

Sixth Lecture: Title : Compound words and collocations , Collocations , Idioms and phrasal verbs , lexical and grammatical words , Collocation and idioms , Collocation and proverb

A compound noun is a noun that is made with two or more words . A compound noun is usually [noun + noun] or [adjective + noun] , but there are other combinations (see below) . It is important to understand and recognize compound nouns . Each compound noun acts as a single unit and can be modified by adjectives and other nouns . A compound noun is a noun formed by combining two words (roots , bases , free morphemes or lexical substructures) i.e. a modifier and a head . The two words . might come with a space , without a space , or with a hyphen . Compound nouns act as a single unit . In most languages , the compound nouns have a head that bears the main semantic meaning of the whole compound noun , and a modifier that either adds or limits the meaning of the head (Lyons , 1968 , p . 250) . However , the compound nouns have a special meaning of their own which is not equal to and is even to the meaning of its substructures (Tarasova , 2013 , p . 2) . Some types of compound nouns are much more common than others , prototypically and peripherally . Compounding is a very important way of adding to the word stock of many languages because the combination of the lexical substructures expresses a new idea (Ahmed , 2012 , p . 35 ; Carstairs- McCarthy , 2018 , p . 66) . A compound noun in English is made up of two bases ; Both of them are words or free morphemes (Ahmed , 2012 , p . 36 ; Baseer , 1979 , p . 62) .

Compound noun vs. collective noun A compound noun is a noun consisting of two or more parts that are also bases . Putting it another way , a compound noun is formed from two or more individual words . For example , the nouns rainfall (rain + fall) , poison ivy (poison + ivy) , and court - martial (court + martial) are all compound nouns . A collective noun is a noun that appears singular in formal shape but denotes a group of persons or objects . For example , the word choir is a singular noun that refers to a group of singers , which means it is a collective noun . Before we look at the differences between these two types of nouns , let's explore each in a bit more detail .

compound nouns are simply nouns formed from two or more words . Typically , a compound noun has a distinct

meaning that is different from the words used to form it. For example, *hand* is a noun referring to a part of the body and *shake* is a verb that means to move something back and forth quickly. The noun *handshake*, a compound noun, refers to an act of two people grasping and moving hands as a form of greeting or farewell.

types of nouns these words could also be.

- **Single-word compound nouns:** headache, brainstorm, volleyball, gunfire, bedroom, horseplay, housecat, waterworks, scoreboard, overtime, underwear, meatloaf
- **Multiple-word compound nouns:** jump rope, house party, inner circle, police officer, banana split, lightning rod, fish fry, monkey bars, rock salt, rat race, boxing ring
- **Hyphenated compound nouns:** knee-socks, push-up, jack-in-the-box, merry-go-round, know-it-all, forget-me-not, daughter-in-law, eight-year-olds, self-respect.

compound and collective nouns apart is to look at if the noun is formed from multiple words. If it isn't, it cannot be a compound noun. For example, the words *squad*, *troupe*, and *pack* are not compound nouns.

If a noun is formed from multiple words, though, we need to look closer. First, we must determine if the noun is a singular noun. If it is, we must then check if the noun is referring to a group of people, animals, or things or only one. If it is a singular noun that only refers to one person, animal, or thing, it is not a collective noun.

- *Collection* is not a noun formed from multiple words so we can say right away that it isn't a compound noun. It is, however, a collective noun since it is a singular noun that refers to multiple objects.
- The noun *firefighters* is formed from the words *fire* and *fighters* so it is indeed a compound noun. But is it a collective noun? Well, it is a plural noun so we first have to look at its singular form *firefighter*. This noun refers to one single person that fights fires. Because this word doesn't refer to a group as a singular noun, neither it or its plural form *firefighters* are collective nouns.

Grammatical and lexical collocations

Collocation is a group of words that occurs repeatedly, i.e., recurs, in a language. Recurrent phrases can be divided into grammatical collocations and lexical collocations.

Grammatical collocations consist of a dominant element and a preposition or a grammatical construction: fond of, (we reached) an agreement that... Lexical collocations do not have a dominant word; their components are "equal": to come to an agreement, affect deeply, weak tea. Functional criterion (collocations are classified according to functions of collocational elements) and statistical criterion (high co-occurrence frequency). This understanding of collocation is broad, and collocations are classified according to their compositional structure .

Lexical collocations don't have domain why ?

The relationship (associational of lexical items) or habitual co-occurrence between lexical item is interesting because there are item may collocate with high frequency others collocate as beneath collocate or impossible to collocate , Lexical collocations do not have a dominant word; their components are "equal": to come to an agreement, affect deeply, weak tea.

The concept of collocation is widely used in literary text in particular for example in Alfred Townsend in his poem ideal tears , normally this lexical collocations aren't used especially with tears this is called metaphorical assassination. These lexical items are used to make an effect on the readers and to convey his message through his odd use of collocation to convey the despair of the futility of life .

Another example is presented by w.p.yeats in his poem (leda and swan) where he uses number of collocations to refer to swan . To use such collocation (lexical collocation) the poet's purpose behind this collocation to convey his message for example (sudden blow) in this collocation he describes the great wings beating still above the staggering girl (collocation ..personification according to literary) Stylistics features to reveal mysterious power to continue the sense or poet is elicit to choose the collocated lexical items highly reflected certain feeling or emotion

- 1-Lexical items vary according to the freedom of combination to collocate with other items as good and bad (non-limited collected), while other adjectives are limited (beautiful , handsome)
- 2-Impossible collocation (hot ice , green cow , black snow) so the words don't collocate with each other's
- 3-Possible collocation but not habitual we don't use to hear it . e.g. bright night , dark days , old days so we may have but not habitual to use like these collocation . they are semantically compatible may co-occur but they are not associated habitually , this kind is exclusively in poetry .
- 4-free collocations , it is combination of two or more items (free compatibility)and this means that lexical items can collocate o co-occur , combine with other items feely (to blow a trumpet = to play a trumpet), heavy rain , heavy box , heavy bags
- 5- - restrictive collocations , is a type of lexical collocation consist of two or more lexical item , it is a combinations of two or more words used in one of their regular , non-idiomatic meaning following certain structural patterns and restricted in their commutability not only by grammatical and semantic valence but also by usage , (to blow a fuse = to destroy a fuse/to get angry) , white snow , these collocation are restricted that is to say they occur only with conjunction of other specific lexical items , this doesn't seem a matter of their meaning but of company they keep
- 6- There are other collocation belong to semantics , collocation in which their items belong to semantics but have different collocation (pretty, handsome)semantically they have the same common ground in their meaning of good looking but distinguished by the range of nouns with which are likely to collocate , pretty and handsome have many semantic feature in common but they collocate differently .

So in brief, **Lexical collocations** are items where two lexical words regularly and naturally occur together. Bahns (ELTJ 47/1 1993) stated that although some lexical collocations are quite direct and obvious in their meaning, others are not. In our example, black coffee clearly indicates that there is no milk in the coffee. grammatical collocation may be a phrase consisting of a dominant word (a noun, an adjective, a verb) and a preposition or grammatical structure, like an infinitive or a clause. In distinction, lexical collocations usually do not contain prepositions, infinitives, or clauses. In this respect, grammatical collocations are different from lexical collocations in the following ways. First, components of grammatical collocation include function words such as preposition and adverb. Moreover, almost all grammatical collocations are fixed collocations such as bring up and depend on, whereas all lexical collocations are restricted collocations such as, close, good friend, old friend, etc.

Collocations and Idioms

Collocation is a universal linguistic phenomenon. Words are always used together. They always present themselves in collocation. It is no exaggeration to say that none of the natural languages is free of collocation. In fact, “words seldom occur in isolation” (Wallace 1982, p.30). Collocation is not only a necessary element of language but also an outstanding feature that makes language specific and correct. Therefore, to learn English well learners should attach much importance to collocation .

Kolesnikova & Gelbkn (2013) point out that , Collocational relations can be classified according to lexical, structural and semantic criteria. The most fine-grained taxonomy of collocations based on semantic and structural principle was given by Mel’čuk (1996).

- Collocations of a given word are statements of the habitual or customary places of that word (Firth, 1957). Lexical criterion (a word is used in a fixed position with respect to another element of collocation) and statistical criterion (frequency of word co-occurrence). Firth was the first to introduce the term ‘collocation’ from Latin *collocatio* which means ‘bringing together, grouping’. He believes that speakers make ‘typical’ common lexical choices in collocational combinations. Collocation is a concept in Firth’s theory of meaning: “Meaning by collocation is an abstraction at the syntagmatic level and is not directly concerned with the conceptual or idea approach to the meaning of words. One of the meanings of night is its collocability with dark, and of dark, of course, collocation with night.”
- Collocation is the syntagmatic association of lexical items, quantifiable, textually, as the probability that there will occur, at n removes (a distance of n lexical items) from an item x, the items a, b, c ... (Halliday, 1961). Lexical criterion (a word is used in a fixed position with respect to another element of collocation) and statistical criterion (high co-occurrence frequency). If a lexical item is used in the text, then it’s collocate has the highest probability of occurrence at some distance from the lexical item. Collocations cut across grammar boundaries: e.g., the phrases he argued strongly and the strength of his argument are grammatical transformations of the initial collocation strong argument.
- Collocations are binary word-combinations; they consist of words with limited combinatorial capacity, they are semi-finished products of language, affine

combinations of striking habitualness. In a collocation one partner determines, another is determined. In other words, collocations have a basis and a co-occurring collocate (Hausmann, 1984). Lexical criterion (the lexical choice of the collocate depends on the basis). All word combinations are classified into two basic groups, i.e., fixed and nonfixed combinations, with further subdivisions, and in this classification, collocations belong to the category of non-fixed affine combinations.

- Collocation is a group of words that occurs repeatedly, i.e., recurs, in a language. Recurrent phrases can be divided into grammatical collocations and lexical collocations. Grammatical collocations consist of a dominant element and a preposition or a grammatical construction: fond of, (we reached) an agreement that... Lexical collocations do not have a dominant word; their components are "equal": to come to an agreement, affect deeply, weak tea (Benson et al., 1986). Functional criterion (collocations are classified according to functions of collocational elements) and statistical criterion (high co-occurrence frequency). This understanding of collocation is broad, and collocations are classified according to their compositional structure.

Idioms

Adam Makkai (1972:121) defines the (lexemic) idiom as a "polylexonic lexeme which is made up of more than one minimal free form or (morphological) word, each lexon of which can occur in other environments as the realization of a monolexonic lexeme." Thus, kick the bucket and bite the dust are idioms: 'kick the bucket has nothing to do with the physical act of kicking; no actual bucket is involved; and therefore, there can be no deixis involved, which is what the normally signals.' Conversely, kith and kin 'acquaintances and relatives' is a pseudo-idiom, because kith occurs nowhere else and with no other meaning in English. The lexemic idiom provides the central datum for consideration here in .

Makkai also defines a sememic idiom, a member of a second idiomaticity area, to account for expressions like I don't count your chickens before they are hatched. The sememic idiom differs from the lexemic in two important ways. First, it is at a higher (more abstract, closer to meaning) linguistic level, . Second, the function words in a sememic idiom (e.g., before) have exactly and only their normal language function

A traditional definition of idiom , is an expression whose meaning cannot be inferred from the meanings of its parts . Although at first sight straightforward , there is curious element of circularity , so it must be a matter of the idioms meaning in other expressions . But clearly these other expressions must be chosen with care : in considering to pull someone's leg . For instance , there is a little point in referring to pull in to pull a fast one , or leg in he hasn't a leg to stand on . The definition must be understood as stating that an idiom is an expression whose meaning cannot be accounted for as a compositional function of the meaning of its parts have when they are not parts of idioms . We must be already in a position to distinguish idiomatic from non-idiomatic expressions (Cruse , 1986)

Idioms involve collocation of a special kind . For example , kick the bucket , fly of the handle . For here , we not only have the collocation of kick and the bucket , but the fact that the meaning of the resultant combination is opaque . It is not related to the meaning of the

individual words , but sometimes nearer to the meaning of a single word (thus , kick the bucket = die) (Palmer , 1981)

Idiom (n.) A term used in grammar and lexicology to refer to a sequence of words which is semantically and often syntactically restricted, so that they function as a single unit. From a semantic viewpoint, the meanings of the individual words cannot be summed to produce the meaning of the idiomatic expression as a whole. From a syntactic viewpoint, the words often do not permit the usual variability they display in other contexts, e.g. it's raining cats and dogs does not permit it's raining a cat and a dog/dogs and cats, etc. Because of their lack of internal contrastivity, some linguists refer to idioms as 'ready-made utterances'. An alternative terminology refers to idioms as 'habitual collocations'. A point which has attracted considerable discussion is the extent to which degrees and kinds of idiomaticness can be established: some idioms do permit a degree of internal change, and are somewhat more literal in meaning than others (e.g. it's worth her while/the job will be worth my while, etc.). In generative grammar, idiomatic constructions are used for testing hypotheses about structure: if idioms are units whose parts stay together in deep structure, then one can test whether a particular syntactic construction involves movement by seeing whether the parts of the idiom can be separated in that construction. In this approach, also, the term idiom chunk is used for one part of an idiom which has been separated from the remainder through some syntactic operation, such as the basket in That's the basket into which I've put all my eggs (I've put all my eggs into one basket).(Crystal , 2008)

Idioms are a type of formulaic language. Formulaic language consists of fixed expressions which you learn and understand as units rather than as individual words, for example: It's a small world! Don't put all your eggs in one basket.

Idioms are fixed combinations of words whose meaning is often difficult to guess from the meaning of each individual word.

Concerning similarities, Brinton and Akimoto (1999: 7) mention that like idioms, collocations are sets of lexical items which repeatedly or generally co-occur, however, in contrast to idioms, their meanings will sometimes be deduced from the meanings of their components. In diachronic terms, the difference between idiom and collocation is usually tough to draw

On the other hand, Ding (2018: 29) adds that it is tough to a sharp distinction between them. So, the similarities may be noticed as follows

First, idioms can occur as part of collocations (e.g., [the nose in your face] in as plain as [the nose in your face]) or mix to make a collocation

Second, both idioms and collocations typically correspond to a cognitively similar single type which can replace them either optionally or compulsorily in certain (stylistic) contexts: idioms, make up=compose, make it up=(be) reconcile(d), make up to=flatter; collocations, .put down (the book)=deposit, come down=descend

Third, collocations and idioms like the extent that both are usually related to grammatical generalizations and that both cut across syntactic categories, e.g., verb + object complement: play tricks (collocation), kick the bucket (idiom), verb + adverbial complement, put on (the coat) (collocation), put off (the meeting) (idiom)

Collocation and phrasal verbs

A **collocation** is a general term referring to words that usually or always go together. A collocation can perform various functions in a sentence (i.e. act as different parts of speech). Some examples are “bunch of flowers” or “commit a crime.”

A phrasal verb is usually a combination of a verb + a preposition which usually changes the meaning from that of the original verb. For example, “put + up with” means to tolerate, while “put + up” means to return something to its original/proper position (especially when cleaning), and “put + off” means to delay doing something until a later time.

The preposition part of the phrasal verb changes the entire meaning, so it’s good to memorize certain phrasal verbs in chunks of verb+prep instead of just learning the definition of the verb, and then the preposition separately.

Phrasal verbs A combination of words that is used like a verb and consists of a verb and an adverb or preposition, for example give in or come up with any long English text, spoken or written, will contain many examples of the three. Often, intermediate students who cannot go beyond intermediate level struggle to deal with how dense a language can become once we have learned the simple grammatical structures and have mastered a large set of vocabulary.

Idioms and proverbs

Unlike idioms, proverbs are clausal, i.e. they can stand on their own as sentence (though they may also occur as a clause within a larger sentence, e.g. 'Too many cooks spoil the broth , as they say '). OEDO defines a proverb as 'A short, traditional, and pithy saying; a concise sentence, typically metaphorical or alliterative in form , stating a general truth or piece of advice; an adage or maxim ' Issa (2014).provides a useful survey of different definitions of proverbs, as well as views on their typical (though not necessarily defining)

Since ' **proverb** ' is a non - technical term , I will adopt the view here that proverbs are what native speakers consider to be proverbs (apart from the stipulation, above , that proverbs are clauses - which would , I believe , be reflected in terms of their identification of proverbs in practice by native speakers). This, of course, means that the boundaries between what is and is not a proverb will be somewhat fuzzy : we cannot expect all native to recognise exactly the same things as proverbs (and non-proverbs).

Some proverbs are fully free - compositional - i.e. All the words which make them up are used in the same sense in which they are used in other contexts . Examples are '**Honesty** is the best policy', 'A little learning is a dangerous thing' and 'Better late than never'. Most proverbs, however, contain at least some words which are not completely free - compositional, i.e. they include words which are not found in the same sense in unlimited contexts . Examples are 'Too many cooks spoil the broth' , '**A stitch in time saves nine**', and '**Birds of a feather**

flock together' (all of which are fully bound - compositional ; ie none of the constituents words in them has an independent sense).

Fully free - compositional proverbs do not belong to the multiword expression category, though they do belong to the category of formulaic sequences (given the inevitably high levels of collocation they involve). Proverbs which contain at least some words which are not completely free - compositional belong to the multiword expression category . In terms of the semantic independence of their constituents, . ' One swallow doesn't make a summer ' is an example of a proverb in which none of the individual constituent words has an independent sense (the proverb's may along the lines ' It should not be assumed that something is true just because there is one piece of evidence for it'). ' Silence is golden ' , meaning " Silence is virtuous / preferable (to speaking) / to be enjoyed , etc. , provides an example of a second type of proverb constituent . Here ' golden ' has an independent sense , but this sense is only found in the context of this proverb . " I have not been able to find an example of a third type of proverb constituent , where this constituent has a sense which only occurs in specific limited contexts . **The final type of proverb constituent** , which has an independent sense and this sense is found in multiple (essentially unlimited) contexts , is illustrated by the proverb 'honesty is the best policy' . Here all the constituent words have the same sense as they have in unlimited.

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