supported Schachter's point that avoidance behavior can be predicted by the structural difference between L1 and L2, although other factors operate at the same time to determine the actual occurrence of the avoidance behavior.

On the other hand, some researchers argued that the underproduction of certain linguistic features does not necessarily suggest avoidance, and the structural difference between L1 and L2 alone may not be the only reason for underproduction. Kamimoto et al. (1992) pointed out that in order to be able to establish whether avoidance is a feasible explanation for relative underproduction of a group of learners, it is necessary to look at the L1 form, distribution, and function of the entity supposedly being avoided in the L2, as well as the means being used to establish whether and to what extent the entity is already part of the L2 knowledge of members of that group. In a detailed study of Chinese and English RCs, Li (1996) found that intermediate and advanced learners did not necessarily avoid structures that were apparently different in form from their L1. He hence concluded that it was not the apparent structural difference that caused Chinese learners to consciously avoid English RCs, but the more subtle pragmatic differences that made them subconsciously underproduce this structure.

The above-mentioned studies pointed out the existence and some potential causes of avoidance behavior in L2

learners. The following section discusses three studies on the avoidance of English phrasal verbs (PVs).

Avoidance of Phrasal Verbs in English

The PV structure is a peculiarity of the family of Germanic languages (Dagut & Laufer, 1985; Darwin & Gary, 1999), and on the whole occurs more frequently in spoken than in written language (Cornell, 1985; Dixon, 1982; Side, 1990). A PV is usually defined as a structure that consists of a verb proper and a morphologically invariable particle that function as a single unit both lexically and syntactically (Darwin & Gary, 1999; Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985). Various attempts have been made to classify PVs. Some looked at the relationship between the verb proper and the particle (e.g., Fraser, 1976), while some others focused on the semantics. Cornell (1985) observed that large numbers of PVs are non-idiomatic in nature, in the sense that their meaning is easy to deduce if the verb element is known. For example, if the meaning of *rush* or *steam* is known to the learner, it would not be hard to understand *rush away* or *steam off*. In two studies on the avoidance of PVs (to be discussed in detail below), Dagut and Laufer (1985) and Laufer and Eliasson (1993) approached the classification with different terms but the same nature. Dagut and Laufer (1985) divided the 15 PVs used in their study into three types:

> (a) literal—phrasal verbs whose meaning is a straightforward product of their semantic components: *go out, take away, come in*; (b) figurative—in which a new meaning has resulted from a metaphorical shift of meaning and the semantic fusion of the individual components: *turn up, let down*, ... ; (c) completive—in which the particle describes the result of the action: *cut off, burn down*, ... (p. 74).

Similarly, Laufer and Eliasson (1993) worked with three types: semantically transparent (the meaning of the whole verb-particle combination can be derived from the meaning of its parts), semitransparent (those that are transparent when put into context), and figurative or "semantically opaque" (p. 37), which have lexicalized meaning. The figurative, or idiomatic, PVs were considered semantically more difficult than other types of PVs. The difference between figurative and non-figurative PVs was also looked into in both studies.

There are three studies on the avoidance of PVs in the literature. The first study is Dagut and Laufer (1985), which looked at the performance of Israeli learners of English on PVs, a lexicosyntactic form with no formal equivalent in Hebrew. Three groups of intermediate Hebrew learners took three tests (a multiple-choice test, a verb translation test, and a verb-memorizing test). The study also looked into the frequency of avoidance in three PV types (literal, figurative, and completive). The results showed that the majority of the learners avoided using the PVs, preferring the one-word verbs. Furthermore, avoidance was most evident with the figurative PVs. Dagut and Laufer concluded that the Hebrew learners' difficulty in producing English PVs could not be explained by any intralingual factors such as over-generalization or fossilization. Instead, it could only be understood by an interlingual approach, that is, structural differences between L1 and L2. Thus, the study provided strong evidence that typological difference between Hebrew and English resulted in the avoidance.

Dagut and Laufer's (1985) study has two weaknesses. First, the method used to establish participants' prior knowledge of the linguistic feature in question was not sound. The choice of the PVs depended primarily on the

researchers' impression from their teaching experience, as the PVs used in the study were chosen because they were listed in one of the standard textbooks and were supposed to be covered in the curriculum. Thus, as pointed out by Kamimoto et al. (1992), their conclusion that they had "a genuine avoidance phenomenon" (p. 78) was not well grounded. The underproduction may have resulted from pure ignorance of the PVs. Second, although Dagut and Laufer (1985) pointed out that interlingual differences played a determining role in the avoidance of PVs for Hebrew speakers, they failed to address the fact that the avoidance was much more frequent in the category of figurative PVs than in the case of literal or completive ones. This, indeed, points to an intralingual element in the avoidance behavior.

A follow-up study by Hulstijn and Marchena (1989) addressed the latter of the above two issues. From the conclusion drawn by Dagut and Laufer (1985), Hulstijn and Marchena (1989) derived a corollary that Dutch learners of English would tend not to avoid PVs since they had PVs in their native language. Nonetheless, they hypothesized that Dutch learners would still avoid PVs, not for structural reasons as the Hebrew learners did, but for semantic reasons. The same forms of elicitation tests used in Dagut and Laufer (1985) were used in Hulstijn and Marchena's (1989) study (with different PVs because the original ones in Dagut and Laufer's study were not available). Each group of participants had the same number of intermediate level and advanced level learners in order to examine whether the avoidance behavior, if any, would diminish with increasing proficiency. From their results, Hulstijn and Marchena (1989) claimed that Dutch learners, contrary to the hypothesis, did not avoid PVs categorically (i.e., as a form class), whether they were at the intermediate level or advanced level.

This study offered two interesting findings about avoidance. First, Dutch learners, although not avoiding PVs categorically, did avoid those idiomatic PVs that they perceived as too Dutch-like. This implies that avoidance does not result from structural differences between L1 and L2 alone. Similarities between L1 and L2 are also possible reasons for avoidance. Second, the Dutch learners exhibited "a tendency to adopt a play-it-safe strategy, preferring one-word verbs with general, multi-purpose meanings to phrasal verbs with specific, sometimes idiomatic meanings" (Hulstijn & Marchena, 1989, p. 241).

In a review of transfer literature, Kellerman (1983) found that "not everything that *looks* transferable *is* transferable" (p. 113). In other words, there are L1-induced constraints on the form of L2 that may prevent not only facilitation where L1 and L2 are similar but also negative transfer where L1 and L2 are different. One such constraint is the learner's perception of language distance, which Kellerman termed as "psychotypology." Another constraint was "prototypicality," which refers to the learner's perception of some L1 structure as potentially transferable and others as potentially non-transferable. According to Kellerman, "if a(n) (L1) feature is perceived as infrequent, irregular, semantically or structurally opaque, or in any other way exceptional, ... its transferability will be inversely proportional to its degree of markedness" (1983, p. 117). This psycholinguistic markedness accounted for the finding in Hulstijn and Marchena (1989) that Dutch learners, although familiar with the PV structure in their L1, avoided those idiomatic ones that were too Dutch-like. Idiomatic PVs, as argued before, are semantically opaque, and therefore, may have been perceived by the Dutch learners as language specific and not transferable to L2. Here, learner perception of both their L1 and L2 also played a role in avoidance.

The third study on the avoidance of PVs is Laufer and Eliasson (1993). Based on previous studies, they identified three possible causes of syntactic and lexical avoidance: (a) L1-L2 differences (Dagut & Laufer, 1985; Kleinmann, 1977, 1978; Levenston, 1971; Schachter, 1974), (b) L1-L2 similarity (Hulstijn & Marchena, 1989; Jordens, 1977; Kellerman, 1977, 1986), and (c) L2 complexity. The participants in Laufer and Eliasson (1993) were advanced Swedish learners of English, whose native language had the PV structure. Two types of tests were used in this study: a multiple-choice test and a translation test. A comprehension test was first given to a control group to establish the passive knowledge of the PVs. It was argued that only from this baseline could avoidance be identified. The results of the study were compared with those of Dagut and Laufer (1985) and the following findings were observed: first, PVs were avoided by learners whose L1 lacked such a grammatical category (Hebrew) but were not avoided by those who possessed the category in their L1 (Swedish); second, inherent complexity did not play the major role in L2 avoidance; finally, idiomatic meaning similarity between L1 and L2 did not necessarily induce learner avoidance (Laufer & Eliasson, 1993, pp. 43-44). Laufer and Eliasson (1993) thus concluded that the best predictor of avoidance was L1-L2 difference.

In line with the enquiry of these three studies, the purpose of the present study was to investigate the avoidance of PVs by Chinese learners of English, who do not have the structure of PVs in their native language. Previous studies discussed above have pointed out three possible causes for the avoidance of PVs: L1-L2 structural differences, L1-L2 structural similarities, and L2 semantic complexity. This study aimed at providing further evidence for avoidance in the context of structural differences between L1 and L2 as well as inherent semantic complexity of the target form.

The design of this study followed that of Dagut and Laufer (1985) and partly of Hulstijn and Marchena (1989).

The present study also included proficiency level in the design. Both Dagut and Laufer (1985) and Laufer and Eliasson (1993) studied only one proficiency level (intermediate level in the former and advanced level in the latter). Hulstijn and Marchena (1989), although including two proficiency levels (intermediate and advanced) in their study, concluded that their participants did not avoid PVs categorically. Accordingly, proficiency level was not found to have played a role in the avoidance behavior. Based on these three studies, the present study hoped to investigate whether proficiency level would be a significant factor in the avoidance of PVs.

Furthermore, the present study included test effect in the design so as to investigate whether different formats of the elicitation tests would also play a role in the avoidance of PVs. The previous studies on PVs did not look at the effect of the types of elicitation test on the performance of the participants. Yet a number of studies have reported task-induced IL variation (i.e., test effect) in different language areas: phonology (Sato, 1985), morphology (Larsen-Freeman, 1976), syntax (Schmidt, 1980), and pragmatics (Rintell & Mitchell, 1989). Hulstijn and Marchena (1989) assumed that test instruments (i.e., multiple-choice, translation, and recall tasks) might differentially affect avoidance behavior of PVs.

Based on the above literature review, the present study investigated three research questions:

> Research Question 1: Do Chinese learners avoid PVs?
>
> Research Question 2: Does their avoidance, if any, reflect differences in the semantic nature of PV types (figurative vs. literal)?

Research Question 3: Does their avoidance, if any, reflect the ways their performance is measured?

Hypotheses

To answer these three research questions, six hypotheses were created.

Hypotheses 1 and 2 answered Research Question 1. Dagut and Laufer (1985) found that Hebrew learners of English, whose L1 lacked the PV structure, avoided using PVs. They attributed this avoidance to the structural difference between L1 and L2. Because Chinese learners do not have the PV structure in their L1, either, it is hypothesized that they will avoid using PVs like Hebrew learners did. However, none of the three studies (i.e., Dagut & Laufer, 1985; Hulstijn & Marchena, 1989; Laufer & Eliasson, 1993) found proficiency level to have played a role in the avoidance of PVs; hence, Hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 1: Chinese learners of English will avoid using PVs as compared with native speakers.

Hypothesis 2: There will be no difference between advanced learners of English and intermediate learners of English in using PVs.

Hypotheses 3 and 4 answered Research Question 2. Previous research on the avoidance of PVs found that if avoidance did occur, it was more obvious with figurative PVs than with literal ones (Dagut & Laufer, 1985). Even in the case of learners who did not avoid PVs as a category, they tended to avoid those idiomatic PVs that they perceived as too similar to their L1 (Hulstijn & Marchena, 1989).

Hypothesis 3: Chinese learners of English will avoid using figurative more than literal PVs as compared with native speakers.

Hypothesis 4: There will be no difference between the advanced learners of English and the intermediate learners of English in using figurative and literal PVs.

Hypotheses 5 and 6 answered Research Question 3. There has not been any previous research on the test effect on the avoidance of PVs.

Hypothesis 5: There will be no effect of test types on Chinese learners' use of PVs as a category.

Hypothesis 6: There will be no effect of test type on the learners' use of figurative and literal PVs.

Method

Participants

Eighty-five students participated in this study. They were made up of three groups: NSs of English, advanced Chinese learners of English, and intermediate Chinese learners of English.

The NSs of English were 15 undergraduate students at the University of Hawai'i at Mânoa (UHM).

The advanced learners were 30 Chinese graduate students at UHM. Their TOEFL scores were all above 600. At the time of the data collection (1999), five of them had been in the U.S. for more than three years, four for about two years, and the remaining 21 for nine months. These advanced learners were randomly and equally divided into three groups, each given one of the three elicitation tests (multiple-choice, translation, and recall).

The remaining participants were 40 Chinese intermediate learners of English, 10 of whom were graduate students at UHM. Their TOEFL scores were between 500 and 590. At the time of the data collection (1999), seven of them had been in the U.S. for about five months, and three

for about nine months. The other 30 were college students in China. At the time of the data collection (2000), they had all studied English for a minimum of eight years (six in secondary school and two in college) and passed Band Six of the College English Test (a national standardized English test for college students in China), which is roughly equivalent to 500-600 on the TOEFL score. These 40 intermediate Chinese learners were combined into one group on the grounds that the students at UHM had only been in the U.S. for a short period of time (the majority for only five months and some for nine months). Of the 10 learners from UHM, five took the multiple-choice test and five took the translation test. The 30 learners from China were randomly divided into three groups of 10, each given one of the three tests.

Research Design

Fifteen NSs took a multiple-choice test. Of 30 advanced learners, 10 took the multiple-choice test, 10 a translation test, and 10 a recall test. Of 40 intermediate learners, 15 took the multiple-choice test, 15 the translation test, and 10 the recall test. The study was carried out in two stages. In the first stage, 15 NSs took the multiple-choice test alone so that 15 cases of native-speaker preference for a PV over a semantically equivalent one-word verb in a short dialogue could be identified. As discussed in the literature review, the semantic complexity of PVs plays a role in learners' avoidance behavior. Semantic opaqueness in the case of figurative PVs presents more difficulty for L2 learners than semantic transparency in the case of literal PVs. In order to take into consideration the role of semantic complexity in learners' avoidance of PVs, the present study looked at the PVs in two types: literal and figurative. The second stage was to find out whether and to what extent these PVs would be avoided by Chinese

learners of English. This stage consisted of the administration of three elicitation tests (a multiple-choice test, a verb translation test, and a recall test) to three independent groups of advanced learners and three independent groups of intermediate learners.The study was designed along the lines of two earlier studies: Dagut and Laufer (1985) and Hulstijn and Marchena (1989). However, the present study is different from these two studies in two respects.

First, different PVs were used. The ones used in the former study were not available. In the latter study, the PVs used were those preferred by native British English speakers and therefore might not be appropriate for the participants in this study, who were in an American English environment. Second, PVs are generally considered to belong to an informal register and are colloquial in nature. Both these two prior studies used sentences to provide the context for the PVs in their tests. Although the participants were told to imagine saying the sentences in casual speech, some of the sentences seem to be too long and too formal to suit the purpose. For example: "After having failed to have a decent conversation with a German couple I had met in the pub, I decided that it was time to *brush up* my German" (Hulstijn & Marchena, 1989, p. 255). Instead of using long sentences, the present study used shorter and more casual dialogues as the context. For the same PV *brush up* (*brush up on* in American English), the following dialogue was used: Cathy: "I heard the company is sending you to Germany again." Tony: "Yes. It's been a long time since I was there, so I guess it's time to *brush up on* my German". It was hoped that despite the fact that these dialogues were still in the written form, they offered a better chance of making the participants feel that they were in spoken English.

Materials

Fifteen pairs of phrasal and one-word verbs were selected based on the NS preference in the context of small dialogues. This set of 15 dialogues was used in all three tests.

Multiple-choice test. This test consisted of the 15 short dialogues from the test on NSs. In each dialogue, the verb in question was left blank. The participants were asked to fill in the blank with one of the four verbs presented below the dialogue: the PV, the equivalent one-word verb, and two distractor verbs. The participants had about 10 minutes to complete the test. Because each item actually contained two correct answers, the participants received special instructions to choose the one that they considered most suitable to complete the dialogue.

Translation test. This test had the same 15 dialogues as in the multiple-choice test, with the verbs left out. At the end of each dialogue the Chinese equivalent of the missing verb was given. The participants were required to translate them into English in the provided 10 minutes.

Recall test. The participants were first given the same 15 dialogues as in the multiple-choice test, written out in full with the PVs. The test included five distractor dialogues with one-word verbs. The participants were told to remember the main ideas of the dialogues in about 10 minutes. After about an hour, they were given the same dialogues again, but this time, the verbs were left out. They were asked to fill in the verbs according to what they remembered. In order to prevent L1 influence, no native language translation of the PVs was given (Hulstijn & Marchena, 1989).

Data Analyses

An alpha level of .05 was used for both statistical tests. To conduct ANOVA, raw scores were converted into ratios. There were 15 items in all three tests. If the

participant chose eight PVs, the raw score was converted to the ratio of 8/15 = .53. Because there were two phrasal verbs among the four choices (one correct, one distractor), only the correct phrasal verbs chosen by the NNSs were counted in the calculation. Among the 15 PV items, 11 were figurative and four were literal. If out of the 11 figurative PVs, the participant chose five (again for the NNSs this would be the correct ones chosen), the raw score for figurative PVs was converted into the ratio of 5/11 = .45. If out of the four literal PVs, the participant chose two, the raw score for literal PVs was converted into the ratio of 2/4 = .50.

Results

The raw scores of the tests are presented in Appendix C. Fifteen NSs took the multiple-choice test. The total number of possible verbs was 225 (15 participants x 15 items). The results showed that in 189 cases, the NSs chose the phrasal verb, and in 36 cases, they chose the one-word verb. Of the 225 possible occurrences of PVs, 165 were figurative (15 participants x 11 figurative PV items), and 60 were literal (15 participants x 4 literal PV items). Among the 189 PVs the NSs chose in the multiple-choice test, 136 were figurative and 53 were literal. The raw scores for the two groups of NNSs (advanced and intermediate) in all three tests (the multiple-choice, the translation, and the recall) are presented in the same fashion.

TABLE 1

Descriptive Statistics of the Phrasal Verb Usage

Test	*Group*	*n*	*PV Type*	*k*	*M*	*SD*
M	NS	15	PV	225	0.84	0.10
			Fig	165	0.82	0.12

			Lit	60	0.88	0.13
	A	10	PV	150	0.75	0.15
			Fig	110	0.73	0.19
			Lit	40	0.83	0.17
	I	15	PV	225	0.45	0.19
			Fig	165	0.43	0.20
			Lit	60	0.50	0.19
T	A	10	PV	150	0.47	0.16
			Fig	110	0.35	0.22
			Lit	40	0.83	0.17
	I	15	PV	225	0.38	0.16
			Fig	165	0.26	0.19
			Lit	60	0.70	0.24
R	A	10	PV	150	0.78	0.17
			Fig	110	0.76	0.17
			Lit	40	0.83	0.24
	I	10	PV	150	0.50	0.22
			Fig	110	0.48	0.21
			Lit	40	0.55	0.35

Note. M = Multiple-choice test; T = Translation test; R = Recall test; A = Advanced learners of English; I = Intermediate learners of English; PV = PV total; Fig = Figurative PVs; Lit = Literal PVs; k = Total number of verbs

Table 1 presents the means and standard deviations of phrasal verb usage for all three groups of participants. A two-way (3 x 2) ANOVA with repeated measures on one independent variable (Analysis I) was conducted to investigate the performance of three groups (the NSs, the advanced learners, and the intermediate learners) in the multiple-choice test. The ANOVA results showed that the main effect for group was significant, F (2, 34) = 31.25, p < .01. The main effect for PV type was also significant, F (1, 34) = 7.68, p < .01, with the mean score of literal PVs being

significantly higher than that of the figurative PVs. However, the first-order interaction between PV type and group was not significant, F (2, 34) = 0.22, p = .80. Post-hoc analysis (Tukey) of the group variable revealed that the difference between the NSs and intermediate learners was statistically significant, with the mean score of the former being higher than the latter. Cohen's (1988) d was calculated for the effect size estimate. The effect size of the intermediate learners relative to the NSs was d = -2.69 with its 95% upper limit confidence interval (d = -2.94) and its lower limit (d = -2.44). The difference between the advanced and intermediate learners was also statistically significant, with the mean score of the advanced learners higher than that of the intermediate learners. However, the difference between the NSs and the advanced learners was not statistically significant. The effect size of the advanced learners relative to the NSs was d = -0.41 with its 95% upper limit confidence interval (d = -0.62) and its lower limit (d = -0.20).

TABLE 2

Two-way (3 x 2) ANOVA Table

Source	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Group	2	2.25	1.13	31.25	.01
PV Type	1	0.14	0.14	7.68	.01
PV Type x Group	2	0.01	0.01	0.22	.80
Error	37	0.70	0.02		

* $p < .05$

A three-way (2 x 3 x 2) ANOVA with repeated measures on one independent variable (Analysis II) was conducted to analyze the performance of the two NNS groups (advanced and intermediate) on all three tests. A summary of the results is presented in Table 3. The main effect for proficiency

(between the advanced and intermediate learners) was statistically significant, which is consistent with the result in Analysis I. The main effect for test was not statistically significant, F (2, 58) = 3.03, p = .06. However, the analysis showed a trend (p = .0553 to be more exact than what is reported in Table 3) for the three tests to be different. The first-order interaction between proficiency and test was not statistically significant, F (2, 58) = 2.19, p = .12. The main effect for PV type was statistically significant, F (1, 58) = 46.79, p < .01, with the mean score of the literal PVs being higher than that of the figurative ones. However, another first-order interaction between PV type and proficiency was not statistically significant, F (1, 58) = 0.03, p = .86. The interaction between PV type and test was statistically significant, F (2, 58) = 17.50, p < .01. The second-order interaction among PV type, proficiency, and test was not statistically significant, F (2, 58) = 0.08, p = .92.

TABLE 3

Three-Way (2 x 3 x 2) ANOVA Table

Source	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Between participants					
Proficiency	1	1.71	1.71	28.05*	.01
Test	2	0.37	0.18	3.03	.06
Proficiency x Test	2	0.27	0.13	2.19	.12
Error	64	3.90	0.06		
Within participants					
PV Type	1	1.45	1.45	46.79*	.01
PV Type x Proficiency	1	0.01	0.01	0.03	.86
PV Type x Test	2	1.09	0.54	17.50*	.01
PV Type x Proficiency x Test	2	0.01	0.01	0.08	.92
Error (PV Type)	64	1.98	0.03		

* p < .05

Because of these results, follow-up analyses were necessary to examine the interaction between PV type and test. Figure 1 shows a plot of PV type x test for the advanced learners of English, and Figure 2 shows a plot of PV type x test for the intermediate learners of English. Post-hoc analysis (Tukey) of the test type revealed that the difference between the multiple-choice test and the translation test was statistically significant. The difference between the recall test and the translation test was also statistically significant. However, the difference between the multiple-choice test and the recall test was not statistically significant. A specific interaction was therefore found between PV type and the translation test. This means that the difference in frequencies between the figurative verb use and the literal verb use were found to be statistically significant for both the advanced and intermediate learners only in the translation test. In other words, only in the translation test was the learners' (both advanced and intermediate) production of the figurative PVs significantly less frequent than that of the literal PVs.

Discussion

Research Question 1 asked if Chinese learners of English avoid PVs. To answer this question, results from all three elicitation tests were analyzed. The present study operationalizes learners' avoidance of PVs as a usage that is lower than that of the NSs at a statistically significant level. In the multiple-choice test, the advanced learners used PVs 75% of the time and one-word verbs 21% of the time, while the intermediate learners used them 45% and 43% of the time, respectively. The NSs, on the other hand, used PVs 84% of the time and one-word verbs 16% of the time. As discussed in the Results section, Analysis I found that the intermediate learners produced PVs much less frequently than both the advanced learners and the NSs

did. It follows that the intermediate learners avoided using PVs and preferred the one-word verbs. Although the advanced learners did not perform very differently from the NSs, they also showed a slight tendency to use PVs less than the NSs. Thus, Hypothesis 1 of this study is partially supported. Of the Chinese learners, those at the intermediate proficiency level showed a tendency to avoid using PVs. Analysis II further revealed that in all the three elicitation tests, the advanced learners used significantly more PVs than the intermediate learners did. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 of the study is not supported.

The L1-L2 structural difference (Dagut & Laufer, 1985; Laufer & Eliasson, 1993) between Chinese and English might be a reason for the avoidance of PVs by the intermediate Chinese learners. The PV structure is a peculiarity of the Germanic languages (Dagut & Laufer, 1985; Darwin & Gary, 1999) that have no parallel in Chinese. The structure of a verb followed by a particle does exist in Chinese, like *guolai* (come over here), *guoqu* (go over there), in which the two particles *lai* and *qu* follow the verb *guo* to give the directional meanings. However, this structure is different from the English PV structure in two ways. First, unlike the English PV structure, the particles in Chinese are generally inseparable from the verbs; it is very rare for nouns to come between the verbs and the particles. As a result, this type of verb + particle structure is more or less treated as a whole word. Second, the morphological form "particle" is very restricted in Chinese. There are only very few directional particles such as *lai* (over here), *qu* (over there), *shang* (up), *xia* (down), *jin* (in), *chu* (out), and the verb + particle combinations rarely take on figurative meanings as they very often do in English (e.g., *let down* for *disappoint*).

Because of this L1-L2 difference, the syntactic and

semantic functioning of the particles in English PVs may be confusing to Chinese learners of English, which is frequently commented on by both teachers and learners of English. Learners might develop a "natural tendency to avoid using what they do not properly understand and to prefer the more familiar one-word verb" (Dagut & Laufer, 1985, p. 78). Dagut and Laufer (1985) found that intermediate Hebrew learners of English, who do not have the PV structure in their L1, avoided using PVs. The researchers attributed this avoidance of PVs to the L1-L2 structural difference between Hebrew and English. In the present study, this avoidance was manifested in the case of the intermediate Chinese learners. The advanced learners, although not avoiding PVs, did produce fewer PVs than the NSs. Accordingly, the findings of the present study partially support the conclusion of previous research that L1-L2 difference is a good predictor of avoidance behaviors in SLA (Dagut & Laufer, 1985; Laufer & Eliasson, 1993).

Hulstijn and Marchena (1989) also investigated the difference of English proficiency levels in the avoidance of PVs. They hypothesized that Dutch learners would avoid PVs and their avoidance tendency would diminish with increasing proficiency. Their participants were Dutch learners who had the PV structure in their L1, consisting of intermediate learners (i.e., secondary school students), who had received English instruction for five to six years, and advanced learners (i.e., first-year college students). While their study claimed that Dutch learners did not avoid PVs at either advanced level or intermediate level, their findings in the multiple-choice test (given to the NSs, the advanced learners, and the intermediate learners) showed that "the intermediate ESL learners responded significantly different from the English native speakers, $c = 42.4$, $df = 1$, $p < .01$, showing much less preference for phrasal verbs. The advanced learners, however, showed a

clear preference for phrasal verbs not significantly different from native speakers, c= .49, df = 1, ns" (p. 246). This means that although the advanced Dutch learners did not avoid the English PVs, the intermediate learners actually did. The disparity between Hulstijn and Marchena's (1989) claim and the findings might have come from a failure to analyze the full effect of the two distinct proficiency levels (intermediate and advanced) before collapsing them in a broader analysis of Dutch learners as one group. In simpler terms, they failed to follow the standard statistical interpretation procedure that when an interaction between two proficiency levels was significant, the interpretation should first focus on the interaction before any non-significance of the main variable, proficiency level, was claimed.

Incorporating all the findings of the four studies on the avoidance of PVs (i.e., Dagut & Laufer, 1985; Hulstijn & Marchena, 1989; Laufer & Eliasson, 1993; the present study), a better interpretative framework than the L1-L2 difference seems to be a developmental manifestation of IL from avoidance to non-avoidance. Figure 3 shows a simplified line of an IL development from beginning to native-like stage. The horizontal line of arrows divides learners by their L1: learners whose L1 lacks PVs are above the line, and those whose L1 has PVs are below the line. The vertical line divides avoidance (on the left) and non-avoidance (on the right) of PVs. The findings of the four studies were laid out along these two lines. This model seems to suggest that, regardless of whether learners have PVs in their L1 or not (i.e., Hebrew, Chinese, Dutch, and Swedish), they seem to go through the same developmental process from avoidance to non-avoidance of PVs. Hebrew undergraduate learners avoided PVs; Chinese undergraduate and graduate learners avoided them whereas more advanced Chinese graduate learners did not; Dutch

high school students avoided PVs, but Dutch and Swedish undergraduates did not. Nonetheless, the two notions of IL development and L1-L2 structural difference (Dagut & Laufer, 1985; Laufer & Eliasson, 1993) are not mutually exclusive or contradictory. Establishing structural dissimilarity as a factor in PV avoidance does not rule out the possibility that L2 learners' difficulties with PV would eventually subside.

Within the developmental framework, one significant contributing factor to the learners' development from avoidance to non-avoidance found in this study might have been the amount of contact with the L2. The advanced learners in this study were all English as a second language (ESL) learners, who had been in the native English environment for from nine months to more than three years. They have had plenty of interactions in English with NSs. On the other hand, the majority (30 out of 40) of the intermediate learners were English as a foreign language (EFL) learners, who had not been exposed to any native English environment. PVs are a structure that occurs more often in spoken rather than written English. The different exposure to and interaction with English in the case of the Chinese learners might have been an important reason why the advanced learners in this study incorporated PVs in their language use significantly more than the intermediate learners.

Research Question 2 asked if the avoidance of PVs by Chinese learners reflects differences in the PV types (i.e., figurative vs. literal). Analysis I found PV type statistically significant in the multiple-choice test, with the mean of literal PVs being higher than that of figurative ones. There was no interaction between the PV types and the three groups (NSs, advanced, and intermediate learners), which means that all three groups favored more literal PV

production than figurative PV production in the multiple-choice test. Analysis II, which looked at the performances of two NNS groups in all three tests, also found that learners favored more literal PV production than figurative PV production.

Since no interaction between the group and the PV type was found, learners of both proficiency levels performed in a similar way, using figurative PVs less often than literal ones. Thus, Hypothesis 4 is supported. There was no difference between the advanced and intermediate learners in terms of using figurative PVs less than literal ones.

Although both the advanced and the intermediate learners showed the same pattern of using less figurative PVs than literal PVs, the advanced learners' performance was not statistically different from that of the NSs, which means that they did not really *avoid* either figurative or literal PVs. It was only the intermediate learners who avoided using both.

Thus, Hypothesis 3 is only partially supported. An interesting finding here is that this different between figurative and literal PV usage found in the NNSs is consistent with that of those PVs produced by the NSs. The NSs used figurative PVs 82% of the time and literal ones 88% of the time.

These findings are consistent with previous studies as well. Dagut and Laufer (1985) found that Hebrew speakers' avoidance of PVs happened more often with figurative ones than literal ones. In Hulstijn and Marchena's (1989) study, despite the L1-L2 similarity (PV structure exists in both English and Dutch, two Germanic languages), Dutch speakers also avoided some of the idiomatic PVs, that is, figurative ones.

The difficulty of figurative PVs in contrast with literal PVs may reside in their semantic nature (Dagut & Laufer, 1985; Hulstijn & Marchena, 1989; Laufer & Eliasson, 1993). In a figurative PV, the meaning departs from its individual components. As figurative PVs often take on idiomatic meanings, learners find it difficult to map their meanings with their forms.

On the other hand, it is relatively easy for them to get the meaning of a literal PV by combining the meanings of its verb proper and particle. In addition, for learners whose L1 lacks such flexible verb + particle combinations, such as the Hebrew learners in Dagut and Laufer (1985) and the Chinese learners in the present study, the difficulty also lies in the control of the components (the verbs and the particles) in figurative PVs. An English verb can take a number of different particles to form figurative PVs with a variety of meanings.

This is very confusing to learners who do not have such a grammatical feature in their L1. The reason for the intermediate Chinese learners' stronger avoidance tendency with figurative PVs, therefore, could be semantic, syntactic, or a combination of both.

A complementary explanation could be a distributional bias in the input. Among the 15 PV items, 11 were figurative and four were literal. This differential treatment between these PV types might have affected the outcomes. In this sense, an equal distribution of the PV types is recommended for future research.

The last research question in this study looked into the test effect on the Chinese learners' avoidance of PVs.

In their study on Dutch learners' avoidance of PVs, Hulstijn and Marchena (1989) hypothesized that the evidence for avoidance behavior produced by the three elicitation

tests would be strongest for the memorization test (recall test in the present study), less strong for the multiple-choice test, and least strong for the translation test. The recall test had been designed with a bias in favor of PV responses with only PVs explicitly given in the test. Their logic was that if learners were to respond to the recall test with one-word verbs, then this would be the strongest evidence for the avoidance of the PVs.

The multiple-choice test, with both PVs and their one-word counterparts present, had a less strong bias in favor of PV responses. And the translation test offered the least strong evidence for PV responses because it made neither the PVs nor their one-word equivalents explicitly available.

Despite their hypothesis, their results showed that in all three tests, the advanced Dutch learners "did not avoid phrasal verbs as a form class and that the intermediate learners, although showing a tendency to avoid phrasal verbs to some extent, did not avoid phrasal verbs categorically either" (Hulstijn & Marchena, 1989, p. 250).

In the present study, Analysis II on the test effect revealed that there was an interaction between test type and PV type and that this interaction was found only in the translation test. This means that it was only in the translation test that the Chinese learners (both advanced and intermediate) showed the tendency to use figurative PVs less often than literal ones.

Hence, inherent L2 complexity has also played a role in the intermediate Chinese learners' avoidance of PVs when they took the translation test, which made neither the PVs nor their one-word equivalents available. This is also a reason the advanced Chinese learners used literal PVs more often than figurative ones.

TABLE 4

Interaction Between the Test Type (Multiple-Choice, Translation, Memorization/Recall) and PV Type (Figurative vs. Literal)

	Multiple-Choice	*Translation*	*Memorization*
Dagut & Laufer (1985)	+	+	+
Hulstijn & Marchena (1989)	N/A	N/A	N/A
Laufer & Eliasson (1993)	–*	–*	(Not Used)
Present Study		+*	

Note. + = Greater avoidance of figurative PVs than literal PVs; – = Greater avoidance of literal PVs than figurative PVs; * = From inferential statistics; N/A = No statistics available from the study

In order to examine the test effect further, the following section compares these results on the test effect with those found in the former three studies on the avoidance of PVs. Dagut and Laufer (1985) found a greater avoidance of figurative PVs than literal PVs in all three tests (multiple-choice, translation, and memorization) in the case of intermediate Hebrew learners of English, whose native language lacks the PV structure. Their conclusion, however, was based on only descriptive statistics. The second study, Hulstijn and Marchena (1989), did not provide any specific statistics for the avoidance of figurative and literal PVs. In the third study (Laufer & Eliasson, 1993), Swedish learners of English, who also have PV structure in their L1, showed a greater avoidance of figurative PVs than literal ones in the translation test, while in the multiple-choice test, the exact opposite was found. Memorization (recall) test was not used in their study. The results of the test effect in the present study and the above comparison on the interactions between test type and PV type led to the conclusion that the translation test is the test type that is likely to yield a greater avoidance of figurative PVs

than literal PVs, regardless of learners' native languages. This, however, does not mean that multiple-choice tests and recall tests will not produce a greater avoidance of figurative than literal PVs. The latter two tests may or may not yield a greater avoidance of figurative than literal PVs. Based on the results of the three studies (Dagut & Laufer, 1985; Laufer & Eliasson, 1993; the present study), the present study claims a greater avoidance of figurative than literal PVs only in the translation test.

Why did the Chinese learners tend to use more figurative PVs much less that literal ones in the translation task? As discussed in this section, difficulties of figurative PVs may be semantic and/or syntactic. It may be semantic in that figurative PVs take on specific, idiomatic meanings, and it may be syntactic in that verbs in figurative PVs can take different particles to carry various meanings. The authors of the present paper speculate that these difficulties may have aggravated the avoidance of PVs by the Chinese learners when they took the translation task. Among the three tasks, the translation was the only task in which PVs were not available to the learners. In the multiple-choice test, both English PVs and one-word equivalents were available; in the translation test, both PVs and one-word verbs were absent; in the recall test, only PVs were present. The greater avoidance of figurative PVs than literal PVs produced by the translation test offers additional evidence for L2 semantic complexity in the Chinese learners' avoidance of PVs.

Conclusion

Theoretically motivated by the proposition of L1-L2 difference, the present study set out to investigate Chinese learners' avoidance of English PVs. The results of the study showed that the intermediate learners tended to avoid using PVs, while the advanced learners did not. An

integration of these findings into the three previous studies (Dagut & Laufer, 1985; Hulstijn & Marchena, 1989; Laufer & Eliasson, 1993) seems to point more to a manifestation of learners' IL development than to the L1-L2 differences or similarities in learners' PV avoidance or non-avoidance, although these two notions are not mutually exclusive. This IL development of PVs needs further empirical validation because the data currently available are not sufficient to compare precisely the learners' English proficiency levels across these four studies. Whether the learners have the PV structure in their L1 or not, they tend to avoid using PVs at the intermediate proficiency level, for example, Hebrew learners in Dagut and Laufer (1985), intermediate Dutch learners in Hulstijn and Marchena (1989), and intermediate Chinese learners. As they proceed in their IL development, however, this avoidance tendency diminishes and their usage of PVs approaches that of NSs: advanced Dutch learners in Hulstijn and Marchena (1989); Swedish learners in Laufer and Eliasson (1993); advanced Intermediate Chinese learners.

Moreover, as three studies (Dagut & Laufer; 1985; Hulstijn & Marchena, 1989; the present study) have indicated, the semantic nature of PVs seems to have interacted with the translation task, that is, the learners tended to use literal PVs significantly more than figurative ones in this task. Semantic and/or syntactic difficulties of figurative PVs may aggravate learners' avoidance of PVs when they take a translation task in which PVs are not available to them. Further research is needed to validate these two claims, and it is strongly recommended that researchers incorporate (a) the developmental framework, especially for learners whose L1 has the PV structure, (b) task effect, and (c) an equal distribution of figurative and literal PVs in the input into their future research designs to shed more light on the avoidance of PVs.

The present study speculate that, within the developmental framework, the advanced Chinese learners' exposure to the L2 environment might have been an important factor in their non-avoidance of PVs in contrast with the intermediate learners. The present study did not have advanced EFL Chinese learners or intermediate ESL learners to compare with the intermediate EFL learners and the advanced ESL learners who participated in the study.

It would be worthwhile to look into this aspect of PV avoidance by comparing ESL and EFL learners at both the advanced and intermediate levels of English proficiency so as to determine the exact role that the exposure to the L2 environment plays in the avoidance or non-avoidance of PVs.

IDIOM

Idiom is an expression, word, or phrase that has a figurative meaning that is comprehended in regard to a common use of that expression that is separate from the literal meaning or definition of the words of which it is made. There are estimated to be at least 25,000 idiomatic expressions in the English language.

In linguistics, idioms are usually presumed to be figures of speech contradicting the principle of compositionality; yet the matter remains debated.

John Saeed defines an "idiom" as words collocated that became affixed to each other until metamorphosing into a fossilised term.

This collocation — words commonly used in a group — redefines each component word in the word-group and becomes an *idiomatic expression*. The words develop a specialized meaning as an entity, as an *idiom*. Moreover,

an idiom is an expression, word, or phrase whose sense means something different from what the words literally imply. When a speaker uses an idiom, the listener might mistake its actual meaning, if he or she has not heard this figure of speech before. Idioms usually do not translate well; in some cases, when an idiom is translated into another language, either its meaning is changed or it is meaningless.

Background

In the English expression *to kick the bucket*, a listener knowing only the meanings of *kick* and *bucket* would be unable to deduce the expression's true meaning: *to die*. Although this idiomatic phrase can, in fact, actually refer to kicking a bucket, native speakers of English rarely use it so. Cases like this are "opaque idioms'

Literal translation (word-by-word) of opaque idioms will not convey the same meaning in other languages – an analogous expression in Polish is *kopn¹æ w kalendarz* ("to kick the calendar"), with "calendar" detached from its usual meaning, just like "bucket" in the English phrase.

In Bulgarian the closest analogous phrase is *da ritnesh kambanata* "to kick the bell"); in Dutch, *het loodje leggen* ("to lay the piece of lead"); in Finnish, *potkaista tyhjää* ("to kick nothing", or more literally "to kick the absence of something"); in French, *manger des pissenlits par la racine* ("to eat dandelions by the root"); in Spanish, *estirar la pata* (to stretch the foot); in German, *den Löffel abgeben* ("to give the spoon away") or *ins Gras beißen* ("to bite into the grass"), closer to the English idiom, *im Eimer sein* ("to be in the bucket") actually means "to be done for" ; in Latvian, *nolikt karoti* ("to put the spoon down"); in Portuguese, *bater as botas* ("to beat the boots"); in Danish, *at stille træskoene* ("to take off the clogs"); in Swedish,

trilla av pinnen ("to fall off the stick"); and in ("to shake the horse-shoes"). In Brazil, the expression "to kick the bucket" (*chutar o balde*) has a completely different meaning (to give up something complicated, as a bucket kicked makes too much noise, demonstrating impatience).

Some idioms, in contrast, are "transparent idioms" : much of their meaning does get through if they are taken (or translated) literally. For example, "lay one's cards on the table" meaning to reveal previously unknown intentions, or to reveal a secret. Transparency is a matter of degree; "spill the beans" and "leave no stone unturned" are not entirely literally interpretable, but only involve a slight metaphorical broadening.

Another category of idioms is a word having several meanings, sometimes simultaneously, sometimes discerned from the context of its usage. This is seen in the (mostly un-inflected) English language in polysemes, the common use of the same word for an activity, for those engaged in it, for the product used, for the place or time of an activity, and sometimes for a verb.

Idioms tend to confuse those unfamiliar with them; students of a new language must learn its idiomatic expressions as vocabulary. Many natural language words have *idiomatic origins*, but are assimilated, so losing their figurative senses.

Relation with Culture

An idiom is generally a colloquial metaphor — a term requiring some foundational knowledge, information, or experience, to use only within a culture, where conversational parties must possess common cultural references. Therefore, idioms are not considered part of the language, but part of the culture. As culture typically is localized, idioms often are useless beyond their local context; nevertheless, some

idioms can be more universal than others, can be easily translated, and the metaphoric meaning can be deduced.

As defined by The New International Webster's College Dictionary, an idiom is an expression not readily analyzable from its grammatical construction or from the meaning of its component parts. It is the part of the distinctive form or construction of a particular language that has a specific form or style present only in that language. *Random House Webster's College Dictionary* seems to agree with this definition, even expanding it further, stating that an idiom is an expression whose meaning is not predictable from the usual grammatical rules of a language or from the usual meanings of its constituent elements.

Unlike many other aspects of language, an idiom does not readily change as time passes. Some idioms gain and lose favor in popular culture, but they rarely have any actual shift in their construction. People also have a natural tendency to over exaggerate what they mean sometimes, also giving birth to new idioms by accident.

Many idiomatic expressions are based upon conceptual metaphors such as "time as a substance", "time as a path", "love as war", and "up is more"; the metaphor is essential, not the idioms. For example, "spend time", "battle of the sexes", and "back in the day" are idiomatic and based upon essential metaphors. These "deep metaphors" and their relationship to human cognition are discussed by George Lakoff and Mark Johnson in *Metaphors We Live By* (1980).

In forms such as "profits are up", the metaphor is carried by "up" itself. The phrase "profits are up" is not an idiom; anything measurable can supplant "profits": "crime is up", "satisfaction is up", "complaints are up" et cetera. Essential idioms generally involve prepositions, e.g. "out of" and "turn into".

Likewise, many Chinese characters are idiomatic constructs, since their meanings often not traceable to a literal (pictographic) meaning of their *radicals*. Because characters are composed from a small base of some 214 radicals, their assembled meanings follow different interpretation modes – from the pictographic to the metaphoric to those that have lost their original meanings.

COLLOCATION

Within the area of corpus linguistics, collocation defines a sequence of words or terms that co-occur more often than would be expected by chance. The term is often used in the same sense as linguistic government. Collocation defines restrictions on how words can be used together, for example, which prepositions are used with ("governed by") particular verbs, or which verbs and nouns are typically used together. An example of this (from Michael Halliday) is the collocation *strong tea*. While the same meaning could be conveyed through the roughly equivalent *powerful tea*, the fact is that tea is thought of being strong rather than powerful. A similar observation holds for *powerful computers*, which is preferred over *strong computers*. Collocations are examples of lexical units. Collocations should not be confused with idioms although both are similar in that there is a degree of meaning present in the collocation or idiom that is not entirely compositional. With idioms, the meaning is completely non-compositional whereas collocations are mostly compositional. Collocation extraction is a task that extracts collocations automatically from a corpus, using computational linguistics.

Common Features

Arbitrary Restriction on the Substitution of the Elements of a Collocation

We can say *highly sophisticated*, and we can say

extremely happy. Both adverbs have the same lexical functions, that is adding the degree, or magnifying the impact of the adjectives (sophisticated, happy), However, they are not interchangeable. Still, other adverbs, such as *very* can replace both *highly* and *extremely*.

Syntactic Modifiability

Unlike the majority of idioms, collocations are subject to syntactic modification. For example, we can say *effective writing* and *write effectively*.

Expanded Definition

If the expression is heard often, transmitting itself memetically, the words become 'glued' together in our minds. 'Crystal clear', 'middle management', 'nuclear family', and 'cosmetic surgery' are examples of collocated pairs of words. Some words are often found together because they make up a compound noun, for example 'riding boots' or 'motor cyclist'. Collocations can be in a syntactic relation (such as verb-object: 'make' and 'decision'), lexical relation (such as antonymy), or they can be in no linguistically defined relation. Knowledge of collocations is vital for the competent use of a language: a grammatically correct sentence will stand out as 'awkward' if collocational preferences are violated. This makes collocation an interesting area for language teaching. Corpus Linguists specify a Key Word in Context (KWIC) and identify the words immediately surrounding them. This gives an idea of the way words are used.

The processing of collocations involves a number of parameters, the most important of which is the *measure of association*, which evaluates whether the co-occurrence is purely by chance or statistically significant. Due to the non-random nature of language, most collocations are classed as significant, and the association scores are simply used

to rank the results. Commonly used measures of association include mutual information, t scores, and log-likelihood.

Rather than select a single definition, Gledhill proposes that collocation involves at least three different perspectives: (i) cooccurrence, a statistical view, which sees collocation as the recurrent appearance in a text of a node and its collocates, (ii) construction, which sees collocation either as a correlation between a lexeme and a lexical-grammatical pattern, or as a relation between a base and its collocative partners and (iii) expression, a pragmatic view of collocation as a conventional unit of expression, regardless of form. It should be pointed out here that these different perspectives contrast with the usual way of presenting collocation in phraseological studies. Traditionally speaking, collocation is explained in terms of all three perspectives at once, in a continuum:

CLICHÉ

A cliché or cliche is an expression, idea, or element of an artistic work which has been overused to the point of losing its original meaning or effect, rendering it a stereotype, especially when at some earlier time it was considered meaningful or novel. The term is frequently used in modern culture for an action or idea which is expected or predictable, based on a prior event. Typically a pejorative, "clichés" are not always false or inaccurate; a cliché may or may not be true. Some are stereotypes, but some are simply truisms and facts. Clichés are often for comic effect, typically in fiction.

Most phrases now considered clichéd were originally regarded as striking, but lost their force through overuse. In this connection, David Mason and John Frederick Nims cite a particularly harsh judgement by Salvador Dalí: "The first man to compare the cheeks of a young woman to a

rose was obviously a poet; the first to repeat it was possibly an idiot."

A cliché is often a vivid depiction of an abstraction that relies upon analogy or exaggeration for effect, often drawn from everyday experience. Used sparingly, they may succeed. However, cliché in writing or speech is generally considered a mark of inexperience or unoriginality.

Origin

In printing, a cliché was a printing plate cast from movable type. This is also called a stereotype. When letters were set one at a time, it made sense to cast a phrase used repeatedly as a single slug of metal. "Cliché" came to mean such a ready-made phrase. The French word "cliché" is said to come from the sound made when the matrix is dropped into molten metal to make a printing plate, though some authorities express doubt.

Usage

Cliché is a noun that is also used as an adjective, although some dictionaries do not recognize the adjective sense. All dictionaries consulted recognize a derived adjective with the same meaning, *clichéd* or *cliché'd*.

COMPOUND (LINGUISTICS)

In linguistics, a compound is a lexeme (less precisely, a word) that consists of more than one stem. Compounding or composition is the word formation that creates compound lexemes (the other word-formation process being derivation). Compounding or Word-compounding refers to the faculty and device of language to form new words by combining or putting together old words. In other words, compound, compounding or word-compounding occurs when a person attaches two or more words together to make them one word. The meanings of the words interrelate in such a way

that a new meaning comes out which is very different from the meanings of the words in isolation.

Formation of Compounds

Compound formation rules vary widely across language types.

In a synthetic language, the relationship between the elements of a compound may be marked with a case or other morpheme. For example, the German compound *Kapitänspatent* consists of the lexemes *Kapitän* (sea captain) and *Patent* (license) joined by an *-s-* (originally a genitive case suffix); and similarly, the Latin lexeme *paterfamilias* contains the (archaic) genitive form *familias* of the lexeme *familia* (family). Conversely, in the Hebrew language compound, the word *bet sefer* (school), it is the head that is modified: the compound literally means "house-of book", with *bayit house* having entered the construct state to become *house-of*. This latter pattern is common throughout the Semitic languages, though in some it is combined with an explicit genitive case, so that both parts of the compound are marked.

Agglutinative languages tend to create very long words with derivational morphemes. Compounds may or may not require the use of derivational morphemes also. The longest compounds in the world may be found in the Finnish and Germanic languages. In German, extremely long compound words can be found in the language of chemical compounds, where in the cases of biochemistry and polymers, they can be practically unlimited in length. German examples include *Farbfernsehgerät* (color television set), *Funkfernbedienung* (radio remote control), and the jocular word *Donaudampfschifffahrtsgesellschaftskapitänsmütze* (Danube steamboat shipping company Captain's hat). Compounds can be rather long when translating technical documents

from English to some other language, for example, Swedish. "Motion estimation search range settings" can be directly translated to *rörelseuppskattningssökintervallsinställningar*; the length of the words are theoretically unlimited, especially in chemical terminology.

Subclasses

Semantic Classification

This section requires expansion.

A common semantic classification of compounds yields four types:

- endocentric
- exocentric (also bahuvrihi)
- copulative (also dvandva)
- appositional

An endocentric compound consists of a *head*, i.e. the categorical part that contains the basic meaning of the whole compound, and modifiers, which restrict this meaning. For example, the English compound *doghouse*, where *house* is the head and *dog* is the modifier, is understood as a house intended for a dog. Endocentric compounds tend to be of the same part of speech (word class) as their head, as in the case of *doghouse*. (Such compounds were called *tatpuruca* in the Sanskrit tradition.)

Exocentric compounds (called a *bahuvrihi* compound in the Sanskrit tradition) are hyponyms of some unexpressed semantic head (e.g. a person, a plant, an animal...), and their meaning often cannot be transparently guessed from its constituent parts. For example, the English compound *white-collar* is neither a kind of collar nor a white thing. In an exocentric compound, the word class is determined lexically, disregarding the class of the constituents. For example, a *must-have* is not a verb but a noun. The meaning

of this type of compound can be glossed as "(one) whose B is A", where B is the second element of the compound and A the first. A bahuvrihi compound is one whose nature is expressed by neither of the words: thus a *white-collar* person is neither white nor a collar (the collar's colour is a metaphor for socioeconomic status). Other English examples include *barefoot* and *Blackbeard*.

Copulative compounds are compounds which have two semantic heads.

Appositional compounds refer to lexemes that have two (contrary) attributes which classify the compound.

Type	*Description*	*Examples*
endocentric	A+B denotes a special kind of B	*darkroom*, *smalltalk*
exocentric *paleface*	A+B denotes a special kind of an unexpressed semantic head	*skinhead*, (head: 'person')
copulative *sleepwalk*	A+B denotes 'the sum' of what A and B denote	*bittersweet*,
appositional	A and B provide different descriptions for the same referent	*actor-director*, *maidservant*

Formal Classification

Noun-Noun Compounds

Most natural languages have compound nouns. The positioning of the words (i. e. the most common order of constituents in phrases where nouns are modified by adjectives, by possessors, by other nouns, etc.) varies according to the language. While Germanic languages, for example, are left-branching when it comes to noun phrases (the modifiers come before the head), the Romance languages are usually right-branching.

In French, compound nouns are often formed by left-hand heads with prepositional components inserted before the modifier, as in *chemin-de-fer* 'railway' lit. 'road of iron' and *moulin à vent* 'windmill', lit. 'mill (that works)-by-means-of wind'.

In Turkish, one way of forming compound nouns is as follows: yeldeðirmeni 'windmill' (yel: wind, deðirmen-i:mill-possessive); demiryolu 'railway'(demir: iron, yol-u: road-possessive).

Verb-Noun Compounds

A type of compound that is fairly common in the Indo-European languages is formed of a verb and its object, and in effect transforms a simple verbal clause into a noun.

In Spanish, for example, such compounds consist of a verb conjugated for third person singular, present tense, indicative mood followed by a noun (usually plural): e.g., *rascacielos* (modelled on "skyscraper", lit. 'scratches skies'), *sacacorchos* ('corkscrew', lit. 'removes corks'), *guardarropas* ('wardrobe', lit. 'stores clothing'). These compounds are formally invariable in the plural (but in many cases they have been reanalyzed as plural forms, and a singular form has appeared). French and Italian have these same compounds with the noun in the singular form: Italian *grattacielo*, 'skyscraper'; French *grille-pain*, 'toaster' (lit. 'toasts bread') and *torche-cul* 'ass-wipe' (Rabelais: See his "propos torcheculatifs").

This construction exists in English, generally with the verb and noun both in uninflected form: examples are *spoilsport*, *killjoy*, *breakfast*, *cutthroat*, *pickpocket*, *dreadnought*, and *know-nothing*.

Also common in English is another type of verb-noun (or noun-verb) compound, in which an argument of the verb is incorporated into the verb, which is then usually

turned into a gerund, such as *breastfeeding*, *finger-pointing*, etc. The noun is often an instrumental complement. From these gerunds new verbs can be made: *(a mother) breastfeeds (a child)* and from them new compounds *mother-child breastfeeding*, etc.

In the Australian Aboriginal language Jingulu, (a Pama-Nyungan language), it is claimed that all verbs are V+N compounds, such as "do a sleep", or "run a dive", and the language has only three basic verbs: do, make, and run.

A special kind of composition is incorporation, of which noun incorporation into a verbal root (as in English *backstabbing*, *breastfeed*, etc.) is most prevalent.

Verb-Verb Compounds

Verb-verb compounds are sequences of more than one verb acting together to determine clause structure. They have two types:

- In a **serial verb**, two actions, often sequential, are expressed in a single clause. For example, Ewe *trT dzo*, lit. "turn leave", means "turn and leave", and Hindi "lit. "go-CONJUNCTIVE PARTICIPLE see-IMPERATIVE", means "go and see". In each case, the two verbs together determine the semantics and argument structure.

Serial verb expressions in English may include *What did you go and do that for?*, or *He just upped and left*; this is however not quite a true compound since they are connected by a conjunction and the second missing arguments may be taken as a case of ellipsis.

- In a **compound verb** (or *complex predicate*), one of the verbs is the primary, and determines the primary semantics and also the argument structure. The secondary verb, often called a vector verb or

explicator, provides fine distinctions, usually in temporality or aspect, and also carries the inflection (tense and/or agreement markers). The main verb usually appears in conjunctive participial (sometimes *zero*) form. For examples, Hindi (?2/>*nikal gayâ*, lit. "exit went", means 'went out', while *nikal paRâ*, lit. "exit fell", means 'departed' or 'was blurted out'. In these examples *nikal* is the primary verb, and *gayâ* and *paRâ* are the vector verbs. Similarly, in both English *start reading* and Japanese *yomihajimeru* "start-CONJUNCTIVE-read" "start reading," the vector verbs *start* and *hajimeru* "start" change according to tense, negation, and the like, while the main verbs *reading* and *yomi* "reading" usually remain the same. An exception to this is the passive voice, in which both English and Japanese modify the main verb, i.e. *start to be read* and *yomarehajimeru* lit. "read-PASSIVE-(CONJUNCTIVE)-start" *start to be read*. With a few exceptions all compound verbs alternate with their simple counterparts. That is, removing the vector does not affect grammaticality at all nor the meaning very much: *nikalâ* '(He) went out.' In a few languages both components of the compound verb can be finite forms: Kurukh *kecc-ar ker-ar* lit. "died-3pl went-3pl" '(They) died.'

- Compound verbs are very common in some languages, such as the northern Indo-Aryan languages Hindi-Urdu and Panjabi where as many as 20% of verb forms in running text are compound. They exist but are less common in Dravidian languages and in other Indo-Aryan languages like Marathi and Nepali, in Tibeto-Burman languages like Limbu and Newari, in potentially macro-Altaic languages like Turkish, Korean, Japanese, Kazakh,

Uzbek, and Kyrgyz, and in northeast Caucasian languages like Tsez and Avar.

- Under the influence of a Quichua substrate speakers living in the Ecuadorian altiplano have innovated compound verbs in Spanish:

*De rabia **puso rompiendo** la olla*, 'In anger (he/she) smashed the pot.' (Lit. from anger **put breaking** the pot)

***Botaremos matándo**te* 'We will kill you.' (Cf. Quichua *huañuchi-shpa shitashun*, lit. kill-CP throw.1plFut,)

- Compound verb equivalents in English (examples from the internet):

*What did you **go and do** that for?*

*If you are not giving away free information on your web site then a huge proportion of your business is just **upping and leaving**.*

*Big Pig, she **took and built** herself a house out of brush.*

- Caution: In descriptions of Persian and other Iranian languages the term 'compound verb' refers to noun-plus-verb compounds, not to the verb-verb compounds discussed here.

Compound Adpositions

Compound prepositions formed by prepositions and nouns are common in English and the Romance languages (consider English *on top of*, Spanish *encima de*, etc.). Japanese shows the same pattern, except the word order is the opposite (with postpositions): *no naka* (lit. "of inside", i.e. "on the inside of"). Hindi has a small number of simple (i.e., one-word) postpositions and a large number of compound postpositions, mostly consisting of simple postposition *ke*

followed by a specific postposition (e.g., *ke pas*, "near"; *ke nîche*, "underneath").

Russian Language

In the Russian language compounding is a common type of word formation, and several types of compounds exist, both in terms of compounded parts of speech and of the way of the formation of a compound.

Compound nouns may be agglutinative compounds, hyphenated compounds or abbreviated compounds (portmanteaux: êîëõîç 'kolkhoz'). Some compounds look like portmanteaux, while in fact they are an agglutinations of type stem + word: 'Akademgorodok' (from *akademichesky gorodok* 'academic village').

Compound adjectives may be formed either per se, e.g., 'white-pink', or as a result of compounding during the derivation of an adjective from a multiword term: 'Stone Island Avenue', a street in St.Petersburg.

Reduplication in Russian language is also a source of compounds.

Quite a few Russian words are borrowed from other languages in an already compounded form, including numerous "classical compounds" or internationalisms: àâòîìîáèëü 'automobile'.

Germanic Languages

In Germanic languages, compound words are formed by prepending a descriptive word in front of the main word. A good example is "starfish"; it is a "fish" that is in the shape of a"star". Each part may in turn be a compound word, so there is no problem making an arbitrarily long word. This contrasts to Romance languages, where prepositions are more used to specify such word relationships

instead of concatenating the words. As a member of the Germanic family of languages, English is special in that compound words are usually written by separating them into their parts. Although English does not form compound nouns to the extent of Dutch or German, such constructions as "Girl Scout troop", "city council member", and "cellar door" are arguably compound nouns and used as such in speech. Writing them as separate words is merely an orthographic convention, possibly a result of influence from French.

Recent Trends

Although there is no universally agreed-upon guideline regarding the use of compound words in the English language, in recent decades written English has displayed a noticeable trend towards increased use of compounds. Recently, many words have been made by taking syllables of words and compounding them, such as pixel (picture element) and bit (binary digit). This is called a syllabic abbreviation. Moreover, the English way of spelling compound words is spreading to other languages:

There is a trend in Scandinavian languages towards splitting compound words, known in Norwegian as "særskrivingsfeil" (separate writing error). Because the Norwegian language relies heavily on the distinction between the compound word and the sequence of the separate words it consists of, this has dangerous implications. For example "røykfritt" (smokefree, meaning no smoking) has been seen confused with "røyk fritt" (smoke freely).

The German spelling reform of 1996 introduced the option of hyphenating compound nouns when it enhances comprehensibility and readability. This is done mostly with very long compound words by separating them into two or more smaller compounds, like *Eisenbahn-*

Unterführung (railway underpass) or *Kraftfahrzeugs-Betriebsanleitung* (car manual).

Compounding by Language

- Classical compounds
- English compounds
- Sanskrit compounds

LEXICAL ITEM

A Lexical item (or lexical unit, lexical entry) is a single word or chain of words that forms the basic elements of a language's lexicon (vocabulary). Examples are "*cat*", "*traffic light*", "*take care of*", "*by-the-way*", and "*it's raining cats and dogs*". Lexical items can be generally understood to convey a single meaning, much as a lexeme, but are not limited to single words. Lexical items are like semes in that they are "natural units" translating between languages, or in learning a new language. In this last sense, it is sometimes said that language consists of grammaticalized lexis, and not lexicalized grammar.

The entire store of lexical items in a language is called its lexis.

Lexical Chunks

Lexical items composed of more than one word are also sometimes called lexical chunks, gambits, lexical phrases, lexical units, lexicalized stems or speech formulae. The term polyword listemes is also sometimes used. Common types of lexical chunks include:

- Words, e.g., *cat*, *tree*
- Phrasal verbs, such as *put off* or *get out*
- Polywords, e.g., *by the way*, *inside out*
- Collocations, e.g., *motor vehicle*, *absolutely convinced*.
- Institutionalized utterances, e.g., *I'll get it*, *We'll*

see, *That'll do*, *If I were you*, *Would you like a cup of coffee?*

- Idioms, e.g., *break a leg*, *was one whale of a*, *a bitter pill to swallow*
- Sentence frames and heads, e.g., *That is not as...as you think*, *The problem was*
- Text frames, e.g., *In this paper we explore...; Firstly...; Secondly...; Finally ....*

An associated concept is that of noun-modifier semantic relations, wherein certain word pairings have a standard interpretation. For example, the phrase "cold virus" is generally understood to refer to the virus that causes a cold, rather than a virus that is cold.

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Glossary

Adverb: Word that modifies a verb, an adjective or another adverb eg: quickly, really, very

Adverbial clause: Dependent clause that acts like an adverb and indicates such things as time, place or reason eg: Although we are getting older, we grow more beautiful each day.

Appositive: Noun phrase that re-identifies or describes its neighbouring noun eg: "Canada, a multicultural country, is recognized by its maple leaf flag."

Article: Determiner that introduces a noun phrase as definite (the) or indefinite (a/an)

Aspect: Feature of some verb forms that relates to duration or completion of time; verbs can have no aspect (simple), or can have continuous or progressive aspect (expressing duration), or have perfect or perfective aspect (expressing completion)

Auxiliary verb (also called "helping verb"): Auxiliary verb used with the main verb to help indicate something such as tense or voice eg: I do not like you. She has finished. He can swim.

Case: Form of a pronoun based on its relationship to other words in the sentence; case can be subjective, objective or possessive eg: "I love this dog", "This dog loves me", "This is my dog"

Causative verb: Verb that causes things to happen such as "make", "get" and "have"; the subject does not perform the action but is indirectly responsible for it

eg: "She made me go to school", "I had my nails painted"

Clause: Group of words containing a subject and its verb eg: "It was late when he arrived"

Complement: Part of a sentence that completes or adds meaning to the predicate eg: Mary did not say where she was going.

Compound noun: Noun that is made up of more than one word; can be one word, or hyphenated, or separated by a space eg: toothbrush, mother-in-law, Christmas Day

Conjugate: To show the different forms of a verb according to voice, mood, tense, number and person; conjugation is quite simple in English compared to many other languages eg: I walk, you walk, he/she/it walks, we walk, they walk; I walked, you walked, he/she/it walked, we walked, they walked

Content word: Word that has meaning in a sentence, such as a verb or noun (as opposed to a structure word, such as pronoun or auxiliary verb); content words are stressed in speech eg: "Could you BRING my GLASSES because I've LEFT them at HOME"

Continuous (also called "progressive"): Verb form (specifically an aspect) indicating actions that are in progress or continuing over a given time period (can be past, present or future); formed with "BE" + "VERB-ing" eg: "They are watching TV."

Contraction: Shortening of two (or more) words into one eg: isn't (is not), we'd've (we would have).

Countable noun: Noun thing that you can count, such as apple, pen, tree (see uncountable noun) eg: one apple, three pens, ten trees

Dangling participle: Illogical structure that occurs in a sentence when a writer intends to modify one thing

but the reader attaches it to another eg: "Running to the bus, the flowers were blooming." (In the example sentence it seems that the flowers were running.)

Declarative sentence: Type typically used to make a statement (as opposed to a question or command) eg: "Tara works hard", "It wasn't funny".

Defining relative clause (also called "restrictive relative clause"): Clause that contains information required for the understanding of the sentence; not set off with commas; see also non-defining clause eg: "The boy who was wearing a blue shirt was the winner".

Demonstrative pronoun: Adjective pronoun or determiner that indicates closeness to (this/these) or distance from (that/those) the speaker eg: "This is a nice car", "Can you see those cars?"

Dependent clause: Clause part of a sentence that contains a subject and a verb but does not form a complete thought and cannot stand on its own; see also independent clause eg: "When the water came out of the tap..."

Determiner: Word such as an article or a possessive adjective or other adjective that typically comes at the beginning of noun phrases eg: "It was an excellent film", "Do you like my new shirt?", "Let's buy some eggs"

Direct speech: Saying what someone said by using their exact words; see also indirect speech eg: "Lucy said: 'I am tired.'"

Direct object: Noun phrase in a sentence that directly receives the action of the verb; see also indirect object eg: "Joey bought the car", "I like it", "Can you see the man wearing a pink shirt and waving a gun in the air?"

Embedded question: That is not in normal question form

with a question mark; it occurs within another statement or question and generally follows statement structure eg: "I don't know where he went," "Can you tell me where it is before you go?", "They haven't decided whether they should come".

Finite verb: Form that has a specific tense, number and person eg: I work, he works, we learned, they ran

First conditional: "If-then" conditional structure used for future actions or events that are seen as realistic possibilities eg: "If we win the lottery we will buy a car".

Fragment: Incomplete piece of a sentence used alone as a complete sentence; a fragment does not contain a complete thought; fragments are common in normal speech but unusual (inappropriate) in formal writing eg: "When's her birthday? - In December", "Will they come? - Probably not".

Function: Purpose or "job" of a word form or element in a sentence eg: The function of a subject is to perform the action. One function of an adjective is to describe a noun. The function of a noun is to name things.

Future continuous (also called "future progressive"): Tense* used to describe things that will happen in the future at a particular time; formed with WILL + BE + VERB-ing eg: "I will be graduating in September."

Future perfect: Tense* used to express the past in the future; formed with WILL HAVE + VERB-ed eg: "I will have graduated by then"

Future perfect continuous: Tense* used to show that something will be ongoing until a certain time in the future; formed with WILL HAVE BEEN + VERB-ing eg: "We will have been living there for three months by the time the baby is born".

Future simple: Tense* used to describe something that

hasn't happened yet such as a prediction or a sudden decision; formed with WILL + BASE VERB eg: "He will be late", "I will answer the phone"

Imperative: Form of verb used when giving a command; formed with BASE VERB only eg: "Brush your teeth!"

Indefinite pronoun: Does not refer to any specific person, thing or amount. It is vague and "not definite". eg: anything, each, many, somebody.

Indirect speech (also called "reported speech"): Saying what someone said without using their exact words; see direct speech eg: "Lucy said that she was tired"

Infinitive: Base form of a verb preceded by "to"**; see also bare infinitive eg: "You need to study harder", "To be, or not to be: that is the question"

Interjection: Common word that expresses emotion but has no grammatical value; can often be used alone and is often followed by an exclamation mark eg: "Hi!", "er", "Ouch!", "Dammit!"

Interrogative: (Formal) sentence type (typically inverted) normally used when asking a question eg: "Are you eating?", "What are you eating?"

Interrogative pronoun: That asks a question. eg: who, whom, which

Intransitive verb: That does not take a direct object; see also transitive verb e.g. "He is working hard", "Where do you live?"

Inversion: Any reversal of the normal word order, especially placing the auxiliary verb before the subject; used in a variety of ways, as in question formation, conditional clauses and agreement or disagreement eg: "Where are your keys?","Had we watched the weather report, we wouldn't have gone to the beach", "So did he", "Neither did she".

Irregular verb see irregular: List verb that has a different

ending for past tense and past participle forms than the regular "-ed"; see also regular verb eg: buy, bought, bought; do, did, done.

Lexicon, lexis: All of the words and word forms in a language with meaning or function.

Lexical verb: Another term for main verb

Linking verb: That connect the subject to more information (but do not indicate action), such as "be" or "seem".

Main clause: Another term for independent clause.

Main verb (also called "lexical verb"): Any verb in a sentence that is not an auxiliary verb; a main verb has meaning on its own eg: "Does John like Mary?", "I will have arrived by 4pm"

Modal verb (also called "modal"): Auxiliary verb such as can, could, must, should etc; paired with the bare infinitive of a verb eg: "I should go for a jog".

Modifier: Word or phrase that modifies and limits the meaning of another word eg: the house => the white house, the house over there, the house we sold last year.

Mood: Sentence type that indicates the speaker's view towards the degree of reality of what is being said, for example subjunctive, indicative, imperative.

Morpheme: Unit of language with meaning; differs from "word" because some cannot stand alone e.g. un-, predict and -able in unpredictable.

Multi-word verb: Verb that consists of a basic verb + another word or words (preposition and/or adverb) eg: get up (phrasal verb), believe in (prepositional verb), get on with (phrasal-prepositional verb).

Negative: Form which changes a "yes" meaning to a "no" meaning; opposite of affirmative eg: "She will not come", "I have never seen her"

Nominative case: Another term for subjective case

Non-defining relative clause (also called "non-restrictive relative clause"): That adds information but is not completely necessary; set off from the sentence with a comma or commas; see defining relative clause eg: "The boy, who had a chocolate bar in his hand, was still hungry"

Non-gradable adjective: That has a fixed quality or intensity and cannot be paired with a grading adverb; see also gradable adjective eg: freezing, boiling, dead.

Non-restrictive relative clause: Another term for non-defining relative clause noun part of speech that names a person, place, thing, quality, quantity or concept; see also proper noun and compound noun eg: "The man is waiting", "I was born in London", "Is that your car?", "Do you like music?"

Noun: Clause that takes the place of a noun and cannot stand on its own; often introduced with words such as "that, who or whoever" eg: "What the president said was surprising"

Noun phrase (NP): Any word or group of words based on a noun or pronoun that can function in a sentence as a subject, object or prepositional object; can be one word or many words; can be very simple or very complex eg: "She is nice", "When is the meeting?", "The car over there beside the lampost is mine"

Number: Change of word form indicating one person or thing (singular) or more than one person or thing (plural) eg: one dog/three dogs, she/they

Object: Thing or person affected by the verb; see also direct object and indirect object eg: "The boy kicked the ball", "We chose the house with the red door".

Objective case: Form of a pronoun indicating an object eg: "John married her", "I gave it to him".

Part of speech: One of the classes into which words are divided according to their function in a sentence eg: verb, noun, adjective.

Participle: Verb form that can be used as an adjective or a noun; see past participle, present participle passive voice one of two voices in English; an indirect form of expression in which the subject receives the action; see also active voice eg: "Rice is eaten by many people"

Past tense (also called "simple past"): Used to talk about an action, event or situation that occurred and was completed in the past eg: "I lived in Paris for 10 years", "Yesterday we saw a snake"

Past continuous: Tense often used to describe an interrupted action in the past; formed with WAS/ WERE + VERB-ing eg: "I was reading when you called"

Past perfect: Tense that refers to the past in the past; formed with HAD + VERB-ed eg: "We had stopped the car".

Past perfect continuous: That refers to action that happened in the past and continued to a certain point in the past; formed with HAD BEEN + VERB-ing eg: "I had been waiting for three hours when he arrived"

Past participle: Past participle verb form (V3) - usually made by adding "-ed" to the base verb - typically used in perfect and passive tenses, and sometimes as an adjective eg: "I have finished", "It was seen by many people", "boiled eggs"

Perfect: Perfect verb form (specifically an aspect); formed with HAVE/HAS + VERB-ed (present perfect) or HAD + VERB-ed (past perfect).

Person: Person grammatical category that identifies people in a conversation; there are three persons: 1st person (pronouns I/me, we/us) is the speaker(s), 2nd person (pronoun you) is the listener(s), 3rd person (pronouns

he/him, she/her, it, they/them) is everybody or everything else.

Personal pronoun: Personal pronoun that indicates person eg: "He likes my dogs", "They like him"

Phrasal verb: Phrasal verb multi-word verb formed with a verb + adverb eg: break up, turn off.

Phrase: Phrase two or more words that have a single function and form part of a sentence; phrases can be noun, adjective, adverb, verb or prepositional.

Plural: Plural of a noun or form indicating more than one person or thing; plural nouns are usually formed by adding "-s"; see also singular, number eg: bananas, spoons, trees

Position: Position grammatically correct placement of a word form in a phrase or sentence in relation to other word forms eg: "The correct position for an article is at the beginning of the noun phrase that it describes"

Positive: Positive basic state of an adjective or adverb when it shows quality but not comparative or superlative eg: nice, kind, quickly

Possessive adjective: Possessive adjective (also called "determiner") based on a pronoun: my, your, his, her, its, our, their eg: "I lost my keys", "She likes your car"

Possessive case: Case form of a pronoun indicating ownership or possession eg: "Mine are blue", "This car is hers"

Possessive pronoun: Pronoun that indicates ownership or possession eg: "Where is mine?", "These are yours".

Predicate: One of the two main parts (subject and predicate) of a sentence; the predicate is the part that is not the subject eg: "My brother is a doctor", "Who did you call?", "The woman wearing a blue dress helped me"

Prefix: Affix that occurs before the root or stem of a word eg: impossible, reload

Preposition: Part of speech that typically comes before a noun phrase and shows some type of relationship between that noun phrase and another element (including relationships of time, location, purpose etc) eg: "We sleep at night", "I live in London", "This is for digging"

Prepositional verb: Multi-word verb that is formed with verb + preposition eg: believe in, look after.

Pronoun: Word that replaces a noun or noun phrase; there are several types including personal pronouns, relative pronouns and indefinite pronouns eg: you, he, him; who, which; somebody, anything proper noun noun that is capitalized at all times and is the name of a person, place or thing eg: Shakespeare, Tokyo, EnglishClub.com

Regular verb see regular verbs list: Verb that has "-ed" as the ending for past tense and past participle forms; see also irregular verb eg: work, worked, worked

Sentence: Largest grammatical unit; a sentence must always include a subject (except for imperatives) and predicate; a written sentence starts with a capital letter and ends with a full stop/period (.), question mark (?) or exclamation mark (!); a sentence contains a complete thought such as a statement, question, request or command eg: "Stop!", "Do you like coffee?", "I work."

Suffix: Affix that occurs after the root or stem of a word eg: happiness, quickly superlative,

Superlative adjective: Adjective or adverb that describes the extreme degree of something eg: happiest, most quickly

SVO: Subject-verb-object; a common word order where the subject is followed by the verb and then the object eg: "The man crossed the street"

Syntax: Sentence structure; the rules about sentence structure

Tag question: Special construction with statement that ends in a mini-question; the whole sentence is a tag question; the mini-question is a question tag; usually used to obtain confirmation eg: "The Earth is round, isn't it?", "You don't eat meat, do you?"

Tense: Form of a verb that shows us when the action or state happens (past, present or future). Note that the name of a tense is not always a guide to when the action happens. The "present continuous tense", for example, can be used to talk about the present or the future.

Third conditional: "If-then" conditional structure used to talk about a possible event in the past that did not happen (and is therefore now impossible) eg: "If we had won the lottery we would have bought a car"

Transitive verb: Action verb that has a direct object (receiver of the action); see also intransitive verb eg: "The kids always eat a snack while they watch TV"

Uncountable nouns (also called "mass nouns" or "non-count"): Thing that you cannot count, such as substances or concepts; see also countable nouns eg: water, furniture, music

Usage: Way in which words and constructions are normally used in any particular language

Voice: Form of a verb that shows the relation of the subject to the action; there are two voices in English: active, passive

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Preface

Phrasal verbs are very common in spoken and written English so we need them to understand and speak natural English. A **phrasal verb** is a combination of a verb and a preposition, a verb and an adverb, or a verb with both an adverb and a preposition, any of which are part of the syntax of the sentence, and so are complete semantic units. Sentences may contain direct and indirect objects in addition to the phrasal verb. Phrasal verbs are particularly frequent in the English language. A phrasal verb often has a meaning which is different from the original verb. According to Tom McArthur:

> ...the term 'phrasal verb' was first used by Logan Pearsall Smith, in "Words and Idioms" (1925), in which he states that the OED Editor Henry Bradley suggested the term to him.

Alternative terms for phrasal verb are 'compound verb', 'verb-adverb combination', 'verb-particle construction (VPC)', AmE 'two-part word/verb' and 'three-part word/verb' (depending on the number of particles), and multi-word verb (MWV). Prepositions and adverbs used in a phrasal verb are also called particles in that they do not alter their form through inflections (are therefore uninflected: they do not accept affixes, etc.). Because of the idiomatic nature of phrasal verbs, they are often subject to preposition stranding.

This publication titled, "English Phrasal Verbs in Use" provides readers with an introductory overview of phrasal verbs including a phrasal verb dictionary. The focus also lies on verb, adverb, preposition and postposition along with model verb and preposition dictionary.

Additional focus lies on word, grammatical particle, preposition stranding and separable verb. Special focus has been laid on noun phrase, English phrasal verbs in use and advanced phrasal verb besides, English irregular verbs.

Attempts have been made towards avoidance of phrasal verbs and focus on related items. A list of English phrasal verbs has been given as appendix.

This publication titled, "English Phrasal Verbs in Use" is completely user-friendly as it also gives readers a glossary, bibliography and index.

—Editor

Contents

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