There's No Such Thing as a "Phrasal Verb": Insights for Teachers

Rod Mitchell
Independent researcher
Corresponding author's email: roidhrigh@yahoo.com
Received May 2, 2024; revised December 23, 2024; accepted December 26, 2024

Abstract

Phrasal and prepositional multi-word verbs are a thorny topic, rife with semantic and structural obscurities, both theoretical and in teaching-learning. A survey of the history of the topic provides evidence that the very concept of "multi-word verb" is often based on misanalyses. Cognitive Linguistics considerations in particular show that neither verbs nor prepositions functioning as particles lose or change meaning in combinations with each other, making independent contributions to clause-wide meaning, be this idiomatic or literal. Prepositions refer to their subjects' pathway and/or positioning, while verbs show how those subjects move along pathways, get into position, what they do there, or what happens to them there. In this paper, I argue that students, teachers, and analysts need to identify the meaning content of verbs and prepositions separately from each other, as well a as exploring how they work as part of the whole clause across all contexts to gain a full understanding of their communicative force. My argument leads me to conclude that a cognitive-based approach—one that focuses on verb and preposition meaning domains and semantic networks—appears to be the most effective means of analysing, understanding, teaching, learning, and using verbs and prepositions.

Keywords*:* phrasal verb, prepositional verb, Cognitive Linguistics, meaning domain, semantic networks

Whole forests have been felled for phrasal verbs [PVs] since the first publication on the topic, Kennedy's *The modern English verb-adverb combination* (1920). The subject is weighty, with more questions than answers. Henry Bradley, an Oxford English Dictionary Senior Editor from 1878–1913, in answer to one question from Logan Pearsall Smith concerning idioms, coined the term, phrasal verb, just over 100 years ago. The first published appearance was in a footnote in Smith's *Words and Idioms*:

> The term "phrasal verb" was suggested to me by the late Dr Bradley; not, as he wrote, that he was satisfied with it, or would not welcome any alternative that he could feel to be an improvement. But, as he said, one cannot write of these words without some workable description; and although the word "phrasal" is perhaps objectionable in formation, it fills a want, and is sometimes indispensable.
>
> (Smith, 1925/1928, p. 172)

While commonly called PVs in the English as a Second or Other Language [ESOL] world, multi-word verb [MWV] is used here-in to refer to all such combinations, be these PVs or "prepositional verbs" [PrepV]. Similarly, "preposition" covers "prepositions" and "particles", and "verb" refers to the verb-word.

MWVs are a bugbear for language teachers and students, typical remarks heard by this writer include the following: This is confusing, I will never be able to learn all these, PVs are random, and there is no logic. In contrast, for many, stating "no such thing as a phrasal verb" is virtual heresy. Unfortunately, student understanding often depends on ESOL teachers' rudimentary linguistic training—very little can be done in a typical four-week CELTA or similar course that many of us English language teachers complete for professional development. Moreover, we language teachers are oft-times not trained to analyse or question language critically.

Brizee (2010; see Figure 1) and Woodfall (2021) give typical ESOL portrayals of MWVs. Woodford presents four types:

- Intransitive PVs ("The solution *turned up* without having to think too much about it");

- Inseparable Transitive PVs ("She *looked through* the magazine while waiting for her dental appointment.");

- Separable Transitive PVs ("*work out' calculate, discover an answer or develop an idea*: '*…working out* their meaning / *working* their meaning *out*' ");

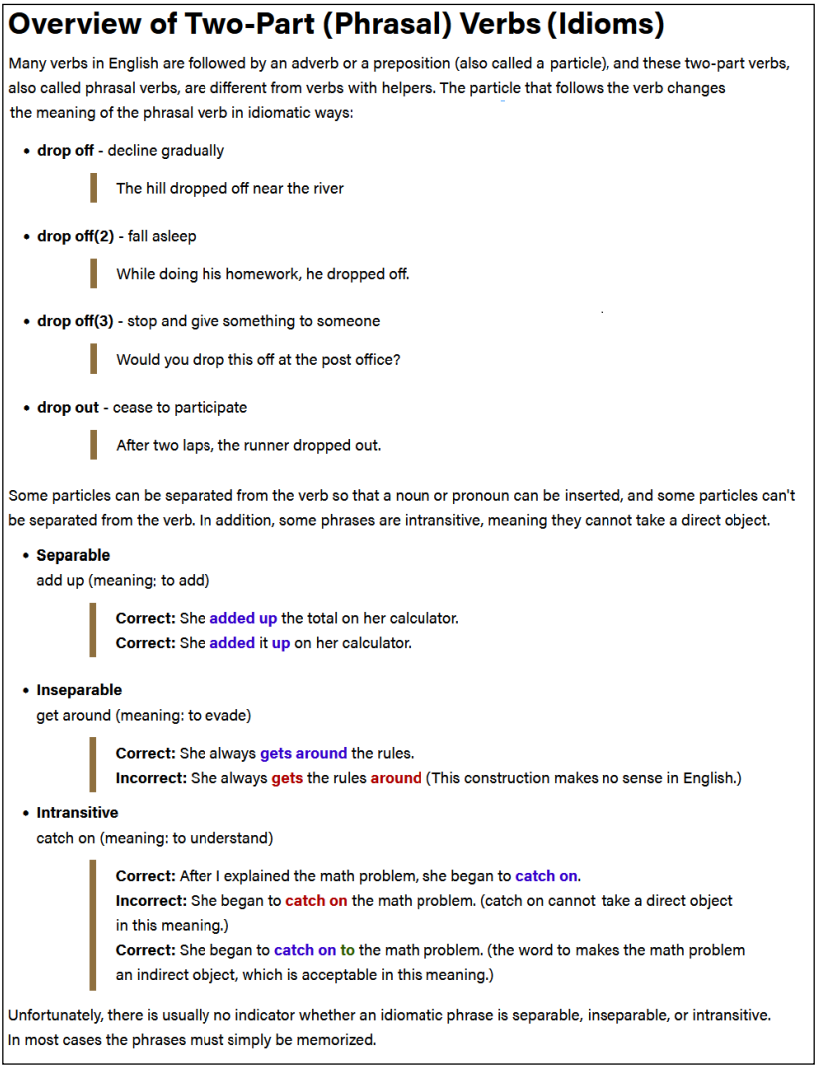
- PrepVs, "verbs with 2 particles, transitive and inseparable" ("focus in on (direct one's attention on something, concentrate hard: *…focusing in on them*)").

As stated in Figure 1, the understanding is that particles modify verb meaning, creating lexical MWV units where the combination is not the sum of the parts. However, as Woodford's Type 1 examples show, uncertainty occurs: "*come off (separate or break)*", "*come away (leave)*", "*come around / come to (regain consciousness)*", "*get up (raise your body after sleeping or sitting)*", and "*get down* (*crouch, lower your body*)". Of these only 'come round' and 'come to' are prototypical PVs, the rest being compositional. Paraphrasing combinations like "come away" with verbs like "leave" is commonly thought to be diagnostic of MWV status.

ESOL authors/instructors, grammars, and textbooks confusingly portray prepositions as being meaningful (e.g., *in* the box) or meaningless function words. To the unwary, "interested *in* films" and "keen *on* films" have no obvious reason for different prepositions, seeing as they seem to have much the same meaning. Further confusion results from categorising words such as "in'" and '"on" variously as prepositions, particles, adverbs, or particle-adverbs; that is, they are often classed as function words that are apparently "meaningless" grammatical items. Bewilderment extends to MWVs, commonly considered as collocations with little or no relationship to literal meaning.

Figure 1

An ESOL Presentation of PVs



Overview of Two-Part (Phrasal) Verbs (Idioms)

Many verbs in English are followed by an adverb or a preposition (also called a particle), and these two-part verbs, also called phrasal verbs, are different from verbs with helpers. The particle that follows the verb changes the meaning of the phrasal verb in idiomatic ways:

- **drop off** - decline gradually

  > The hill dropped off near the river

- **drop off(2)** - fall asleep

  > While doing his homework, he dropped off.

- **drop off(3)** - stop and give something to someone

  > Would you drop this off at the post office?

- **drop out** - cease to participate

  > After two laps, the runner dropped out.

Some particles can be separated from the verb so that a noun or pronoun can be inserted, and some particles can't be separated from the verb. In addition, some phrases are intransitive, meaning they cannot take a direct object.

- **Separable**
  add up (meaning: to add)

  > **Correct:** She **added up** the total on her calculator.
  > **Correct:** She **added** it **up** on her calculator.

- **Inseparable**
  get around (meaning: to evade)

  > **Correct:** She always **gets around** the rules.
  > **Incorrect:** She always **gets** the rules **around** (This construction makes no sense in English.)

- **Intransitive**
  catch on (meaning: to understand)

  > **Correct:** After I explained the math problem, she began to **catch on**.
  > **Incorrect:** She began to **catch on** the math problem. (catch on cannot take a direct object in this meaning.)
  > **Correct:** She began to **catch on to** the math problem. (the word to makes the math problem an indirect object, which is acceptable in this meaning.)

Unfortunately, there is usually no indicator whether an idiomatic phrase is separable, inseparable, or intransitive. In most cases the phrases must simply be memorized.

Note. From Overview of two-part phrasal verbs (idioms), by A. Brizee, 2010, (https://owl.purdue.edu/owl/general_writing/mechanics/two_part_phrasal_verbs_idioms/index.html)

Questions and Method

The questions that guided my argument are as follows:

1) What are the reasons for claiming categories of MWVs?
2) What are prepositions, verbs, and MWVs?
3) What is meaning where these are concerned?
4) How are these taught, learnt, and used?
5) Is there a best-practice solution?

In answering these questions, I draw on key concepts from Traditional Grammar [TG], Formal Structural Linguistics [F-StrL], Systemic Functional Linguistics [SFL], and Cognitive Linguistics [CL]. This is followed by a discussion based on CL principals, with input from F-StrL and SFL, that "deconstructs" the concept of MWV. Where possible, I use examples to support my claims; some of the examples are from referenced sources, but the bulk of them are gathered over years from textbooks, literature, classes, and teacher conversations. The crux of my upcoming argument is that the concept of MWV is based on structural considerations that downplay meaningful communication through words and associated syntax. Applied CL shows that words, including prepositions and verbs, have meaning domains [M-Doms] that dictate their syntax and the combinations they enter into. Full understanding is only possible when whole language approaches are taken, with meaning/content taking precedence over function/syntax. This simplifies understanding and therefore learnability.

Literature Overview

The major theories underpinning the language focus of ESOL are Traditional Grammar [TradG], F-StrL, and Generative Linguistics [GenL] (current during 1950s–1990s development), and SFL and CL. Functional Linguistics, SFL, and the Functional, Communicative, Lexical and other approaches take TradG, GenL and F-StrL pronouncements largely for granted. CL, however, takes a radical departure.

TradG developed from the work of early grammarians, starting with William Bullokar's *Pamphlet for Grammar* (1586), which was modelled on William Lily's 1534 *Rudimenta Grammatices*, the set Latin grammar in Henry VIII's Grammar Schools. English was described

according to Latin grammar as awareness had not yet developed that languages differ in typology. Latin's basic word order is verb-final. The language is declining, cases showing Nominal Phrase [NP] semantic-function (see 1–5 below, from this writer's data). English is largely case-free, with basic clause structure being verb-second and word order showing NP functions.

(1) IĀNVA APERTA STĀT.
The door is/stands open.

(2) IĀNVAM EŌ. IĀNVAM APERIŌ.

I go to the door. I open the door.

(3) PER IĀNVAM EŌ.

I go through the doorway.

(4) IĀNVĀ DORMIŌ. IĀNVĀ EŌ.

I sleep in the doorway. I go from the door.

(5) AD IĀNVĀ STAŌ. AB IĀNVĀ EŌ.
I stand at the door/ I go away from the door.

IĀNVA (*iānu* + *a* + Ø 'door + feminine + nominative singular') shows actor or state. IĀNVAM and IĀNVĀ are suffixed by *-m* (singular accusative), and *-a* (singular *a*-nominal ablative-locative). IĀNVAM translates as direct object or prepositional phrases [PPs], and IĀNVĀ as PPs. Such translation comparison led early grammarians to see prepositions more as grammatical case markers than words in their own right.

Using Latin models to analysis English led to misanalysis of English. Latin *praepositiō* (before-positioning) was understood to mean prepositions come before their objects, as is generally true for Latin—*praepositiones* typically come before NPs and verbs (see 3, 5, 6).

(6) AMICTVS EX VMERĪS DĒPENDET.
A cloak hangs (PENDET) off (DĒ) from (EX) the shoulders (VMERĪS).

Therefore, if prepositions appear without an object, they "cannot'" be prepositions, but particles or adverbs. However, understanding English prepositional behaviour means investigating English in its *own* terms, not those of Latin.

F-StrL analyses prepositions as (a) meaningful Heads (*in* the box), or (b) grammaticalized case markers (built *with* straw), connectors (a framework *in* wood), or particles (break *down*) (Pullum & Huddleston, 2002). While Functionalists (Bolinger, 1971; Fraser, 1979) and the Lexical Approach (Lewis, 1993) brought meaning more to the fore, the F-StrL approach was largely unquestioned.

For MWVs, "phrasal" stemmed from paraphrase translation, such as between registers and languages (e.g., he *rose* to speak, he *stood up* to speak; La mère s'*occupe* des enfants (The mother *looks after* the children), leading to assumption of MWV compounds rather than in-clause combinations of independent words. Chomsky's (1957) early GenL held that PVs (i.e. MWVs) are deep structure verb + particle compounds that clause objects [Cl-Obj] can split through transformation. Emonds (1976), in contrast, postulated surface combinations resulting from transformations inserting particles between verbs and Cl-Objs (Table 1).

Table 1

Contrasting GenL Views of PV Transformation

	Deep structure	**Transformed structure**
Chomsky	V-Prep O	V O P
	pick-up *the bag*	pick *the bag* up
	pick-up *it*	pick *it* up
Edmonds	V-O Prep	V-P O
	pick the bag *up*	pick-*up* the bag
	pick it *up*	

Structuralists and Generativists categorise PVs whoseparticles have Cl-Obj reference (6), as idiomatic PVs where particles have verb reference (7), and PrepVs where a MWV has an complement object (8) (Aarts, 1989; Kayne, 1984).

(6) I *switched* the light *off*. (Aarts, 1989, p. 277)

(7) I *looked* the information *up*. (Aarts, 1989, p. 277)

(8) *Look at* the prospectus: it clearly states that your admission *depends on* your examination results. (Aarts, 1989, p. 277)

Emonds (1976), Radford (I988), and Aarts (1989) prefer the term "intransitive preposition" [Intr-Prep] to particle or adverb, analysing objectless prepositions that form one-word prepositional phrases [PP]. Radford (1988) noted that Intr-Preps following Cl-Objs can be modified (e.g., 9–10), evidencing that they are not verb adjuncts. Intr-Preps only become verb adjuncts when following the verb, where they cannot be modified (11):

(9) Mary did her laces *right up*.

(10) They pulled the plugs *completely out*.

(11) *The President broke *right off* the meeting.

Aarts (1989) analyses "switched" in 6 as a transitive verb with a Small Clause [S-Cl] object. S-Cls, introduced by Kayne (1984), are semantically complete autonomous verbless clauses, for example "Lights off!", and "the light off" and "the TV on" in 12. Aarts (1989) used this property as evidence that PVs do not exist.

(12) I switched *the light off* and *the TV on*. (Aarts, 1989, p. 282)

For Aarts (1989), 7–8 contain PrepVs, 7 transitive, 8 intransitive, extending from "inseparable", PrepVs like '"know of"' (Cary knew of the case, cf. Cary knew the case) and "dispose of" (The Bank disposed of the documents, cf. The Bank disposed the documents [i.e. made them available]). Being "inseparable" within apparently transitive clauses suggests that *of* modifies the verbs. As *up* in '"look the information *up*"' appears to have similar verb-focusing, "look X up" is arguably separable (look up X), while 'look at X' (8) is inseparable (*look X at).

According to Aarts (1989), strings like those italicised in 13–15 are not autonomous in transitive PrepVs:

(13) **The kids up* is very desirable. (Aarts, 1989, p. 281; i.e. He brings *the kids up*.)

(14) *He sorted *the problem out* and *the clothes out*. (Aarts, 1989, p. 283)

(15) *Jim sold *the car off* to a friend; with *the car off* he could buy a boat. (Aarts, 1989, p. 280)

However, 16 suggests the apparent ungrammaticality of 14 stems from whether the S-Cls share the same preposition or not. If so, this appears once (16), otherwise the two appear (12):

(16) He sorted *the clothes* and *the problem out*.

More generally, 17–18 show that Prep-Objs often must appear in transpositions, though 19 shows not always, suggesting that S-Cl autonomy has less diagnostic power than Aarts (1989) claims:

(17) Jim sold the car *off* to a friend; with the car *off* his hands he could buy a boat.

(18) The plane took *off* heading for the safety of the sky; with the plane *off* the ground we breathed easier.

(19) They called *off* the meeting; with the meeting *off* [the schedule] we breathed easier.

Unlike the Formal Structural viewpoint, SFL approaches the discussion its view of language as a social-semiotic system, while largely ignoring cognitive lexical representation. Fontaine (2017, p. 120) finds this surprising, citing Halliday (1961, p. 277): "the 'lexical item' is unrestricted grammatically; grammatical categories do not apply to it, and the abstraction of the item itself from several occurrences … depends on the formal, lexical relations into which it enters." That is, the word is the sum of its syntactic roles, be these verbal, nominal, adjectival, etc. This indicates that prepositions and particles; adverbs are one lexical item. SFL, however, tends to distinguish them. Seeing that verbs and prepositions have object complements, prepositions are verbals and

particle-adverbs are adverbials (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). However, intransitive verbs not having objects counters this. Fontaine (2017, p. 121) feels that distinguishing between prepositions and adverbs is unnecessary, prepositions being in all contexts "instances of a single lexeme", expressing part of the event they and verbs are part of. Like all words, prepositions have "meaning potential" (Fontaine, 2017; Hanks, 2013), that "set of properties which together with contextual factors, including features of the linguistic co-text as well as various situational conditions" that allow for all "reasonably correct" in-context uses and interpretations that a word or structure can have according to the community of users (Norén & Linell, 2007, p. 389).

Halliday & Matthiessen (2004, pp. 351–352) define PVs (i.e., MWVs) as "lexical verbs which consist of more than just the verb word itself", identifying three types: the preposition-word is (a) an adverb (e.g., dress up), (b) a preposition (e.g. head for [i.e., move in the direction of]), or (c) a combination of the two (e.g. dress up for [i.e., put on special clothing for a person/ event]). Such are analysed as multi-word lexical units that express processes using word combinations rather than single words.

CL, on the other hand, views language as representing human cognition, with mental imagery and metaphor having importance in language-in-use (Geeraerts, 1995/2022). In this view of language, verbs and prepositions have meanings which remain constant across all contexts, allowing for effective analysis and teaching-learning (Evans & Tyler, 2005; Kovács, 2007, 2011; Lindner, 1981; Marks, 2005, 2006; Perdek, 2010; Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003; Rundell & Fox, 2005; Spring, 2018; Talmy, 1985, 2000, 2009; Tyler & Evans, 2003). This follows Langacker (1986, pp. 3–4), who states, "most lexical items have a considerable array of interrelated senses, which define the range of their conventionally sanctioned usage … The conventional meaning of a lexical item must be equated with the entire network". This "network" is the item's M-Dom, formed by its language-community's cognitive image. It consists of all the word's senses, core and extended, with extended senses linked through cognitive metaphor to the core

(Dirven, 2001; Johnson, 1987; Lakoff and Johnson, 1980; Langacker, 1986, 1987; Marks, 2005, 2006; Song, 2013). M-Doms "are relatively simple semantic structures that constantly recur in our everyday bodily experience: CONTAINERS, PATHS, LINKS, FORCES, BALANCE, and in various orientations and relations: UP-DOWN, FRONT-BACK, PART-WHOLE, CENTER-PERIPHERY, etc." (Lakoff, 1987, p. 267).

This theorising has ramifications where idioms, chunking, and formulaic phrasing are concerned. The CL view is that the meaning of any idiosyncratic expression made of words is composed by the words used and the metaphorical links to their literal meanings (Brala, 2002; Kovács, 2007, 2011; Lindner, 1981; Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003; Vyvyan & Tyler, 2005). While chunking and formulaic phrasing have significant roles in absorbing language and developing fluency (Lewis, 1993; Wray, 2002, 2012), CL deals with how our world is understood and managed cognitively by language, including acquisition, habituation (chunking and formulae), and use.

Marks (2005) lists common misconceptions about PVs: illogical, random, unpredictable, unique to English, informal, have "proper" non-phrasal equivalents, and a field of English lexis separate from the rest—PVs are none of these. The CL analysis has it that MWVs are not lexical units; rather, verbs and prepositions individually contribute to clause-wide meaning. Each verb and preposition has a M-Dom encompassing all its contextual senses. Prepositions equal NP Heads and VP Heads in semantic and functional terms. As NP and VP Heads can be one-word phrases (e.g., life sucks), so can prepositions (e.g., she came in). Intr-Preps are one-word PPs whose behaviour does not differ from full PPs, just as one-word NPs and VPs do not differ in behaviour from multi-word NPs and VPs.

Discussion: Deconstructing MWVs

To deconstruct the concept of MWV, it is necessary to reassess what prepositions and verbs are in a CL sense—with cues from F-StrL and SFL—in a language like English.

Prepositions

Evans and Tyler (2005) offer four CL insights: (a) understanding prepositions is based on how we picture their concrete uses, (b) meanings of prepositions are descriptions based on concrete use, (c) the meaning has two parts, positioning and function, positioning being important for functioning in physical and/or abstract environments, and (d) other senses are extensions of the core sense. Prepositional meaning can be described in simple cognitive terms, such as Song's (2013, p. 29) "'in' shows CONTAINMENT, 'on' shows CONTACT, and 'at' shows ADJACENCY".

Such terms refer to the concept of "prepositional control". Prepositions "control" the positioning of their subjects. For example, *in* shows that the prepositional subject [Prep-Sub] is within and therefore "controlled" by the Prep-Obj. In 18, the kid, contained by blue jeans, became contained by the place containing his grandmother. In 19, modern art metaphorically contains the CEO's interest, while in 20, Lee ended up being metaphorically contained by Sarah's sob-story world. The verb shows how she managed that, by metaphorically taking him there.

(18) The kid *in* the blue jeans dropped *in* to see his grandmother.

(19) The CEO is very interested *in* modern art.

(20) Lee was taken *in* by Sarah's sob story.

Aarts (1989, p. 283) used 21–22 below to show that Intr-Preps are objectless PPs, "off" in 21 being a PP Head and in 22 a one-word PP whose object is understood from context. In 23–24 the understood Prep-Objs are, respectively, "himself" and "consciousness". Intr-Preps can be intransitive, as in "woke *up*" in (28) below.

(21) I expect that sailor *off* my ship.

(22) I expect that sailor *off*.

(23) He put his shirt *on*.

(24) After a few minutes' unconsciousness she came *to*.

Native speakers retrieve unstated content from context and experience. Fontaine (2017, p.130) used the example "he brought the dog in but won't clean up after it AT ALL!" to illustrate this. The speaker "is confident that the addressee knows where *in* is (e.g., the house)" (p. 130). Learners can recognise contextual cues as well. Being native speakers of their own languages, they do this already.

Intr-Preps Versus Clause Adverbs

Clause adverbs [Cl-Advs] modify our perception of the clause subject [Cl-Sub] and its action-state. While Cl-Advs are commonly claimed to modify verbs, in 25 it is Anai's slowness that makes the swimming slow. Cl-Advs can also have Cl-Obj reference. In 26, Gerr's thick painting resulted in a thick coat of paint.

(25) Anai *slowly* swam across the creek.

(26) Gerr painted the paint on *thickly*.

Prepositions differ. They show physical or abstract positioning. In 27, "up" refers to Gracy's direction and the Prep-Obj climbed (e.g., ladder). In 28, it refers to Gracy's and her children's ending-up states. In 27, Gracy's final position is higher, while in 28, Gracy and her children are mentally and normally physically "up". The verbs show the actions, while prepositions show the relationships between the Prep-Subs (Anai, the paint, Gracy, her children) and their positioning, be this dynamic or static.

(27) Gracy climbed *up*.

(28) Gracy woke *up* then woke her children *up*.

Verbs

As stated earlier, ESOL commonly holds that verbs and prepositions in MWVs can change meaning. That is, "take" and "off" in 29 do not mean the same as in 30:

(29) The bird *took off* from the branch.

(30) The bird *took* the lizard *off* from the branch.

As discussed below in Worlds of Meaning, care must be taken when analysing in-context use—M-Dom becomes confused with contextual overlay. As per Langacker's (1986, pp. 3–4) quote above, ranges of contexts must be investigated to identify M-Dom. That of *off*, for example, is "away from on-at" (slide *off* the shelf, Jenny walked *off* angrily, keep *off* the grass), just as in 29–30.

As for "take", its syntactic-semantic properties are no different from transitive verbs in general. These are often reflexive/intransitive: "hold [yourself] still" and "stop [yourself] right there". In 29, the bird took itself off the branch using its wings. The Cl-Subs in 31–32 took themselves off the ground using motor, propeller, and wing. 30 and 33 in contrast are transitive. "Take off" is not a MWV that means something like "leave", but two independent words that contribute to clause-wide meaning.

(31) The helicopter *took off* up and hovered over the airstrip.

(32) The plane *took off* on its regular early flight to London.

(33) Four long, slender blades *took* the helicopter *off* up into the clouds.

The Myth of "Separable" and "Inseparable"

As with MWV, PrepV, and PV, separable and inseparable are based on structural considerations. Brizee's last statement in Figure 1 is misleading. The indicators are the verbs, which are in themselves transitive or intransitive. Intr-Preps add meaning without changing the meaning of the verb:

(34) She pulled the jeans; She pulled the jeans *on~out~up*.

(35) She added the total *up* on her calculator. (Brizee 2010)

In 34, for example, each word contributes to the message. Attention to M-Dom in 35 also shows this. The verb, "add", meanwhile, expresses creation of a larger group/ amount by addition (She *added* the potatoes on the scales to her bag, she *added* the total on the calculator to her spreadsheet). "Up", on the other hand, tells us that figures are added to the calculation to reach the top amount.

The verb-words in inseparable and intransitive MWVs are in themselves intransitive. Brizee (2010) in Figure 1 above gives, *"She always gets the rules around", as an impossible variant of the inseparable," She always gets around the rules", claiming the verb + preposition cannot be separated (36 shows otherwise). However, "around the rules" is a PP expressing the metaphorical location of her action, the rules being a barrier she gets herself around. 37–38 are physical equivalents, 37 reflexive-intransitive, 38 transitive.

(36) She always gets her department *around the rules*.

(37) She always gets *around the track* in good time.

(38) She always gets the car *around the track* in good time.

Presuming that MWVs are lexical units can blind us to the need to analyse. Spring (2018, p. 122) used "look up" in its commonest uses, "physically look upward", "research or investigate" (better: look for X in a reference with expectations of finding it) to illustrate that understanding events involving verbs and prepositions depends on the independence of these. In both, "look" tells the action, "up", in the first, tells the direction and, in the second, the goal of that action, "finding what one is looking for". Brizee (2010) gave "cease to participate" as the meaning of "drop out" in "After two laps, the runner dropped out". However, this is the metaphoric paraphrase of dropped, not the combination. 39 shows that "out" keeps its meaning regardless of the verb. This is similar in 40 (Brizee 2010), with 41 containing the location reference of 40. The verb, "catch", meanwhile, can be reflexive-intransitive (40–43) and transitive (44–45). The meanings of "catch" and "on" remain the same regardless. She gains a physical or metaphorical grasp in some way on the Prep-Obj.

(39) He dropped~walked~ran~slipped~jumped~teleported *out* of the race.

(40) After I explained the maths problem, she began to catch *on*.

(41) She began to catch *on* to the maths problem after I explained it.

(42) After I gave her a leg-up, she managed to catch *on*to the branch.

(43) The branch was high up, but with a leg-up she managed to catch *on*.

(44) She managed to catch the grappling hook *on*to the high-up branch.

(45) She managed to catch her hands *on*to the branch.

Cognitive Structure Considerations

PPs are one class of items that can appear in juxtaposing constructions. Topic-referents (46–48) are predicated by items that express concepts including measurement/amount, position/direction, and description (italicized in 46–48).

(46) The book is *worth €35*.

(47) The new building is to be *25 floors high* and *three below ground.*

(48) The plane climbed *500 feet up*.

Other examples are as follows: painted *red*, boiled *dry*, three times *a day*, five years *on*, ten steps *forward*, a quick jump *sideways*, ten years *ago*, one week *tomorrow*, all night *through*, inside *out*, as well as sequential juxtapositioning of PPs, each sharing the same Prep-Sub as the first (49–50).

(49) The snake slithered *off along up over the log*.

(50) She ran *back off home for dinner*.

To understand usage, attention to contextual "players" and their action-states is important. For instance, "off" in 51 shows that the Cl-Obj ended up *off* from where it had been, while in 52 the Cl-Obj finished up *down* (cf. S-Cls above).

(51) Gretel broke *a piece of eave off* and ate it.

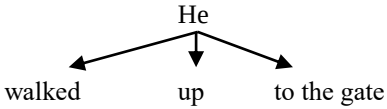
(52) He chopped *the tree down*.

An adaptation of Talmy's (1985) *event conflation* (clauses are unified events based around topic-verbs, to which IntrPreps and adjectives, among other items, are satellites) is another key to analysis. Spring's

(2018, p. 122) example of a unified event, "Jack skipped across the park" contains two events, Jack skipping and Jack moving from one side of the park to the other. This indicates that the topic-subject is key, not the verb. The verb shows the Cl-Sub's action-state, while the PP shows the position change the Cl-Sub undergoes.

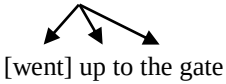
In 53, "He" is Cl-Sub subject-topic of the verb-action and two satellite complements:

(53)



Cl-Objs similarly can be subject-topics with satellites. In 54, the dog went up to the gate. "He" (Cl-Sub) caused this by sending the dog.

(54) He sent the dog



Paying attention in this way to all players and events-states in the clause identifies seven clause patterns involving IntrPreps (Table 2).

Table 2
In-Clause Intr-Prep Relationship Patterns

Intransitive	A1: Chris slipped *off* to the bank.
Reflexive Middle Stative	A2: The plane took *off* from Rome for Tokyo. A3: This chalk wipes *off* easily. A4: He lay *up* in hiding.
Simple transitive	B: He broke {a hunk of bun-loaf *off~off* a hunk of bun-loaf}
Simple causative transitive	C1: She brushed {the lint *off~off* the lint} with a brush. C1: She brushed {the journalists *off~off* the journalists} with a "no comment".
Unstated Prep-Sub transitive	D1: They swept {the barn *out~out* the barn}. D2: She brushed {the coat *off~off* the coat}.

Table 2
In-Clause Intr-Prep Relationship Patterns (Cont.)

Reflexive transitive	E1: He pulled {the shirt *on~on* the shirt}. E2: He took {the company *over~over* the company}.
Total effect	
a) transitive	F1: Harriet passed {Mark *by*} in the street. F2: The archaeologists walked {the field *over*} with the echosounder.
b) Causative instrumental Prep-Sub	G1: The knight ran {him *through*} with a sword. G2: Zorro looked {him *through*} with steely eyes.
Stative result	H1: He has closed {*up* shop}. H2: They set {*up* house}.

Patterns A–B have so far formed the basis of discussion. In C, Cl-Subs cause Cl-Objs to do something. In C1, "She" makes the dust; in C2, "the journalists" at least metaphorically, move away. In strong causatives, Intr-Preps come after Cl-Objs, blending into Total Effect. In 55, "the fugitive" was forced into sight, whereas in 56, "She" created a situation where the boss was positioned ready to fall:

(55) They hunted the fugitive *out*.

(56) She set her boss *up* for a fall.

D contains unstated Cl-Objs: "waste" in D1 and "lint" in D2. E is self-explanatory—in E1, he pulled the shirt onto himself. The modality can be benefactive. In E2, his extending control *over* the company brought it *under* his control, benefiting him. In 57, the old couple and the waif benefited, they by another's presence, help, and the feeling of a good deed done, while the waif benefits from shelter and care.

(57) The kind old couple took *the waif in~in the waif*.

In F–G, the postposed Intr-Prep's weight shows total effect on the Cl-Obj. "By" in F1 has two levels of reference, firstly as an underlying Head:

(58) Harriet passed *by Mark* in the street.

Overlaid is the Cl-Obj also being Prep-Sub. Mark was metaphorically set aside by Harriet ignoring him as she passed. Passivisation highlights the difference:

(59) Mark was passed *by* in the street *by* Harriet (F1).

(60) Mark was passed in the street *by* Harriet (58).

F2 describes a field covered by walking, and 61 describes a simple pathway. In 62, the matter is discussed completely; in 63, the sleeping covered the whole night, while in 64, the threat is that Higgins will most definitely be in court:

(61) The archaeologists walked *over the field* with the echosounder.

(62) Graham talked the matter *through* with the lawyer.

(63) I slept the night *through*.

(64) I'll have Higgins *up* before the Judge.

In G, the instrument is the Prep-Sub. In G1, The knight ran {him *through*} with a sword, the sword ran completely through him, rather than the knight simply thrusting it through him (65). Here, "Him" is both Cl-Obj and Prep-Obj. The physically impossible 66 contrasts in being intransitive.

(65) The knight ran a sword *through him*.

(66) The knight ran *through him* with a sword.

H are transitives highlighting intransitive-like resulting state. The Cl-Obj's weight dominates, and passive equivalents do not exist (*Shop has been closed up by him; *House was set up together by them). "Shop" and "house" refer not so much to the shop/ house—and often do not—but through implicature to the result: H1 is no longer at work, while H2 have started living together.

Worlds of Meaning

Four-thousand-odd PVs are listed in Rundell and Fox (2005), each with sub-entries, making over 10,000 definitions. This does not contain all possible PVs. Possibly no English speaker will ever use or meet

every possible use in their lifetime. However, Save The Children (2016/2018) reports that "by the age of five, children should be able to speak in full sentences and use most of the everyday words that adults use. They should be asking lots of 'why?' questions to understand the world around them and should be able to talk confidently about the past and the future." (p. 4). This includes understanding and producing verb and preposition uses not yet met through acquisition of verb meaning, preposition meaning, and how metaphor works. As Kovács (2011, pp. 157–158) states, "new combinations are rarely made on a random basis … Particles often have meanings which they contribute to a variety of combinations. These fixed meanings are used to create new combinations". Among Kovács's examples were "'be partied out' (have had enough of parties because you have been to so many)", "'chill out' (relax completely)", "'bliss out' (become totally happy and relaxed)", "'veg out' (sit and relax and do nothing)", "'pig out' (eat an extremely large amount of food, much more than you need)", and "'google out' (discover information by means of a thorough research)".

Native speakers learn the meanings of words and how words work with each other from context along with some explanation. The question is, how do we as language learners and teachers identify meaning?

The Perils of Paraphrasing

Paraphrasing is generally using other words and/or phrases to explain contextual use. It is an important part of learning; however, it can be confused with meaning content (M-Dom), as happens in Figure 1. Here, "Drop off" does not mean decline gradually (The hill dropped off near the river), "fall asleep" (While doing his homework, he dropped off), or "stop and give something to someone" (Would you drop this off at the post office?). In the first, the land drops away from its higher level. The second is short for "drop off to sleep", being *at* an awake level and dropping *off* that *to* sleep. The third shows the object is physically or metaphorically dropped *off* from *on* a carrier. Paraphrase depends largely on contextual overlay, often implicature. In the type of

example given to all budding linguists, "she tried to open the door", we commonly understand she failed. Extension shows that failure is contextual overlay: "she tried to open the door, and to her surprise it did".

As already mentioned, paraphrasing also risks skewing analysis by associating MWVs with "single-word" verbs:

(67) I can *investigate* what happened, and get back to you later this afternoon.

(68) I can *look into* what happened, and get back to you later this afternoon.

M-Dom and structure show that 'investigate X' and 'look into X' differ:

(69) We'll have to look into this, Sarge, and see if we need to investigate.

"Look into X" expresses directing eyes to look inside X and can *imply* research. "Investigate X" *entails* research. They are partial in-context synonyms. In 68, it is implicature that research-investigation happens.

Identifying Meaning and Metaphor

Metaphor is not restricted to individual contexts but found across a wide range of contexts (Kövecses & Szabó, 1996). Kovács (2007, p. 8) stated that "many phrasal verbs are metaphorical, and if you understand the metaphors they use, it will be easier to understand and remember their meanings." Kovács used the following examples to illustrate how this works. Each pair contrasts a physical with a metaphorical usage "that is in some way similar to the first".

"The dog dug up an old bone."
"We dug up some interesting facts."

"Two planes were shot down."
"Each proposal was shot down."

"Burglars had broken into their house while they were away."
"She broke into his conversation."

In 70–71 below, Structural argument has it that "run over" and "look up" are textbook MWVs:

(70) The car *ran over* the hare.

(71) He *looked* the word *up* in a dictionary.

Running is commonly associated with having legs. Seeing cars are legless, they cannot run, therefore, in 70, "ran" seemingly changes meaning. However, understanding word meanings and syntactic patterning means investigating their contexts and contrasts. The M-Dom of "run" appears to be "manage movement along a concrete, metaphorical pathway", and not "move fast using legs":

(72) She ran her fingers through his hair.

(73) The ship ran before the wind.

(74) The petrol was running freely through the feedline.

(75) The engine is running roughly.

(76) They ran the horses along the ridge.

(77) He sat mesmerised watching his horse, an outsider, run first past the post.

(78) Ms DeVille ran the company with an iron will.

As an example of analytical power of contrasting, "over" contrasts meaningfully with other prepositions, which helps identify its M-Dom: "be/pass directly above"':

(79) The car ran *past* the pedestrian, *under* the bridge, *through* the crowd (missing everyone), *along* the ridge, *down* the hill, *over* the road, then *into* the hedge.

Contrasting "over" in different contexts illustrates how metaphor maintains concrete meaning. In 80-a, the cars continue over the line, despite it marking the end of the race, as in 80-b. 81-a shows the meeting metaphorically passed over the finishing line, but like racing cars, did not actually stop. In 81-b, the meeting ends because the participants reach a finishing time.

(80) a. The cars ran OVER the finish line.
b. The race is OVER, the cars having run over the finish line.

(81) a. The meeting ran OVER time.
b. The meeting is OVER, the participants having resolved all matters.

"Look" similarly means "use eyes to get information, give information through appearance". It can be active/intransitive (82–83), transitive (84–86), and stative/intransitive (87–88).

(82) He looked at the part he had to play.

(83) She's looking for her keys.

(84) Look me up when you get to Milan.

(85) The mechanic looked the engine over.

(86) He looked the part.

(87) Simone looked happy with her new gown.

(88) He looked like a tough bloke.

In 71, "look" is transitive. The searcher knew the word was in the dictionary, so the task was to use the eyes to find it, thereby completing the task satisfactorily.

"Run into X" (79) is another example of metaphor-core linking. While running into things can be deliberate, as in 89, it is often unplanned, as in 90. Graham and John may not have actually bumped into each other but metaphorically did so.

(89) Marion ran into the tree so as to claim the insurance.

(90) Graham ran into John at the publishers' fair last March in Berlin.

The fact that running into something is often unexpected lends itself to meeting someone unexpectedly. This is implicature determined by shared community understandings of word meaning and its applicability. A further example is "butter someone up" (stop trying to butter me up like that), applying flattery for the flatterer's benefit, not that of the flattered person. Butter is likewise applied for the user's benefit. Though this is metaphor, "our conceptual system is metaphorically structured and defined. Thus, the way we think, what we experience, and what we do every day is often a matter of metaphor." (Kovács, 2011, p. 145)

Various cues lead to this realisation. One example is "fed up (with X)". The core concept is feed to fullness with no more wanted/ needed: *feeding* animals *with* food *up* to the top measure of having enough (e.g., ready for slaughter). Non-linguistic clues such as gestures (e.g., backward-pointing fingers up beside top of neck) and/or reinforcing words (91) referring to the top indicate that figurative uses link cognitively to core meaning.

(91) I am fed up to here~the teeth~gills~brim~eyeballs~overflowing with that.

Conceptually related expressions likewise express reaching that upper limit of need/ want:

(92) I have had enough of that.

(93) I've had a belly-full of that.

(94) I've had it up to here~the back teeth with that.

Similar imagery appears in languages like Spanish (*estar harto de X* [be full; stuffed with X], *hasta la coronilla de X* [up to the crown with X]) and French (*en avoir ras le bol de X* 'have a bowl-full of X').

Idiom is context-dependent, the same wording appearing in literal (a) and idiomatic (b) contexts:

(95) The pigs were fed up with corn
(a) for market.
(b) and wouldn't take any more.

(96) The sumo wrestlers were fed up with bulk-building food
(a) for competition.
(b) and wanted healthy salads.

97–98 are further examples of how idiom needs core-meaning anchoring for full impact. Their value as idioms would fail otherwise. The physical activities describe states of mind, even if there is no physical action. The imagery of idiomatic uses of "fed up", "bouncing off walls", "run into things", and the like refers to the concreteness of being fed up, bouncing off walls, and running into things.

(97) We've got to get down to the park. The kids are bouncing off the walls.

(98) If you give me a cup of coffee, you'll be scraping me off the ceiling.
(Janet Shimmin, ESOL teacher, 2014, at a friend's place after dinner)

Though idiosyncratic wording depends on core meaning, this does not mean we consciously think of every word we use along with its metaphorical possibilities. Communication would not get far otherwise. Fluency depends on word and syntax choices becoming largely sub-conscious through long habituation, and so often becoming "chunks". However, as already mentioned, these subconscious choices depend on the meanings of the words used.

To test in-class application of this, Spring (2018) ran a study involving two groups of Japanese learners of English, one following semantic network-based methodology, the other traditional, whole-unit methodology. He used Talmy's (1985) event conflation "because of its range, explanatory power, and the large number of [Second-Language Acquisition] studies that suggest its importance in [English as a Foreign/ Second Language] education" (Spring, 2018, p. 122). The PVs were chosen from Garnier and Schmitt's (2015) PHaVE list of the 150 most frequent PVs and their various senses. As mentioned earlier, event conflation regards the verb and its satellite(s) as separate meaning-bearers. Spring (2018, p. 127) found event conflation more effective, also reporting on participants' comments such as, "I got a better image for PVs, and it made them easier to remember" and "I had only ever studied PVs as a one-unit set—this way was better and helped make them easier to remember". These contrasted with comments from the group. 24% "wished they had some sort of explanation about how PVs are formed" (p. 127). Comments included, "I wanted to know the meanings of the individual parts of PVs" and "there was no detailed explanation of how PVs were put together, so I couldn't learn them so well". Nineteen percent of participants reported difficulty in

remembering PVs, a comment not made by any of the event conflation method group. Rather, their comments included remarks such as "there wasn't enough time, so I couldn't remember the PVs so well" and "the class was fun, but having so many PVs is hard to remember".

While both groups learned common combinations nigh-on equally well, the event conflation group did much better learning uncommon combinations. By becoming aware of preposition and verb semantic networks within their M-Doms, the evidence suggests that learners can better induce meaning in new contexts. Lexical-unit methodology does not supply strategies for assessing the meaning of new PVs, and so learners gain less from instruction. Structural-Functional methodology approaches MWVs as verb-centred lexical units with context-specific meanings and/or one-word verb equivalents. Imrose (2013) opined that "this approach can do more harm than good. The lists of the same verbs with different particles can make learners confused because these groups of verbs can help nothing, except providing unrelated meaning." (p.115)

Implications

SFL helped to raise awareness that Structural-Functional approaches are inadequate. Attention was turned to language being a set of social systems learnt through context, calling on how native speakers learn: naturally, through context, and with explanation rarely needed. Often, meaning can be understood even when meeting a new MWV (Dainty, 1992; Fontaine, 2017; Tugrul, 2012). Focus changed to the "particle". Thornbury (2002) argued that "a focus on particles aims to sensitize learners to the shared meanings of a group such as carry on, drive on, go on, and come on" (p. 124). However, Fontaine (2017) suggests that typical SFL approaches have little worth for teachers or students, seconding Tucker (2009), who felt that SFL needs to pay more attention to lexicogrammar to best meet the teacher-student needs. Case studies such as Chévez Herra (2013) and Imrose (2013) show that in-context learning is relatively effective mainly when meaning is transparent, while context-based teaching of idiomatic uses seems ineffective.

Turning to CL thought, Kóvacs (2011, p. 142) feels that ESOL is misguided by the "conventional wisdom" that a PV is seen as an

> ... arbitrary combination of a verb and a particle and that—since there don't appear to be any obvious rules—phrasal verbs just have to be individually learnt and remembered. This is what traditional grammarians also assumed, and failed to explain properly why phrasal verbs behave in the way they do.

CL brings analytical awareness development into play. Task-Based Learning and corpus analyses are useful here. Teachers/Trainers can supply bodies of in-context examples of a verb for students/trainees in groups to analyse. This not only helps to identify the verb's M-Dom, but also betters memorisation and internalisation through noticing, processing, analysing, and recycling. We learn language effectively because each word has a community-wide semantic network M-Dom, which remains the same across all contexts. In the journey to proficiency, L1 and L2 learners need to discover the M-Dom of each item, its links with other items in the clause, and how M-Dom extends across its semantic network. Teachers need to do so intellectually, to become more proficient professionals.

A complex example is an activity this writer developed in 1997 for Cambridge Proficiency coursework (Table 3). It proved successful in other courses, levels, and professional development programs. The course book used equated PVs to single-word verbs in "study boxes", which students and teachers felt made learning PVs difficult. By taking every example in the study boxes, adding more verbs along with nouns, adjectives, and adverbs, around 200 one-word slips were produced. Fifteen were the prepositions from the study boxes, written in larger letters on bigger slips. Including nouns, adjectives, and adverbs showed that the semantic processes involved are not restricted to verbs.

Table 3
TBL Activity: Word and Preposition Meaning Compatibility.

Step 1	Place preposition slips on table as column headers.
Step 2	Class puts words under appropriate prepositions.
Step 3	When finished instructor removes all misallocations for class to reassign.
Step 4	When finished instructor assigns those the class could not place.
Step 5	Instructor divides class into groups.
Step 6	Gives each group one preposition and its word-set, the question being: "Why do these words go with this preposition?"
Step 7	Groups analyse their set; instructor circulates giving guidance.
Step 8	Groups report on findings.
Step 9	Instructor~participants widen discussion of each preposition's M-Dom and its compatibility with the M-Doms of its words.

Like most such in-class activities, an empirical study was not carried out. However, informally, students and teachers in professional development sessions reported that it helped develop awareness that MWVs are not random units detached from the words within them—these, rather, are key to understanding.

To date, applied CL appears to be the most effective teaching-learning methodology, blending the best from F-StrL and SFL with improved concepts. Applying the Cognitive principals expounded in studies such as those cited herein shows that idiomaticy is a red herring. The belief that idiom is detached from literal meaning lead to the concept of MWV in the first place. Dirven (2001) used semantic networks as learning instruments, refined by Rudzka-Ostyn (2003) in their approach to PVs. *Macmillan Phrasal Verbs Plus* (Rundell & Fox, 2005) likewise highlights metaphorical linking. Given that students readily learn and use transparent forms, these form ideal starting points for developing understanding (as with all teaching-learning), as summarised in Table 4 (adapted from Errey, 2013, Para 4). Concrete understanding leads to understanding metaphorical uses.

Table 4
Tips for Teaching PVs

1. Start with transparent, in-context uses.
2. Avoid saying that a translation/ paraphrase is a meaning of the item.
3. Avoid using one-word synonyms.
4. Elicit meaning. Get students to do the analysis, guide them in doing this.
5. Grouping by verb or prepositions can be useful, but only if meanings are made clear.
6. Grouping by semantic field (e.g., beginning [set up, step out], ending [end up, finish off]) can help to develop semantic networks.
7. Use quizzes, gap-fill exercises, matching exercises, etc. to test students' understanding.

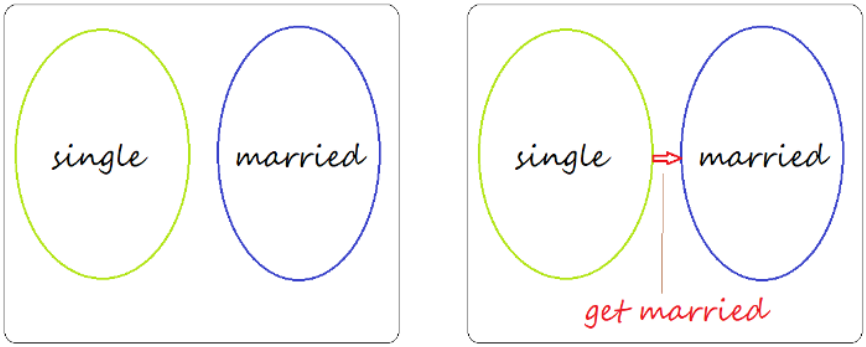
Patience and noticing are important tools. It takes native speakers up to 5 years, sometimes more, to reach adult-like competence. It can take L2/n learners as long, if not longer, to reach the same level, while also stepping outside the semantic networks of their L1 to build a parallel L2/n set. Awareness shortcuts the process.

Verbs like "get" are good starting points, starting from simplest, clearest examples to get learners and teachers in training sessions aware of the core M-Dom of verbs. Using "get" as an example:

Step 1: Act out "get in the car", "get out of the car". "What does 'get' mean?"—Change to a position from its opposite.

Step 2: Draw two circles (Figure 4). "Where is 'get married'?"—Between the two circles. The statement refines to 'change to a state from its opposite'.

Figure 4
Change to a State from its Opposite



Step 3: "She got a coke". If "get" is "change to opposite state", how does this fit in? The state is "having": have no coke, get a coke, then have the coke.

Step 4: Move on to other examples, like "I got my car fixed this morning"; that is, I caused change from unfixed to fixed.

By building up from concrete to metaphorical, prepositions and verbs can then be seen to be meaningful and independent from each other in all cases, making learning easier, as Spring (2018) found. Similar activities can be used to develop awareness that "look" means use eyes to get information/ receive information through eyes (they *looked* over the document or the cake *looked* simply scrumptious), "set" means start a process/period (winter has *set* in, the concrete *sets* in 24 hours, he *set* the dogs onto the intruders, or Biggles *set* the bomb to explode in 15 minutes time), and "take" can refer to (a) use something to get from A to B (he took the bus/ bridge to the city, he took a tablet for his headache, or she took a shower to get clean), or (b) be moved by something from A to B (the bus/ bridge took him to the city).

Syntactic and semantic evidence indicates that the terms MWV, PV, and PrepV have no structural or semantic validity. Awareness that verbs and prepositions are meaningful words with independent clause-level communicative and syntactic roles allows us to jettison such terms, thereby avoiding unneeded complication. This allows us to direct attention to verb and preposition M-Doms to develop

communicative proficiency. In this way students develop tools to understand and use both across contexts. Treating verb-preposition combinations as lexical units is limiting. Realising that there is no such thing as a MWV, PV, or PrepV is liberating.

References

Aarts, B. (1989). Verb-preposition constructions and small clauses in English. *Journal of Linguistics*, *25*(2), 277–290. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0022226700014109

Bolinger, D. (1971). *The phrasal verb in English.* Harvard University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0008413100008409

Brala, M. (2002). Understanding and translating (spatial) prepositions: An exercise in Cognitive semantics for lexicographic purposes. *Working Papers in English and Applied Linguistics*, *7*, 1–24

Brizee, A. (2010). *Overview of two-part phrasal verbs (idioms)*. Purdue OWL. https://owl.purdue.edu/owl/general_writing/mechanics/two_part_phrasal_verbs_idioms/index.html

Chévez Herra, R. (2013). Phrasal verbs: Their teaching and acquisition. *Revista de Lenguas Modernas*, *19*, 487–509.

Chomsky, N. (1957). *Syntactic structures.* Mouton.

Dainty, P. (1992). *Phrasal verbs in context.* Macmillan Education.

Emonds, J. (I976). *A transformational approach to English syntax.* Academic Press.

Errey, M. (2013). *9 tips on teaching phrasal verbs*. EnglishClub. https://www.englishclub.com/efl/tefl-articles/9-tips-on-teaching-phrasal-verbs

Evans, V., & Tyler, A. (2004). Applying cognitive linguistics to pedagogical grammar: The English prepositions of verticality. *Revista Brasileira de Linguistica Aplicada, 5*(2), 11–42. https://doi.org/10.1590/S1984-63982005000200002

Fontaine, L. (2017) On prepositions and particles: A case for lexical representation in systemic functional linguistics, *WORD, 63*(2), 115–135. https://doi.org/10.1080/00437956.2017.1309029

Fraser, B. (1976). *The verb-particle combination in English*. Academic Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0022226700005946

Garnier, M., & Schmitt, N. (2015). The PHaVE List: A pedagogical list of PVs and their most frequent meaning senses. *Language Teaching Research*, *19*(6), 645–666. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168814559798

Geeraerts, Dirk. (1995/2022). Cognitive linguistics. In J. Verschueren, J.-O. Östman, & J. Blommaert (Eds.), *Handbook of pragmatics online manual* (2nd ed., pp. 78–184). https://doi.org/10.1075/hop.m2.cog3

Halliday, M. A. K. (1985). Systemic background. In J. D. Benson & W. S. Greaves (Eds.), *Systemic Perspectives on Discourse* (Vol. 1). Ablex.

Hanks, P. (2013). *Lexical analysis: Norms and exploitations*. MIT Press.

Huddleston, R., & Pullum, G. (2002). *The Cambridge grammar of the English language*. Cambridge University Press.

Imrose, V. (2013). Phrasal verbs: A problem for ESL/EFL learners and suggested solution. *Thammasat Review*, *21*(2), 109–118.

Johnson, M. (1987). *The body in the mind: The bodily basis of meaning, imagination and reason*. The University of Chicago Press.

Kayne, R. S. (I984). Principles of particle constructions. In J. Guéron, H. Obenauer, & J. Pollock (Eds.), *Grammatical representation* (pp. 101–140). De Gruyter Mouton. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783112328064-006

Kennedy, A. G. (1920). *The modern English verb-adverb combination*. Stanford University Press.

Kovács, É. (2007). *Reflections on English phrasal verbs*. https://matarka.hu/koz/ISSN_1219-543X/tomus_12_fas_2_2007_eng_ger/ISSN_1219-543X_tomus_12_fas_2_2007_eng_ger_005-018.pdf

Kovács, É. (2011). *The traditional vs. cognitive approach to English phrasal verbs*. https://epa.oszk.hu/02100/02137/00022/pdf/EPA02137_ISSN_1219-543X_tomus_16_fas_1_2011_141-160.pdf

Kövecses, Z., & Szabó, P. (1996). Idioms: A view from Cognitive Semantics. *Applied Linguistics*, *17*(3), 326–355. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/17.3.326

Lakoff, G., & Johnson, M. (1980). The metaphorical structure of the human conceptual system. *Cognitive Science, 4*, 195–208. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15516709cog0402_4

Langacker, R. (1986). An introduction to cognitive grammar. *Cognitive science, 10*, 1–40. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15516709cog1001_1

Langacker, R. W. (1987). *Foundations of cognitive grammar: Theoretical prerequisites* (Volume I). Stanford University Press.

Lewis, M. (1993). *The lexical approach.* Language Teaching Publications.

Lindner, S. J. (1981). *A lexico-semantic analysis of English verb particle constructions with OUT and UP*. [Doctoral dissertation, University of California]. ProQuest.

Marks, J. (2005). Phrasaled out? Don't worry! Help is at hand. *MED Magazine, 32*. https://macmillandictionaries.com/MEDMagazine/July2005/32-Feature-Phrasaled-out.htm

Marks, J. (2006). Complete guide to phrasal verbs. *MED Magazine, 36*. http://macmillandictionaries.com/MED-Magazine/March2006/36-Feature-Wildly-Irregular.htm

Norén, K., & Linell, P. (2007) Meaning potentials and the interaction between lexis and contexts: An empirical substantiation. *Pragmatics, 17*(3), 387–416. https://doi.org/10.1075/prag.17.3.03nor

Perdek, M. (2010). Getting through to phrasal verbs: A cognitive organization of phrasal verb entries in monolingual pedagogical dictionaries of English. In A. Dykstra & T. Schoonheim (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 14th EURALEX International Congress* (pp. 1390–1398). Fryske Akademy.

Pullum, G., & Huddleston, R. (2002). Prepositions and preposition phrases. In R. Huddleston & G. Pullum (Eds.), *The Cambridge grammar of the English language* (pp. 597–661). Cambridge University Press.

Radford, A. (1988). *Transformational grammar: A first course.* Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511840425

Rudzka-Ostyn, B. (2003). *Word power: Phrasal verbs and compounds*. Mouton de Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110197235

Rundell, M., & Fox, G. (2005). *Macmillan phrasal verbs plus.* Macmillan/Bloomsbury Publishing.

Save The Children. (2016/2018). *Early childhood development and children's primary school attainment in English and Maths*: *New research findings*. https://www.savethechildren.org.uk/content/dam/gb/reports/policy/early-language-development-and-childrens-primary-school-attainment.pdf

Smith, L. P. (1925/1928). *Words and idioms: Studies in the English Language.* Constable.

Song, X. (2013). *A cognitive linguistic approach to teaching English prepositions*. [Doctoral dissertation]. University of Koblenz-Landau.

Spring, R. (2018) Teaching phrasal verbs more efficiently: Using corpus studies and Cognitive Linguistics to create a particle list. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, *9*(5), 121–135. https://doi.org/107575/aiac.alls.v.9n.5p.121

Talmy, L. (1985). Lexicalization patterns. Semantic structure in lexical form. In T. Shopen (Ed.), *Language typology and syntactic description* (pp. 36–149). Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/cbo9780511618437.002

Talmy, L. (2000). *Toward a cognitive semantics (2): Typology and process in concept structuring*. MIT Press.

Talmy, L. (2009). Main verb properties and equipollent framing. Crosslinguistic approaches to the psychology of language. In J. Guo, E. Lieven, N. Budwig, S. Ervin-Tripp, K. Nakamura, & S. Özçalışkan (Eds.), *Research in the tradition of Dan Isaac Slobin* (pp. 389–402). Psychology Press.

Tucker, G. (2009). In search of the grammarian's dream: Locating lexis in a systemic functional grammar. In S. Slembrouck, M. Taverniers, & M. van Herreweghe (Eds.), *From will to well: Studies in linguistics offered to Anne-Marie Simon-Vandenbergen* (pp. 415–426). Academia Press.

Tugrul, C. (2012). How to teach phrasal verbs. *English Language Teaching*, *5*(6), 114–118. https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v5n6p114

Tyler, A., & Evans, V. (2003). *The semantics of English prepositions. Spacial scenes, embodied meanings and cognition*. Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511486517

Woodfall, P. (2021). *What are phrasal and prepositional verbs?* Oxford University Press ELT. https://learningenglishwithoxford.com/2021/09/16/phrasal-prepositional-verbs/

Wray, A. (2002). *Formulaic language and the lexicon*. Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511519772

Wray, A. (2012). What do we (think we) know about formulaic language? An evaluation of the current state of play. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *32*, 231–254. https://doi.org/10.1017/S026719051200013X