The Pennsylvania State University

The Graduate School

Department of English

A Diachronic and Synchronic Analysis and

Description of English Phrasal Verbs

A Thesis in

English

by

Theodore E. Kiffer

Submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements
for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

June 1965

Approved:

May 20, 1965

Simon Belasco
Professor of Romance Linguistics
Thesis Adviser

May 20, 1965

Henry W. Sams
Head of the Department of English

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I wish to express my gratitude and sincere admiration to Professor Simon Belasco, Department of Romance Languages, for introducing me to the field of Descriptive Linguistics and guiding me in the writing of this thesis. His advice has been most helpful.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

One of the most fascinating aspects of the study of the

English language is the study of the verb system. For the verb

in English is truly a versatile performer, bearing much of the

burden of defining and limiting the action, time, mode, aspect,

and otherwise qualifying the action of the utterance. Because

of the dependence of the utterance upon the verb, the verb has

undergone more changes, is more flexible, and is more adaptable

to mutation than any other form class in the language. Certainly

the other form classes--nouns, adjectives, and adverbs--have

undergone changes, have become more simplified, have lost inflec-

tional endings and case markers, but the verb has changed more

and is changing more rapidly than any other part of the language.

By change, structural change alone is not intended, for in the

preservation of inflectional suffixes, the verb is indeed very

conservative. By change is meant the development of new forms,

new ways of enlarging the lexicon, and deviation from the

traditional pathways of development.

Much effort has been spent in classifying and otherwise

labeling English verbs as to form, mode, tense, aspect, transi-

tivity, and other functions, but one feature of the developing

English verb has not been sufficiently analyzed and described.

Reference is being made to that apparently limitless class of

verbs that function in close conjunction with prepositions to produce a verb different in meaning and function from the original verb form. Past descriptions have labeled these forms as verb-adverb combinations, and combination verbs. One recent article that discusses certain phonological characteristics of these verbs calls them two-word verbs, a name preferable to the others but not comprehensive enough; for some of these verb combinations consist of not two but three words.[1]

Then too some of these descriptions, including the best--a monograph by Arthur G. Kennedy, a skillful philologist--contain certain weaknesses because of the prescriptive attitude of the grammarian who credits the development of these verb combinations to "linguistic laziness."[2] At times, a clear distinction is not made between a valid grammatical function of modification of verb by adverb and the verb-adverb combination under description.

In an attempt to provide some solution to the problem of these verbs, I prefer to call them phrasal verbs, analogous to phrasal nouns such as maid-of-honor, Jack-in-the pulpit, etc. that

---

[1]Abdul Karim Taha, "The Structure of Two-Word Verbs in English," _Readings in Applied English Linguistics_, ed. Harold B. Allen, 2nd ed. (New York, 1964), pp. 130-136.

[2]Arthur Garfield Kennedy, "The Modern English Verb-Adverb Combination," _Stanford University Publications in Language and Literature_, I (1920), 1-51.

consist of several words yet function like one word including
the ability to affix inflectional suffixes. Thus the phrasal
verb, written hereafter pV, is a verb that consists of a basic
verb plus one or more particles. The term particle is preferred
to either preposition or adverb because when used in conjunction
with the basic verb in pV construction, the homophonous
preposition or adverb loses those qualities which make it either
prepositional or adverbial and becomes simply a part of the pV.

These particles have three significant positions:
prefixed to the basic verb, immediately following the basic verb,
and separated from the basic verb by an intervening complement.
Strangely enough the position of the particle follows no observable
rule, and even more strange is the fact that changing the position
of the particle often changes the meaning of the verb. A few
verbs can take the particle in all three positions without a change
in meaning. For purposes of illustration consider the verb <u>chuck</u>
and the particle <u>up</u>. These elements yield:

The child <u>upchucked</u> his supper.

The child <u>chucked</u> <u>up</u> his supper.

The child <u>chucked</u> his supper <u>up</u>.

These sentences convey the same meaning with the pV in the three
different positions. Now compare the following:

The carpenter <u>tore</u> <u>up</u> the floor.

The carpenter <u>tore</u> the floor <u>up</u>.

*The carpenter <u>uptore</u> the floor.[3]

Here two sentences have the same meaning while the third is ungrammatical. Again

Tom <u>worries</u> <u>about</u> his job.

*Tom <u>worries</u> his job <u>about</u>.

*Tom <u>aboutworries</u> his job.

Here one position only is grammatical. Thus the pV may have its elements occurring in more than one position, but in order to have a grammatical pV only one position is necessary. Sometimes changing the position will yield a different meaning:

The man <u>upheld</u> my neighbor.

The man <u>held</u> <u>up</u> my neighbor.

The man <u>held</u> my neighbor <u>up</u>.

The meaning of the first sentence is that the man "morally or spiritually supported" the neighbor. No single meaning can be assigned the other two sentences, for <u>held</u> <u>up</u> and <u>held</u> . . . <u>up</u>

---

[3]The use of the asterisk in this study indicates an ungrammatical or grammatically impossible form. In comparative linguistics the asterisk denotes an unattested reconstruction.

can have such meanings as "rob," "detain," "lift," and "support"
among others. A discussion of the suprasegmental phonemes of
stress'and juncture may help to clarify some of the ambiguities
of the above written form of the utterance.

The term phrasal verb should never be confused with verb
phrase, a term that describes any combination of words employing
a verb as the headword and including the gerund or V-ing phrases,
participles or V-ing or V-en phrases, or V modified by adverb or
complemented by noun, etc. Even such periphrastic tense construc-
tions as shall + V or aux + V-en are excluded from the category
phrasal verb.

Hence, the formula for the phrasal verb can be written
basically as

$$pV \rightarrow V + pt\ (+\ pt).$$

Included in V are the subcategories of Vi (intransitive verb), Vt
(transitive verb), and be. Be is included for the sake of economy
of statement in V, though Chomsky has pointed out that be is unique
and not a verb in the same sense as other verbs.[4] The addition of
the particle often changes the meaning of a transitive verb and
changes an intransitive verb (or be) to a transitive verb when it
is followed by a complement. For example, consider the intransitive
verb worry cited above which yields the transitive pV worry about

---

[4]Noam Chomsky, Syntactic Structures ('S-Gravenhage, 1963),
pp. 67-68.

when the particle <u>about</u> is added. Thus a comprehensive series of
formulas might be written as

$$pV \rightarrow \underline{Verb} + pt + (pt)$$

$$Verb \rightarrow Vb, \ldots$$

$$Vb \rightarrow V_i, V_t, V_{be}$$

To illustrate the change of meaning rendered by the addition
of the particle, consider the following examples:

a. Jane <u>looked</u> pretty.

In this sentence <u>look</u> is a verb of the link or copula type. <u>Pretty</u>
is a complement modifying the subject.

b. Jane <u>looked</u> up.

In this sentence <u>look</u> is an intransitive verb modified by the adverb
<u>up</u> which is a homophone of the preposition <u>up</u>.

c. Jane <u>looked</u> up the hill.

Again <u>look</u> is an intransitive verb modified by the prepositional
phrase <u>up</u> <u>the</u> <u>hill</u> which functions as an adverbial of place (Av of
Loc).

d. Jane <u>looked</u> the hill <u>up</u>.

This sentence contains the pV <u>look</u> <u>up</u> and clearly illustrates the
transitive-forming function of the particle <u>up</u> in post-complement
position. <u>Up</u> cannot be a preposition or an adverb in this position.
Incidentally the meaning of the sentence is Jane found the hill (in
an atlas or other directory, although in many American English
dialects this construction means "find" in an actual physical sense).

Substitute the particle <u>over</u> for <u>up</u> and a different meaning, "inspect," is obtained.

᾿ Though the orthography does not reveal the meaning, sentence c. above can also be interpreted as having the meaning of sentence d. Here, however, certain suprasegmental phonemes of stress and juncture -- unfortunately not represented in the written form of English -- can give a clue to the meaning. Thus,

$$\text{look} + \overset{\smile}{\text{up}} \text{ the hill}$$

is an intransitive verb modified by a prepositional phase. If the NP "the hill" is deleted from this construction, the resultant form is <u>loŏk</u> <u>up</u> and <u>up</u> is an adverb of place. However, the utterance

$$\text{loŏk up} + \text{the hill}$$

is a pV + complement. The NP "the hill" cannot be deleted from this construction, for such a deletion would result in the previous V + Av construction because the V + Pt <u>cannot</u> exist without an accompanying complement. This distributional fact has been overlooked in the past and has caused much confusion.

Traditionally, grammarians have held the position that <u>up</u> in the above constructions is a preposition and that the complement is the object of the preposition. For example, consider the following from Jespersen:

> Not a few verbs are used sometimes with an object, sometimes with a prepositional phrase. In some cases, the meaning is completely changed (<u>call a person, call on him</u>; <u>he has not tasted food today</u>; <u>the food tastes of ginger</u>); in others the act is more complete when there is no preposition:

> Strike him/<u>strike at</u> him.[5]
> We know him/we <u>know of</u> him.
> With some verbs the difference is not so easily definable:
> Confess a crime/<u>confess to</u> a liking for something.
> ˇ I don't believe a word of it/he <u>believes in</u> God.
> Watch a person/<u>watch over</u> a person.[6]

Clearly Jespersen considers the entire prepositional phrase to be somehow related to the verb and by his examples shows that the former object of the verb becomes the object of the preposition (cf. We know him/we know of him). Informal polls of several hundred students in advanced grammar classes at The Pennsylvania State University reveal that those who were taught to account for this verb plus other element construction were taught that the direct object of the verb becomes the object of the preposition. Note, however, that the above mentioned constructions -- <u>call on</u>, <u>strike at</u>, <u>confess to</u>, <u>believe in</u>, and <u>watch over</u> -- are actually phrasal verb-constructions.

A more accurate position was taken by Professors Kittredge and Farley:

> In other words, <u>laugh at</u>, <u>pass upon</u>, etc., are treated as compound verbs, and the object of the preposition is, in effect, the object of the compound. In the passive, the object becomes the subject and the preposition (now lacking an object) remains attached to the verb. The passive

---

[5]Italics in this section are mine, to indicate more readily the constructions referred to.

[6]Otto Jespersen, <u>Essentials of English Grammar</u> (New York, 1933), p. 110.

construction is well established, but not always graceful.[7]
The above comment is not entirely true simply because at and
upon are not prepositions in these constructions; rather they
are particles. Note, however, that Kittredge and Farley feel
that the second element is really a preposition and that it (not
the entire verb) loses its object in a passive construction.
Additional examples cited by Kittredge and Farley are talk about,
look into, look upon, reason with, and insist upon among others.[8]

A more precise statement of the second element in the
constructions must be based upon distribution, not meaning. These
particles cannot occur with the verb as verb intransitive. For
example, one cannot say *He talked about, *He looked into, etc.
without an accompanying complement. Particles must be accompanied
by a complement.[9] Certain particles such as "up," "down," "on,"
"over" -- to name a few -- may either follow the verb immediately
or be separated from it by the complement. Others like "about,"
"into," "upon," and "with" are never separated from the verb by
the complement. Hence, there are particle types that form two pV
classes. The particle types can be rewritten as

---

[7]George Lyman Kittredge and Frank Edgar Farley, An Advanced
English Grammar (Boston, 1930), p. 111.

[8]Loc. cit.

[9]Although some grammar texts and dictionaries define
particle as a small indeclinable part of speech like a preposition
or adverb, the meaning here, based upon distribution, is that of a
functional grammatical fragment.

Separable particle = Pt_s

Inseparable particle = Pt.[10]

Thus'the formula

$$Vb \rightarrow V_i, V_t, V_{be}$$

is now rewritten as

$$Vb \rightarrow V_i, V_t, V_{be}, pV$$

and

$$pV \rightarrow V \begin{Bmatrix} Pt_s \\ Pt \end{Bmatrix} \text{ in env } \underline{\hspace{1cm}} \text{ compl.}$$

Therefore the utterance

Bill ran up

consists of N V Av

and

Bill ran up the flag

and

Bill ran the flag up

consists of N pV NP with $pV \rightarrow V Pt_s$.

But

*Bill looked into

while

Bill looked into the cave

---

[10]The terms separable and inseparable do not imply quite the same qualities that German affixes do, but instead are convenient terms to indicate the different possibilities of complement position.

consists of N V prep

and

Bill looked into the problem

consists of N pV NP with pV → V Pt.

Thus, look intŏ and look intŏ are two separate, distinct

constructions, and the two "intos" are no more related to each

other than are the noun "bear" meaning large animal (ursus) and

the verb "bear" meaning to carry.

Sometimes the meaning of the complement eliminates any

possible chance for ambiguity as in

Jane <u>looked</u> <u>up</u> the reference

or

Jane <u>looked</u> the reference <u>up</u>.

Both are clearly cases of pV but sometimes, even in an adequate

context, the written meaning of

Jane <u>looked</u> <u>up</u> the hill

is ambiguous. Here the problem of meaning may be resolved by

stress, a phonemic feature of English, but which as stated pre-

viously is not indicated in written English. Using ´ to indicate

strong stress and �‿ to indicate weak stress, the full formula for

one-particle phrasal verbs can be written as

$$pV \rightarrow \overset{\smile}{V} \left\{ \begin{matrix} \acute{Pt}_s \\ \acute{Pt} \end{matrix} \right\}$$

The heavier stress falls on the final element of the pV.

Another pV type is the <u>Verb</u> plus two particles such as

Mary <u>ran</u> <u>out</u> <u>of</u> flour

or

Bill <u>is</u> <u>up</u> <u>on</u> Communism.

This type can be rewritten as

$$pV \rightarrow \begin{Bmatrix} V_t \\ be \end{Bmatrix} Pt + Pt.$$

Stress and juncture patterns in these three-word forms differ from those of two-word forms. Such structures will be discussed in a subsequent chapter. The purpose of the description of the pV thus far has been to identify the pertinent elements of this study.

The problem of the linguist is to describe a given language as comprehensively, as economically, and as non-contradictorily as possible. He is to describe objectively the development, growth, and distribution of the phenomena of a given language and is to form no value judgments about the language. The linguist <u>is not</u> interested in the aesthetics of language; he <u>is not</u> interested in how well a grammatical function succeeds; he <u>is</u> interested in how the language works. Thus the phrasal verb, a comparative innovation in the English language, yet one of the most rapidly growing parts of our grammar system, despite its neglect and abuse by some

grammarians and prescriptivists,[11] offers a valid topic for analysis and complete description.

The purpose of this dissertation is to present a comprehensive description of the phrasal verb, historically, distributionally, phonologically, and morphologically, including deviations from and exceptions to the rules hypothesized in the introduction. Subsequent chapters will discuss the historical development of the phrasal verb from its earliest recorded appearances in the language to the present day, discuss the attitudes of a wide scope of grammarians from early times to the present, seek to synthesize as much as possible contemporary descriptions, and ultimately make some suggestions regarding the treatment of this verb in basic grammar courses. A structural knowledge of a phenomenon so prevalent in the language should not be the privilege of a few linguists.

---

[11]A prescriptivist is one who attempts to influence the development of a language by prescribing how the language should be changed or unchanged. Prescriptivists lean heavily upon class distinctions of speakers of a language and attempt to establish correct and incorrect standards of usage by arbitrary laws rather than by observation of incidence.

CHAPTER II

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND AND DEVELOPMENT

The diachronic investigation of the phrasal verb in
English reveals two major facts about this verb type. First, the
phrasal verb was non-existent in the Old English period. Second,
the incidence of occurrence of the phrasal verb has shown a steady
increase since its appearance in English. Of course, certain
writers used these verbs more frequently than others. In fact
some writers with a purist point of view avoided the use of these
verbs, preferring instead to use Latin, Greek, or Romance
derivatives. Then, too, phrasal verbs were undoubtedly employed
more often in speech than in writing--a tendency evident even
today. But despite all these hindrances, some clear-cut influ-
ences and developments can be found which cast a great deal of
light upon the emergence of the phrasal verbs.

Word counting is especially rewarding in this respect.
In fact, some rather startling patterns emerge. In one passage
of Beowulf,[1] for example, an exceptionally frequent occurrence
of the preposition wið indicates the work of a single scribe who
favored this preposition. An intense count of prepositions in the
various constructions might help uncover portions worked on by

---

[1]Beowulf and the Fight at Finnsburg, ed. Fr. Klaeber, 3rd.
ed. (Boston, 1950). All materials quoted from Beowulf are from
this edition and will be indicated hereafter by line numbers
enclosed in parentheses.

scribes--if indeed there were any.

An analysis of <u>Beowulf</u> reveals many preposition-verb combinations, some of which are retained in the language to this day. Others have disappeared completely. None of these pre-position-verb combinations can be considered phrasal verbs, in the strictest sense, but are instead verb-adverb combinations with the adverb predominantly an adverb of place or direction. For this reason, the descriptions of Curme, Kennedy, and Konishi leave much to be desired.[2]

In his monograph, Kennedy reports the incidence of the compound verbs and verb-preposition combinations as follows:

> In the first 30 lines of the <u>Beowulf</u>, for example, I find twenty-five occurrences of the verb with an inseparable prefix such as <u>ofteah</u>(5), <u>forgeaf</u>(17, <u>onsendon</u>(45), <u>forshrifen</u>(106), <u>becom</u>(192), <u>onleac</u> (259), etc. while there are only five examples of the verb used with a separate adverbial modifier of the type under consideration, viz. <u>up āhafen</u>(128), <u>for gewat</u>(210), <u>ut scufon</u>(215), <u>up</u>. . . <u>stigon</u>(224-25), <u>gewitaþ forð</u> (291).
> . . . Indeed of the sixteen examples just listed as combinations, only two show the adverbial particle following the verb. So we say that in the five Old English monuments [<u>Beowulf</u>, <u>Genesis</u>, <u>Juliana</u>, Bede's <u>Ecclesiastical History</u>, and <u>Saint's Lives</u>] under con-sideration occurrences of the verb-adverb combination are practically nil whereas the use of the compound, i.e. verb with inseparable prefix is fairly common.[3]

---

[2]George O. Curme, "<u>The Development of Verbal Compounds in Germanic</u>," in Beiträge zur <u>Geschichte der Deutschen Sprache und Literatur</u> (Berlin, 1914), Band 39, pp. 320-361. Arthur Garfield Kennedy, <u>Verb-Adverb Combinations</u>, pp. 1-27. Tomoshichi Konishi, "The Growth of the Verb-Adverb Combination in English--A Brief Sketch--" in <u>Studies in English Grammar and Linguistics in Honour of Tokonobu Otsaka</u> (Tokyo, 1958), pp. 117-128.

[3]Kennedy, pp. 11-12.

Konishi comments on Kennedy's observations as follows:

> Kennedy points out in his monograph that in the first
> 300 lines of Beowulf, for example, he finds twenty-five
> occurrences of the compound verb such as ofteah (5),
> forgeaf (17), etc., while there are only five examples
> of the verb used with a separate adverbial modifier
> like up ahafen (128), for gewat (210), ut scufon (215).
> up . . . stigon (224-5), gewitaþ forð (291). In this
> combination the adverb generally precedes the verb like
> old compound verbs, but they are quite separate and
> independent like modern verb-adverb combinations. Here
> we have a fine example of the emergence of analytic
> tendency, for the adverb-verb combination like "over
> come" came to life usually expressing a distinct and
> independent meaning from the compound verbs like
> "overcome" which was prevailing in that period.[4]

Both Kennedy and Konishi overlook the fact that the fused
form of preposition + verb is always a compound verb while the
separated elements are sometimes compound verbs and sometimes
verb plus adverb of direction. Some conclusions can be drawn
from the following data--the five abberant verbs listed by
Kennedy and Konishi from the first three hundred lines of Beowulf.

þa waes aefter wiste   wōp up āhafen,[5]

then was after feasting weeping uplifted,

micel morgenswēg   (128-129)

a great morning cry.

In this passage āhafen is the past participle of āhebban meaning
to lift or raise, and hebban without the prefix ā also means to

---

[4]Konishi, p. 117.

[5]These and the following italics in the OE poetry are mine
and are designed to help the reader see more quickly the elements
under discussion.

lift or raise. But the prepositioned up changes the meaning to uplift, a compound verb, and does not function like an adverb of direction. In a later passage āhaefan occurs accompanied by a preposition of, and the preposition is clearly an adverbial of direction here:

> Ad waes geaefne,   ond icge gold
>
> The funeral pyre was made ready   and shiny gold
>
> āhaefen of horde. (1107-8)
>
> was brought from the hoard.

Thus up āhafen is clearly a compound verb. Similar to this verb is ut scufon which appears in the passage:

> guman ūt scufon,
>
> the men shoved off,
>
> weras on wilsīð   wudu bundenne. (215-16)
>
> men on a wished-for journey, (on) the ship bound.

Clearly ūt scufon ("pushed off," "shoved off," "pushed out," etc. the boat) is a compound verb with the meaning launch, and the ūt is not a preposition/adverb of direction. In another passage:

> dracan ēc scufun,
>
> the dragon also (they) pushed,
>
> wyrm ofer weallclif, (3131-32)
>
> The serpent, over the cliff

the verb scufun and the preposition ofer give a resultant verb

plus adverb of direction construction. The significant conclusion
to be drawn from the two examples up āhafen and ūt scufon is that
though these two forms are not fused into one compound word like
the other twenty-five compound verbs of the first three hundred
lines of Beowulf, they are nevertheless compound verbs, func-
tioning as grammatical units and not as structures of modifica-
tion, suggesting that scribal spacing accounts for these two
exceptions.

The other three preposition + verb constructions noted by
Kennedy are really structures of modification with the preposition/
adverb functioning purely as an adverb of direction or intensity.

> Fyrst   forð gewāt   (210)
>
> Time   by (on) passed

Here the meaning of the preposition/adverb forð is to intensify
the passage of time and, what is perhaps more important, to
provide the desired metrical and alliterative balance to the line
of poetry.

> þanon up hraðe
>
> then up quickly
>
> Wedera lēode   on wang stigon,   (224-25)
>
> the Weder people   on the land   came

Here up . . . stigon is clearly a structure of modification, not a
separable phrasal verb, for the people climbed up from the water's
edge to the higher parts of the beach, and up is an adverb of

place and not a particle of the verb. In these first three hundred lines of Beowulf one preposition is found in the "modern" position following the verb, but the construction is again a structure of modification.

> Gewitaþ forð beran
>
> Go   forth   bearing

waepen and gewaedū (291-92)

weapons and armors

Gewitaþ forð means "go forth to the castle" as opposed to "go back to your ship" and here, like in forð gewat, forð is an adverb and not part of a compound verb construction.

Thus one can see that the phrasal verb was non-existent in the earliest major literature of Old English but that compound, inseparable verbs analogous to many modern verb forms and adverb/verb structures of modification did exist.

The common Old English prepositions that combined with verbs to make compounds are listed with Modern English glosses as follows: ā generally "up"; aet "at"; be a somewhat vague gloss of "upon," "to," "with"; eft "back"; for "away" or "through"; ofer "over"; of "off"; on "on," "in," "at," "from"; oð "off"; tō "up"; þurh "through"; ūð "from"; wið "with," "against"; ymbe "around." These fourteen prepositions entered into structural fusion with verbs to produce combinations with a meaning usually different from the meaning of the verb element alone. A brief list is offered

to illustrate this point:

Verb		Preposition		Compound	Meaning
flēon	flee	be	from	beflēon	escape
niman	take	for	away	forniman	take away, destroy
cuman	come	ofer	over	ofercuman	overcome
sittan	sit	ofer	over	ofersittan	abstain from
ferian	lead, carry	of	off	offerian	carry off, steal.

These examples illustrate the basic principles of the compound verbs. First, the prepositional and verbal elements often lose their individual identity. Second, the compound is unlike its elements in meaning (cf. ofercuman, ofersittan). Third, the prepositional element renders an intransitive verb transitive (cf. ofersittan, beflean) and reinforces the transitivity of already transitive verbs (cf. offerian). These general principles are seen in Modern English, for example overtake, outrun, under-take, downgrade, forgive, uphold, etc. Thus, the Old English preposition plus verb combination still flourishes in Modern English.

This study is primarily concerned, however, with phrasal verbs or verbs consisting of a verb plus one or two particles. As indicated previously, this construction is unknown in Old English, but a translation of Old English into Modern English reveals the following fact: Modern English makes great use of phrasal verbs in order to translate many one-word, even one-syllable, Old English verbs that contain no prepositional elements.

A comparison of several translations corroborates the validity of the previous statement. When Old English verb glosses occurring in several translations are examined, certain patterns emerge. These patterns serve to establish further hypotheses concerning language change relative to the verb types.

Nine sources including a dictionary, a textual edition with glossary, six published translations, and the writer's previously composed personal translation were compared.[6] In the chart that follows, the earliest publication dates are listed to the left and the latest dates to the right. Two facts emerge from this comparison. First, many one-word Old English verbs are most easily translated by two words--verb plus particle--today. Second, the gradual trend toward the increased use of phrasal verbs is indicated by a chronological comparison of the data though this comparison could also indicate a personal style; thus the second observation is not nearly as significant as the first. However, one can readily see that a great change has occurred in verb structure in the period from Beowulf unto the present.

---

[6]Jno. Lesslie Hall, Beowulf: An Anglo Saxon Epic (Boston, 1892). Charles W. Kennedy, Beowulf: The Oldest English Epic (New York, 1953). Edward Morgan, Beowulf (Ashford, Kent, 1952). C. J. Wrenn, ed., Beowulf (London, 1953). William Ellery Leonard, Beowulf: A New Verse Translation (New York, 1923). Joseph Bosworth, An Anglo-Saxon Dictionary, ed. T. Northcott Toller (London, 1898). John R. Clark-Hall, Beowulf and the Finnesburg Fragment (London, 1950). Beowulf and The Finnsburg Fragment, ed. Fr. Klaeber, 3rd ed. (Boston, 1950). Theodore E. Kiffer, unpublished translation of Beowulf (1962).

	Beowulf	Klaeber	Hall	Leonard	Morgan
70	gefrūnon	learn,hear	heard of	heard of	known
82	bād	await, wait for	bided	waiting	awaited
98	hwyrfaδ	turn, go, move about	live	moveth	moves
109	gefeah	rejoice	in... rejoiced	got mirth	joyless
115	nēosian	seek out	set out to wait	seek	to see
124	hrēmig	exulting	laughing	faring	glutlusty

Table I

Kennedy	Wrenn	Clark-Hall	Bosworth	Kiffer
known	hear of	heard of	find out, hear of	hear of
holding its place	wait	awaited	abide, await	wait for
moves	move about	live and move	move about	move about
boast	rejoice	had joy	rejoice at	rejoice in
to spy	seek,go to	to find	search out, find out	seek out
gloating	triumphing	exulting in	exulting, boasting	exulting over

Kennedy traces the history of the compound verb (insep-
arable prefix) and the verb-adverb combination through various
major works such as <u>Ancrene Riwle</u>, <u>Owl and Nightingale</u>, <u>Dame
Sirið</u>, and <u>Havelok</u> and finds a proportion of incidence of compound
verb to verb-adverb ranging from four to one to eight to one.[7] In
the fourteenth century the Romanic compound verbs appear in
the language in increasing proportion over the native compounds,
and the verb-adverb type appears quite frequently. Kennedy's
philological investigation reveals that by Chaucer's time the verb-
adverb type occurs more often. In the fifteenth century, the
verb-adverb (as he calls it) increases rapidly. Commenting upon
this increase, Kennedy observes ". . . that the development of the
verb-adverb combination would have been much more rapid had it
not been weakened for some generations or even centuries by the
adoption into the English of numerous Romanic verbs with insepara-
ble prefixes which drove out the native compounds and for a time
made the newer combination unnecessary."[8] Kennedy observes that
the verb-adverb increases throughout the sixteenth and seventeenth
centuries but gives no figures to substantiate this observation.
What factors account for the rapid development of the phrasal verb
from Chaucer to Shakespeare, for example? This question is indeed

---

[7]Kennedy, p. 12.

[8]Kennedy, p. 13.

important. Kennedy found that Chaucer's work has but few phrasal verbs while two hundred years later Shakespeare's writing abounds in them. Obviously, translations from Romanic languages and Greek play a great role in the increased occurrence of phrasal verbs. In this area, some of Kennedy's observations must be brought into question.

Kennedy observes that "The conservatism of the translators of the Holy Scriptures has at all times tended to avoid any but the most literal of these combinations. And so in the revision of 1882, in Matthew I-XVI, I find only some twenty-two of these, a net increase of four over the King James Version."[9] Thus he declares that the Biblical translators were inclined to use the older Anglo-Saxon compounds where they could and tended to avoid the use of phrasal verbs. As evidence he cites sixteen chapters of one gospel. But as was pointed out earlier, certain writers prefer some structural devices to others, and one writer might favor phrasal verbs while another might consciously reject them.

For the present study, a random sampling of the verb types in the Authorized Version of 1611 was obtained by arbitrarily selecting the tenth chapter of the four gospels and comparing these "conservative" translations to the Greek. The results are quite revealing. The tenth chapter of Matthew (Authorized version)

---

[9] Kennedy, p. 15.

of 1611 contains sixteen clear-cut examples of phrasal verbs,[10] although Kennedy states that he found but eighteen in the first sixteen chapters of Matthew. Further, the tenth chapter of Mark contains twenty, the tenth chapter of Luke contains twenty-one, and the tenth chapter of John contains eleven.[11] Clearly, something must account for the discrepancy between Kennedy's count and that of the present study. Perhaps verbs were included in this count that he would not include, but the evidence supports my position.

Because Kennedy does not list the verbs he found in the first sixteen chapters of the Gospel of Matthew, nor give a concise definition of his verb-adverb type, a definition must be inferred from his data in order to ascertain that both investigations are dealing with similar constructions. In his monograph Kennedy enumerates various constructions to illustrate the verb-adverb combination. A sampling of the constructions follow: bear out "corroborate," come by "acquire," own up "confess," bake up "make a batch of," bottle up "enclose in a bottle," hang up, burn

---

[10]See following data sheets for these examples.

[11]Repetitions which are not considered in this count would make the evidence much higher. Some Greek constructions such as χεγω υμιν "I tell you" are not considered in all instances, although the Authorized Version often supplies a particle "unto" to convey the meaning of the Greek dative case, yielding "I say unto you," clearly a phrasal verb.

down, <u>cave in</u>, and <u>tack down</u> among others.[12] Included in this

relatively brief list are three basic constructions defined in

the Introduction to this study. Kennedy, however, considered

them to be structurally similar. <u>Own up</u> consists of V + Av, <u>come</u>

<u>by</u> consists of V + Pt, and the largest group <u>bear out</u>, <u>bake up</u>,

<u>bottle up</u>, <u>hang up</u>, <u>burn down</u>, <u>cave in</u>, and <u>tack down</u> consist of

$V + Pt_s$.

A more concise definition of Kennedy's **verb-adverb** com-

bination is found in his <u>Current English</u>, published fifteen years

after the monograph. Surely this definition reflects his position

regarding the combination:

> It is not always easy to distinguish between a verb modified
> by such an adverb, as in <u>stand up</u>, and a verb so closely
> combined with the adverb that the two words merge, or fuse,
> into a new and often quite different meaning from that of the
> modified verb, as in <u>bring round</u>, "resuscitate." Two tests
> can be helpfully applied: If the adverb gives to the verb
> a shade of meaning which it does not possess when used as
> a separate adverb, or if the combination of verb and adverb
> produces a meaning which can be translated by some other
> verb alone, then the adverbial use of the particle can be said
> to have largely disappeared. So in "<u>carry out</u> a plan," "<u>doze</u>
> <u>off</u>, "<u>dust up</u> a room," "<u>eat up</u> a cake," and "<u>line up</u> for
> tickets," the adverbial values of the separate particles
> <u>out</u>, <u>off</u>, and <u>up</u> do not stand out distinctly.[13]

The danger of attempting to formulate a definition on meaning alone

can be seen in the construction <u>stand up</u> in the above quote. Kennedy

clearly calls the <u>up</u> an adverb, but note that <u>stand up</u> can also be

---

[12]Kennedy, p. 9.

[13]Arthur G. Kennedy, <u>Current English</u> (Boston, 1935), p. 298.

one of his fused types, or combinations meaning "fail to appear for a date," in which instance <u>stand</u> <u>up</u> is a V + Pt$_s$.

Kennedy obviously feels that there is some difference in the verb constructions in the quote from <u>Current English</u>, or perhaps he instinctively refrained from placing object complements after <u>stand</u> <u>up</u>, <u>bring</u> <u>round</u>, <u>doze</u> <u>off</u>, and <u>line</u> <u>up</u> (which is followed by a prepositional phrase functioning as Av of Mod). Note that distributionally <u>stand</u> <u>up</u> (as he employs it), <u>doze</u> <u>off</u>, and <u>line</u> <u>up</u> are type V + Av, while <u>bring</u> <u>round</u>, <u>carry</u> <u>out</u>, <u>dust</u> <u>up</u>, and <u>eat</u> <u>up</u> are type V + Pt$_s$.

The above statements assure the present investigator that both he and Kennedy were looking for the same constructions in the Gospel of St. Matthew. The inclusion of the V + Av by Kennedy made the possible scope of his study even broader than that of the present study.

Knowing the tremendous influence that the Scriptures have had upon the development of language, the writer decided to investigate the various verb constructions in different English translations of the Bible. This was designed to uncover the possible emergence of new verb forms in English. Using the comparative method, the writer employed the Greek text,[14] an Anglo-

---

[14]<u>The</u> <u>Englishman's</u> <u>Greek</u> <u>New</u> <u>Testament</u>, 3rd ed. (London, 1896).

Saxon version,[15] and the six most important English translations.[16]
See the following data sheets (Tables II-V) for the comparative
study.

Many observations can be made from these data, but only
those pertinent to this study will be discussed.

First, most of the Greek verbs are one word consisting of
a prefix (προ, εκ ∿ εχ ∿εξ ειο, επ) plus a stem plus an inflec-
tional suffix. In Greek, like English, the prefixes are deriva-
tional affixes having homophonous prepositional counterparts.
Not all the verbs have these prefixes, for some verbs consist of
a root verb only.

Second, many of the Anglo-Saxon verb forms preserve the
affix-stem order of the Greek forms. For example consider

    Matthew 12   ειο ερχουενοι   and <u>in</u>-gan

    Matthew 14   εχ ερχουενοι   and <u>ut</u>-gan

where an exact correspondence is seen.

Third, although the Anglo-Saxon verb corresponds to the
Greek verb rather closely (one word translates one word), by the

---

[15]Đa Halgan Godspel on Englisc: the Anglo-Saxon Version
of the Holy Gospels, ed. Benjamin Thorpe, reprinted by Louis F.
Klipstein, 2nd ed. (New York, 1848).

[16]The English Hexapla Exhibiting the Six Important Trans-
lations of the New Testament Scriptures, Wyclif MCCCLXXX, Tyndale
MDXXXIV, Cranmer MDXXXIX, Genevan MDLVII, Anglo-Rhemish MDLXXXII,
Authorized MDCXI and the Original Greek Text after Scholz (London,
n.d.).

	Greek	Anglo-Saxon	Wyclif 1380	Tyndale 1534
1	προσκαλεσαμενοσ	gecigedum	clepid togidre	called unto
2	εκβαλλειν	adrifon ut	cast out	cast oute
5	απεστειλεν	sende	sente	sent
5	εισ απελθητε	fare on	go in to	go in to
5	εισελθητε	ga innan	entre in to	in to enter
8	εκβαλλετε	drifað ut	cast out	caste oute
12	εισερχομενοι	in-gan	goen in	come in
14	εχερχομενοι	ut-gan	go fro	departe oute
15	λεγω υμιν	secge	seie to	say unto
16	απεστελλω	sende	sende	sende forthe
17	προσεχετε απο	warniað	be ware of	beware of
17	παραδωσουσιν	syllað	take in	deliver up
19	παραδιδωσιν	syllað	taken	delyver up
21	παραδωσει	sylð	take in	delyver up
21	επαναστησονται	arisað	rise	aryse
23	τεχεσητε	befarað	ende	fynysshe

* The numerals refer to the verse numbers.

Table II

Matthew 10

	Cranmer 1539	Geneva 1557	Rheims R1582	Authorized 1611
unto	called unto	called	called together	called unto
te	cast out	cast out	cast out	cast out
	sent forth	send	send	send forth
to	go into	go into	into go	go into
enter	into enter	into enter	into enter	into enter
ute	cast out	cast out	cast out	cast out
	come into	come into	enter into	come into
oute	departe oute	departe oute	go forth out	depart out of
to	saye unto	say unto	say to	say unto
orthe	send forth	send	send	send forth
of	be ware of	beware of	take heed of	beware of
up	delyver up	deliver up	deliver up	deliver up
up	delyver up	deliver up	deliver up	deliver up
up	deliver up	betray	deliver up	deliver up
	aryse	arise	rise up	rise up against
e	go thorow	finish	finish	have gone over

Table II

Mark 1(

	Greek	Anglo-Saxon[+]	Wyclif 1380	Tyndale 1535
1	αναστασ	----	rose up	rose
1	συμπορευονται	comon	com togidre	resorted unto
2	απολσαι	forlaetan	leve	put awaye
3	ειπεν αυτοισ	----	seide to	sayd unto
7	ληθησεται προσ	geþeot	drawe to	bide by
14	ερχεσθαι προσ	saede	seide to	sayd to
17	εκπορευομενου	eode	gon out in	come in to
17	γονυπετησασ	gebigedum cneowe	knelid bifor	kneled to
21	αρασ	----	----	take up
23	περιβλεψαμενοσ	----	biheeld aboute	loked rounde about
24	πεποιθοτασ	getruwiaδ	tristen in	trust in
27	ευβλεψασ	beheold	biheelde	loked upon
32	προ αγων	beforan eode	wente bifor	went before
33	παρα δωθησεται	geseald	bitraied to	delyvered unto
35	προσπορευονται	genealaehton	camen to	came unto
42	αρχειν	habbath ealdorscipe	have princehood of	bear rule among
47	κραχειν	clypian	crie	crye
48	ελεησον	gemiltsa	have mercy on	have mercy on
50	αποβαλων	awearp	castid aweie	threwe away

e III

·k 10

Cranmer 1539	Geneva 1557	Rheims 1582	Authorized 1611
rose	arose	rising up	rose
resorted unto	resorted unto	assemble unto	resort unto
put awaye	put away	dismisse	put away
sayd unto	sayd unto	said to	Said unto
byde by	cleave to	cleave to	cleave to
sayd unto	sayd to	said to	said unto
gone forth unto	gone out toward	gone forth in	gone forth into
kneled to	kneled to	kneeling before	kneeled to
take up	take up	----	take up
looked round aboute	looked round about	looking about	looked round about
trust in	trust in	trust in	trust in
loked upon	loked upon	beholding	looking upon
went before	went before	went before	went before
delyvered unto	delivered unto	betrayed to	delivered unto
came unto	came unto	came to	come unto
beare rule among	bear rule among	rule over	rule over
crye	cry	crie	cry out
have mercy on	have mercie on	have mercie on	have mercy on
threwe away	threwe away	casting of	casting away

Table I

Luke 1

	Greek	Anglo-Saxon	Wyclif 1380	Tyndale 1534
2	ελεγεν προσ	cwaeð to	seide to	sayde to
2	εκβαλλη	sende	sende in	send forth
3	αποστελλω	sende	sende	send forthe
5	εισερχησθε	in-gað	in to entren	into enter
8	παρατιθεμενα	to-foran aset	sette to	set before
10	εξελθοντεσ	gað on	go out	goo out
11	απομασσομεθα	drigeað	wipen of	wipe of
12	λεγω υμιν	secge	seie to	saye unto
15	υψωθεισα	up-ahafen	enhauncid	exalted
15	καταβιβασθηση	be senced	drenchid	thrust doune
17	υποτασσεται	underþeodde	suget to	subdued to
22	παραδοθη	gesealde	ȝouun	geven
30	περιεπεσεν	becom on	filde among	fell in to
31	αντιπαρηλθεν	forbeah	passid forth	passed by
34	προσελθων	genealaehte	cam to	went to
34	καταδησεν	wra ð	bounde togidre	bounde up
34	επιχεων	on-ageat	heeld ynne	poured in
34	επεμελnθη	gelacnode	dide the cure of	made for
39	παρακαθισασα	saet	sat bisidis	sate at
40	περισπατο	þenode	bisied aboute	combred about
41	τυρβαζη περι	ymbe gedrefed	troubled about	troubled about

ble IV

uke 10

Cranmer 1539	Geneva 1557	Rheims 1582	Authorized 1611
sayde unto	sayd unto	said to	said unto
sende forth	send forth	send into	send forth
send forth	send forth	send	send forth
into enter	into enter	into enter	into enter
set before	set before	set before	set before
go out	go out	going forth	go out
wype of	wipe of	wipe of	wipe off
saye unto	say to	say to	say unto
exalted	exalted	exalted	exalted
thrust downe	thrust downe	thrust downe	thrust down
subdued to	subdued to	subject to	subject unto
geven	geven	delivered to	delivered to
fell among	fel into	fel among	fell among
passed by	passed by	passed by	passed by
went to	went out	going unto	went to
bounde up	bounde up	bound	bound up
poured in	powred in	powring in	pouring in
made for	made for	took care of	took care of
sate at	sate at	sitting at	sat at
combred about	combred about	was busy about	cumbered about
troubled about	troubled about	troubled about	troubled about

Table V

John 10

Greek	Anglo-Saxon	Wyclif 1380	Tyndale 1534
1 εισερχομενοσ	gaeð	cometh ynne	entreth in
3 εξαγει	laet ut	ledith out	leadeth out
4 εκβαλη	laet ut	don out	sent forthe
5 φεμξονται	fleoð fram	fleen fro	flye from
6 ειπεν	saede	seide to	spake unto
8 προ ηλθον	comon	han comen	came before
15 τιθημι	sylle	putte	geve
24 εκακλωσαν	bestonden utan	camen aboute	come round aboute
28 διδωμι	sylle	ʒeve to	geve unto
31 εβαστασαν	namon	token up	toke up
39 εξηλθεν	eode ut	went out of	escaped out of

Table V

John 10

ale 34	Cranmer 1539	Geneva 1557	Rheims 1582	Authorized 1611
in	entreth in	entreth in	entreth into	enters into
out	leadeth out	leadeth out	leadeth forth	leadeth out
rthe	sent forth	sent forth	let forth	putteth forth
om	flye from	flye from	flee from	flee from
nto	spake unto	spake unto	said to	spake unto
fore	came before	came before	come	come before
	geve	geve	yeld	lay down
und aboute	cam rounde aboute	came rounde aboute	compassed round about	come round about
to	geve unto	geve unto	give	give unto
	toke up	toke up	tooke up	took up
out of	escaped out of	escaped out of	went forth out of	escaped out of

time of Wyclif's translation in 1380, a tremendous change occurs

in verb structure with two words and sometimes three words used

to translate one Greek or Anglo-Saxon verb form. By this time

the phrasal verb had emerged.

Fourth, the incidence of increase of the phrasal verb

continues until the Authorized version of 1611 when all but two

of the sixty-eight verbs cited are expressed by phrasal verbs.

Obviously the Biblical translators were not as "con-

servative" as Kennedy labeled them, nor did they "tend to avoid

any but the most literal of these combinations."[17] Consider an

example from the fifteenth chapter of Luke where in the scope of

four verses (17-20) we find the expression "came to" used as

follows:

Luke 15:17 . . . And when he <u>came to</u> himself

Luke 15:20 . . . And he arose and <u>came to</u> his father.

The first meaning is idiomatic, the other is literal. Consider

the four forms below:

<u>Greek</u>		<u>Anglo-Saxon</u>	<u>Wyclif</u>	<u>Authorized</u>
ει σ εαυτον	ελθων	beþohte he hine	turned again into himself	came to
ελθε προσ		cōm to	came to	came to

Note that Anglo-Saxon used no phrasal verb, thus a different

verb form is substituted for the Greek in the first example.

_____

[17]Kennedy, <u>Verb-Adverb Combination</u>, p. 14.

while the πρoσ or <u>to</u> in the second example is clearly an adverb
of place. But Wyclif's exact translation of the first example
is replaced by the phrasal verb form seen in the Authorized Ver-
sion and heard often today as "came to his senses" or merely "come
to" with a variety of meanings, especially "regained consciousness."

It is suggested that the Biblical translators were not
conservatives holding the line against innovations, but were
instead realistic men who attempted to translate Greek texts
into an English "Koine" or common language. To do so they had
to find a practical method of translating the idea of a Greek verb
into English. The phrasal verb with particle following the verb
stem and any inflections provided the device; for the phrasal
verb had been in widespread use for some time, both in the
speech of the people and in practically all phases of literature
as the following chapter will illustrate. Once written into the
Scriptures, these forms rapidly increased because the Scriptures
both set a standard for the language and provided a source book
for literature. The phrasal verb has continued to influence the
language unto the present day.

Not all the verbs follow this pattern; there are obvious
exceptions. Note John 10:11 and John 10:15 where the same verb
stem τιθη meaning "give" is translated as follows:

	Greek	Anglo-Saxon	Wyclif	Authorized
11	τιθησιν	sylð	ȝeveth	giveth
15	τιθημι	sylle	putte	lay down

The person and number of the verb in verse 11 is the third person
singular and in verse 15 is first person singular thus accounting
for the different inflectional endings, but the choice of the gloss
"lay down" is a purely arbitrary, yet indicative choice; for the
other versions all list "give" and "geveth." Therefore, by 1611,
the practice of employing phrasal verbs to indicate actions that
could be expressed by one word was firmly entrenched in the
language, and prescriptivism or conservatism had little influence
upon the version or the Scripture.

Once found in the scriptures, the phrasal verb type
would appear more readily in other writings and in turn would tend
to reproduce itself in the language.

Konishi observes very briefly that the emergence of
the phrasal verb is ". . . a fine example of the emergence of
analytic tendency, for the adverb-verb combination like 'over
came' came to life usually expressing a distinct and independent
meaning from the compound verbs like 'overcome' which was prevailing
in that period."[18] Languages fit basically one of two categories;
synthetic or analytic. A synthetic language is a highly inflected

---

[18]Konishi, p. 117.

language, depending upon inflectional affixes or "endings" for grammatical value. Word order in the utterance is relatively unimportant, for the endings identify the grammatical function of the words. An analytical language, on the other hand, has few inflectional affixes or endings and depends largely upon word order in the utterance for meaning. Modern English is an analytical language, but Old English was a highly synthetic language. Modern English depends upon word order, but Old English depended upon inflectional endings, not order, for meaning. The definite article <u>the</u> had ten forms: se, þone, þaes, þaem, þy, þaet, seo, þa, þara, and þaere depending upon the gender, case, and number of the noun with which the article was associated. Nouns, too, had many inflectional endings depending upon the gender, case, number, and type (four regular types and one catch-all irregular) of the noun. The possible noun endings were -es, -e, -as, -a, -um, -u, -an, and -era. Thus an article agreed with its noun and furnished further signals as to the grammatical status of the noun. Today <u>the</u> serves to mark a noun because English is an analytic language. Adjective endings agreed with noun endings and served as a further means of identifying grammatical categories. Adjective endings in Old English were -ne, -es, -um, -e, -ra, -u, -re, -a, and -an. Verbs, too, had many endings governed by person, number, tense, and mood with the possibilities represented by the following: -an, -ende, -e, -est, -d, -ad, -de, -dest,

-don, -de, -den, and prefix ge-. These endings are quite complex when compared to the modern verb endings of -s, -ed, and -ing.[19]

As word order became more fixed and more significant in English, the inflectional endings began to disappear, and the prefixed prepositional suffixes in compound verbs were emancipated to move into new positions and become particles rather than prefixes. Thus the phrasal verb developed in English while the synthetic aspects of the language were waning and the analytic tendencies were increasing. Then, too, the need to translate Romanic languages, and especially the Latin and Greek used in the Scriptures, into the vernacular gave impetus to the development of the phrasal verb--a device used to convey shades of meaning not permitted by a prefixed preposition.

Konishi suggests that the development of the phrasal verb followed the following scheme:

outgo (I) → out go (II) → go out (III).[20]

He then states that type (I) fell from usage and that type (II) merged with type (III) to produce the Modern English form. Even

_____

[19]A more precise view of Old English inflections can be gained from Randolph Quirk and C. L. Wrenn, An Old English Grammar (London, 1957).

[20]Konishi, p. 117.

in his chart, type (II) is relatively short lived.[21] As has been
pointed out earlier in this chapter, the type (I) is still much
in evidence in Modern English and appears in forms like <u>downgrade</u>,
<u>uplift</u>, <u>infix</u>, <u>overcome</u>, <u>withstand</u>, <u>upchuck</u>, etc. It has been
suggested that type (II) is not really a type at all, but is
merely a result of scribal spacing in the manuscripts. Type
(III), as his chart suggests (though I would place its inception
within the Middle English period), is the phrasal verb type as it
exists today. Finally, Konishi's choice of <u>go</u> <u>out</u> as an example
is most unfortunate, for <u>go</u> <u>out</u> is a V + Av structure of modifica-
tion and is <u>not</u> a phrasal verb (or verb-adverb combination as he
calls the type though he does use the term phrasal verb occasionally.)

Thus, in the synthetic period, the particle was prefixed
to the verb stem (valid example of the <u>pre</u>position) in order to
permit the affixing of inflectional suffixes. With the develop-
ment of the analytic aspects of the language, the particle was
moved about in the utterance and placed wherever emphasis and word
order could best employ it.

21

OE	ME	Mod. E.
TYPE I TYPE II TYPE III		

Otto Jesperson, the noted Danish philologist, observed that English was a masculine language--vigorous, energetic, and reflecting the very nature of the people who spoke it. He suggests that the changes in a language are brought about by the people who speak the language. Perhaps a quote from Jespersen including a brief verse from Tennyson can best illustrate this point:

> The English language is a methodical, energetic, business-like and sober language, that does not care much for finery and elegance, but does care for logical consistency and is opposed to any attempt to narrow in life by police regulations and strict roles either of grammar or of lexicon. As the language is, so also is the nation,
> For words, like Nature, half reveal
> And half conceal the soul within.
> Tennyson[22]

---

[22]Otto Jespersen, Growth and Structure of the English Language, 9th ed. (New York, 1938), p. 17.

CHAPTER III

GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF PHRASAL VERBS
AS DISCOVERED THROUGH AN ANALYSIS OF
THE LITERATURE 710 A.D. TO 1660 A.D.

The next step in the diachronic study of the phrasal verb
treats the incidence of this particular form in recorded usages
throughout the centuries from the early Old English period to the
Modern Era. Naturally, the major literary productions provide
the most likely area of investigation except for the fact that
professional writers are more bound by conventions of style than
given to spontaneity of language. Then, too, both Kennedy and
Konishi have investigated some of the major literary productions
of this period and have drawn some conclusions from the data.
Their conclusions are open to question, however, as has been
pointed out previously. Both have stressed the conservatism of
the Biblical translators in their alleged avoidance of any
figurative usage of phrasal verb constructions. Yet one can easily
find such examples as lay down for "give," came to for "senses
regained," fell among for "was taken by," delivered to for "give,"
bring forth for "deliver or bear," and lift up the eyes for "look."
Such constructions are highly figurative; in fact the "conserva-
tive" translations are not deliberately conservative, they are
merely literal.

Kennedy and Konishi do list some occurrences of phrasal
verbs (verb-adverb combinations) and chart incidences of certain

verbs of this type as compared to the older compounds and Romanic
innovations (Kennedy provided the data and Konishi made the charts).

One might count all the verbs of major literary works from
the beginnings to the present and indicate exact percentages of
occurrence from the data, but this study is primarily concerned
with verb types and their use. To this end random samplings were
made showing occurrences of phrasal verbs as they became more
typical of the language.

The incidence of phrasal verbs occurring in five thousand
word samplings was counted from various sources extending from
c. 710 A.D. to 1660. Such a sampling provides valid data for
determining the rate of increase of incidence of phrasal verbs
because the verb is the most constant element required for a
sentence. The subject of a sentence can be a noun, a noun phrase,
a verbal phrase, a clause, etc., but the predicate of a sentence
must contain a verb. In short, the V of VP is much more constant
than the N of NP in the formula S → NP + VP. Despite different
styles, a corpus of five thousand words contains a sufficient number
of verbs on which to base conclusions and formulate an index of
occurrence. These data could be arranged in a graph so as to pro-
vide immediate observation of the incidence of these verbs.

Both Konishi and Kennedy use isolated instances, often
referring to the Oxford English Dictionary, but the present method
provides a view--not of isolated instances--but of the actual

growth and development of the phrasal verb in English. One should expect that some segments of the time period investigated would provide more fertile soil and a better climate for these verbs to develop in.

A graph based on twenty or twenty-five year intervals would be more desirable, but major literary productions did not appear so regularly, thus one must make some adjustment. Random selections were made of texts in order to give an unbiased view of the literature involved. Sometimes a major work has been omitted in order to maintain the chronological balance with the result that, except for the first couple of centuries, only two or three major works have been considered per century.

The first major work considered, Beowulf c. 710 A.D.,[1] shows that no phrasal verbs were employed in the language at that time. From this point on several smaller poems were examined with the following results. The Wanderer[2] and The Seafarer,[3] both dated c. 750, yield no phrasal verbs, but like Beowulf do contain verbs

---

[1] Beowulf and the Finnesburg Fragment, ed. Fr. Klaeber, 3rd ed. (Boston, 1950).

[2] The Wanderer, in Medieval English, ed. Rolf Kaiser, 3rd ed. (West Berlin, 1961), pp. 83-85. Many of the following shorter pieces are taken from this anthology which will be referred to hereafter as Kaiser.

[3] Kaiser, pp. 85-87.

that are best translated into Modern English by phrasal verbs.
Examples of this type are geonhweorfeð "pass through,"
geondscēawað "look upon," geondþence "think on or reflect on."
Note the prefix geond, a favorite construction of the poet.

The next work considered is the English translation of
Bede, Historia Ecclesiastica Gentis Anglorum which was translated
by order of King Alfred c. 850 A.D.[4] Because of the inclusion of
many non-English constructions, especially in the earlier sections
which seem to be almost literal translations of the Latin, one does
not expect to find many non-Latin derivatives. The only construc-
tions found that resemble phrasal verbs are two instances of com
upp, once in this order and once as upp com. The context, however,
reveals that in both instances an individual had landed on an
island where he had to climb up the shore. Thus upp is best con-
sidered an adverb of place.

The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle is the next logical point of
investigation, since it covers the period from 443 A.D. to 1154
A.D. and gives an accurate indication of usage changes through-
out the period. The first entries were made as random accounts
by monks, but Alfred is generally credited with the plan of sys-
tematically recording the events of national importance. Kaiser
arbitrarily divides the Chronicle into two sections: I, which

---

[4]Kaiser, pp. 37-45.

covers the period from the beginnings to 1035, and <u>II</u>, which covers

the period 1036-1154. His divisions were maintained to indicate

significant differences in verb constructions in the two periods

under consideration. Some interesting constructions are found in

The <u>Anglo-Saxon</u> <u>Chronicle</u> <u>I</u>.[5] In the entry for 1016 A.D., is found

the first example of a phrasal verb, <u>wende</u> <u>after</u> "follow." This

example might be a bit premature, for the two elements--literally

"go after"--could mean just that, but since <u>folgian</u> also meant

"follow," here is seen the beginning of the phrasal verb in English--

one development of the analytic tendency. Other verb construc-

tions in this same passage, especially constructions containing

<u>up</u> or <u>upp</u>, show a tendency toward an analytic trend. One such,

<u>ridon . . . up</u>, could mean arrive, but again, the geographic loca-

tion--Reading on the Thames above London--seems to justify an

adverbial function for <u>up</u>. <u>Up</u> appears, however, in combination with

verbs in increasing numbers; yet at the same time verbs of the

type <u>abraecon</u> "break up" and <u>utforon</u> "go out" both appear. Thus,

the language is seen in a state of flux or change, and in this

period of change, the first phrasal verb appears.

    In order to keep the chronology fairly tight, verb construc-

tions were next analyzed in two poems, <u>Brunanburh</u> dated 937 A.D.,[6]

---

[5]Kaiser, pp. 17-26.

[6]Kaiser, pp. 134-136.

and <u>Maldon</u> dated 991 A.D.[7] Of course, the latest entries for <u>The</u>
<u>Anglo-Saxon</u> <u>Chronicle</u> <u>I</u> follow the dates for these two poems by
several years; but since the bulk of the <u>Chronicle</u> <u>I</u> preceded
the poems, little disruption should occur. One would expect on
the basis of the study thus far that no phrasal verbs would be
found in these poems and none are found.

Aelfric (c. 955-c. 1022), the most prolific prose writer
of the Old English period furnished the next body of materials
evaluated. Portions of his <u>Grammar</u>, his <u>Colloquium</u>, his <u>De</u>
<u>Temporibus</u> <u>Anni</u>, and his <u>Homilies and Legends</u> contained in Kaiser
give a good cross section of his verb constructions and also
supply a corpus of five thousand words--a representative sampling--
from the period represented by the year 1000.[8] The results
are encouraging and show three examples of phrasal verbs:

G32 drifð ut   expell or produce

C27 stande ofer   guard

TA30 aberst ut   break out.[9]

Each of these verbs shows characteristics that mark the development
of the phrasal verb in English. The first, <u>drifð</u> <u>ut</u>, literally

---

[7]Kaiser, pp. 136-141.

[8]Kaiser, pp. 145-155.

[9]The numbers preceding the Old English entries indicate the
line number in Kaiser. The letters indicate the sources cited above.
Hereafter, numbers preceding entries will signify line numbers.

"drives out" is used in conjunction with speech. The mouth literally "drives out" or "expells" the speech sounds, but the gloss "produces"ᵃ can well be used here too. The literal meaning and the non-literal or new meaning can both be applied to the construction. Thus drifð ut is a good example of the analytic tendency at work and shows a different construction from the older utdrifan. Stande ofer, literally "stand above" is a good example of the phrasal verb meaning "to guard." Etymologically, guards did stand in towers above the guarded ones; but here the shepherd, with his hounds is guarding his sheep from wolves. Aberst ut reveals one further aspect of the development of the phrasal verb as seen in the redundancy of a and ut. Here in one verb are seen both the older synthetic aspects of the language and the newer analytic tendencies. In due process of time, the initial a was lost and the ut remained.

The next subject of analysis was the second section of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle from the manuscript Cotton Tiberius B IV, dated by Kaiser at 1079 A.D. and the manuscript Laud 636 dated 1154.[10] The line indicates the manuscript change in the data. This section provides a satisfactory chronological continuation of the investigation. Anglo-Saxon Chronicle II provides slightly more than five thousand words for analysis and reveals a tremendous increase in the incidence of phrasal verbs as follows:

---

[10]Kaiser, pp. 167-175.

| 46 | adraf . . . ut | drove out, expelled |
| 82 | for upp | advanced |

. . . .

184	hergode uppon	made war upon
207	embe specað	speak about
235	rixade ofer	ruled
294	up-aras	arose
381	iafen up	surrendered
391	henged up	hung
405	laeiden on	levied
411	flugen ut	fled
427	stael ut	escape
441	stali . . . ut	escaped
449	cumen ut	leave
452	stal ut	escaped

Several principles are seen in these data, not the least of which is the great increase in these verbs from the first part of the Chronicle to the last part. The incidence rate increases almost 500%. The outstanding feature in these data is the occurrence of non-literal meanings. Clearly upp in for upp does not have adverbial meaning (the first such example encountered), but yields a meaning of "to" or "toward," and follows rather than precedes the verb. Embe specað is significant in that an older form ymbesprecan occurs in a new shape. A third change will subsequently place the

particle element after the verb.   In short:

ymbesprecan > embe specaδ > speak about.

The aboüt cannot be considered a preposition or adverb but is a functional particle that enables an erstwhile intransitive verb to become transitive.   (This aspect of the phrasal verb will be discussed later.)

Embe specaδ is clearly Konishi's type (II) verb, but his position must be questioned: "It became quite clear now that the type (II) is not a continuance of the type (I), but started from the quite new principle--the analytic principle of the English language."[11] The above data clearly shows that the phrasal verb of this type did develop from the older type.   The analytic principle is clearly seen here, but the analytic principle i· working on the elements already found in the language.

Stael ut and stali . . . ut give evidence for the first time of the optional separation of the two elements of the phrasal verb-- a characteristic that still is found in certain of these constructions.

A large gap appears in the chronology roughly from 1079 A.D. to 1154 A.D.   The reasons for this gap appear to be two-fold.   First, English was feeling the effect of the Norman invasion (much was being written in Norman French or Latin), with the result that little

---

[11]Konishi, p. 118.

native English writing is found in this period. Second, the writer

of The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle pictures the early part of the twelfth

century as a time of war, desolation, poverty, and turmoil--

especially during the reign of King Stephen. The coming of the

French to England did pave the way for an increase in literary out-

put once the smoke had cleared away. New ideas, new fables, new

stories, and a new spirit of lightness, contrasted with the sombre

Anglo-Saxon period, gave a tremendous impetus to English literature.

One of the best efforts is The Owl and The Nightingale (c. 1200),[12]

a controversial dialogue based on the French "debat." This piece,

however, yielded but few phrasal verbs as follow:

121	werp . . . up	expel
125	warp . . . of	threw from
485	þenche of	think about
731	arise up	arise

Nothing especially new is seen in these examples, but one might note

the redundancy in the last example in which a and up mean the same

thing.

The next work analyzed was the Ancrene Riwle (c. 1240),[13] a

---

[12]The Owl and the Nightingale, ed. J. H. G. Grattan and G. F. H. Sykes, Early English Text Society 119 (London, 1935), pp. 1-25.

[13]The English Text of the Ancrene Riwle, ed. from Gonville and Caius College MS 234/120, ed. R. M. Wilson, Early English Text Society 229 (London, 1954), pp. 1-15.

treatise upon the spiritual life. The text employed is interspersed quite often with Latin quotations, and in some places is a commentary upon the Latin. Thus, few phrasal verbs were anticipated, and few phrasal verbs appeared. Those that did appear, however, show some measure of invention and a tendency toward the modern type of phrasal verb.

p. 2, 1. 12[14]	puffe uppen	puff up
p. 3, 1. 31	ibrocht forð	showed
p. 4, 1. 25	iwarpen away	die
p. 6, 1. 31	hacked off	cut off
p. 7, 1. 13	gon bi foren	precede
p. 12,1. 33	lad forð	led
p. 13,1. 29	shuued . . . up	confessed

Of special interest are puffe uppen, hacked of, and shuued. . . ut. The first two remain in the language and are separable from the verb. In other words, the object can intervene between the verb and the particle in the modern form. But note shuued . . . ut. Here the two elements are separated by the object, and shuued ut with the meaning "confess" or literally "show out" or "tell out" is a fine early example of the separable phrasal verb.

The first text considered from the fourteenth century is

---

[14]Because the line numbers started anew on each page, I had to indicate both page and line.

Handlyng Synne (1303),[15] the translation of the French "Manuel de Pecches." This text was found to be especially abundant in phrasal verbs. The fact that the edition used contains the English text in one column and the French text in another column makes it especially easy to compare the verb forms and ascertain that the English verb is a uniquely English verb and not a mere literal translation. The following verbs give some idea of the wealth of invention in this text:

151	beþenk . . . on	consider
176	ȝede from	left
178	cam yn	entered, came in
277	have of	receive
379	believe yn	trust, believe in
399	came þurgh	are caused by
420	rede yn	read in
497	trowst yn	trust in
522	ros up	arose
567	aȝen went	broken
818	puttyn up	change

Curiously enough, some of these verbs are best translated by modern phrasal verbs that have no one-word counterpart. Come þurgh, rede

---

[15]Robert of Brunne, Handlyng Synne, ed. Frederick J. Furnivall, Early English Text Society 119/123 (London, 1901), pp. 1-30.

yn, and <u>trowst</u> <u>yn</u> are examples of this type. The <u>yn</u> in <u>trowst</u> <u>yn</u> is really a perfective or completing particle, hence the meaning is not "trust" alone, but "trust in." <u>Beþenk</u> . . . <u>on</u> is another possible member of this group except that "consider" has now largely replaced the older, Biblical form "think on."

Because the last several works analyzed were prose texts, a poetical text, the fascinating <u>Athelstone</u> (c. 1350),[16] was selected next. It proved to be most fruitful. Many phrasal verbs follow:

3	bryng . . . out of	forgive
50	cowde off	knew
65	gat upon	fathered
90	speke wið	talk to
129	wente forþ	departed
154	up rauȝte	lifted
240	afftyr . . . sent	called
298	callyd upon	called
372	wendes before	lead
397	þynk upon	consider
459	lay down	drop
489	brynge upon	bring to
511	reft off	taken
525	drawe down	ruin

---

[16]<u>Athelstone</u>, ed. A McI. Traunce, Early English Text Society 224 (London, 1957), pp. 67-92.

594   doun . . . felle   kneeled

By observing these data, one is struck by something mentioned before--
the wealth of invention permitted or even called forth by the ana-
lytic trend of the language. Note especially the new meanings
assigned to the two elements in combination. Observe too the func-
tion of the particle in such constructions as <u>speke wiþ</u>. (The
particle expresses a grammatical function once inherent in the
dative case), <u>callyd</u> <u>ypon</u> (the particle here functions as a basic
part of the verb and differentiates the verb from <u>called</u>), and
<u>brynge upon</u> (<u>upon</u> is not merely a locater with the function of
locating a noun, but is really a part of the verb, and gives the
total verb <u>brynge upon</u> a far different meaning from <u>bring</u> alone).

At this point in time, the phrasal verb appears to be quite
well established in the language and continues to be a definite
grammatical factor.

Since Wyclif's translation of the Bible (1384) had been
analyzed in a previous chapter, his work, though important, was not
incorporated again into this study. As a check on the method and
to ascertain if a relatively constant rate of employment of phrasal
verbs could be observed, two major works from the same period but
from two different genres were analyzed next. The two are <u>Sir</u>
<u>Gawain and the Green Knight</u> (c. 1390),[17] a verse romance, and portions

---

[17]<u>Sir Gawain and the Green Knight</u>, ed. Sir Israel Gollancz,
Early English Text Society 210 (London, 1957), pp. 1-25.

of William Langland, The Vision of William Concerning Piers the
Plowman (using parts of the B-text c. 1377 and parts of the C-text
c. 1393),[18] a religious mystical allegory. Obviously, any sampling
carries inherently the possibility of chance, but the results of
this comparison and analysis are quite significant. For in equal
sections of five thousand words are found fourteen phrasal verbs in
Sir Gawain and sixteen in Piers Plowman. Both of these texts contain
unique constructions, but first consider the data from Sir Gawain:

12	lyftes up	built
72	wenten to	took
223	over loked	inspected
229	reled up and down	moved
304	reled about	moved
314	over-walt	overturned
367	up rose	arose
369	lyfte up	raised
433	lyfte . . . up	raised
446	lyfte up	raised
476	glent upon	glanced at
477	heng up	hang up
505	up-lyften	raised
671	stroke out	sparked

---

[18]Kaiser, pp. 305-316.

Note first the various positions in this brief sample of the elements lyfte and up. All three combinations lyfte up, lyfte . . . up, and up lyfté are found. The separable particle in lyfte . . . up is a a relatively new development in English while the particle initial combination is a feature of Old English. Thus the poet of the Cotton Nero MS was one who exploited the available grammatical resources.[19] One feels that the occurrence of the older forms over loked and up rose in conjunction with the newer forms shows that here indeed was a writer who was aware of the structural change occurring in the language.

The examples from Piers Plowman are as follows:

6	cam by	received
35	lyve on	am supported by
65	putten . . . to	used
93	went forth	went
114	brouȝte forth	produced
271	babeled on	said
342	cast of	removed
347	risen up	arose
376	coughed up	vomited
383	waked . . . of	awoke

---

[19]Cotton Nero is the name assigned to the manuscript containing the four alliterative poems: The Pearl, Cleanness or Purity, Patience, and Sir Gawayne and the Green Knight. All are conjectured to be by the same author.

394	girt . . . up	seized
426	þynke þereon	consider
512	digged up	spaded
516	piked up	gathered
552	flapten on	beat
595	putte adoune	overcame

That William Langland was aware of the possibilities of the phrasal verb as a device for punning is clearly seen in line 35 in which the poet says:

And ich lyve in Londone and on Londone bothe,

for the verb lyve + preposition in indicates that in Londone is a prepositional phrase functioning as an adverb of place and live . . . on London, the same base verb + particle on renders the meaning "make my living there." This is the first example thus far of the same base plus particle and preposition employed to give two meanings. This type of pun is still very evident in the language today. Note also the various functions of up in risen up, coughed up, girt up, digged up, and piked up. Thus up is seen to have the traits that mark this particle as one of the most productive in verb combinations today.

Most significant, however, is the fact that selections of similar size (five thousand words) from two distinctly separate genres contain almost the same ratio of phrasal verbs. Clearly the phrasal verb was a characteristic feature of the language at this time.

No analysis of the literature of the last half of the fourteenth

century would be complete without a consideration of the works of

Geoffrey Chaucer, the individual primarily responsible for the

establishment of West Midland dialect as the prestige dialect of

England, the direct ancestor of Modern English. In Chaucer, however,

one discovers that few phrasal verbs are found and that the French

influence upon the language is strongly felt. As Konishi has observed,

"The inrush of Romanic verbs had been strong enough to check the

growth of phrasal verbs, indeed, but at the same time I must add

that it had been strong enough to drive out the native compounds

which stood firm in the way of the combination."[20] Konishi rightly

observes that this principle of Romanic verbs driving out English

forms is seen in the fourteenth century, but the principle is seen

at work only in Chaucer. Surely the evidence cited above from Sir

Gawain and Piers Plowman indicates that contemporaries of Chaucer did

not hesitate to employ and even invent phrasal verbs. Chaucer is a

special case because of his position in the government which required

him to travel in France and become conversant with that language.

It would appear that Chaucer chose to employ French derivatives in

his writing. Some statistics concerning his use of French derivatives

might illustrate this matter. As Alexander has pointed out:

> Attempts have been made to estimate the extent to which loan-
> words from Fr. entered English at different stages of M.E.
> The latest results show that the period of most rapid absorp-
> tion was the second half of the fourteenth century, the age of

---

[20]Konishi, pp. 118, 119.

> Chaucer. During these fifty years it appears that about twenty per cent of the total Fr. element in the vocabulary passed into the language. . . . But in contrast to the twenty per cent borrowed between 1350 and 1400 we find only about two per cent before 1200 and, in modern times, about two-and-a-half per cent between 1850 and 1900. It might also be noted that an examination of Chaucer's total vocabulary to determine the proportion of native and non-native words has shown that slightly over half are of non-English origin, mainly Fr.[21]

Alexander's facts came from such authorities as Jespersen, Baugh, and Mersand. Thus, Chaucer appears a bit out of step with the linguistic tendencies of his age, especially as seen in Langland and the Cotton Nero poet.

In an attempt to see if Chaucer used any phrasal verbs, two of his more colloquial works, The Reeve's Tale and The Wife of Bath's Tale were selected, for these more earthy tales should bear a higher percentage of phrasal verbs than would his more romantic works. In a five thousand word corpus only eight phrasal verbs are encountered. The Reeves Tale contributed five:[22]

3954	cam after	followed
4074	cōm of	hurry
4114	gooth by	travels
4211	up . . . roos	arose

[21]Henry Alexander, The Story of our Language, rev. ed. (New York, 1962), pp. 78, 79.

[22]The Works of Geoffrey Chaucer, ed. F. N. Robinson, 2nd. ed. (Cambridge, Mass., 1957), pp. 56-60.

4229   leith on   presses

Of these five, the most significant is _gooth_ _by_ in the utterance "he _gooth_ _by_ the way." This type of verb exists to the present day with the meaning of a "means of travel." For example, I go by the bridge. Other criteria, other than context, which will be discussed in a subsequent chapter could also yield the meaning of "pass," in which case _by_ would be a preposition, not a particle.

The _Wife_ _of_ _Bath's_ _Tale_ yielded three verbs:[23]

919	wende forth	went
973	leyde . . . doun	put
1055	take unto	make

Most significant are "_leyde_ hir mouth unto the water _doun_" in which _leyde_ _down_ means "put" and the particle is separated from the verb for purposes of end-rhyme. Thus, the sampling from Chaucer's work would probably have shown fewer phrasal verbs were it not for the requirements of poetical structure.

At this point, the phrasal verb appears to be firmly entrenched in the language, and the various patterns and characteristics common to the modern verb are observed and noted. But rather than abandon the verb count at this time, it was decided to cover rapidly the centuries to the modern period noting primarily the incidence of these verbs. To cover every significant writer from the fifteenth through

---

[23]Chaucer, pp. 84-88.

the nineteenth centuries would make the present study unnecessarily
long. However, an analysis of the works of certain significant
writers will bear out the general conclusions.

The first source considered in the fifteenth century was Le
Morte d' Arthur (1469-70).[24] A corpus of five thousand words reveals
the following significant list:

p. 35, l. 9	comyn unto	entered
p. 35, l. 13	assente unto	serve
p. 35, l. 29	come at	approach
p. 36, l. 19	sworne unto	sworn unto
p. 36, l. 25	ryde on	go
p. 36, l. 37	gete . . . on	father
p. 37, l. 15	yssued out of	left
p. 38, l. 32	sent for	summoned
p. 39, l. 13	usurpped upon	attacked
p. 39, l. 32	came to fore	approached
p. 39, l. 38	yelde up	gave up
p. 40, l. 13	send for	summoned
p. 41, l. 30	came to	received
p. 42, l. 10	pulled at	pulled at
p. 43, l. 3	fell oute	quarreled
p. 43, l. 3	put of	postponed

---

[24]Thomas Malory, Le Morte d' Arthur, ed. H. Oskar Sommer
(London, 1889), I, 35-46.

p. 43, l. 11	put . . . of	postponed
p. 43, l. 14	put . . . of	postponed
p. 44, l. 5	made unto	told
p. 44, l. 14	wayte upon	guard
p. 46, l. 1	came out of	left
p. 46, l. 18	went streyghte unto	joined
p. 46, l. 22	sette upon	attacked
p. 46, l. 28	brake out on	attacked
p. 46, l. 29	sette on	attacked

In this array of twenty-five phrasal verbs, many familiar construc-
tions and modern usages appear. For the first time, however, a
number of three-word verb structures are noted. These are relatively
prevalent today but were not encountered up to this point. Other
observations worth noting are the vital analytic aspects of _ryde on_,
pulled at, _fell out_, _put of_, _wayte upon_, _sette upon_, and _sette on_,
in which the particle employed has a homophonous prepositional
counterpart and, in other constructions, could carry prepositional
meaning. An especially interesting construction is _gete . . . on_
which appears some one hundred twenty years earlier in Athelstone
as _gat upon_. This construction almost defies structural analysis,
for the physical idea of the husband impregnating his wife while
upon her (prepositional) and the more subtle idea of fathering a child
_to_ her (particle) are both present in this verb.

To support further the ample occurrence of phrasal verbs

during this period, verbs were counted from another source, the
Paston Letters written to John Paston by his wife and others during
the period 1441 to 1477.[25] A sample of 3600 words yielded eighteen
phrasal verbs--almost the same proportion found in Le Morte D'arthur--
written not by one person, but by several. The verbs generally
were similar in structure and idea to those of Malory.

Because the phrasal verb was obviously established in the
language, it was decided to move ahead in the chronology. As indi-
cated before, many major writers were omitted.

An analysis of a sixteenth century edition of the Everyman
play (c. 1529) reveals the following verbs:[26]

86	up ete	devoured
87	out serche	seek
87	thynketh on	considers
88	thynketh on	thinks about
97	with . . . go	accompany
102	to abyde with	accompany
107	with . . . gone	accompanied
112	dyscended doune	was incarnated
114	with . . . go	accompany
118	by . . . stande	help

---

[25]The Paston Letters, in Kaiser, pp. 551-556.

[26]Everyman, A Morality Play, ed. Montrose J. Moses (New
York, 1908) pp. 85-129.

122	byde by	accompany
122	parte . . . fro	leave
122	torne to	face
124	take on	undertake

The outstanding characteristic of the verbs in this text is the
prevalence of particle-initial position. The evidence acquired
from Malory and others indicates that perhaps the writer of Everyman
is deliberately trying to make his diction appear old-fashioned.
This judgment is made on the basis that most religious efforts of
any age feel a strong kinship with the past. Certainly the modern
Quaker, with his use of archaic pronouns, thee and thou, demonstrates
this characteristic. Perhaps the Everyman author does the same.
At any rate, he shows constructions that did not evolve from Old
English forms. Consider up ete and out serche as examples of psuedo-
old forms, but also note that the ideas "eat up" and "seek out" are
quite modern with the particle implying something besides direction.

The investigation advances some sixty years to Spenser,
the first major writer of the modern period. A count of the phrasal
verbs in Book I, Canto I of his Faerie Queen (1590),[27] gives the
following results:

st. 8, 1. 1[28]   foorth . . . passe   enter

[27]The Poetical Works of Edmund Spenser, ed. J. C. Smith,
3 vols. (Oxford, 1909), II, 5-18.

[28]For ease in locating verbs cited, I have indicated stanza
and line numbers.

st. 14, l. 3	foorth . . . went	entered
st. 15, l. 6	sucking upon	sucking
st. 16, l. 5	lookt about	looked
st. 18, l. 5	wrapping up	coiling
st. 18, l. 2	gathered round	coiled
st. 20, l. 1	spewd out	vomited
st. 22, l. 5	poured forth	vomited
st. 25, l. 8	sucked up	drank
st. 33, l. 7	take up	spend
st. 38, l. 1	forth . . . cold	summoned
st. 43, l. 4	lifting up	raising
st. 50, l. 8	stirre up	arouse

These thirteen verbs continue to give evidence of various features
noted previously, especially the varied functions of _up_ in _wrap up_,
suck up, _take up_, _lift up_, and _stirre up_. Only _lift up_ gives any
indication of the directional aspects of the particle, the others
tend to heighten or increase the action of the verb, except in _take
up_ which bears the thought of "dwelling with."

The investigation next considered the writings of John Milton
and arbitrarily selected a passage from _Paradise Lost_ (c. 1660).[29]
This passage could provide an acid test of the degree to which the
phrasal verb was entrenched in the language. Could Latin affect

---

[29]John Milton, _Complete Poems and Major Prose_, ed. Merrit
Y. Hughes (New York, 1957), pp. 302-319.

Milton as French had affected Chaucer? Would the great Puritan poet,
writing of God and Heaven and the angels, disdain the use of the
phrasal verb? A five thousand word corpus from Book V yielded the
following:

36	forth . . . walk	emerge
43	sets off	shows
89	wondering at	considering
138	forth . . . come	emerge
139	up risen	arisen
179	call'd up	created
233	bring on	initiate
351	walks forth	goes
375	lead on	lead
413	to . . . turn	become
497	turn . . . to	become
667	brought on	brought
702	casts between	injects

The thirteen phrasal verbs found in this passage correspond numeri-
cally to the thirteen found in Spenser, an indication that the phrasal
verb had fully evolved. Note especially the examples set off,
call'd up, and turn to. The two elements combined (verb base +
particle) give an entirely different meaning from that of the com-
bining elements separately. Note also the occurrence of to . . .
turn and turn . . . to in such close proximity, yet different order.

Despite the fact that some particles have primarily a metrical function, or perfective function at best (lead on or brought on), Milton 'does employ the phrasal verbs quite frequently, even in the speeches of God. This conflicts with the statement by Kennedy and Konishi that "the biblical spirit [conservatism of the translators] seems to have flowed down to the age of Milton."[30]

At this point in the development of Modern English, one can see that further investigation could only support what has been found up to this point. A cursory investigation reveals that Shakespeare's writing abounds in phrasal verbs, but little would be gained by adding Shakespeare to the count. Cursory investigation also shows that the writers of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries freely employed these verbs. However, the purpose of this chapter, or this stage of the investigation, has been satisfied. The incidence of the phrasal verb has been traced from no occurrences in Beowulf to abundant occurrences in Malory, Spenser, and Milton, among others. The structure of the phrasal verb has been observed in various positions, and many functions and meanings of these verbs have been cited. The graph on the following page gives a summary of the data concerning the growth of the phrasal verb.

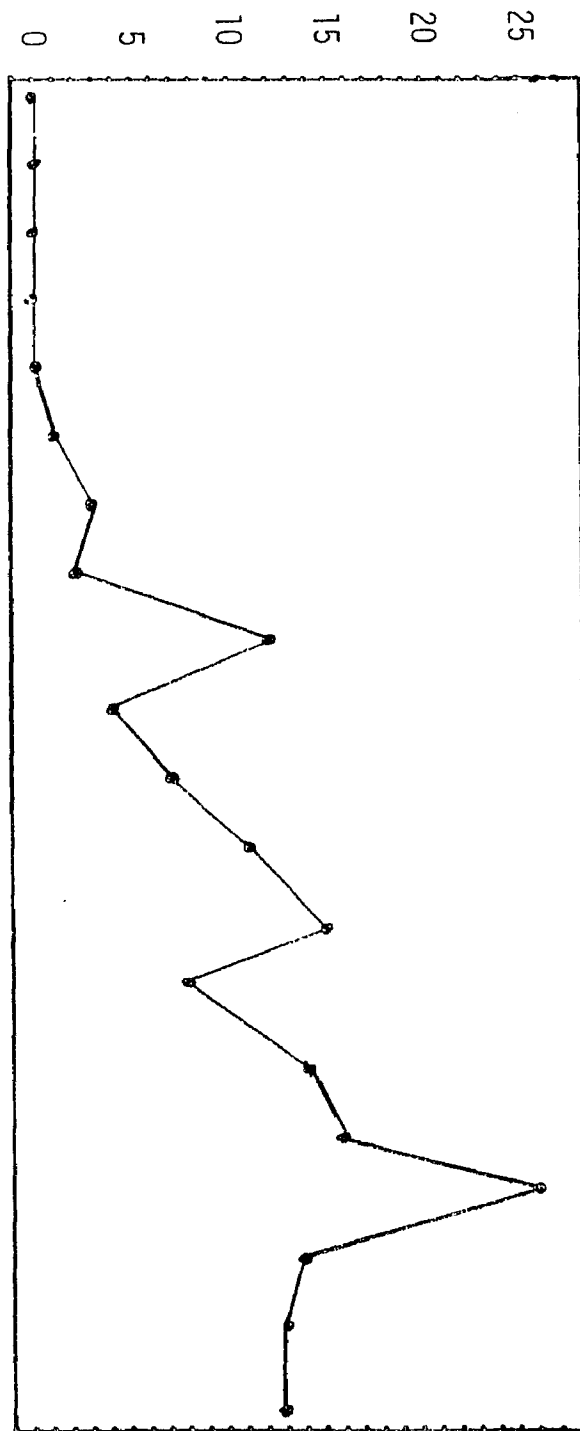| Date	Work
710	Bedwulf
750	Wanderer, Seafarer
850	Bede's History
937	Maldon
991	Brunanburh
1016	A. S. Chronicle
1022	Aelfric
1079	A. S. Chronicle
1154	A. S. Chronicle
1200	Owl and Nightingale
1240	Ancrene Riwle
1303	Handlyng Synne
1350	Athelstone
1380	Chaucer
1390	Sir Gawain
1393	Piers Plowman
1469	Morte d'Arthur
1529	Everyman
1590	Fairie Queen
1660	Paradise Lost

Table VI

Occurrences of phrasal verbs in 5000 word corpus.

CHAPTER IV

SURVEY OF GRAMMAR BOOKS 1640-1936

Having discussed the development of the phrasal verb from
the early times to Milton, we now consider the attitude of grammarians
toward this construction. A few grammarians have considered the use
of certain phrasal verbs as barbarous. Some have insisted that
"pure" English does not require them. A few treat the phrasal verb
as a normal development, but the great majority seem to ignore this
important structure.

The comments of Kennedy again serve as a point of depar-
ture for this discussion. Kennedy offers a comprehensive glossary
of types of phrasal verbs culled from various sources, and does give
recognition to the phrasal verb construction. Nevertheless he
appears to disparage the construction by continuously referring to it
as the product of "linguistic laziness, slovenliness, indolence,"
etc.[1] He observes that the verbs replaced by the phrasal verbs
". . . are directly chargeable to the artificial increase of our
vocabulary by that school of 'embellishers' who flourished in the
sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Perhaps the common man is not
to be blamed for avoiding the use of a vocabulary that has never been
his, and for utilizing in the expression of certain ideas his familiar
stock of words."[2] Thus Kennedy does appreciate the fact that the

---

[1]Kennedy, Verb-Adverb Combinations, pp. 33, 44, 46.

[2]Ibid., p. 40.

Latin extinguish can be supplanted by the native put out but also feels that with a bit of effort the native English speaker could exert himself to use the more "desirable" extinguish.

But whether the effort is worthwhile is highly open to question. General principles or laws of linguistics indicate that a language constantly tries to rid itself of the superfluous elements, and that language constantly tends to emphasize the elements essential to communication by adding redundant words. The first principle is known as the "law of least effort." Many linguists, especially Jespersen and Martinet have been aware of this principle. As Martinet states, "If we want to pass a fair judgment we have to compare, not two facts, artificially taken out of their systemic surroundings, but two systems in which the exact functional nature of every part is determined by that of any other part."[3]

In Early Old English the "normal" place for the adverb (meaning here any relationship of modification of the verb as to direction, completeness, etc.) was before the verb. As has already been pointed out, the prefix separated from the verb took post-verbal position but pre-position relative to the noun. The general movement of verb and modifiers has been from post-verbal, to prefix-verb, to post-verbal with a prepositional function brought on by loss of case

[3]André Martinet, Phonology as Functional Phonetics (Philadelphia, 1950), p. 22.

inflections. Thus Ben Jonson observes that "Prepositions are also a peculiar kind of adverbs, and ought to be referred higher."[4]

A simplified graphic presentation of the preposition-adverb movement might be:

2 Verb 3   1   3.

Jonson also considered certain prefixes to be prepositions: "Inseparable prepositions are they which signify nothing, if they be not compounded with some other word: as

re, un in release, unlearned."[5]

A close analogy is seen between the lack of meaning of re alone and the up of phrasal verb call up "telephone" alone. The up is as meaningless as the re.

The point is that regardless of what an element is called, it will fit the pattern that best serves the linguistic practice of the speakers of a language at any given time. Thus utscufon was the proper form for the highly inflected Old English language while shove off or shove . . . off is a proper form for the relatively analytic Modern English. To argue Modern English usage of extinguish on the analogy of utscufon is unrealistic.

Though Kennedy does attribute the introduction of many Latin constructions to the "ink horn" school of stylists of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries and does accept a moderate replacement of

---

[4]Ben Jonson, English Grammar, first published 1640 reprinted (London, 1928), p. 48.

[5]Jonson, p. 48.

these constructions by phrasal verbs, Konishi goes much further in

his comments regarding the attitude of early grammarians to the

phrasal verb. Because his attitude is indicative of the attitude

of others, we shall quote him at great length here:

> The development of the verb-adverb combination during the
> English Renaissance was indeed epoch-making. [Earlier data
> in this study have shown that the development of all types
> of phrasal verbs preceded the English Renaissance if 1500
> A.D. is accepted as its approximate beginning.] These
> phrasal verbs have come to possess such figurative meanings,
> or shades of meaning that could not otherwise be expressed.
> It is interesting to note, however, that in the dignified
> Biblical version of 1611 the combination is less frequently
> encountered, and is usually to be taken literally. The
> conservatism of the translators of the Holy Bible has at
> all times tended to avoid any but the most literal of
> these combinations. [The present study has indicated that
> four randomly selected chapters of the Gospel contain sixty-
> eight phrasal verbs and that many of these are highly
> figurative.] This Biblical spirit [conservatism in
> avoiding phrasal verb constructions] seems to have flowed
> down to the age of Milton, though the great religious poet
> himself did not disdain the use of phrasal verbs. Thus
> "my fate," cried out, "Put out the light and then put out
> the light." [This quote is not from Milton as is implied
> here, but is from Shakespeare, Othello, Act V, scene 2,
> line 7.][6] . . . The light of the combination was almost
> put out but would not go out.[7]

Somehow Konishi seems to feel that everyone in the late seventeenth

and early eighteenth centuries was opposed to the further develop-

ment of the phrasal verb. This idea is not consistent with

reality. He further comments:

---

[6]The Complete Plays and Poems of William Shakespeare,
ed. William Allen Neilson and Charles Jarvis Hill (Cambridge,
Mass., 1942), p. 1131.

[7]Konishi, p. 122.

> Next comes an age of reason and good sense when not only
> in literature but in language Latin was looked upon as a
> model. Dryden, an acknowledged master of English prose,
> in reprinting his Essay on Dramatic Poesy, took pains to
> change "the end he aimed at" into "the end at which he
> aimed," and "the age I live in" into "the age in which I
> live," etc., and moreover he also eliminated a number of
> phrasal verbs, changing "bound up" to "limited," "brought
> in" to "introduced," etc.[8]

Dryden did recast the sentences mentioned above but not because

they contained phrasal verbs. Aim at and live in terminate in

prepositions which are "axis related" to the governed noun. Dryden

was influenced by Latin:

> As is well known, it is largely to John Dryden that we
> owe this absurd principle [a sentence must not end with
> a preposition]. Dryden's sudden realization that in
> Latin the preposition never comes last in the sentence
> caused him to recast the English sentences of his pre-
> faces in order to eliminate what he had come to feel
> as barbarous. His influence has been amazingly powerful;
> school grammar after school grammar has repeated the
> warning against the prepositional ending, in spite of
> its continued use in the best speech and writing.[9]

Konishi states that Dryden also eliminated a number of phrasal

verbs. He did not eliminate all phrasal verbs from his prefaces,

however. In a random selection, the "Dedication to the Conquest

of Granda," addressed to the Duke of York, later King James II,

Dryden uses four phrasal verbs in six brief pages. The examples

are drew over "bought," fill up "complete," meditating on

---

[8]Konishi, p. 122.

[9]Stewart Robertson, The Development of Modern English
(New York, 1934), p. 577.

"contemplate," and <u>bring before</u> "present."[10] Certainly Dryden

has taken no firm stand against the phrasal verb.

Konishi next makes reference to Dr. Samuel Johnson, the

first English lexicographer and earnest grammarian, as follows:

"Dr. Johnson wished to do away with grammatical irregularities

and naturally disapproved of these idiomatic combinations."[11]

Konishi somehow feels that Johnson considered phrasal verb con-

structions to fall into the category of "grammatical irregularities."

In the Preface to his <u>Dictionary</u>, Dr. Johnson described the English

language as in a state of chaos with no standards or tests and

then stated that ". . . it is the duty of the lexicographer to

correct or prescribe."[12] Dr. Johnson did have some feelings about

certain phrasal verb constructions as seen in the following:

> The difference between the literal and idiomatic meanings of
> what Dr. Johnson called "the low, vulgar phrase" "to take
> in" is amusingly illustrated by a bit of dialogue in <u>Dr.
> Syntax's Tour</u>, when the hostess presents the Doctor with an
> overcharged bill:
>   Hostess: "I took you in, last night, I say."
>   Syntax: "'Tis true--and if this bill I pay
>   You'll <u>take me</u> in again today."[13]

Dr. Johnson accepted--and used--scores of phrasal verbs, however.

---

[10]<u>The Works of John Dryden</u>, ed. George Saintsbury (Edinburgh, 1883), II, 11-17.

[11]Konishi, p. 122.

[12]Samuel Johnson, <u>A Dictionary to the English Language, to Which are Prefixed a History of the Language and an English Grammar</u>, 4 vols. (Philadelphia, 1881), I. no page numbers.

[13]Logan Pearsall Smith, <u>Words and Idioms</u> (Glasgow, 1925), p. 254.

Four appear in the Preface to the Dictionary: tolerated among, wash away, search for, and comply with.

In the Dictionary itself are found many phrasal verbs, especially in the definitions. A few are given for illustration:

bank	any heap of earth piled up[14]
bank	a place where money is laid up
bank	to lay up money in a bank
band	to unite together
bale	bale out the water
bale	to make up a bale
beg	to live upon alms
behold	look upon
begirt	shut in, block up the fort
behead	to kill by cutting off the head
believe	with the particle in, to hold as an object of faith [believe in] with the particle upon, to trust [believe upon].

These examples from the Dictionary indicate that Samuel Johnson was aware of these constructions in the English language. Note also his use of the word particle above.

Smith also observes that Dr. Johnson was aware of the principle noted before that language tends to emphasize essential

---

[14]Italics mine.

elements by using redundant features:

> "Down," he says, "is sometimes added to 'fall,' and 'up'
> is often used without much addition to the force of the
> Verbs." In his note on "beating up" for soldiers, he
> seems to have hit, without knowing it, on the real
> meaning of this use, remarking that though the word
> "up" seems redundant, yet it "enforces the sense."
> The dynamic use of the particle could not be more
> admirably expressed.[15]

Thus Dr. Johnson, far from decrying the phrasal verb is actually justifying its existence.

Having observed the comments of two early grammarians, Jonson and Johnson, and a dedicated prose stylist, John Dryden, the investigation now turns to a chronological observation of a large group of grammarians during the years 1771-1959. This phase of the study reveals a diversity of opinion concerning the universe as well as the grammar that talks about the universe. Consider for example James Harris writing in 1771:

> But though the original use of Prepositions was to denote
> the Relations of Place, they could not be confined to this
> office only. They by degrees extended themselves to
> subjects incorporeal, and came to devote Relations as well
> intellectual as local. Thus, because in Place he, who is
> above, has commonly the advantage over him, who is below,
> hence we transfer OVER and UNDER to Dominion and Obedience;
> of a King we say, he ruled OVER his People; of a common
> Soldier, he served UNDER such a General.[16]

Thus James Harris has stated quite well the source of some of the

---

[15]Smith, p. 255.

[16]James Harris, Esq., Hermes or a Philosophical Inquiry
Concerning Universal Grammar (London, 1771), pp. 268-269.

modern idiomatic phrasal verbs. For <u>rule over</u> and <u>serve under</u> are

good examples of pV (Pt). Harris also lists "<u>thinking over</u> a sub-

ject" among prepositions cited. Here is an example of pV (Pt$_s$).

Commenting on the nature of such structures, Harris adds:

> All which instances, with many others of like kind,
> show that the <u>first Words</u> of Men, like their first <u>Ideas</u>,
> had an immediate reference to <u>sensible</u> Objects, and that
> in afterdays, when they began to discern with their
> Intellect, they took those Words, which they had <u>already</u>
> made, and transferred them by metaphor to intellectual
> conceptions.[17]

Despite his observations, Harris failed to see the struc-

tural union resulting in the phrasal verb.

In 1789, Noah Webster, the American counterpart to Dr.

Johnson, published his grammar commentary. He called prepositions

and adverbs particles (the same as Johnson had done),[18] but he did

not comment upon the verb + particle construction, though he used

it in writing and in his <u>Dictionary</u>.

Caleb Alexander, an early American grammarian, observed a

principle noted earlier in this study. He states, "When two preposi-

tions are placed together, the first is used adverbically. As

he came <u>down</u> from the mountain. Here <u>down</u> is used adverbically.

He fell <u>down</u> the precipice. Here <u>down</u> is a preposition."[19]

---

[17]Harris, p. 269.

[18]Noah Webster, <u>Dissertations on the English Language</u> (Boston, 1789), p. 217.

[19]Caleb Alexander, <u>A Grammatical System of the English Language</u> (Boston, 1805), p. 49.

Alexander does not distinguish between category and relation. Category is adverb. Relation is adverbial. Also, the idea that a written form can only signify one grammatical element--a characteristic of traditional grammar--is seen as well.

Like Jonson, Alexander called the Latin prefixes inseparable prepositions. He also noted that "English verbs are often compounds of a preposition and a verb. As, to understand, to outgo, to withdraw. When the preposition is placed before the verb, it gives the verb a meaning very different from what it has, when placed after the verb. As, to understand signifies to know, to stand under signifies to be under something."[20] Meaning seems to be Alexander's sole criterion, and he is unaware of exceptions to his rule like downgrade and grade down, both meaning "to lower in a standard scale." But perhaps this usage was not prevalent at that time.

Alexander falls into the pit occupied by many grammarians since Johnson set out to regulate and legislate the language. He sets standards, for example:

> Elegance requires that we do not use prepositions in conjunction with those verbs, that preserve their signification without the prepositions. As accept it; admit him; approve; address; attain; are more elegant than accept of it; admit of him, approve of, address to, attain to. . . . False Grammar--If policy can prevail upon force.[21]

---

[20]Alexander, p. 74.

[21]Alexander, p. 75.

Alexander thought that the "inseparable prepositions: a, co, con, de, dis, in, mis, re, un, etc." should suffice to direct the action of the verb. His "false grammar" example prevail upon is another example, however, of the redundant spirit of language. Prevail upon is a good example of a pV (Pt).

An English grammarian, John Tooke, comments at great length upon prepositions and gives instances of their usage in which they are clearly employed in verb constructions, but fails to recognize the construction for what it is. He uses the pV, but makes no comment upon it.[22]

W. C. Fowler discusses the redundant function of prepositions in conjunction with verbs (considered inelegant by Alexander above) and cites this as normal usage. Fowler, however, argues the existence of God from the character of the preposition and thus occupies a position unique in grammar. In the following brief quote he falls from objective grammatical description to the depths of wishful thinking:

> 7. Intellectual relationships are conceived of [note the varying standards. Alexander called this construction inelegant, but conceived of is a workable construction.] as physical, and are expressed by prepositions denoting physical relations. They are exhibited to others as they strike our own minds. This is shown,
>
> > (1) In cases where the primary or physical meaning of the verb is lost; as, to copy from a picture; to rule over a country.

---

[22] John Horne Tooke, The Diversions of Purley, 2 vols. (London, 1829).

(2) In cases where the physical meaning is not lost;
as to rely <u>on</u> another's promise; to tend <u>to</u> a given
result; to insult <u>over</u> anyone. [meaning apparently
lost today]

(3) In cases where the force of the preposition had
been already expressed in the verb; as to consult
<u>with</u> a person; to abstain <u>from</u> a thing; to concur
<u>with</u> another.

8. Prepositions thus exhibit a wonderful correlation between
the intellectual and physical worlds; a correlation which shows
that both worlds proceeded from the same Author.[23]

The phrasal verb is indeed a versatile device.

A more practical position is taken by a contemporary,

Solomon Barrett, Jr.,who gives a quite precise description of the

pV in a discussion of the verb:

Prepositions are sometimes added to intransitive verbs, thereby
rendering them transitive; as, <u>to give up</u>, <u>to lay out</u>, etc.
Prepositions thus annexed sometimes give quite another
signification, as in the words <u>to cast</u> which signifies <u>to</u>
throw; and <u>to cast up</u>, which signifies <u>to compute</u>. Preposi-
tions joined to transitive verbs sometimes render them
intransitive; as <u>to hold on</u>, <u>to get up</u>, <u>to call out</u>, <u>to cry</u>
<u>out</u>, etc. The verbs to grow and <u>to be</u> should never be used
<u>transitively</u>.[24]

Despite the prescriptive advice in the last sentence, this comment

is worthwhile. Note how the phrasal verb has developed in the last

century. Many of Barrett's transitive/intransitive divisions no

longer exist. <u>Give up</u> can be intransitive, <u>call out</u> can be transi-

tive.

_____

[23]W. C. Fowler, <u>The English Language</u> (New York, 1868),
p. 372.

[24]Solomon Barrett, Jr., <u>The Principles of Grammar</u> (Boston,
1863), p. 131.

Henry Sweet's grammar appeared first in 1891 and reveals a different attitude from that expressed by other grammarians. Sweet is more objective, and while most categories, like those of Barrett, are too narrow, Sweet's categories tend to be too broad-- even to the point of vagueness. He employs a new term, "group-verb." "When the combination of an intransitive verb with a pre-position is logically equivalent to a transitive verb, we call the combination a group verb. Thus think of is the group verb corresponding to consider."[25] Sweet, however, becomes quite ambiguous when he points out that "When an intransitive verb requires a noun-word to complete its meaning, the noun word is joined to it by a preposition, forming a prepositional complement, as in he came to London; he looked at the house; I thought of that; he thinks of going abroad."[26] Sweet employs thought of that to show the prepositional relationship of of and calls of that a "prepositional complement." But in the preceding example, he employs the same construction think of to show how an intransitive think becomes a transitive. Sweet discusses I thought of that as two separate, distinct grammatical structures, depending on his present whim. The construction has one analysis--PV + object.

Again he says, ". . . the slight difference in meaning between he looked at the house and he saw the house has nothing to

---

[25]Henry Sweet, New English Grammar (Oxford, 1930), p. 91.

[26]Sweet, p. 91.

do with one verb being intransitive, the other transitive."[27] Since

look at, according to his own criteria stated above, may also mean

"inspect" there is a difference.

A bit later, Sweet mentions the following:

In such group-verbs the preposition follows the verb so
closely that it is often completely detached from the
noun-word it originally governed. When a preposition
is used in this way we call it a detached preposition.
Detached prepositions are liable to be disassociated
from their noun-words not only in position, but also in
grammatical constructions, as in he was thought of,
where the detached preposition is no longer able to
govern the pronoun in the objective case because the
passive construction necessitates putting the pronoun
in the nominative."[28]

Here is a real contribution to the understanding of this verb type.

Replace preposition, a term with many grammatical connotations, by

particle, and the contribution is even more significant. Thus, the

movement from preposition + object to (verb + particle) + object

is clearly seen.

Commenting on the previously mentioned function of the

particle in relating the physical world to the mental world, Logan

Pearsall Smith observes:

In this effort, however, to render human thought in phrases
descriptive of the acts and attitudes of the body, English
possesses one great advantage over the Romanic languages
in what I have called its "phrasal verbs"--verbs whose full
meaning is conveyed by the adverb or preposition which
follows it [Pt], and which is often placed at some distance

---

[27]Sweet, p. 91.

[28]Sweet, p. 138.

from it [Pt$_s$]. For when we examine these phrasal verbs, we
find that the greater number of them also render their
meaning into terms of bodily sensation. They are formed
from simple verbs which express the acts, motions, and
attitudes of the body and its members; and these, combining
with prepositions like "up," "down," "over," "off," etc.
(which also express ideas of motion), have acquired, in
addition to their literal meanings, an enormous number of
idiomatic significations,. . . .[29]

Smith is aware of the spirit of the language and the subsequent

development of structures from that spirit.

- He further comments:

The richest in idiom of these verbs are the following:
"go," "come," "run," "fall," "turn," "stand," "get," "take,"
"look," "put," "set," "lay."   . . . Verbs expressing more
definite bodily acts, "to hit," "to strike," "to knock," "to
kick," "to shake," "to throw," also enter into idioms, but
not with the same freedom as the more abstract verbs of
action.[30]

The particle up, for example, can function with these last mentioned

"less productive" verbs to yield hit up "make an acquaintance,"

strike up "make an acquaintance," "start a band," knock up "impreg-

nate," kick up "cause an uproar," shake up "bother, disturb,"

throw up "vomit." Note that all these are pV (Pt$_s$). These examples

are inserted to show the fallacy of attempting to limit the

possibilities of this verb type. The pV is a most dynamic grammati-

cal function in the language and is likely to break out anywhere.

Some of the grammarians discuss both verbs and prepositions

---

[29]Smith, p. 250.

[30]Smith, p. 252.

in great detail but fail to note the connection between them which results in the pV. Yet these grammarians use these verbs in their writing and often in the problems assigned to their students. The following is from the grammar text employed by the New York City high schools during the first quarter of this century. In parsing the clause

> . . . , must we believe in him
> The subject of the clause is <u>we</u>; the predicate verb, <u>must</u>
> <u>believe</u>; modified by the adverbial phrase adjunct <u>in</u> <u>him</u>.[31]

Earlier grammars had shown the advisability of treating such constructions as <u>believe in</u> as phrasal verbs. In fact Dr. Johnson used <u>believe in</u> and <u>believe on</u> to show the various functions of the particles.

In a section dealing with prepositions the same writer gives an assignment instruction as follows:

> <u>Pick</u> <u>out</u> the prepositions <u>in</u> the following, stating the[32]
> <u>relationship</u> in each case.[33]

Thus <u>pick</u> <u>out</u>, a phrasal verb, meaning "select, choose, etc." is employed by a writer who never recognizes the possibility of such a construction.

Another example of this same treatment is seen in a later

---

[31]<u>Brown's</u> <u>Institutes</u> <u>of</u> <u>English</u> <u>Grammar</u>, rev. John W. Davis (New York, 1914) p. 92.

[32]Italics in this and following example are mine.

[33]<u>Institutes</u>, p. 160.

grammar text. Again the writer makes no mention of the possible

union of verb and preposition but employs this structure both in his

instructions and in one sentence from the problem:

> In the following sentences find the Prepositions, and point
> out their objects:
>   34
>   You take after your mother's family, Arthur.

Point out and take after are excellent examples of pV. One wonders

how the students treated the "preposition" after in this highly

idiomatic inseparable construction meaning "resemble." Thus both

of these grammarians emplny the pV as part of their linguistic

system, but fail to recognize and subsequently discuss this

phenomenon.

At this point in the chronology and in the discussion,

appears one of the giants of Germanic philology, George Curme.

Curme was very interested in the phenomenon of the phrasal verb and

wrote extensively on it, emphasizing especially the stress features

of Germanic which helped produce the phrasal verb. Space demands

that Curme's findings be summarized briefly.[35]

One of his earlier publications describes the development

of the phrasal verb concept:

> The domain of the personal passiv has been greatly enlarged
> in modern English by extending this construction to verbs

---

[34]Francis Kingsley Ball, Building With Words (Boston,
1926) p. 164.

[35]Curme employed a modified phonetic spelling which will
be observed in the following quotations.

that in the activ take a prepositional object: "he spoke to me sharply" and "I was spoken to sharply," "he imposed upon me" and "I was imposed upon," etc. Here verb and preposition enter into a compound just as the verb and object in the constructions above [Examples from German and Old English]. Both of these constructions may be combined so that the verb forms a compound with its object and the following preposition: "I was taken no notice of." [The construction Dryden objected to] The prepositional construction began to gain ground in the fourteenth century and has become one of the markt characteristics of English speech, enriching our alredy ters and forceful language with new possibilities of directness and vigor.[36]

At first Curme considered the prepositional phrase to be the object but later modified his position and accepted the verb plus preposition as a unit.

Curme then states that in Germanic languages, adverbs and prepositions have changed their names as well as nature by moving about in the sentence and tries to draw a fine line of distinction based on meaning alone. Thus up is an adverb in one position, a preposition in another, and a verb-forming element in another. A more modern viewpoint is that three separate functions--adverb, preposition, and particle--exist for the word up.

Curme uses stress as the primary factor in identifying adverbs and prepositions and traces the development of these forms accordingly:

It was also probabl, as we shal see below, that the adverb was more weakly strest than the verb. Altho originally all such prefixes were adverbs ther or two distinct groups of

---

[36]George O. Curme, "The Proper Subject of a Passiv Verb," MLN, XXVII, 4 (April, 1913), 101.

these particls. In one the adverbial force is strong. In
the other the particl loses much of its adverbial force and
either approaches or assumes the nature of a preposition.[37]

Curme then discusses how he feels that forms retaining the concrete

force of the particle--"put out the fires," "put down a rebellion"

are more forceful than forms like peter out, cool off, giv up, etc.

Curme's comment seems invalid because certain particles which he

labels "forceful" mean doing something increasingly active. The

other forms became decreasingly active. The effect of the particle,

however, is equal in both cases--it modifies the action of the verb.

Curme's next contribution is more valuable:

> . . . it seems evident that the reason for the transfer of
> any modifier of the verb from a position before the verb
> to a place after it was an increase in stres [of the
> modifier] and a relativ decrease of the importance of the
> verb.[38]

The basic verb lost its individuality and the modifier received

greater stress as the two gradually merged into one grammatical

unit--though separated by intervening elements. The original stress

pattern of the verb is maintained in English. Thus the basic stress

superfix of utscúfan is maintained in shove off or shove . . . off.

Thus Curme's statement above should be modified. The verb has not

decreased in importance--it's still the most important word in a

---

[37]George O. Curme, "The Development of Verbal Compounds in
Germanic," Beiträge zur Geschichte der Deutschen Sprache und
Literature, 39 (1914), 320.

[38]Curme, Development of Verbal Compounds, p. 324.

sentence. But the stress has shifted from the verb base to a particle. Together the two elements form a phrasal verb.

Curme's admiration for the vigor, the dynamism, the productivity of these verb combinations is obvious. The social acceptance of these verbs today demonstrates the vigor of the English language. Curme's comments of 1914 are no longer true:

> These forceful home-made compounds always giv the English speaking man in his hours of relaxation a sense of ease and of nativ element. Often when under social restraint he searches in vain in his choice foren vocabulary for substitutes for some of his Anglo-Saxon favorites. He is concious of their matchless power and their telling effect, but hesitates to use them in the atmosphere of dignified convention. He consoles himself with the thaut that when free from restraint he wil hav the pleasure of _hitting_ _off_ his ideas just as they _com_ _up_ from within.[39]

In another source, Curme more fully developes the idea that the preposition is really a part of the verb:

> In contrast to prepositional adverbs and all the prepositions previously discussed--all of which usually follow the verb-- are prepositions which always precede the verb, forming with it a compound: "The river _overflowed_ its banks." "A great principle _underlies_ this plan." "Water _permeates_ the ground." As the object of the preposition always follows the verb, it is now felt as the object of the compound verb. Where the preposition is no longer used outside of those compounds, as in the case of _be_--(=over, upon), it is called a prefix.[40]

Thus Curme argues that _flow_ becomes a transitive _overflow_ because the object of preposition _over_ becomes the object of the compound.

---

[39] Curme, _Development_ _of_ _Verbal_ _Compounds_, p. 337.

[40] George O. Curme, _Syntax_ (Boston, 1931), p. 569.

Likewise think becomes transitive think about on the analogy of
overflow. Curme, too, agrees with Ben Jonson that prefixes are
prepositions.

Curme's Germanic studies have contributed much to our
present knowledge of the development of the phrasal verb. But his
synchronic descriptions contain certain weaknesses typical of most
who attempt to describe this verb from a meaning basis alone. Thus,
in Parts of Speech and Accidence, he describes the verb plus
preposition in three different phases:

> (a) Employed as Adverb. This is a common function: "He
> stood by the window." "He stood behind me." . . .
> (b) Employed as Object. In "She shot at him twice" the
> prepositional phrase made up of the preposition at and
> its object him stands in a little closer relationship to
> the intransitive verb than an adverbial element, forming
> the necessary complement of the verb, which we call a
> prepositional object.[41]

Another type or phase is the following:

> The inflectional preposition [discussed in Syntax above] is
> not only placed before words, but often also after them in
> the case of verbs: "You can depend upon him." The preposi-
> tion, as upon in this example, which once belonged to the
> word following it, is now often felt as belonging to a
> preceding intransitive verb, serving as an inflectional
> particle with the office of converting the intransitive to
> a transitive. That the preposition and the verb have fused
> into one word, a real compound, can be seen in passive form,
> where the preposition remains with the verb: "He can be
> depended upon."[42]

---

[41]George O. Curme, Parts of Speech and Accidence (Boston,
1935), pp. 88-89.

[42]Curme, Parts of Speech, p. 91.

Curme should have employed the stress patterns developed in previous studies as part of the criteria for determining phrasal verbs. He uses italics to indicate the verb construction he is attempting to describe. But note that his examples:

He stood <u>behind</u> <u>me</u>   (adverb)

and

She shot <u>at</u> <u>him</u> twice   (preposition phrase as object)

and

You can depend <u>upon</u> him   (fused into verb)

are not very convincing. Curme employs a criterion that has long since been a part of grammar--only transitive verbs can be rendered passive. Note that "He walked the floor" can be rendered. "The floor was walked by him" apparently passive but intransitive nevertheless. Consider the utterance, "I entered the room," in which <u>room</u> is simply a noun functioning adverbially which can be recast "The *room* was entered by me." This is the so-called apparent passive-- dear to traditional grammarians--but not a valid criterion in establishing verb functions.

Note also that the example above, "He stood behind me" can also mean "He supported me" when the stress superfixes so carefully worked out by Curme earlier are applied--stood behind.

In his <u>College</u> <u>English</u> <u>Grammar</u>, Curme summarizes the dis- cussions of his other books and does include a brief mention of the

function of stress in verbal compounds.[43]

Kittredge and Farley generally agree with Curme's observations, and do include a formal statement concerning the phrasal verb:

> An intransitive verb followed by a preposition is often used in the passive, the object of the preposition becoming the subject of the verb.
> Everybody <u>laughed at</u> him. (active)
> He <u>was laughed at</u> by everyone. (passive)[44]

A more economical and precise statement would consider <u>him</u> the object of the verb <u>laugh at</u> not the object of the preposition <u>at</u>.

George Philip Krapp tends to place value judgments upon all phrasal verb constructions and labels colloquial many terms that are in acceptable use today. Note his comment on the perfective or emphatic particle <u>up</u>:

> up, adv., in colloquial style, often appended needlessly to verbs, as in <u>connect up</u>, <u>cripple up</u>, <u>divide up</u>, <u>end up</u>, <u>finish up</u>, <u>limber up</u>, <u>open up</u>, <u>scratch up</u>, and <u>settle up</u>. Though many of their uses are unquestionably current in good colloquial English, stylistically the particle <u>up</u> is only an encumbrance, and care should be taken not to permit one's style to become littered with such unnecessary trifles.[45]

Surely <u>scratch</u> and <u>scratch up</u> had two different meanings then as

---

[43]George O. Curme, <u>College English Grammar</u> (Richmond, Virginia, 1925), p. 22.

[44]George Lyman Kittredge and Frank Edgar Farley, <u>An Advanced English Grammar</u> (Boston, 1913), p. 111.

[45]George Philip Krapp, <u>A Comprehensive Guide to Good English</u> (New York, 1927), p. 604.

now. The particle adds a sense of termination even to <u>end</u> (end up) though here the use is obviously tautological. But the principle of redundancy--a dynamic feature of all languages, not a mere matter of style--is seen at work here. Also, such constructions are not logical. Consider the very prevalent expressions of today: <u>drop</u> <u>in</u>, <u>drop</u> <u>over</u>, <u>drop</u> <u>up</u>, <u>drop</u> <u>out</u>, and even occasionally the logical but redundant <u>drop</u> <u>down</u>.

Krapp again makes a judgment concerning up:

> bring up V., in the sense <u>rear</u>, <u>educate</u>, especially children, is good current colloquial and literary English which it is not necessary to replace by <u>rear</u> or any other term.[46]

But

> rai<u>se</u>, V., low colloquial and dialectal in sense <u>rear</u>, <u>bring</u> <u>up</u>.[47]

Of course, at an earlier stage in the language, <u>bring</u> <u>up</u> would have been damned as well. <u>Dress</u> <u>up</u> is also labeled colloquial, but a vast difference exists between <u>dress</u> and <u>dress</u> <u>up</u>.

A contemporary of Krapp, Harold E. Palmer avoids placing any labels on usage and simply describes the language. His "Introduction" states quite well the purpose of the grammarian. Palmer's verb classifications are condensed as follows:

> Compound verbs--Verbs such as understand, undertake, uphold, upset, etc.
> Group-Verbs--An almost unlimited number of "Group-Verbs" may be formed by the use of the simpler (generally monosyllabic)

---

[46]Krapp, p. 103.

[47]Krapp, p. 488.

verbs combined with the preposition-like adverbs in, out, away, back, etc.[48]

(a) Combinations of be and certain qualificatives in that such combinations are often semantically equivalent to simple (but often less-used) verbs:

be able	can
be sorry	regret
be glad	rejoice.

(b) Combinations of various verbs with various complements, in that such combinations are often semantically equivalent to simple (but often less-used) verbs:

have a rest	rest
have a game	play
make haste	hurry
go for a walk	walk

(c) In many cases it is convenient to treat as group-verbs combinations of verb + preposition, in that such combinations may be equivalent to simple (but often rarer or obsolete) verbs:

reply to	answer
wait for	await
look at	regard
look for	seek.[49]

Palmer's discussion reveals a vital interest in the spoken language and does reflect reality. His categories, however, based on meaning alone are too broad and include some constructions that are better considered as structures of modification or complementation rather than combinations (for example be able and go for a walk).

---

[48]All of Palmer's examples are phonetically written, but I have transcribed them in standard English orthography.

[49]Harold E. Palmer, A Grammar of Spoken English (New York, 1928), pp. 90-91.

The use of substitution criteria is too broad, for his examples reveal no consistent structural device such as stress, order, or distribution. Palmer's work, however, is valid and reveals a desire to break with traditional description and include vital new material. Note also Palmer's answer to the preposition-adverb dilemma. He calls them "preposition-like adverbs."

A British contemporary of Palmer, C. T. Onions, presents a grammar dealing with the phrasal verb under the heading of "Verbs constructed with a fixed Preposition." Though published first in 1904, Onions' book was continually revised. Thus his 1927 edition can be considered as representative of his findings at that time. Onions considered the inseparable elements--to, at, for, of, upon, with, and without to be prepositions "fixed for particular meanings."[50] These compounded to certain intransitive verbs became equivalent to transitive verbs. He also observed, "Simple transitive verbs (often of French or Latin origin) may be substituted for them."[51] Thus, Onions recognizes the basic native characteristic of these verbs.

He considers the elements away, back, forth, in, off, on, up, etc. to be adverbs and insists that these form a separate verb combination. These are the separable particles. A bit later

---

[50]C. T. Onions, An Advanced English Syntax, 4th ed. (London, 1927), p. 36.

[51]Loc. Cit.

Onions says:

> Verbs with fixed adverbs assume a similar form in the Passive,
> but the Verb and Adverb are parsed separately, because the
> Adverb retains its syntactical independence.[52]

Thus Onions says that the "adverb" type does not enter into as close union with the verb as does the "preposition" type. In short, he considers a combination with a preposition to be a verb but a combination with an adverb to be verb + adverb. Note, however, that up functions equally well in both categories:

> I put up the money.

> I put the money up.

> I put up John at the Hotel.

Hence, a more economical statement considers up as a phrasal verb-forming particle.

Curme's problem, noted earlier, concerning "The Proper Subject of a Passiv Verb" appears again in Janet Aiken's Commonsense Grammar:

> The lesson I spoke about was the fifth. Here lesson is
> subject, but it also takes the place of the object of
> about. Hence you may say that the prepositional phrase in
> this sentence is about lesson.[53]

This division of spoke about--a verb derived from the older ymbespecan--into two separate parts is inconsistent with Curme's findings regarding stress and position.

---

[52]Onions, p. 37.

[53]Janet Rankin Aiken , Commonsense Grammar (Binghamton, N.Y., 1936), p. 149.

In another grammar Janet Aiken lists many possible combinations of verbs and prepositions and evaluates them on meaning alone. She does coin a new term--merged verbs--for this combination. She does comment on the role of the preposition in the merged verb:

> The direction uses of the preposition, which may be called its usual or literal uses, are augmented by a vast number of special uses, many of which defy analysis. Thus with in fall in love with implies no continuity of action, nor do across or upon in came across or came upon (phrases with similar meaning) have anything approaching their ordinary or literal meaning.[54]

This tendency of loss of meaning has been noted previously. Thus verb meaning and preposition meaning are sacrificed to produce one new meaning. The whole is greater than the sum of its parts.

Like others--Aiken falls into the pit of assigning only one meaning to a phrasal construction:

> If we compare He came across a new fact with He came across the road we shall see that across in the first of these merges with came to mean discovered, while in the second both came and across have their literal meaning. The first came across is a merged verb.[55]

This example loses its effectiveness because one can come across "discover" a road while hiking, etc. Substitution in a tagmemic frame reveals the structural problem:

He came across a new fact.

He came across it.

He came across the road

---

[54]Janet Rankin Aiken, A New Plan of English Grammar (New York, 1933), p. 127.

[55]Aiken, New Plan of Grammar, pp. 53-54.

He came across _it_

or

He came _there_.

Finally Janet Aiken gives a test for the merged verb:

> A good test for the merged verb is that some single word will
> always be an approximate equivalent for the words composing
> it. [Palmer's method] For _send_ _out_ might be substituted
> _emit_ or _issue_. . . . [56]

But here the word _issue_ comes from L. _ex_ _ire_ > OF. _issir_ > E _issue_.

The _out_ in _send_ _out_ is the _ex_ of _exire_ or _extinguish_. The differ-

ence is, of course, that _send_ _out_ is Germanic. Thus the phrasal

verb is seen again as a real, vital heritage of the English language.

This survey of grammars from the early seventeenth century

to the mid-twentieth century reveals the multitude of opinions and

attitudes regarding the phrasal verb. Several individuals, especially

George Curme, have contributed to the description of this verb

type and have made valuable comments on its development from Germanic.

Some have treated this verb type more subjectively. Others, though

using the phrasal verb freely in their own writing, do not attempt

to describe it at all. Despite the widespread use and dynamic

development of this verb, some two hundred grammar texts analyzed

in this study make no mention of it.

---

[56]Aiken, _New_ _Plan_ _of_ _Grammar_, p. 54.

CHAPTER V

SURVEY OF STRUCTURAL GRAMMARS

1957-1965

An arbitrary line of demarcation must be drawn between the traditional and the structural or linguistic approach to grammar. Certainly, scholars like Otto Jespersen, Charles C. Fries, and Leonard Bloomfield mark a transitional stage in the description of language. Perhaps H. E. Palmer with his emphasis on the spoken word should be placed with the structuralists. George Curme, too, could well be included in the more modern group. These scholars have been discussed in chronological order, but regardless of where they are placed, their status is apparent. In 1957 a small volume appeared which has revolutionized the thinking of grammarians. Hence 1957, the publication year of Noam Chomsky's Syntactic Structures, arbitrarily marks the point of separation of traditional and truly structural grammars.

Investigation of a score of modern sources discussing the phrasal verb reveals much agreement regarding this verb type. In fact, many linguists merely restate each other's position. Certain phrasal verb types are adequately described in basic linguistic texts and a few college grammars. This verb type is almost completely neglected, however, by grammar handbooks, school grammars, etc. on the level where it should be described clearly. As mentioned earlier, this verb type is too productive, too useful, and too

prevalent to be solely recognized by a few linguists.

Chomsky's description is concerned primarily with the possibility of separation of the particle from the verb. Chomsky gives proper recognition to the phrasal verb:

> There are, however, a large number of productive sub-classes of V that deserve some mention, since they bring to light some basic points in a rather clear way. Consider first such verb + particle (V + Prt) constructions as "bring in," "call up," "drive away." We can have such forms as (82) but not (83).
>
> (82)(1)   the police brought in the criminal
>   (ii)   the police brought the criminal in
>   (iii)   the police brought him in
>
> (83) the police brought in him.

Chomsky then "sets up an optional transformation T_{sep}^{op} which operates on strings with the structural analysis

(85) $X - V_1 - Prt - NP$."

Thus the particle may occur immediately after the verb and before the NP, or immediately after the NP. Substituting a pronoun for the NP renders the separation obligatory (T_{sep}^{ob}) "which operates on strings with the structural analysis

(86) $X - V_1 - Prt-Pron$"[1]

which yields "brought him in."

Thus Chomsky states in modern transformational terms a principle observed by many grammarians of another day.

_____

[1]Noam Chomsky, <u>Syntactic Structures</u> ('S-Gravenhage, 1963), pp. 75-76.

This description does not limit the flexibility of (82) (i)and (ii) above. The in may be either a separable particle or an adverb. Thus brought in probably means "arrested." Brought . . . in can mean "arrested" or "brought into the room."

Paul Roberts follows Chomsky's lead quite closely in his grammars and renders valuable service by employing Chomsky's patterns and verb analysis in a basic grammar. Commenting upon intransitive verbs, Roberts observes:

> Some verbs of Pattern One may have a different kind of adverb following them, a word like away, up, on, out, by, over, in, under, to, down.
>
> | subject | Predicate |
> |---------|-----------|
> | John | went away. |
> | The child | looked up. |
> | The lion | came to. |
> | He | dropped in. |
> | The parade | passed by. |
> | We | looked on. |
>
> Predicates of this kind are sometimes called verb-adverb combinations.[2]

Observe the great variety of verb structures in this list. Roberts feels that they are similar, but note the vast difference between went away and came to or looked on. Looked up, passed by, and looked on can be followed by object complements (NP or Pron) thus becoming transitive.

Roberts' programed introduction to transformational grammar reflects a refinement of Chomsky's position as well as an improve-

---

[2]Paul Roberts, English Sentences (New York, 1962), p. 28.

ment of Roberts' earlier work. He considers the phrasal verb
with particle immediately following to be a kernel (or basic)
English sentence. Thus the separable particle construction is a
transformation:

$$Vt_2 + Prt + NP \rightarrow Vt_2 + NP + Prt.$$

Roberts labels this transformation T-VT and describes it "as the
transposition of some part of a VT and a following object."[3]

Following Chomsky's lead, Roberts continues:

> For the sequence VT_2 + Prt + NP, T-VT is optional unless
> the NP is a personal pronoun. If the NP is a personal
> pronoun, T-VT is obligatory.[4]

Both Chomsky and Roberts base their optional and obliga-
tory separation criteria on the nature of the NP. But the phrasal
verb type think about, worry about is inseparable on the basis of
the nature of the particle, not the NP. Roberts discusses a
related type (Vt_3 + Comp). Comp is some structure other than
particle required to complete the meaning of a verb. Roberts says:

> For example, we don't say *"He relied," but "He relied on
> the evidence" or "He relied on Tom." We will call such struc-
> tures which complete meanings in this way complements.
> After VI's, complements are generally prepositional phrases
> of some sort. What is the complement in "It lasted for an
> hour"? for an hour.[5]

---

[3]Paul Roberts, English Syntax, alt. ed. (New York, 1964),
p. 196.

[4]Roberts, Syntax, p. 163.

[5]Roberts, Syntax, p. 161.

Thus Roberts considers on the evidence and on Tom to be struc-
turally equivalent to for an hour. "In 'He fled to Chicago,' flee
is à Vi_3. The prepositional phrase to Chicago is a complement."[6]
Thus Roberts equates:

He relied on Tom

He fled to Chicago.

Linguistic intuition tells us that the two are different. The
structural significance of the problem is soon realized. Roberts
continues:

> So far, the complements after Vi_3 and Vt_3 in our examples
> have all been adverbial prepositional phrases: to Chicago,
> in the box, on the piano. Structures of other types can
> occur as complements after Vt_3. In "He thought a fool
> anyone who disagreed with him," think is a Vt_3, and the
> object is anyone who disagreed with him. The complement
> is the noun phrase a fool. In "He thought a fool anyone
> who disagreed with him," anyone who disagreed with him
> is not the object of the Vt_3 think. *"He thought anyone
> who disagreed with him" is ungrammatical. It is the
> object of the VT, that is, of think plus its complement,
> a fool.[7]

This ingenious description replaces in a sense his sentence formula
N Vc N N of English Sentences.[8] In an expanded formula N_1 Vc N_2
N_3, N_2 is the direct object and N_3 the objective complement.

Roberts discusses the double-base transformation which
yields such sentences as "John considers Sam a fool" and "They
think Edith beautiful." This transformation consists of a matrix

---

[6]Roberts, Syntax, p. 161.

[7]Roberts, Syntax, pp. 165-166.

[8]Roberts, Sentences, p. 40.

string plus an insert.

Roberts' discussion has been analyzed quite closely, but the inescapable fact remains--neither Chomsky nor Roberts recognizes the non-separable combination (V + Pt as it was written in the Introduction to this study). Note Roberts' example using think:

(c) He thought anyone who disagreed with him a fool

or

(d) He thought a fool anyone who disagreed with him.

He analyzes the VT as think + a fool. Note, however, that

*He thought a fool

and

*He thought anyone who disagreed with him

are both ungrammatical. Consider the following:

He thought about the problem very much

and

He thought very much about the problem.

These seem similar to (c) and (d) but note:

He thought about the problem

He thought very much

are both grammatical sentences. Likewise:

I worry about Tom a great deal

and

I worry a great deal about Tom

consist of a double base transformation based on the kernels:

> I worry about Tom

> I worry a great deal.

Both <u>a great deal</u> and <u>very much</u> function adverbially. Consider
Roberts' own examples:

> He relied on Tom

or

> He relied on the evidence.

Both sentences can take adverbial modifiers <u>a great deal</u>, <u>very much</u>,
<u>constantly</u>, etc. Thus <u>worry</u> is V_i, but <u>worry</u> <u>about</u> is a $V_t \rightarrow V +$
Pt. Not only is the Pt inseparable, but the verb construction is
always transitive. The direct object is obligatory:

> *He relied on

> *He thought about

> He relied on Tom.

The inclusion of inseparable particle class verbs is a
more economical, more realistic description of the language.

Transformational grammars, disparaging the prosody of the
language, overlook some significant structural features. Subse-
quent investigation reveals that most linguists do emphasize the
prosodic aspect of language.

Abdul Karim Taha based his analysis of "two-word verbs" on
the prosodic features of stress and juncture employing the stan-
dards set by Trager and Smith. Taha introduces his study as follows:

This is a summary of a study which set out to investigate
the structural features of the two-word verb constructions
in spoken English. To achieve this objective, a large
body of utterances with two-word verbs was obtained directly
from native speakers of English. Each of these utterances
was carefully recorded with its stress, juncture, and
order characteristics.

By employing stress as a criterion, two-word verb con-
structions used in these utterances were classified into:
(1) intransitive constructions and (2) transitive con-
structions.[9]

Taka's data shows that intransitive two word verbs have a stress

superfix that varies with the position of the adverb (particle).

e verb element receives tertiary stress, "whereas the adverbial

elements receive secondary stress in utterance--medial position,

or primary stress before a terminal juncture."[10] Taha's criteria

for transitive verbs include "secondary stress on the verbal

elements, and secondary [medially] or primary [terminally or

before a final pronoun] on the adverbial elements."[11] In general,

this contrasting stress pattern agrees with the basic criteria

established by Curme.

Taha attempts to establish fine distinctions of meaning

on the basis of stress and order, contiguous or non-continuous.

He adopts the term ad-prep to signify the functions of the particle,

---

[9]Abdul Karim Taha, "The Structure of Two-Words Verbs in
English, " Readings in Applied English Linguistics, ed. Harold
B. Allen (New York, 1964), pp. 130-131.

[10]Taha, p. 131.

[11]Taha, p. 131.

as the present study has defined it. Many of Taha's observations
must be questioned. For example, discussing transitive two-word
verbs he lists the following three sentences:

Mary banged down it

The mower mowed down it

He rode down it.[12]

The observations of Palmer, Kennedy, Roberts, and Chomsky--to name
a few--label these sentences ungrammatical.[13] These are clear
examples of obligatory separation and should be written

Mary banged it down, etc.

In commenting on the intransitive verb, Taha considers

He fell down | on the job

to consist of a two-word verb fell down plus a prepositional phrase.
Note that fell down in the sense of "fall" is more realistically
described as V + Av. The construction

He fell down on the job

meaning "he neglected the job" is a V + Pt + Pt.

Taha considers the following constructions transitive:

The mower mowed down the bank

---

[12]Taha, p. 131.

[13]Kennedy says, "A pronominal object almost always inter-
venes between the verb and particle in modern English." Verb-
Adverb Combination, p. 30. Palmer says, "When the sentence contains
a direct object in the form of a personal pronoun, they [the
preposition-like adverbs] are placed immediately after the pronoun."
Grammar, p. 180.

The mower mowed down it

He rode down the street

He rode down it.[14]

These constructions are all either intransitive or ungrammatical. Clearly down the bank and down the street are prepositional phrases functioning adverbially. The other two sentences are ungrammatical unless the obligatory separable transformations are applied and then the pronouns it cannot refer to bank and street but to something else on the bank or on the street. Consider:

The mower mowed down the grass

*The mower mowed down it

The mower mowed it down.

The construction mow down (call it phrasal verb, two-word verb, verb-adverb combination) must have an object that can be "mowed down" or "cut," Compare "the machine gun mowed down the soldiers" but not "the machine gun mowed down the battlefield."

One further example of Taha's shows the danger of assigning meaning on structural criteria alone. He feels that discontiguous order of verb and particle (object intervening) yields a meaning different from contiguous order. For example:

Don't let down the coach

(i.e., don't lower it.)

_____

[14]Taha, p. 133.

Don't <u>let</u> the coach <u>down</u>

(i.e. don't disappoint him.)

or

He <u>jumped</u> <u>down</u> the horse

(i.e. he jumped down from the horse.)

He <u>jumped</u> the horse <u>down</u>

(i.e. he forced the horse to jump down.)[15]

This second pair is quite questionable grammatically, but consider

the first. On a distributional basis, neither <u>he</u> nor <u>it</u> can be

substituted in the first frame:

*Don't let down him

*Don't let down it.

Both <u>he</u> and <u>it</u> can be substituted in the second frame:

Don't let him down

Don't let it down.

Meaning is not changed in this instance by the separation of verb

and particle, and the sentences

Don't let the coach down

Don't let down the coach

are ambiguous out of context.

---

[15]Taha, p. 134. He <u>jumped</u> <u>down</u> the horse with Taha's
meaning is not English. Prepositions cannot be elided. "Down the
horse" is adverbial (Loc) in this utterance, and the subject is
jumping on the horse in a downward direction. Few horses would
submit to such treatment, especially when reclining on a slope.

Taha's meticulous prosodic analysis of two-word verbs is thus marred by the inclusion of ungrammatical and unidiomatic expressions.

Professor Hill, Taha's mentor, takes a very sound position regarding what he calls non-verbal materials in verbal constructions. Hill follows the stress system of Germanic worked out by Curme and disagrees with Taha. Consider:

> Forms like by vary in their stress and juncture characteristics, and are not always prepositions nor always members of the following nominal construction. Thus, as written, the following sentence is ambiguous: "He passed by the bridge." It may represent either:
> he passed | by the bridge or, less probably,
> he passed by | the bridge.[16]

The prepositional phrase in the first example functions as an adverbial (Mod), but passed by meaning "overlook," "miss," is a phrasal verb.

Hill observes that by in stressed inseparable position can be followed by a pronoun object:

John passed by it.

Hill notes a similar construction:

John passed out cards.[17]

Despite the stress marks, the impression is that by it in the above

_____

[16]Archibald A. Hill, Introduction to Linguistic Structures (New York, 1958), pp. 223-224. Phonetic transcriptions have been rewritten in standard orthography.

[17]Hill, p. 255.

example is a prepositional phrase not phrasal verb plus object.

Note, however, that "John passed out cards" is separable and can

be written "John passed cards out" with no change of meaning.

"John passed it by" is unambiguous, while "John passed by it"

regardless of stress seems to indicate prepositional phrase <u>by it</u>

functioning as adverbial (Loc.). Consider another construction

with <u>by</u>:

> The author <u>goes</u> <u>by</u> his pen name.

> The author <u>goes</u> <u>by</u> it.

Here goes by is clearly a pV → V + Pt, or inseparable type.

Hill makes a valuable contribution regarding the grammatical

status of <u>up</u>. Speaking of preverbal position of non-verbal elements

he observes:

> The verb in such a construction is always one which can be
> roughly described as one of motion: That is, we can say
> either "John came úp" or "Úp came John," but with a
> sentence like "John cleaned úp," initial position for <u>up</u>
> does not occur. Nor do all of the group of adverbial forms
> occur in the construction. A typical adverbial form of the
> type we are discussing is stressed <u>to</u>, in such a sentence
> as:
> John came tó (regained consciousness).
> For this sentence, *"Tó came John" is quite as unnatural as
> as *"<u>Úp cleaned</u> John."[18]

Thus a construction which permits the stressed particle to take

preverbal position is a V + Av structure of modification. Consider

then:

> John ran up

_____

[18]Hill, p. 225.

Úp rán John

Úp John rán.

All these forms are possible. But note the limitation of the following:

John rán úp a bill

John rán a bill úp.

*Úp ran John a bill

*Úp John ran a bill.

Thus <u>up</u> in this example is clearly a verb-forming particle, not an adverbial.

James Sledd discusses the same problem and uses a series of test frames to determine the name of a function from its position or distribution. For example:

To illustrate the variety of the adverbial positions, we may use the adverb <u>quickly</u>, which can stand initially, medially, or finally:

Quickly she replied.

She quickly replied.

She replied quickly.[19]

Sledd qualifies this frame by commenting that not all adverbs can fill all slots or positions. Sledd does say:

---

[19]James Sledd, <u>A Short Introduction to English Grammar</u> (Chicago, 1959), p. 94.

> One position in which adverbials commonly occur is under
> strongest stress at the end of a sentence:
> The man made money quickly
> He burnt the house up.[20]

Burn up in this context is considered a phrasal verb in the present

study. But Sledd like others calls up adverbial. According to

his own criteria:

> Adverbs, we have said, are uninflected, and in general,
> adverbials will be forms consistently replaceable by
> adverbs and other uninflected words (such as then, there,
> thus) but usually not by members of our inflected classes.[21]

Then, there, thus or their symbolic functional forms Temp, Loc, and

Mod are widely agreed to be the basic adverb types. But which of

these could possibly be substituted for the up in "He burnt the

house up"? One could, however, say

He burnt the house up (then, thus, there)

or

He burnt up the house (then, thus, there).

but not

He burnt (then, thus, there) the house.

Thus the particle up occupies a position not typical of adverbs.

Sledd does distinguish between prepositions (unstressed)

in final position and adverbials (stressed), but his adverbial

category is too broad. He fails, therefore, to recognize the

---

[20]Sledd, p. 95.

[21]Sledd, p. 95.

phrasal verb.

Chomsky, however, does point out this distinction:

$V_t \rightarrow V + Prt$ [in env. — NP]

$V \rightarrow \underline{look}$

$\underline{look} + \underline{Prt} \rightarrow \underline{look} + \underline{up}$, i.e., $\underline{Prt} \rightarrow \underline{up}$, but not $\underline{in}$,

in the context look _____.[22]

Thus $\underline{up}$ is particle $\underline{in}$ context $\underline{look}$ ―――― but $\underline{in}$ is clearly an

adverbial in the same context. Hence $\underline{look}$ $\underline{up}$ is a phrasal verb,

but $\underline{look}$ $\underline{in}$ is a V + Loc.

Henry Lee Smith mentions the problem of the phrasal verb

very briefly in his film series that have been so popular and so

widely used in colleges and high schools. He mentions the stress

superfix in the oft-cited:

the bull dozer $\underline{tore}$ $\underline{up}$ the street

with stress superfix (∧ + ∧) identifying the structure as verb plus

adverb and (ˋ + ˊ) identifying the structure as verb plus preposi-

tion.[23] This statement is indeed questionable and is similar to

Sledd's treatment. Stress (ˋ + ˊ) or (�‿ + ˊ) often indicates a

phrasal verb.

_____

[22]Noam Chomsky, "A Transformational Approach to Syntax," in The Structure of Language, ed. Jerry A. Fodor and Jerrold Katz (Englewood Cliffs, 1964), p. 215. Brackets are mine. Material in brackets is needed to define Prt.

[23]Henry Lee Smith, Jr., "Grammar, Part II," no. 8 in the film series, Language and Linquistics.

Robert Lees gives a very comprehensive analysis of the phrasal verb construction. He, too, recognizes two distinct types as follows:

> Thus, for example, we are led to distinguish between the verbs in:
> (1) He looked into the information., and
> (2) He looked up the information.,
> both presumably kernel sentences, by virtue of the fact that, after nominalization under a certain grammatical transformation, they yield contrasting constructions:
> (3) His looking into the information . . .
> (4) His looking up of the information . . .
> If we now compare the two sentences under passive transformation as well:
> (5) The information was looked into by him.
> (6) The information was looked up by him.
> we see that the verbs in (1) and (2) are <u>look into</u> and <u>look up</u>. Thus their contrast under <u>nominalization</u> is due not simply to a difference between two lexical entries <u>look</u> and <u>look up</u>, but rather to some underlying difference in two kernel types of verb + preposition construction.[24]

On the basis of this data, Lees establishes two verb + element constructions V_X + P and V_B + Prt. These are illustrated as follows in normal form, passive and nominalization transformations:

V_X + P

He told about his life.

His life was told about by him.

His telling about his life . . . [25]

---

[24] Robert B. Lees, The <u>Grammar</u> of <u>English Nominalizations</u>, <u>IJAL</u>, 26, no. 3 (July, 1960), 3-4.

[25] Lees, p. 9.

V_B + Prt

He got out the money.

He got the money out.

The money was gotten out by him.

His getting out of the money. . . [26]

Lees' arbitrary insertion of _of_ in the nominalization transform of V_B + Prt should be questioned, for such a construction is not obligatory.

Consider Lees' four nominalization transforms:

(1) His looking into the information . . .

(2) His looking up (of) the information . . .

(3) His telling about his life . . .

(4) His getting out (of) the money . . .

In (1) and (3) _into_ and _about_ are inseparable particles. In (2) and (4) _up_ and _out_ are separable particles when _of_ is not used. However _up_ and _out_ plus _of_ become nonseparable compound particles when written _up of_ and _out of_. Moreover, (4) may also be verb _get_ plus adverb _out_ plus prepositional phrase _of the money_-- "taking a lower paying job." But in (2) _up_ can not be an adverb and _of_ can not be a preposition.

The big three in basic linguistics textbooks--Gleason, Hockett, and Francis--vary in their treatment of the phrasal

---

[26]Lees, p. 11.

verb.[27] Gleason doesn't mention the structure at all, though like

others, he employs phrasal verbs in his own language. Hockett

only indirectly mentions the phrasal verb in a chapter dealing

with accent and rhythm. That he is aware of the construction is

seen in the following:

> One normally says
>
> (30) The wind blew up the street
> and
> (31) The dynamiter blew up the factory.
> If one confuses these and says
> (32) The wind blew up the street
> it sounds as though the wind caused an explosion.[28]

Discussing the stress-timed rhythm of English, Hockett continues:

> To diagram this, we shall use long vertical lines like
> the bar-lines of music before each successive primary stress
> . . . . The typical timing of examples (30) and (32) can
> then be shown as follows:
>
> (30') The | wind | blew up the | street
> (32') The | wind blew | up the | street.[29]

Thus Hockett is aware of the structural differences in the two

sentences.

Hockett's failure to analyze the verb construction more

completely leads to confusion at other points. Discussing

---

[27]H. A. Gleason, Jr., An Introduction to Descriptive
Linguistics (New York, 1961). Charles F. Hockett, A Course in
Modern Linguistics (New York, 1964). W. Nelson Francis, The
Structure of American English (New York, 1958).

[28]Hockett, p. 52.

[29]Hockett, p. 53.

objective constructions Hockett employs the verb <u>buy</u> in a <u>V-ing</u> construction <u>buying roses</u> and then demonstrates the various functions--subject, object, attributive, etc.--that the construction can fulfill. But note:

> object of preposition:
> (I counted) on |buying roses;
> in| buying roses (one must be careful).[30]

<u>In</u> is a preposition with object <u>buying roses</u>, but <u>on</u> is a verb-forming inseparable particle and <u>buying roses</u> is the direct object of the phrasal verb <u>count on</u>. Compare "I <u>counted on</u> going camping" or "I <u>counted on</u> Henry." Hockett fails to recognize the inseparable phrasal verb.

Nelson Francis gives a clear description of what he calls <u>separable verbs</u> that consist of two parts--an independent verb plus a form that is sometimes an adverb and sometimes a preposition.[31] Francis comments on the obligatory separation of the two parts when the object is a pronoun. But Francis completely overlooks the inseparable type of phrasal verb.

A recent linguistic textbook by Barbara Strang does list three types of combinations of verb plus other element, but inconsistencies make her system suspect. She names the types as follows:

---

[30]Hockett, p. 196.

[31]Francis, pp. 265-267.

> One is called the <u>prepositional verb</u>, since it consists
> of an item that on its own functions as a verb, plus
> an item that on its own functions as a preposition; the
> second is called a phrasal verb, since it consists of
> an item that can be a verb plus a particle that can be
> either preposition or adverb; and the third, combining
> the characteristics of the other two, is called
> <u>prepositional-phrasal</u>.[31]

This description becomes somewhat confused when the types are

described more fully:

> (I) the prepositional verb is transitive. . . . Examples,
> with <u>take to</u>, <u>come across</u>, are
> "I took to him at once."
> "We came across him again only recently."[32]

Thus far the description is sound, but note:

> The corresponding collocation of verb + particle may be
> transitive or intransitive, and if there is an object,
> it must be interpolated between the verb and the particle:
> "I took it to him" or "I took the case to him."

In these last examples <u>to</u> is clearly a preposition introducing a

prepositional phrase used adverbially (Loc). This construction

is not even remotely related to <u>take to</u> meaning "like" above.

Also, an example of an intransitive verb of this type would help

to convince those who are skeptical of its existence.

Discussing the category she labels <u>phrasal verb</u>, Miss

Strang continues:

---

[32]Barbara M. H. Strang, <u>Modern English Structure</u> (London,
1962), p. 157.

[33]Strang, p. 157.

(2) The phrasal verb may be transitive or intransitive
[again she gives no examples of intransitive unless
she considers passive voice intransitive].[34]

Her examples--turn off, take in, and laugh at demonstrate the

qualities of separableness and inseparableness.

Her third category, prepositional-phrasal consists of

verb plus two particles, a type of phrasal verb defined earlier

in this study. Her example is "I can't put up with it any longer."

The verb construction is put up with.

Several new advanced grammar texts for college use dis-

cuss the phrasal verbs. A discussion of representative texts

will conclude this chapter.

Hans Guth presents a very basic discussion of the phrasal

verb type in a discussion of intonation:

> Intonation at times helps establish grammatical distinc-
> tions not otherwise clear or conclusive. Obviously, upon
> functions differently in the following two sentences:
>   Much responsibility was put upon him.
>   He was much put upon.
> . . . Students of intonation have pointed out that this
> distinction shows up in weaker stress on the preposition
> than on its "adverbial" double in pairs like
>   We took in a show. (secondary stress on in)
>   We sat in a car. (tertiary stress on in)
> In combinations like "took in a show" and "sent in a request,"
> in carries the stress carried in the contrasting sentences
> by the simple verbs ("sat in a car"). Open transition
> separates took in and a show, but sat and in a car. The
> in in took in is therefore legitimately considered part
> of a phrasal, or compound, verb rather than an ordinary
> preposition.[35]

---

[34]Strang, p. 158.

[35]Hans P. Guth, English Today and Tomorrow (Englewood Cliffs,
N. J., 1964), p. 37.

Despite Guth's neglect to discuss the separable aspects of his examples, one is pleased to find this description in a book written especially "for teachers of English at all levels" as stated in the Preface.[36]

A more recent grammar by Josephine Lowery mentions both the stress and juncture features of the phrasal verb. She employs the traditional terms, adverb and preposition, to indicate the element combining with a verb to produce a phrasal type. She indicates that adverbs can be separated from the verb, but prepositions cannot.[37] This description is a bit too simplified, but again one is grateful for its appearance in a grammar book.

Unfortunately, Josephine Lowery becomes very prescriptive on occasion. Note the following examples dealing with phrasal type constructions:

> In questions and in some other constructions the preposition may be separated from its object. This arrangement, normal in casual speech, would usually be avoided in the formal dialect.
>
> <u>Casual</u>
> Who were you talking ab<u>out?</u>
> The page (<u>which</u>) he referred <u>to</u> was blank.
>
> <u>Formal</u>
> <u>About</u> <u>whom</u> were you tal<u>king?</u>
> The page <u>to</u> <u>which</u> he referred was blank.[38]

---

[36]Guth, p. v.

[37]Josephine Lowery, <u>This Is Grammar</u> (New York, 1965), p. 109.

[38]Lowery, p. 108.

Mrs. Lowery is obviously bound by the prescriptive rule of John Dryden. The so-called formal dialect is no better than the one labeled casual. Apparently Mrs. Lowery cannot really recognize phrasal verbs, for here are two good examples, talk about and refer to. In the interrogative transform applied to the kernel

You were talking about him

the object of the phrasal verb becomes who.

Who were you talking about?

This structure is analogous to the passive transform.

He was being talked about by you.

These transformations clearly identify talked about as a phrasal verb, not as a verb modified by a prepositional phrase.

In another text designed for the training of future English teachers, V. E. Leichty discusses combination verbs at some length. He employs stress patterning and word substition or meaning as the basic criteria in this discussion. Substitution of a one word synonym is not always a valid test for a phrasal verb. Consider one of Leichty's examples:

> . . ., we find also that some of these words which are
> added to the verb may not be separated from the main
> verb. For example, I may use to come with as a synonym
> for to accompany, and so say "Come with me"; but I cannot
> say *"Come me with."[39]

With me is a prepositional phrase functioning adverbially (Mod).

---

[39]V. E. Leichty, Discovering English (Englewood Cliffs, N. J., 1964) p. 92.

As this study has indicated previously, a class of phrasal verbs containing inseparable particles does exist, but the above example is not a member of this class. Note, too, that various stress combinations do not change the grammatical relationship of the verb and preposition.

R. W. Pence and D. W. Emery give a brief description of "Verb + adverb combinations" and "Verb + preposition combinations" in their grammar. They equate V + Av with separable types and V + Prep as inseparables. They try, like Roberts, to somehow equate the phrasal verb to some other construction. In a footnote, they offer the following information:

> It may be noted that an adverb so used [separable particle] has much the effect of an objective complement. Note that out in "They put the fire out" completes the predication begun by the verb put much in the same way in which a regular objective complement completes the predication begun by the verb--"They scrubbed the floor clean." Such an adverb as out might very well be construed in the sentence given as an adverb functioning as an objective complement. Once again we see how close adverbial modifiers and complements really are.[40]

Some basic problems exist in this statement that can lead to a better understanding of the phrasal verb. Scrubbed is a predicator in scubbed . . . clean, but put out is the predicator in put out. Then, too, Pence and Emery give only the separated form. Is "They put out the fire" as closely related structurally to

---

[40] R. W. Pence and D. W. Emery, A Grammar of Present-Day English (New York, 1964) p. 55.

"They scrubbed the floor clean"?   Note, too the non-sentences

*"They scrubbed clean the floor."   *"They appointed the group

leader John."   Or consider "They <u>called</u> John <u>up</u>" in the sense

"telephone."   This <u>up</u> could not be an objective complement.   The

English phrasal verb is a grammatical unit in which two or more

words consisting of a verb and one or more particles combine to

produce a new verb form capable of predicating an English

sentence.

In this chapter, we have observed representative treat-

ments of phrasal verbs by the linguists and linguistically oriented

grammarians.   Various criteria have been observed.   Some criteria

have collapsed under investigation.   Other criteria have added

to an understanding of this verb type.   The following chapter

will synthesize the criteria as much as possible, add new cate-

gories, and arrive at a comprehensive description of the phrasal

verb.

CHAPTER VI

COMPREHENSIVE DESCRIPTION OF THE PHRASAL VERBS

Having discussed the development of the phrasal verb from its beginnings, the attitude of grammarians toward this verb, and the descriptions by various linguists, the study now undertakes a comprehensive description of the phrasal verb. As has been noted, many grammarians rely heavily on the prosodic features (stress and juncture) to identify the phrasal verb. These features are more pertinent in normal discourse than in utterances in which the stress and juncture characteristics might be shifted or altered. As Curme pointed out and others have emphasized, the basic stress pattern for the English verb is $/\smile\acute{}/$. This pattern has been observed in the development of phrasal verbs from Germanic to the present day. This verb pattern contrasts with the basic noun stress pattern $/\acute{}\grave{}/$. The contrast is seen in certain minimal pairs:

N p$\acute{e}$rm$\grave{i}$t	V p$\breve{e}$rm$\acute{i}$t
$\acute{a}$ff$\grave{i}$x	$\breve{a}$ff$\acute{i}$x
c$\acute{o}$ntr$\grave{a}$st	c$\breve{o}$ntr$\acute{a}$st

and a colloquial form:

$\acute{i}$nv$\grave{i}$te	$\breve{i}$nv$\acute{i}$te

and in the phrasal verb type:

l$\acute{o}$ok$\grave{o}$ut	l$\breve{o}$ok $\acute{o}$ut
m$\acute{a}$ke$\grave{u}$p	m$\breve{a}$ke $\acute{u}$p.

This stress feature of the phrasal verb can be lost in certain

situations, for example:

Tom ran up the hill, not down it.

Here verbal stress is given to a preposition which normally would
be stressed:

Tom ran up the hill.

The juncture patterns or stress timed rhythms worked out by Hockett
are not always significant in actual speech situations. A speaker
can run his words together so rapidly that junctures are lost.

In general, the stress superfix $/\cup \acute{} /$ of the English verb
is an identifying feature of the phrasal verb in normal discourse.

Substitution of pronouns or adverbs in test frames can
help solve the ambiguity of grammatical structures:

He ran (up the hill)   He ran (there)

He ran up (the flag)   He ran (it) up.

Note that

He ran up (the hill) with replacement (there)

clearly identifies up as an adverb as in the utterance:

He ran up.

Observe that

He ran (up the flag) with replacement (there)

is grammatically impossible. There may be used only as an adverb
(Loc) as in

He ran there.

Substitution of one-word verbs for the suspected phrasal

verb construction (often the only criterion listed by some grammarians) is a good, but not infallible test. Consider the following examples:

    (a) He <u>ran</u> <u>up</u> the flag   "hoisted"

    (b) He <u>ran</u> <u>up</u> the bill   "accumulated"

    (c) He <u>ran</u> <u>up</u> the score   "raised"

    (d) He <u>ran</u> <u>up</u> the hill   "ascended."

Note that (a), (b), and (c) are phrasal verbs and can all be written:

    He <u>ran</u> the (flag, bill, score) <u>up</u>.

Even though (d) can take a one-word verb substitute, it does not contain a phrasal verb. Consider:

    *He <u>ran</u> the hill <u>up</u>.

Thus, oft-cited identifying criteria are not infallible.

The English phrasal verb consists of four basic types which can be diagrammed:

$$pV \rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} V + Pt \\ V + Pt_s \\ V + Pt + Pt \\ be + Pt + Pt \end{array} \right\}$$

A brief summary of each type follows.

(I) V + Pt consists of a verb, either transitive or intransitive, plus an inseparable particle. The particle performs various basic functions in the phrasal construction. The resultant phrasal

verb is always transitive and requires a direct object. For example:

> He worries   Vi
>
> He worries Tom   Vt
>
> He worries about Tom. pV

Similar constructions are as follows:

> He believes   Vi
>
> He believes in Tom   pV
>
> He thinks   Vi
>
> He thinks about Tom. pV

Another function of the particle is to form an entirely new verb concept:

> (a) He goes   Vi
>
> (b) He goes by   Vi + Av
>
> (c) He goes by his pen name. pV

A large group of verb plus adverb constructions appears similar to V + Pt, but these constructions take no objects and are generally followed by adverbial modifiers:
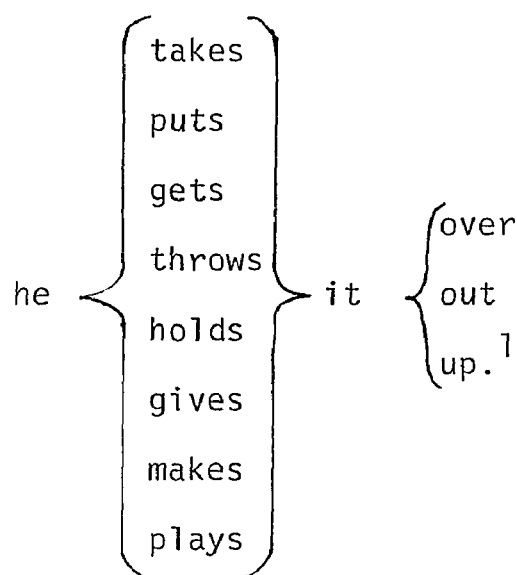
> He ran up (to me)   "approached"
>
> He put up (at the hotel)   "stayed"
>
> The clock ran down (yesterday). "stopped"

Note that these forms can all be substituted for by one word. Each of these verb constructions, however, can be and sometimes must be followed by an adverbial modifier, but not by a direct

object.

Type (II) V + Pt$_s$ is much more prevalent in the language and is probably the most productive grammatical device in the language. The particle has two positions--separable from, or in close conjunction with, the verb--with no grammatical change. The construction consists of a transitive verb or an intransitive plus a separable particle. The resultant form is always transitive and requires a direct object. W. Nelson Francis illustrates the great productivity of this type with the following diagram which yields twenty-four possible phrasal verbs:

$$
he \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{takes} \\ \text{puts} \\ \text{gets} \\ \text{throws} \\ \text{holds} \\ \text{gives} \\ \text{makes} \\ \text{plays} \end{array} \right\} it \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{over} \\ \text{out} \\ \text{up.} \end{array} \right.
$$ [1]

One could add many verbs and particles to the lists. The British linguist, M. A. K. Halliday of London, told the writer that he and his colleagues once programmed a computer with a great number of verbs and particles (prepositions, adverbs, etc.) in an attempt to discover combining characteristics. The results yielded such

---

[1] W. Nelson Francis, The Structure of American English (New York, 1958), p. 266.

a proliferation of combinations and possible combinations that the data defied analysis, and the project was abandoned. The possibilities of this idiomatic device seem unlimited.

As has been mentioned previously, the outstanding structural characteristic of V + Pt$_S$ is the obligatory separation of verbal element and particle by the direct object when the direct object is a pronoun.

Note, too, that the resultant meaning of the combination is often different from the meaning of the two elements involved. The whole is different from the sum of its parts.

Category (III) V + Pt + Pt, though not as prevalent as the other two types discussed thus far, has a rather frequent occurrence in English. The construction consists of a verb, either transitive or intransitive, plus two particles. Examples with meanings follow:

John <u>ran</u> <u>out</u> <u>on</u> his wife "left"

John <u>puts</u> <u>up</u> <u>with</u> his problem "endures"

John <u>fell</u> <u>down</u> <u>on</u> the test. "failed"

Similar constructions:

John ran out on the roof   "exited"

John puts up with Fred   "lodges"

John fell down on the floor   "dropped"

are actually verb plus adverb plus prepositional phrase constructions. Juncture and stress play little part in distinguishing

these structures. Often the second noun phrase gives a clue to meaning and hence to verb type, but structural ambiguity can be resolved by substitution in tagmemic frames. Consider:

(a) John puts up with his problem "endures"

John <u>puts</u> <u>up</u> <u>with</u> (it)

(b) John puts up with Fred   "endures"

John <u>puts</u> <u>up</u> <u>with</u> (him)

but on the other hand note:

(c) John puts up with Fred   "lodges"

John puts up with him

John puts up (there).

<u>Him</u> can be substituted for Fred in both (b) and (c) but only <u>there</u> can replace <u>with</u> <u>him</u> in sentence (c).

These three phrasal verb types have been discussed at some length and with varying degrees of accuracy from the time of Samuel Johnson until the present day. The final category, (IV) be + Pt + Pt, as far as can be determined from available resources, has never been subjected to a valid analysis. Harold E. Palmer came very close to describing this verb type in 1923, when he wrote:

> An almost unlimited number of "Group-Verbs" may be formed by the use of the simpler (generally monosyllabic) verbs combined with the preposition-like adverbs <u>in</u>, <u>out</u>, <u>away</u>, <u>back</u>, etc.
>   In addition to these, it is often convenient to consider as group-verbs:
>   a. Combinations of <u>be</u> and certain qualificatives in that such a combinations are often semantically equivalent to simple (but often less-used) verbs:

>   be able = can
>
>   be sorry = regret
>
>   be glad = rejoice.[2]

Palmer's categories are so broad that they become meaningless.
The ineffectiveness of substituting one form for semantic instead
of structural similarity has previously been noted.

A similarly unrealistic description of a _be_ type con-
struction is found in a recently revised and widely used grammar
text by Homer House and Susan Emolyn Harman. Using the diagram
system often associated with traditional grammars, House and Harman
analyze the following sentence:

>   We are out of sugar and coffee

as

>   subject, linking verb, and subjective complement.[3]

Out of sugar and coffee is described as a prepositional phrase
functioning as a subjective complement. In other words _out of
sugar and coffee_ is equal to _we_. This description is unrealistic,
at best.

This type of construction is the basis for some bad puns:

>   A doctor should never be out of patients (patience)

---

[2]Harold E. Palmer, _A Grammar of Spoken English_ (New York,
1928), p. 90. Phonetic transcriptions have been written in
standard orthography.

[3]Homer C. House and Susan Emolyn Harman, _Descriptive
English Grammar_, 2nd ed. (Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 1963), p. 238.

An apothecary should never be out of spirits.

The last sentence is ambiguous, written or spoken. Out of spirits referring to mental outlook, attitude, etc. can function as subjective complement. Out of spirits meaning "he has no more alcohol, ether, ammonia, etc." is part of a phrasal verb construction. Note that one can say:

He is (very) out of spirits   SC

He is out of (them).   pV

This construction is representative of a limited, but rather frequently occurring phrasal verb type. Other examples follow:

We are out of butter (it)

He is up on Communism (it)

I'm down on Joe. (him)

Compare these sentences to the following be plus adverb plus prepositional phrase constructions:

We are out of the woods (there)

He is up on the roof (there)

I'm down on the floor. (there)

Substitution of there yields:

We are (out of the woods) (there) V + prep

Substitution of (it) yields:

We are out of (butter) (it). pV

The description of these three-word groups as phrasal

verbs is more economical, more precise, and less contradictory than other descriptions. Such constructions are prevalent enough to merit attention.

The objection might be raised that these phrasal verb types do not readily take passive transformation--the acid test of a transitive verb for most linguists. Consider examples of the four types discussed in this chapter. All of them sound awkward, but this is a weakness of the passive transformation criterion and not an indication that the verb is intransitive.

(I) V + Pt

I <u>worry</u> <u>about</u> Tom

Tom is <u>worried</u> <u>about</u> by me.

(II) V + Pt$_s$

I <u>run</u> <u>up</u> the flag

I <u>run</u> the flag <u>up</u>

The flag is <u>run</u> <u>up</u> by me.

(III) V + Pt + Pt

I <u>put</u> <u>up</u> <u>with</u> the problem

The problem is <u>put</u> <u>up</u> <u>with</u> by me.

(IV) be + Pt + Pt

I <u>am</u> <u>down</u> <u>on</u> Joe

Joe has <u>been</u> <u>down</u> <u>on</u> by me.

Some of these sound worse than others, but all sound bad.

The passive transform test for transitivity is not

infallible. Consider further:

    John loves his wife

    His wife is loved by John.

or

    The woman had three sheep

    Three sheep were had by the woman.

Some intransitive constructions can also take an apparent passive
transform:

    John walked the floor.

    The floor was walked by John.

Thus a "passive" transform is not an infallible test for transi-
tivity.

    One function of a language system is communication between
a speaker and a hearer. Thus:

    I'm <u>down</u> <u>on</u> Joe

states quite clearly that "I used to like him but right now I
don't and it's his fault." <u>Be</u> <u>down</u> <u>on</u> is a transitive phrasal
verb construction.

    This study recognizes four distinct phrasal verb types and
has identified them on a distributional basis. An abundance of
markers--prosodic features (juncture and stress), substitution
possibilities (one word for the phrasal construction), and passive
transformation--though generally valid sometimes fail to identify
phrasal verbs. Substitution in a test frame will always identify

the suspect item as phrasal verb or verb plus structure of modi-
fication. Thus structural ambiguity based on semantic references
is avoided.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This study has traced the development of the phrasal verb from the earliest stages of development until the present day. The analytic tendency of the language has been shown to be one of the major factors in the development of this verb type. Another, though less concrete factor, is the linguistic attitude of the speakers of the language who favor the vigorous, vivid phrasal verb over other constructions. These factors have helped to account for the rapid growth of the phrasal verb in English.

This study has also discussed the attitudes of grammarians to the phrasal verb. Descriptions from Ben Jonson to Noam Chomsky have been discussed and analyzed. Finally, the phrasal verb has been analyzed as four distinct types or categories. This description has not made a count of phrasal verbs in modern usages, but if one listens to conversations, makes note of newspaper and magazine writing, and listens to the speech of people from the President to the most insignificant member of our society, he will observe hundreds of such usages.

A recent thesis has studied the rate of occurrence of the "prepositions" about, of, upon, on, and over in conjunction with verbs say, tell, talk, and speak and shows by statistical counts of novels and plays that about occurs more often than any other. Though the writer does not distinguish between particle

prepositional functions of _about_ nor describe the phrasal verb

type, he nevertheless does give many examples of the phrasal

verb type constructions, for example:

> Now don't pretend you don't know what I'm _talking_ _about_. . .
> What did you _talk_ _about?_
> I wanted to _talk_ _about_ Etruscan notions of immortality.
> They began to _talk_ _about_ cricket.[1]

In the final tables of his work, Brorstrom gives the following

statistics showing the rapid increase of constructions which the

present study has described as phrasal verbs. Consider the

occurrences of _think_ _about_ and _talk_ _about:_

> 20th century English : think about 334
> 19th century English:: think about 58
> 18th century English : think about   8
> 17th century English : think about   0
>
> 20th century English : talk about 610
> 19th century English : talk about 190
> Earlier modern English : talk about 58.[2]

These figures give some clue to the tremendous increase of phrasal

verbs in the language.

Despite the prevalence of phrasal verbs in novels, plays,

newspapers, and everyday speech, the school grammar books fail

to describe this verb type. Even the most recent programmed

linguistic grammar--though complete in all other descriptions--

----

[1]Sverker Brörstrom, _The Increasing Frequency of the Preposition About During the Modern English Period_ (Stockholm, 1963), pp. 55, 79.

[2]Brorstrom, pp. 317, 318.

fails to describe the phrasal verb.[3] Because of its prevalence

in the language, the phrasal verb should be described in all

school grammars and by the teachers themselves.

There is evidence that the phrasal verb will continue

to be a highly productive structure in the language. Its future

development is, of course, unpredictable. But regardless of the

course it takes, the future of the phrasal verb will doubtless

be as productive, as useful, and as fascinating as its past.

---

[3]Syrell Rogovin, Modern English Sentence Structure (New York, 1964).

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Aiken, Janet Rankin. A New Plan of English Grammar. New York, 1933.

_____. Commonsense Grammar. Binghamton, N. Y., 1936.

Alexander, Caleb. A Grammatical System of the English Language,
        Boston, 1805.

Alexander, Henry. The Story of Our Language. New York, 1962.

Ancrene Riwle, ed. R. M. Wilson. EETS 229. London, 1954.

Athelstone, ed. A. McI. Traunce. EETS 224. London, 1957.

Ball, Francis Kingsley. Building With Words. Boston, 1926.

Barrett, Solomon, Jr. The Principles of Grammar. Boston, 1863.

Beowulf and the Fight at Finnsburg, ed. Fr. Klaeber. Boston, 1950.

Boswroth, Joseph. An Anglo-Saxon Dictionary. ed. T. Northcote Toller.
        London, 1898.

Brorstrom, Sverker. The Increasing Frequency of the Preposition About
        During the Modern English Period. Stockholm, 1963.

Brown's Institutes of English Grammar, ed. John W. Davis. New York,
        1914.

Chaucer, Geoffrey. The Works of Geoffrey Chaucer, ed. F. N. Robinson.
        Cambridge, Mass., 1957.

Chomsky, Noam. "A Transformational Approach to Syntax," The Structure
        of Language, ed. Jerry A. Fodor and Jerrold Katz, Englewood
        Cliffs, 1964.

_____. Syntactic Structures. 'S-Gravenhage, 1963.

Clark-Hall, John R. Beowulf and the Finnsburg Fragment. London,
        1950.

Curme, George O. College English Grammar. Richmond, 1925.

_____. Parts of Speech and Accidence. Boston, 1935.

_____. Syntax. Boston, 1931.

_____. "The Development of Verbal Compounds in Germanic," Beitrage zur Geschichte der Deutschen Sprache und Literatur, Band 39 (1914), 320-361.

_____. "The Proper Subject of a Passiv Verb," MLN, XXVII, iv (1931), 97-101.

Dryden, John. The Works of John Dryden, ed. George Saintsbury. Edinburgh, 1883.

English Hexapla, The. London, n. d.

Englishman's Greek New Testament, The. London, 1896.

Everyman, A Morality Play, ed. Montrose J. Moses. New York, 1908.

Fowler, W. C. The English Language. New York, 1868.

Francis, W. Nelson. The Structure of American English. New York, 1958.

Gleason, H. A., Jr. An Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics, 1961. New York, 1961.

Guth, Hans P. English Today and Tomorrow. Englewood Cliffs, 1964.

Hall, Jno. Lesslie. Beowulf: An Anglo-Saxon Epic. Boston, 1892.

Harris, James, esq. Hermes Or a Philosophical Inquiry Concerning Universal Grammar. London, 1771.

Hill, Archibald A. Introduction to Linguistic Structures. New York, 1958.

Hockett, Charles F. A Course in Modern Linguistics. New York, 1964.

House, Homer C. and Susan Emolyn Harman. Descriptive English Grammar. Englewood Cliffs, 1963.

Jespersen, Otto. Essentials of English Grammar. New York, 1933.

_____. Growth and Structure of the English Language. New York, 1938.

Jonson, Ben. English Grammar. Facsimile reprint of 1640 edition. London, 1928.

Johnson, Samuel. A Dictionary of the English Language, to Which are Prefixed a History of the Language and an English Grammar. 4 vols. Philadelphia, 1881.

Kaiser, Rolf, ed. Medieval English. West Berlin, 1961.

Kennedy, Arthur Garfield. Current English. Boston, 1936.

_____. "The Modern English Verb-Adverb Combination." Stanford University Publications in Language and Literature, I (1920), 1-51.

Kennedy, Charles W. Beowulf: The Oldest English Epic. New York, 1953.

Kiffer, Theodore E. unpublished translation of Beowulf. 1962.

Kittredge, George Lyman and Frank Edgar Farley. An Advanced English Grammar. Boston, 1930.

Konishi, Tomoschichi. "The Growth of the Verb-Adverb Combination in English--A Brief Sketch--," Studies in English Grammar and Linguistics in Honour of Tokonobu Otsaka. Tokyo, 1958. 117-128.

Krapp, George Philip. A Comprehensive Guide to Good English. New York, 1937.

Lees, Robert B. The Grammar of English Nominalizations, IJAL, 26, no. 3 (July, 1960).

Leichty, V. E. Discovering English. Englewood Cliffs, 1964.

Leonard, William Ellery. Beowulf: A New Verse Translation. New York, 1923.

Lowery, Josephine. This Is Grammar. New York, 1965.

Malory, Thomas. Le Morte d'Arthur, ed. H. Oskar Sommer. London, 1889.

Martinet, Andre. Phonology as Functional Phonetics. Philadelphia, 1950.

Milton, John. Complete Poems and Major Prose, ed. Merrit Y. Hughes. New York, 1957.

Morgan, Edward. Beowulf. Ashford, Kent, 1952.

Onions, C. T. An Advanced English Syntax. London, 1927.

Owl and the Nightingale, The, ed. J. H. G. Grattan and G. F. H. Sykes. EETS 119. London, 1935.

Palmer, Harold E. A Grammar of Spoken English. New York, 1938.

Quirk, Randolph and C. L. Wrenn. An Old English Grammar. London, 1957.

Robert of Brunne. Handlyng Synne, ed. Frederick J. Furnival. EETS 119/123. London, 1901.

Roberts, Paul. English Sentences. New York, 1962.

_____. English Syntax. New York, 1964.

Robertson, Stewart. The Development of Modern English. New York, 1934.

Rogovin, Syrell. Modern English Sentence Structure. New York, 1964.

Shakespeare, William. Complete Plays and Poems of William Shakespeare, ed. William Allen Neilson and Charles Jarvis Hill. Cambridge, Mass., 1942.

Sir Gawain and the Green Knight, ed. Sir Israel Gollancz. EETS 210. London, 1957.

Sledd, James. A Short Introduction to English Grammar. Chicago, 1959.

Smith, Henry Lee, Jr. "Grammar, Part II," no. 8 in the film series, Language and Linguistics.

Smith, Logan Pearsall. Words and Idioms. Glasgow, 1925.

Spenser, Edmund. The Poetical Works of Edmund Spenser, ed. C. J. Smith, 3 vols. Oxford, 1909.

Sweet, Henry. New English Grammar. Oxford, 1930.

Taha, Abdul Karim. "The Structure of Two-Word Verbs in English," Readings in Applied English Linguistics, ed. Harold B. Allen. New York, 1964. pp. 130-136.

Đa Halgan Godspel on Englisc: the Anglo-Saxon Version of the Holy Gospels, ed. Benjamin Thorpe, reprinted by Louis F. Klipstein. New York, 1848.

Owl and the Nightingale, The, ed. J. H. G. Grattan and G. F. H. Sykes. EETS 119. London, 1935.

Palmer, Harold E. A Grammar of Spoken English. New York, 1938.

Quirk, Randolph and C. L. Wrenn. An Old English Grammar. London, 1957.

Robert of Brunne. Handlyng Synne, ed. Frederick J. Furnival. EETS 119/123. London, 1901.

Roberts, Paul. English Sentences. New York, 1962.

_____. English Syntax. New York, 1964.

Robertson, Stewart. The Development of Modern English. New York, 1934.

Rogovin, Syrell. Modern English Sentence Structure. New York, 1964.

Shakespeare, William. Complete Plays and Poems of William Shakespeare, ed. William Allen Neilson and Charles Jarvis Hill. Cambridge, Mass., 1942.

Sir Gawain and the Green Knight, ed. Sir Israel Gollancz. EETS 210. London, 1957.

Sledd, James. A Short Introduction to English Grammar. Chicago, 1959.

Smith, Henry Lee, Jr. "Grammar, Part II," no. 8 in the film series, Language and Linguistics.

Smith, Logan Pearsall. Words and Idioms. Glasgow, 1925.

Spenser, Edmund. The Poetical Works of Edmund Spenser, ed. C. J. Smith, 3 vols. Oxford, 1909.

Sweet, Henry. New English Grammar. Oxford, 1930.

Taha, Abdul Karim. "The Structure of Two-Word Verbs in English," Readings in Applied English Linguistics, ed. Harold B. Allen. New York, 1964. pp. 130-136.

Ða Halgan Godspel on Englisc: the Anglo-Saxon Version of the Holy Gospels, ed. Benjamin Thorpe, reprinted by Louis F. Klipstein. New York, 1848.

VITA

Theodore E. Kiffer was born at Endeavor, Pennsylvania, on July 28, 1925. He attended the public schools in Oil City, Pennsylvania, but left high school in his senior year to enlist in the United States Navy. Following his discharge from the Navy in 1946, after two and one-half years in the Pacific theatre of war, he was graduated from Roberts Academy, North Chili, New York, in 1948. He received the Bachelor of Arts degree from Roberts Wesleyan College in 1951, and then attended Asbury Theological Seminary, Wilmore, Kentucky, for one year. He spent the next eight years as a parish minister in the Free Methodist Church, serving parishes in North East, Pennsylvania and State College, Pennsylvania. In 1959, he enrolled as a graduate student in English in the Pennsylvania State University and received the Master of Arts degree in 1961. He has also attended Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana, as a graduate student in Linguistics. He has been an Instructor in English at the Pennsylvania State University since 1960 and has recently been appointed Associate Professor of English at Kutztown State College, Kutztown, Pennsylvania.