

Lecture 7

Lexicography

Lexicography is the art and science of dictionary making.

Lexicography also has a history. Although dictionary compilers today, as in the past, wish to create an authoritative reference work, their knowledge and understanding of language has changed radically. Different dictionaries serve very different purposes - some only give information about semantics (word meanings, descriptions or definitions) and orthography (standard spellings). Others give information about etymology, variants and change of meaning over time.

An unfortunate by-product of English teaching in the UK is a preoccupation with standard spelling forms to the exclusion of much else. Children are encouraged to use dictionaries for spell checking and not to learn about the language more generally. You should, with any dictionary, read the introduction to discover which principles have been used in compiling it, what models of language the compilers work from.

For example, broadly prescriptive or descriptive? Is it encyclopedic, or does it exclude proper nouns? What variety or varieties of English does it include?

In checking an etymology cited above (git) I used three dictionaries - Funk and Wagnall's New Practical Standard (US, 1946) the Pocket Oxford (1969) and the complete (1979) Oxford English Dictionary. None of these listed git. Modern dictionaries may well give a range of world Englishes. Dictionary functions built into computer software give the user a choice of different varieties - UK, US, Australia/New Zealand or International English

Thesauruses, libraries and Web portals

Libraries organize books under categories and sub-categories, the most popular model by far being the Dewey system named after its inventor. And portal sites on the World Wide Web organize information and links by (usually) a hierarchy of categories. These may all be helpful to you, in understanding semantic fields.

Epistemology

This is the traditional name for the division of philosophy otherwise known as theory of knowledge. Epistemology underlies semantics in a fundamental way. Historically, it has had a profound influence on how we understand language. For example, a modern language scientist, looking at the class of words we think of as nouns, might wish to subdivide them further.

But there is no very good reason to split them into those that denote physical and material realities and those that denote feelings and concepts - that is concrete and abstract nouns. This division comes from Plato, who divided things absolutely into the categories of mind (nous) and matter (physis). It breaks down when we apply it to modern phenomena, such as artificial intelligence.

Plato also divided things into universals and particulars. Some names represent a massive category of things, in which countless individual examples are included - boy, dog, car and cloud. Others are unique to one individual thing - Elvis Presley, Lassie, New York.

In English and other European languages the word classes of common and proper nouns mark this distinction. In written English we signal that a word is a proper noun usually with initial capital letters. In written and spoken English, we also show it by omitting articles or determiners in many (not all) contexts, where a common noun would have these.

But the distinction does not bear close scrutiny - many nouns which we capitalize stand for a wide category, not just a single individual, as with VW Beetle or Hoover. And what of eponyms - words named for a single individual, but now applied widely, as with sandwich, Wellington, boycott and quisling (look it up)?

At a more fundamental level, epistemology may help us decide whether the concepts of language are coherent and objective - as with word classes: are the notions of noun, verb, pronoun, adjective and so on logical as regards their referents

End of lecture seven

Discussion question:

Question: What principles or definitions have been offered in the literature for distinguishing pragmatics from semantics?

Thank You!

Lecture 8

Colour

David Crystal (Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language, p. 106) draws attention to the way the semantic field of colour shows “patterns of lexical use in English”, because the visible spectrum is a continuum. Crystal points out some interesting features of languages other than English, in identifying colour, such as the absence in Latin of lexemes for “brown” and “grey”. He suggests that modern English has eleven basic colour lexemes - white, black, red, green, yellow, blue, brown, purple, pink, orange and grey

You may not agree with this - for example, you may think of orange and purple as secondary, being mixtures of or intermediate between others. Our sense **of primary colours** may come from the world around us - blue for the sky, green for grass and red for blood, for example

The lexicon of colour is interesting when we study it historically (what colours are most frequent in the writings of Chaucer or Shakespeare) or in a special context. What names do manufacturers of paint or cosmetics favour.

For parts of the body (especially hair) we have a special lexicon - hair is not yellow but blonde (the word indicates both hair colour or, as a noun, people with this colour of hair), brunette (although brown is also standard for males) and redhead (where red has a special colour denotation - not the scarlet or crimson it usually suggests). Another special lexicon (which may preserve historical differences) applies to horse colours - bay, grey (which denotes a horse more or less white) and chestnut

Anagrams:

Anagrams are words or phrases made by mixing up the letters of other words or phrases, e.g. **THE EYES** is an anagram of **THEY SEE**. Here are some more good ones:

Debit card = Bad credit

Halley's Comet = Shall yet come

Punishment = Nine Thumps

Dormitory = Dirty room

Astronomer = Moon starer

The Hurricanes = These churn air

Schoolmaster = The classroom

Mother-in-law

Woman Hitler

The earthquakes

That queer shake

Slot machines

Cash lost in '

School master

The classroom

Eleven plus two

Twelve plus one

End of lecture eight

Lecture 9

Riddles occur extensively in Old English poetry, drawing partly on an Anglo-Latin literary tradition whose principal exponent was Aldhelm (c. 639-709), himself inspired by the fourth- or fifth-century Latin poet Symphosius. Riddles thus have a distinguished literary ancestry, although the contemporary sort of conundrum that passes under the name of "riddle" may not make this obvious. In the Anglo-Saxon world.

A **riddle** is a **statement or question or phrase having a double or veiled meaning, put forth as a puzzle to be solved. Riddles are of two types: *enigmas*, which are problems generally expressed in metaphorical or allegorical language that require ingenuity and careful thinking for their solution, and conundrums, which are questions relying for their effects on punning in either the question or the answer**

the *wis* had *wisdom* due to their *wit* – their ability to conciliate and mediate by maintaining multiple perspectives, which has degenerated into a species of comedy, but was not always a mere laughing matter. This wit was taught with a form of oral tradition called the *riddle*, a collection of which were bound, along with various other gnomic verses, poems and maxims in the tenth century and deposited in Exeter Cathedral in the eleventh century.

the so-called *Exeter Book*, one of the most important surviving collections of Old English manuscripts. The riddles in this book vary in significance from childish rhymes and ribald innuendo, to some particularly interesting insights into the thought world of our archaic linguistic ancestors, such as the following (Riddle 47 from the Exeter Book):

Some important areas of semantic theory or related subjects include these

Original :

*Moððe word fræt. Me þæt þuhtewrætlicu wyrd, þa ic þæt wundor
gefrægn, þæt se wyrm forswearg wera gied sumes, þe of in þystro,
þrymfæstne cwideond þæs strangan stapol. Stælgíest ne wæs wihte
þy gleawra, þe he þam wordum swealg.*

A formal equivalence:

A moth ate words. To me that seemed a fantastical event, when I found that wonder out, that a worm swallowed certain of men's word, a thief in darkness, a glorious statement and strong its foundation. The thieving stranger was not a whit more wise that he swallowed those words.

Translation:

A moth ate words. I thought that was a marvelous fate, that the worm, a thief in the dark, should eat a man's words - a brilliant statement and its foundation is strong. Not a whit the wiser was he for having fattened himself on those words.

Examples of famous riddles:

Riddles can be a question with a quick witty answer. They can be just a sentence that makes you have a sudden realization. Whatever your definition, one thing is clear: riddles will riddle us for years to come.

Examples:

Riddles can be difficult or simple as shown in these examples:

"Three eyes have I, all in a row; when the red one opens, all freeze."
The answer is **traffic light**.

"What animal walks on all fours in the morning, two in the afternoon and three in the evening?" The answer is **man**, since he crawls as a child then walks and uses a cane when he gets older.

More examples:

What does “Mill + Walk + Key=” The answer is **Milwaukee**.

“What gets wetter and wetter the more it dries?” **A towel** of course.

“No sooner spoken than broken. What is it?” It is **silence**.

“I am weightless, but you can see me. Put me in a bucket, and I'll make it lighter. What am I?” **A hole**.

Different Types of Riddles

There are two types of riddles, enigmas and conundrums.

An enigma is a problem in which the solution is expressed metaphorically. You have to carefully think about the riddle to come up with the solution.

A conundrum is a question that opens either the question or the answer.

A riddle, however, doesn't need to be classified as one of these types. As long as it is difficult to figure out and has an answer or a meaning to it, it can be classified as a riddle. Today riddles aren't used as much as they were in ancient times, but they remain a definite way to get your mind working

Conclusion:

Writers in poetry also began expressing themselves through riddles.

When a poem contains a riddle, the reader's mind can be stimulated and the writer can successfully get their message across in a more interesting way. Some poetry even has answers to it that you had to riddle out. Riddles can be used in a contest of wit and skill, sort of like a guessing game. Riddle games have been played since ancient times, and are still being played today.

End of lecture 9.

Connotation

In modern British usage, it is commonly used to mean 'fierce' as in the brown rat is a vicious animal.

Implication:

This is meaning which a speaker or writer intends but does not communicate directly. Where a listener is able to deduce or infer the intended meaning from what has been uttered, this is known as (conversational) implicature. David Crystal gives this example:

Utterance: A bus --- Implicature (implicit meaning)

We must run.

Pragmatics:

Pragmatics is not a coherent field of study. It refers to the study of those factors which govern our choices of language—such as our social awareness, our culture and our sense of etiquette. How do we know to express gratitude for a gift or hospitality.

Pragmatics can be illustrated by jokes or irony which rely on the contrast between expected and subsequently revealed meaning.

Ambiguity:

Ambiguity occurs when a language element has more than one meaning. If the ambiguity is in a single word it is a lexical ambiguity. If in a sentence or clause it is grammatical or structural ambiguity.

Structural ambiguity can often be seen in punning headlines, like the wartime example CHURCHILL FLIES BACK TO FRONT. The late polar explorer, Dr. Vivian Fuchs, was the subject of similar headline: Dr. FUCHS OFF TO ANTARCTIC.

In this case, the structural ambiguity is not present to a reader who knows standard spelling, but might confuse the hearer, if the headline is spoken aloud. The absence of linking grammatical words (articles, conjunctions, prepositions) in headlines makes such ambiguity likely.

Another example that combines lexical and structural ambiguity is in a joke. Two men are looking at televisions in a shop-window.

One says: 'That's the one I'd get' Around the corner comes a Cyclops, who thumps him. The lexical ambiguity works best in speech - if we read it we must 'hear' the speech to get the point. If you still are puzzled, you may lack awareness of the denotation of Cyclops. They have only one eye. Get (like-git) is an insult in some regional varieties of spoken English (especially in north-west England)

Metaphor, simile, symbol:

Metaphors are well known as a stylistic feature of literature, but in fact are found in almost all language use, other than simple explanations of physical events in the material world.

All abstract vocabulary is metaphorical, but in most cases the original language hides the metaphor from us. Depends means "hanging from" in Latin, pornography means "writing of prostitutes" in (Greek) and even the hipopotamus has a

Metaphor in its name, which is Greek for 'river horse'

A metaphor compares things, but does not show this with forms such as as, like, or more (+qualifier) than. These appear in similes: fat as a pig, like two peas in a pod. **Similes**

Similes are comparisons that show how two things that are not alike in most ways are similar in one important way. Similes are a way to describe something. Authors use them to make their writing more interesting or entertaining.

Similes use the words “as” or “like” to make the connection between the two things that are being compared.

Examples:

1. Playing chess with Ashley is like trying to outsmart a computer.

The activity “playing chess with Ashley” is being compared to “trying to outsmart a computer.” The point is that Ashley can think in a powerful manner that resembles the way a computer operates, not that she is like a computer in any other way.

2. His temper was as explosive as a volcano.

His temper is being compared to a volcano in that it can be sudden and violent.

A **symbol** is something that represents an idea, a physical entity or a process but is distinct from it. The purpose of a symbol is to communicate meaning. For example, a red octagon may be a symbol for "STOP". On a map, a picture of a tent might represent a campsite. Numerals are symbols for numbers. Personal names are symbols representing individuals. A red rose symbolizes love and compassion.

Semantic fields:

A semantic field is a technical term in the discipline of linguistics to describe a set of words grouped by meaning in a certain way. The term is also used in other academic disciplines, such as anthropology and computational semiotics together.

End of lecture four

Thanks!

Lecture 10

English Idioms

idiom (*plural idioms or idiomata*)

(*now rare*) A manner of speaking, a way of expressing oneself.

A language or dialect.

Specifically, a particular variety of language; a restricted dialect used in a given historical period.

English Idioms.

An artistic style (for example, in art, architecture, or music); an instance of such a style.

An expression peculiar to or characteristic of a particular language, especially when the meaning is illogical or separate from the meanings of its component words.

(*programming*) A programming construct or phraseology generally held to be the most efficient, elegant or effective means to achieve a particular result or behavior

A list of American Idioms:

as good as go

[as good as go] {adv. phr.} In the phrase, I'd as good's go to New York, instead of "I might as well go to New York." "I'd as good's do this," for, I may as well do this. Only heard among the illiterate.

as it comes

[as it comes] 1. As is.

Reese takes life as it comes.

2. {adv. phr.} Instinctively, by intuition.

I write as it comes to me. I often don't know exactly what I think until I see it on paper.

bank-bill

[bank-bill] {n. phr.} A bank-note.

Neither Johnson nor the other lexicographers have the term bank-note, though they all have bank-bill, which Johnson defines, "a note for money laid up in a bank, at the sight of which the money is paid."

be over the moon

[be over the moon] {v. phr.} To be extremely pleased about something.

brake a leg

[brake a leg] {v. phr.} Is said to actors for good luck before they go on stage, especially on an opening nights

One of the interpretations of "break a leg" is wishing to "make a strenuous effort".

crying shame

[crying shame] {n. phr.} A glaring disgrace, scandal, injustice.

drive up

[drive up] {v. phr.} To drive north by car.

goof on

[goof on] {v. phr.} To laugh or joke at smb.; to tease.

You're goofing on me, right?

goof up

[goof up] {v. phr.} To make a mistake (usually not serious).

See also: [blunder], [screw up] — bad mistake.

raise jack

[raise jack] {v. phr.} {informal} Make a noise, set up a clamour; start making a row, an uproar, brawl.

See: [kick up a fuss]

reap the benefit of

[to reap the benefit of sth.] {v. phr.}— to gain advantages of sth.

Investors struggle to reap the benefits of liquidity offered by European non-listed property funds.

Conclusion:

Discussion question:

IS there a difference between American and English idioms?

There are quite a few differences between American and British idioms and slang. Nothing comes to mind but you'll see a wide range.

Now, phrasal verbs and set phrases tend to be more constant and they sometimes get labeled as idioms.

Maybe try searching google of differences between American and British idioms.

End of lecture 10

Lecture 11

The most important definitions:

We are coming to finalize our course and I thought it is better to revise the most important definitions we studied.

These definitions will help us do better in our final exams .

1-**A symbol**: is something which we use to represent another thing - it might be a picture, a letter, a spoken or written word - anything we use conventionally for the purpose.

2-**A referent**: The thing that the symbol identifies.

3-**Stimuli → words → responses**: A stimulus (S) leads someone to a response (r), which is a speech act. To the hearer the speech act is also a stimulus (s), which leads to a response (R), which may be an action or understanding.

S → r.....s → R

4-**lexeme**: This is usually a single word, but may be a phrase in which the meaning belongs to the whole rather than its parts, as in verb phrases tune in, turn on.

5-**Denotation**: This is the core or central meaning of a word or lexeme, as far as it can be described in a dictionary.

6-**Connotation**: is connected with psychology and culture, as it means the personal or emotional associations aroused by words.

7-**Implication**: This is meaning which a speaker or writer intends but does not communicate directly. Where a listener is able to deduce or infer the intended meaning from what has been uttered.

8-**Pragmatics**: It refers to the study of those factors which govern our choices of language - such as our social awareness, our culture and our sense of etiquette.

9- **Ambiguity**: It occurs when a language element has more than one meaning. If the ambiguity is in a single word it is lexical ambiguity. If in a sentence or clause, it is grammatical or structural ambiguity.

10-**Metaphors**: are well known as a stylistic feature of literature, but in fact are found in almost all language use, other than simple explanations of physical events in the material world.

11-**Synonym and antonym**: are forms of Greek nouns which mean, respectively, "same name" and "opposed (or different) name".

12- **Hyponymy**: is an inclusive relationship where some lexemes are co-hyponyms of another that includes them.

13-**Collocations**: Some words are most commonly found paired with other words, to create a semantic unit or lexeme. Thus false is often found together with passport, teeth or promise. These pairs are known as collocations.

14-**Etymology** :is the systematic study and classification of word origins, especially as regards forms and meanings - it is therefore an important concept both for semantics and the study of language change.

15-**Polysemy**: (or polysemia) is an intimidating compound noun for a basic language feature.

16-**Homonyms**: are different lexemes with the same form (written, spoken or both).

17-**Homophones** - where the pronunciation is the same (or close, allowing for such phonological variation as comes from accent) but standard spelling differs, as in flew (from fly), flu ("influenza") and flue (of a chimney).

18-**Homographs** - where the standard spelling is the same, but the pronunciation differs, as in wind (air movement or bend) or refuse ("rubbish" or "disallow", stress falls on first and second syllable, respectively).

End of lecture 11.

Lecture 12

Glossary of semantics:

A

absent referent The condition of a sign which has an empty, absent, non-existent, paradoxical, hypothetical, supernatural, or undefined referent, such as nothing, null, vacuum, or void.

C

conceptual definition A definition in terms of concepts, such as the one found in a dictionary, instead of in terms of the results of measuring procedures.

connotation A meaning of a word or phrase that is suggested or implied, as opposed to a denotation, or literal meaning. A characteristic of words or phrases, or of the contexts that words and phrases are used in

D

definiendum The term—word or phrase—defined in a definition.
definiens That which defines the definiendum in a definition.
definition A statement of the meaning of a word or word group or a sign or symbol.

denotation The primary, literal or explicit meaning of a word, phrase or symbol.

dictionary definition A descriptive definition specifying one of the commonly used meanings of the defined term.

differentia The distinguishing feature which marks something off from other members of the same family

E

enumerative definition A definition that exhaustively lists all the objects that fall under the defined term.

extension Capacity of a concept or general term to include a greater or smaller number of objects; -- correlative of intension.

extensional definition A definition of a term that specifies its extension, that is, every object that falls under the definition. [[edit](#)]G

G

genus Within a definition, a broader category of the defined concept.

I

intension Any property or quality connoted by a word, phrase or other symbol, contrasted to actual instances in the real world to which the term applies.

intensional definition A definition that gives the meaning of a term by specifying all the properties of the things to which the term applies.

M

meaning The definition or connotation of a word. [

O

operational definition A showing of something — such as a variable, term, or object — in terms of the specific process or set of validation tests used to determine its presence and quantity.

ostensive definition A process of binding the meaning to the defined term by pointing out examples and counterexamples.

P

prototype An instance of a category or a concept that combines its most representative attributes, such as robin being a prototype of *bird*, unlike penguin.

R

recursive definition A definition of a term within which the term itself appears, and that is well-founded, avoiding an infinite regress.

referent The specific entity in the world that a word or phrase identifies or denotes.

S

semantics A branch of linguistics studying the meaning of words.

sense A single conventional use of a word; one of the entries for a word in a dictionary.

stipulative definition A definition in which a new or currently-existing term is given a new meaning for the purposes of argument or discussion in a given context.

Recently added idioms:

An **idiom** is a phrase where the words together have a meaning that is different from the dictionary definitions of the individual words, which can make idioms hard for ESL students and learners to understand.

Below are listed the latest entries that have been added to our database of English idioms & idiomatic expressions

Idiom: Hair on fire:

Idiom Definitions for 'Hair on fire'

If something sets your hair on fire, it excites you or catches your attention urgently.

Idiom: Get on my last nerve

Idiom Definitions for 'Get on my last nerve'

If something is getting on your last nerve, you are completely fed up, ready to lose your temper. (Southern USA)

Idiom: Does a one-legged duck swim in circles?

(US Southern) This is a response given to an unnecessary question for which the obvious answer is yes. Example: If you were to ask an Olympic archer whether she could put an arrow in an apple at ten yards, she could answer: "Does a one-legged duck swim in circles?"

End of lecture 12.

Lecture 13

Revision of the course contents

Entailment: It is a relation in which we not have a complete truth condition between sentences. The following two examples illustrate this:

A- The park guards killed the tiger.

B- The tiger is dead.

A- Wesam is a man.

B- Wesam is a human.

Semantic relations among words and phrases.

To understand the meaning of words you must study some aspects of meaning relevant to linguistic analysis.

Synonyms: They are words or expressions that have the same meaning in some or all contexts. The pair of words in the following table provide good examples of synonyms in English:

| | |
|------------|--------------|
| 1-youth | A-adolescent |
| 2-begin | b-start |
| 3-remember | c-recall |
| 4-purchase | d-buy |
| 5-vacation | e-holiday |
| 6-big | f-large |

Although pairs of words we mentioned are synonyms in English, there is still slight difference in meaning. For example, Christmas and Spring Bank holidays are holidays but they are not necessarily part of one's vacation. Similarly, although youth and adolescent are used to refer to people of the same age, only the word adolescent has the meaning of the word immature in a phrase such as

He is such an adolescent!

So, some linguists believe that it would be inefficient for a language to have two words or phrases whose meaning is absolutely identical in all contexts.

Antonymy

Antonyms are words and phrases that are opposites with respect to some component of their meaning. The next pairs of words provides examples of antonyms:

| | |
|--------|---------|
| 1-dark | a-light |
| 2-boy | b-girl |
| 3-hot | c-cold |

4-up d-down

5-in e-out

6-come f-go

Opposites are opposites with respect to at least one component of their meaning. The meaning of boy and girl are opposites with respect to gender, although they are alike with respect to species (both are human).

Semantic relations involving sentences

Contradiction: It is a case in which if one sentence is true, then another sentence must be false:

A-Charles is a bachelor.

B- Charles is married.

It is true that Charles is a bachelor and then it cannot be true that he is married. When two sentences cannot be true, we say there is a contradiction.

Connotation:

It is a set of associations that a word's use can evoke. For people living in Europe, the word **winter** evokes thoughts of snow, bitter cold, short evenings, frozen fingertips and the like.

Collocation depends on the linguistic context of words. A good example is by Nida discussing the word **chair** :

A-Sat in a chair b-the baby's high chair.

A-The chair of philosophy b-has accepted a University chair.

A-the chairman of the meeting b-will chair the meeting.

A-The electric chair. B- condemned to the chair.

Collocation is not simply a matter of association of ideas.

Although it is very largely determined by meaning. It can simply be predicted in terms of the meaning of the associated words. We can say blond hair but can not say a blond door or a blond dress, even if the color is exactly that of blond hair. Also, although milk is white, we should not often say white milk though the usage white paint is common enough.

Denotation: is the equation of the meaning or phrase with the entities, to which it refers. The denotation of the word winter, for example, corresponds to the season between autumn and spring. Similarly, the word **tuna** corresponds to the kind of fish. That leads us to distinguish between **extension** and **intension**

Extension: of a word or a phrase refers to the set of entities that it belongs to in the real world while

Intension: is the attempt to break it down into smaller components. This approach is called **componential analysis or semantic decomposition.**

Some examples of semantic decomposition are:

Man human -male -major

Boy human male minor

Woman human female minor

Semantic decomposition:

Semantic decomposition can also be used to analyze verb meaning.

The following examples help, show the change of the verb **Go** can be manifested in different ways:

A-Positional: Fahd went from Dammam to Al-Hasa.

B-Possesional: The inheritance went to Fahd.

C-Identificational : My cousin went from a rash adult to a rational gentleman.

Sample question:

1-Sara went from Cairo to Luxor by plane.The verb GO is manifested in a ----- way.

A- Identificational

B- positional

C- Possessional

D- traditional

End of Lecture 13

Lecture 14

Presupposition:

Presupposition is the speaker's belief that one action has taken place or not.

A- Have you stopped exercising regularly?

B- Have you tried exercising regularly?

The speaker in example A has his own belief that the listener has been exercising regularly. No such assumption is associated with the verb **try**

A- Nick admitted that the team has lost

B-Nick said that the team had lost.

The speaker in example A is presupposing the truth of the claim that the team lost. The speaker uses the verb admit because he is certain that the team lost. In Example B it is not the speaker's actual saying but it is what Nick said and the speaker try to convey Nick's words.

John is either at home or in his office.

John is not at home.

Therefore, John is in his office.

The terms logic and logical are often used simply to mean **reasonable** or **sensible**. The learner of English tries to guess the meaning or come to the conclusion after he gets some given interferences. In a sense, when you are given some pieces of information, you can come to a logical result or conclusion.

All men are mortal. Tom is a man. Therefore ,Tom is mortal.

Semantics and intonation

Intonation is the rise and fall of the voice. It can make a difference in meaning. For example: if you say He's coming with a falling voice at the end, you are making a statement ,Again, if you say it with a rising voice ,you are asking a question.

He's coming. He's coming.

Semantic & Metaphor:

-It is a compressed simile or a simile which is a lie.

If instead of saying Her eyes are like two bright stars: we say Her eyes are two bright stars, We have moved from simile to metaphor.

It is the attempt to treat something abstract as if it were concrete. The concept of time time is treated metaphorically in the following examples:

A-You 're wasting your time.

B-How do you spend your time these days?

C- I have invested a lot of time in this project.

D-He's living out on borrowed time.

Another metaphor is related to the use of spatial terms to talk about emotions and physical health.

Emotions: Happy is up ,Sad is down

I'm feeling up . I'm feeling down.

Idioms:

Idioms involve collocation of a special kind. Consider for example ,Kick the bucket .For here we not only have the collocation of kick and the bucket, but the combination as a whole, keeping in mind that the whole phrase is nearer to the meaning of a single word (thus kick the bucket equals die). A very common type of idioms in English is what is usually called the phrasal verb ,the combination of verb plus adverb: make+up, give+in ,and put+down

The meaning of this combination can not be predicted from the individual verb and adverb.

Trace the meaning of the following phrasal verb:

Ask someone out= invite someone to an entertainment or to a meal-
she was usually asked out in the evening.

Back out= withdraw –He agreed to help but backed out when he found how difficult it was

Idioms: Phrasal Verbs

Be over= be finished

The storm is over now, we can go on.

Blow up=destroy by explosion

They blew up the bridges so that the enemy couldn't follow them.

Break down=collapse

He broke down when telling me about his son's tragic death.

Bring up= educate

She brought up her children to be honest.

Burn down=destroy or to be destroyed, completely by fire. The hotel burnt down before help came.

Call at=visit / call in=look in

Carry out=perform / catch up with=overtake

Come along = come on come with someone

Be fed up=be completely bored (slang)

Fix up=arrange / get through=finish a piece of work

Give up =abandon /jump at = accept

Let out = make wider

Make out =understand=see

Rub up =revise one's knowledge of a subject.

Stand for =represent.

Turn out= be revealed.

Wear off = disappear gradually.

Partial idioms or funny idioms are sometimes used where one of the words has its usual meaning; the other has a meaning that is peculiar to the particular sequence. When someone asks us to make a bed, don't search for a set of carpenter's tools. Some other examples are:

White coffee (Not white in color)

Raining cats and dogs (no cats and dogs are falling from the sky)

Black coffee (not black in color)

Raining old women and sticks (in welsh ,no old women and sticks are falling from the sky)

MCQ Sample

1-To give up someone means-----

A- to understand

B- to represent

C- to abandon

D- to try

End of lecture 14

من استصعب عليه أمر

" اللهم لا سهل إلا ما جعلته سهلاً وأنت تجعل الحزن إذا شئت سهلاً "

رواة ابن السني وصححه الحافظ (الأذكار للنووي ص ١٠٦)