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THE INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCE

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

TEACHING AND LEARNING PHRASAL VERBS THROUGH CONCEPTUAL METAPHORS

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MASTER OF ARTS

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ÖZET

KAVRAMSAL EĞRETİLEME YOLUYLA ÖBEK EYLEMLERİN ÖĞRETİMİ VE ÖĞRENİLMESİ

Betül GÜLERYÜZ ADAMHASAN

Yüksek Lisans Tezi, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı
Danışman: Doç. Dr. Jülide İNÖZÜ
Şubat 2014, 135 sayfa

Kelime öğrenmenin dil öğreniminde önemli bir yeri vardır. Öbek eylemler söz dağarcığının en önemli parçalarından biridir. Genellikle, öbek eylemler, fiil, ilgeç veya zarflardan oluşan birleşik sözcükler olarak tanımlanır. Bir öbek eylemi oluşturan parçalardan birisi değiştiğinde, çoğu zaman, anlam da değişir. Böylece öbek eylemleri öğrenme, öğrenciler için zorlaşır ve karmaşıklaşır. Bu çalışmada, Kavramsal Eğretileme Teorisine göre ilgeçler üzerine odaklanarak öbek eylemleri öğretme ve öğrenmenin etkililiğini incelemeyi amaçladık. Bu çalışmada kullanılan ilgeçler UP-DOWN-OUT-IN-INTO ve OFF' tur. Kavramsal eğretilemeleri kullanmanın öbek eylemlerin anlamını kazanmada öğrencilere yardımcı olup olmadığını bulmak için mevcut müfredata kavramsal eğretileme aktiviteleri eklenmiştir. Ayrıca, kavramsal eğretilemeleri kullanmanın öbek eylemleri daha uzun süre içinde akılda tutmayı artırıp artırmadığını araştırmaya çalıştık. Bu vaka çalışmasının bir diğer amacı, öbek eylemleri kavramsal eğretileme yoluyla öğrenmenin öğrencilerin öğrenme ve öğretme sürecine karşı olan motivasyon, ilgi ve zevk seviyelerine katkıda bulunup bulunmadığını ortaya çıkarmaktı. Üçgenleme ve bütünleyiciliği sağlamak için, nicel ve nitel araştırma metotlarını birleştirerek karma araştırma metotları kullanıldı. Veri toplamak için Öbek Eylemler Testleri, Motivasyon Envanteri ve resmi olmayan röportajlar yapılmıştır. Sonuçlar tanımlayıcı istatistik, yinelenmiş ölçümler için varyans analizi (ANOVA) ve içerik analizi ile değerlendirilmiştir. Elde edilen veriler uygulamanın olumlu katkılarını ortaya koymuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Öbek Eylemler, İlgeçler, Eğretileme, Kavramsal Eğretileme Teorisi, Konumsal Eğretilemeler, Ontolojik (Varoluşsal) Eğretilemeler, Durumsal Eğretilemeler

ABSTRACT

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Vocabulary learning has an important role in language learning. Phrasal verbs are one of the most essential parts of vocabulary. Generally speaking, phrasal verbs are defined as combinations of verbs and particles. When one of the components that form a phrasal verb changes, most of the time, the meaning also changes. So learning phrasal verbs becomes hard and complicated for the learners. In this study we aimed to examine the effectiveness of teaching and learning phrasal verbs by focusing on the particles on the basis of Conceptual Metaphor Theory. The particles used in this study were *UP- DOWN- OUT- IN- INTO- OFF*. We integrated conceptual metaphor activities to the existing language syllabus so as to find out whether using conceptual metaphors helped the learners acquire the meanings of phrasal verbs. Also, we tried to investigate whether using conceptual metaphors enhanced the retention of phrasal verbs over longer periods of time. Another purpose of this case study was to find out whether learning phrasal verbs through conceptual metaphors contributed to the students' level of motivation, interest, enjoyment, pleasure towards the teaching and learning process. In order to ensure triangulation and complementarity, mixed research methods were used, combining both quantitative and qualitative research methods. Phrasal Verbs Tests, Intrinsic Motivation Inventory and informal interviews were administered in order to collect the data. The results were discussed by descriptive statistics, One-Way Repeated Measures of ANOVA and content analysis. The results of the data analysis yielded positive findings regarding the implementation.

Keywords: Phrasal Verbs, Particles, Metaphors, Conceptual Metaphor Theory, Orientational Metaphors, Ontological Metaphors, Situational Metaphors

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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ABBREVIATIONS

PVs **:** Phrasal Verbs

CEFR : Common European Framework

ESP **:** English for Specific Purposes

LYS 5 : Undergraduate Placement Examination 5 (Lisans Yerleştirme Sınavı 5)

IMI **:** Intrinsic Motivation Inventory

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

Phrasal verbs are important features of the English language and abundant in today's colloquial English, especially in television programs, movies, interviews, pop music, internet exchanges and many other conversational settings. These verbs are generally described in a broad sense as "combinations of verbs with adverbial or prepositional particles" (Moon&Sinclair, 1989, p. IV), or, in a narrow sense, as "verbs taking adverb particles" (Crystal, 1988, p. 66).

Generally, phrasal verbs (PVs, here after) are so widespread in written and spoken English that they have their own dictionaries with special treatment in English language teaching materials. In fact, while the writing and the speech of native speakers of English is full of PVs expressions, non-native speakers of English prefer single verb equivalents and avoid using these constructions because of their confusing and difficult nature. In this respect, Cornell (1985, p. 270) stated:

> "The plain fact that what distinguishes the writing and, above all, the speech of a good foreign student from those of an Englishman is that what an Englishman writes or says is full of these expressions (PVs), whereas most foreigners are frightened of them, carefully avoid them, and what sounds stilted should be the PVs, not foreigners in consequence. Foreign students who enjoy being flattered on their English can best achieve this by correctly using masses of these component verbs".

In short, as much as PVs may be problematic for the foreign language learners, they have to master them in order to comprehend and use the target language efficiently. With this view, we believe that teaching and learning PVs must have a significance in ELT, this study will posit that rather than the traditional approach- memorizing the meanings of PVs- there may be a more effective way to teach and learn these verbs.

On the basis of the argument above, our present study mainly focuses on PVs teaching and learning through addressing the cognitive view of particles, that is, conceptual metaphors. This chapter offers an introduction to the Background of the Study, Statement of the Problem, the Purpose of the Study, Research Questions, Limitations of the Study and Operational Definitions used in this study in order to give readers a general impression about the study.

1.2. Background of the Study

Teaching and learning a foreign language has gained importance more than ever recently in Turkey due to the developments in techonology, business, education, trade and globalisation. However, learning a foreign language is a long and troublesome process. During this process language users and learners are supposed to deal with some communicative language activities, defined in the Common European Framework Reference (CEFR) as a description of what a language user or learner is "able to do with a language" (CEFR, p. 43). The CEFR describes what a learner can do at six specific levels: A1 and A2 (Basic User), B1, and B2 (Independent User), C1, and C2 (Proficient User). In order to carry out the language activities, the users and learners have to use a range of competences, some areas of knowledge, or aptitudes and skills and of attitudes (CEFR, 2.1, p. 9). For each level, the CEFR complements all these ranges and areas by describing in depth:

- Competencies necessary for effective communication.
- Skills and knowledge related to language learning and competencies.
- Situations (people, place, time, organization, etc.) and contexts (study, work, social, tourism, etc.) in which communication takes place.

To acquire all these traits, the learners must have one of the most important components of learning any foreign language: vocabulary. Vocabulary carries the content of what we want to say, convey the meaning of our sentences, and help us communicate precisely. In fact, foreign language vocabulary knowledge can be considered as a predictor of L2 learners' proficiency.

"Knowing a language is to know the certain sound sequences signifying certain concepts or meanings. Speakers of English know what 'boy' means, and it means something different from toy or girl. When you know a language, you know the words in that language, that is, the sound units that are related to specific meanings." (Fromkin&Hyams, 2003, p. 5)

Unfortunately, until recently vocabulary has not received enough attention, and for a long time it has been a neglected area. Second Language Acquisition (SLA) researchers and teachers have typically focused on syntax and phonology as 'more serious candidates for theorizing' (Richards, 1976, p. 77). Therefore, vocabulary teaching was a matter of secondary importance in different approaches and methods that were developed for language teaching and learning. These approaches and methods viewed vocabulary teaching differently; some emphasized vocabulary instruction while some neglected it and considered it as something useless and time-consuming. The limitations of such a construct of vocabulary have become apparent in the past few decades (Carter, 1998; Richards, 1976). Laufer (1997, p. 147) emphasized this paradigm shift by stating "After decades of neglect, lexicon is now recognized as central to language acquisition process, native or non-native". As a matter of fact, there has been a perceived change in focus on the vocabulary teaching and learning because, at the present day, vocabulary has become a dynamic factor carrying both knowledge of a word and the skill of using it, so vocabulary cannot be separated from discourse (McCarthy, 1984; Robinson, 1989; Nation, 2001). Also, researchers and language teachers have begun to approve the value of vocabulary in teaching and learning a language. Neuman (2005, 2006) stressed that vocabulary development is an integral part of school readiness, a reference to the motivational behaviors and the common knowledge and experiences that are necessary for children to enter into school meaningfully and to perform deeper cognitive processing, the ability to express oneself more clearly, and to learn things more quickly. She (ibid), too, suggested that vocabulary size can be equated to word power, which means creating more knowledge. Besides, vocabulary is accepted as the keystone of a language system and we can see the notable attention to vocabulary since the second half of the nineteenth and the first few decades of the twentieth century (Carril, 2009). With regards to the importance of vocabulary in teaching and learning a language, in recent years, an intensive exploration of vocabulary instruction has been made in foreign language teaching, as well. Studies

up to now, in the fields of linguistics, lexicography, SLA, English Language Teaching (ELT) and language acquisition mostly cover collocations (Palmer, 1938; Sinclair, 1991), lexical phrases (Nattinger& DeCarrico, 1992), multiword items (Moon, 1997), phraseology (Cowie, 1998), lexical bundles (Biber, 1999), formulaic language (Wray, 2002), multiword units (Nation, 2008), PVs (Condon, 2008), and so forth.

However, despite the growing concern for vocabulary in recent studies, we must admit that it is a challanging task both for the teachers and second/ foreign language learners to gain insights of vocabulary knowledge of the target language. Especially, when it comes to multiword expressions that have many layers and kinds, such as idioms, fixed expressions, PVs, etc, it gets even harder. (Moon, 1997; Wray, 2002). Amongst them, the present study narrowly centres on PVs, which are regarded as a common property in English. Phrasal verbs as an aspect of the lexicon are one of the most prolific, productive and elusive structures among the multi-word expressions (Zarifi& Mukundan, 2013, p. 1821). In fact, a PV is a verb, which is formed from two or three parts such as a verb and an adverb or preposition. Most of these verbs are formed from a number of common verbs such as come, get, take, put, bring, and a number of different prepositions and adverbs such as *up, out, off, down, in*. When one of the components that make up a PV changes, mostly, the meaning also changes. For example, while 'turn on' means to switch on something, 'turn off' means to switch off something. Also, many PVs do not have immediately transparent meanings, which makes these verbs difficult and complicated for the learners to take in because combining the meanings of the components -verbs and particles- may not help pick up the whole meaning of the verb. Thus, in most parts of the world, there has been a trend to seek for the most influential ways of teaching and learning these verbs since the late 1980s or even much earlier.

Traditionally, the learners had to learn the meanings of the PVs by heart because the combination of a verb and particles seemed so often completely random and complex (Cornell, 1985; Side, 1990). As a matter of fact, PVs were, to a large extent, assumed to be an arbitrary combination of a verb and one or more particles by traditional grammarians, such as Boligner (1971), Lipka (1972), Sroka (1972) and Fraser (1976), etc, but cognitive grammarians, such as Lindner (1983), Lakoff (1987), Rudzka-Ostyn (2003) and Tyler&Evans (2003) remarked that the meanings of particles in PVs formulate a network of related senses; thus, these verbs are systematic and analysable to some degree (Kovacs, 2006, p.144).

The main focus of this study stems from the insights of these cognitive scholars who took for granted the assumptions that the meanings of PVs go easily from concrete to the abstract and metaphors serve as a link between them (Kovacs, 2006, p.144). According to Kovacs, (ibid) the learners may not see this path and recognize the metaphors underlying the abstract meanings. Thus, they may find many PVs incomprehensible.

As a conclusion, in consideration of this path between the particles and metaphors, in our present study we aim to explore the effectiveness of conceptual metaphors, based on conceptual metaphor theory (Johnson& Lakoff, 1980), in teaching, learning and keeping the meanings of the PVs.

1.3. Statement of The Problem

PVs are usually found in grammar courses and vocabulary textbooks in English as a Second Language/ English as a Foreign Language (ESL/EFL) curriculum and are also widespread in most of the language exams, such as Undergraduate Placement Examination 5   (LYS 5) and Foreign Language Exam (YDS), taken by foreign language users and learners in Turkey. These users and learners regard PVs as an endless list which needs to be learned by heart. From this point of view, phrasal verbs are assumed to be constant sources of confusion as they underlie some barriers and reasons why learners often dislike them on the path to proficiency in English (Boers, 2000b; Kurtyka, 2001; Littlemore & Low, 2006). Likewise, research (Bolinger; 1971; Cornell, 1985; McArthur, 1989; McArthur, 1992; Kharma& Hajjaj, 1989; Crystal, 1995; Kubota, 1997; Thrush, 2001; Hall, 2002; Hourany, 2002) has shown that phrasal verbs are often difficult to master by the ESL/EFL learners, both at the receptive and productive levels due to the syntactic and semantic complexities of such verbs that may cause learning difficulty, especially for students whose mother tongue does not have PVs (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999, p. 425).

In that sense, research into language typology has shown that conceptual structures are lexicalized in various ways in different languages (Cadierno, 2008; Conventry & Guijarro-Fuentes, 2008; Slobin, 1997; Talmy, 2008) . These findings underpinned the typological differences between satellite framed languages, such as English and verb framed languages, such as Turkish, implying that the chief problem with comprehending PVs for Turkish EFL learners may exist in their lack of awareness

of the orientational meanings of the particle formed PVs (Yasuda, 2010, p. 251). Moreover, the particles change the meaning of the verbs in such a way that it is sometimes impossible to connect them with the dictionary definitions of the individual words and the same combination of verb and particle seems to mean different things in different contexts, which supports the idea that PVs are problematic and demanding for the learners. According to Rudzka-Ostyn (2003), when the particles refer to spatial locations and movements, the meanings are quite easily understood , but when they refer to more abstract concepts, feelings or relations, the meanings are not so obvious, making the retention of these verbs difficult for the learners.

In Turkey, the learners face the same difficult situation while learning PVs. The traditional way of teaching PVs in high schools is mainly by focusing on their meanings and and positions in a sentence and memorizing their Turkish meanings. In this teaching practice, however, the students may easily forget these verbs and their meanings if they are not constantly revised and applied. In general, learners believe that when they memorize the Turkish equivalents of the PVs, they learn a great deal of vocabulary, but when they can not recall the meanings, they feel dissapointed and begin to assume that learning PVs is impossible for them due to the fact that PVs have different semantic and syntactic properties. This negative experience may lead the students to overgeneralize the whole language learning as problematic and puzzling.

Bearing all this in mind and assuming that the traditional English teaching methods may not be enough for teaching PVs, our major concern in this present study is to describe our attempt in teaching PVs through conceptual metaphors to 11th grade learners, focusing on the path between particles and metaphors through conceptual metaphor theory.

1.4. Purpose of the Study

One of the most challenging parts of a language for the foreign language learners is its vocabulary, and it would not be wrong to say that teaching and learning the PVs is one of the most difficult parts of it. Specifically, they are polysemous and it is difficult and demanding for the learners to keep all the meanings in their minds and recall them in communication.

In this respect, the goal of this study is to investigate whether using conceptual metaphors help the 11th grade learners to acquire the meanings of PVs. Our emphasis

that is dealt with the paths between the particles and conceptual metaphors is not restricted only with acquring the meanings of PVs. In terms of vocabulary learning, it is useless if the students learn a lot of words or possess a large number of words but can't remember or retain them in their long-term memories (Wei,2007). In other words, the students need not only learn a lot of words, but to remember them. Hence, storing and retrieving the vocabulary is an important point on which we want to focus, as well in this study. Accordingly, we intend to find out whether using conceptual metaphors enhance the retention of PVs over longer periods of time. Last, we aim to examine whether learning PVs through conceptual metaphors contribute to the students' level of motivation, interest, enjoyment, pleasure towards teaching and learning of PVs.

1.5. Research Questions

In our study we are going to find answers to the following research questions that constitute the basis of the study:

1- Does using conceptual metaphors help the 11th grade learners acquire the meanings of phrasal verbs?
2- Does using conceptual metaphors enhance the retention of phrasal verbs over longer periods of time?
3- Does learning phrasal verbs through conceptual metaphors contribute to the students' level of motivation, interest, enjoyment, pleasure towards the teaching and learning phrasal verbs process through conceptual metaphors?

1.6. Limitations of the Study

This study was carried out at Seyhan Barbaros İMKB Anatolian High School in Adana. The participants of the study were the 11th grade students who were studying English for Specific Purposes (ESP) at the time of the study. There were twelve students in this study group. The data collected from this small number of students may not reflect the students at other high schools in Turkey, so we cannot generalize the findings of this study.

The other limitation of this study is the assessment method. We evaluated the knowledge of the students by *multiple choice* and *fill in the blanks* types of questions on

purpose, which are the most common types of questions included in language exams. Therefore, we could only assess their receptive skills.

1.7. Operational Definitions

Phrasal Verb: A structure that consists of a verb proper and a morphologically invariable particle that function as a single unit both lexically and syntactically" (Darwin & Gray, 1999; Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech& Svartvik, 1985; cited in Chu, 1996). A phrasal verb is composed of a verb (like 'break', 'take', or 'look') and a particle (either an adverb like 'up' or 'away' or a preposition like 'into').

Particle: A particle is "an adverb or a preposition that can combine with a verb to make a phrasal verb" (Hornby, 2000, p. 923). A particle belongs to the set of invariable words such as adverbs, prepositions and conjunctions.

Metaphor: Traditionally, a metaphor is a word or phrase used in an imaginative way to describe somebody or something else in order to show that the two things have the same qualities and to make the description more powerful (Hornby, 2000, p. 803). In this study metaphors will be defined from a cognitive linguistic point of view as a property of concepts, and not of words but as processes of human thought and reasoning (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, pp. 3-6).

Conceptual Metaphor: A conceptual metaphor is "a metaphor that exists in the mind of a speaker, and may thus be unconscious" (Johansen, 2007, p. 11). In order to generate a conceptual metaphor, the knowledge from one domain must be mapped onto another.

Orientational Metaphors: Orientational metaphors function according to our physical and cultural experience of spatial relations. (Lundmark, 2005, p. 13) They show how concepts are spatially related to each other and related to human orientations in space, such as up-down, in-out, front-back, on-off, deep-shallow, etc. They organize a whole system of concepts with respect to one another by giving them a mutual spatial relation (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 14).

For example: HEALTH AND LIFE ARE UP and SICKNESS AND DEATH ARE DOWN

1. Mary <u>came down with</u> flu last week.

In this sentence, health is grounded in the physical basis that when we are healthy, we can sit or stand, which is *UP*; on the contrary, sickness or death makes us lie *DOWN* physically (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 15).

Ontological Metaphors: Ontological metaphors view an abstract concept such as an emotion, idea, or event as something concrete such as an object, a person, or a container. In other words, these metaphors view intangible concepts as tangible objects, which makes it possible to refer to them, categorize them, group them, and quantify them and reason about them" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 25). For example: THE MIND IS A MACHINE with the primary metaphorical assumption that the mind is an entity:

1. My mind can never <u>operate </u>well under pressure. (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 25).

In this sentence, 'mind' as an abstract concept is viewed as a tangible object 'machine' and the function of the mind is resembled to the function of a machine.

Situational Metaphors: Structural metaphors help language users understand the target concept A by means of the structure of the source concept B. For example, a conceptual metaphor as : LIFE IS A JOURNEY

1. When he discovered that she was cheating on him, he knew that it would mean <u>the end of the road </u>for their relationship.

In this sentence, life is likened to a journey through a structural metaphor. A more concrete image is used to structure another less concrete one, which enhances people's understanding of the concept and its related idioms. (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 10).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Introduction

In this chapter we will present an overview of the literature to our study, starting from teaching and learning English to vocabulary teaching and learning in EFL classrooms. Also, we will identify the importance of the vocabulary in language learning and describe what knowing a word means. As we all know, there are some difficult aspects of vocabulary to teach and learn. We will focus on one of these aspects, phrasal verbs (PVs). After defining the PVs, we will categorize them and indicate why they are difficult to acquire. Lastly, we will explain conceptual metaphor theory on which our study is based.

2.2. Teaching and Learning English in EFL Classrooms

The impotance of a foreign language cannot be underestimated because it is the vehicle of communication between people whose native languages differ from each other. Especially when it comes to English as a second or foreign language, the situation becomes more prevalent because English language is a national and international medium of oral communication (Chukwuma, 2007, cited in Babatunde, 2011). Knowledge of foreign languages and in particular of English is an indispensable part of the modern world. Such an important language leads to the exchange of feelings and effects that have contributions to the socioeconomical and political development of any state. For example, in Turkey, a country of high repute in science and technology, there are growing cultural and commercial relations with the rest of the world and English has become the primary linguistic means which connect Turkey to the rest of the world. English has a definite instrumental function as a means for connecting Turkey to the outside world and this connection is vital to keep up with scientific and technological developments.

Namely, English is necessary for international relations which have become an essential part of daily life and Turkey's participation in advanced sciences and

technology as well as its participation in world affairs (Ministry of Education, 4, 2001). Accompanying the economic development in Turkey, English has gained high prestige in society. Passing English exams has been required for graduation from primary, secondary and high schools, as well as for entry into work life and professional and business success. Usually, English majors at 12th grade in high schools need to pass Undergraduate Placement Examination 5 (LYS 5) to ensure their placement at universities. This test focuses on grammar, vocabulary and reading skills of the learners so most of the learners lack oral communication skills after their graduation from high schools. Brown (2001, p. 55) stated that "no one can dispute the widely observed success with which children learn foreign languages especially when they are living in the cultural and linguistic milieu of the language". However, this is not the case for students in Turkey who have few chances of interacting with real English outside their classrooms. This is probably one of the reasons why many learners in Turkey claim that they have spent a lot of time trying to learn the language but not able to communicate with native speakers or react to situations using the language knowledge in their memory. This may happen because learning a second language is not the same as learning a foreign language, though some interchange these terms. "Second language learning contexts are those in which the classroom target language is readily available out there. Teaching English in the United States or Australia clearly falls into this category" (Brown, 2001, p.116). If a Japanese student is learning English in England, for example, it is easier for him/her to practise the target language as the language will be available and a must in many situations such as talking to an English neighbour or friend, shopping, applying for a job, talking to the boss etc. In contrast, "foreign language contexts are those in which students do not have ready-made contexts for communication beyond their classroom. They may be obtainable through language clubs, special media opportunities, books, or an occasional tourist, but efforts must be made to create such opportunities" (Brown, 2001, p.116). Therefore, the key word for teachers of English is to provide opportunities for EFL learners similar to that of ESL learners who "have an instant laboratory avilable twenty-four hours a day" (Brown, 2001, p.116).

English language learners in Turkey have such difficulties while dealing with language learning process. Brown (2001) mentioned some guidelines to compensate for the lack of ready communicative situations outside the classroom. He suggested that teachers provide plenty of extra class learning opportunities, such as assigning an

English speaking movie, having them listen to an English speaking TV or radio program, getting an English-speaking conversation partner, doing outside reading (newspapers, magazines, books), writing a journal or diary in English. In fact, learners may interact effectively with the language by means of these authentic materials. In such an EFL context, learners may have a chance to practice the target language and thus this may facilitate their learning and the transformation of pedagogy from the teacher and text-book centered context to the learner-centered context.

2.3. Teaching Vocabulary in ESL/ EFL Classrooms

Teaching and learning a foreign language brings about some hard aspects to the classroom that the learners have to face during the learning and teaching process. One of these aspects is vocabulary, which is a vital component of any language, carrying the meaning and maintaining all the information about communication. In general, learners need to have a sufficient amount of vocabulary knowledge to be able to convey the meaning (Wilkins, 1972). Therefore, vocabulary has accompanied second/ foreign language teaching and learning throughout its long history (Barcroft, 2004; Decaricco, 2001; Read, 2000). During this long history of language teaching and learning, different approaches and methods have been developed to improve the language skills of the learners. However, these approaches and methods have viewed vocabulary teaching differently; some emphasized it while some neglected it. On looking at the historical view of vocabulary teaching, we can see how vocabulary received little interest and in time how this point of view has changed into heightened interest.

As a matter of fact, the low status given to vocabulary teaching in past years may largely be attributed to the language teaching approaches which were dominant at that time. The changes seen in language teaching approaches throughout history have reflected the shifts in theories of the nature of language and of language learning; they have also reflected recognition of changes in the kind of proficiency learners need (Ketabi&Shahraki, 2011).

Therefore, the following overview of the approaches to language teaching based on the classification proposed by Celce-Murcia (2001) will present the importance each approach has placed on vocabulary teaching and make the current status of vocabulary teaching clear for us :

Grammar Translation Method

This method dominated foreign language teaching from the 1840s to the 1940s and in its modified form is still used in some parts of the world today. The main goal of learning a foreign language is to be able to read its literature, learning the grammatical rules and vocabulary of the target language using bilingual word lists. Vocabulary lists are commonly used in the lesson and a typical exercise is to translate lexical items or sentences from the target language into their mother tongue using dictionaries (or vice versa). Another exercise given to the students is a list of words which they are required to find their antonyms or sometimes their synonyms in the reading passages they are studying or define the words that they encounter in the reading passages. Recognizing cognates is an exercise mostly given to students to identify and learn the spelling or sound pattern that corresponds between the target language and mother tongue (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

Direct Method

The goal of language instruction in this method was the ability to use the target language ; therefore, the students were trained to communicate in the target language and to have an acceptable pronunciation. According to this method, we learn languages by hearing them spoken and engaging in conversation (Hubbard, Jone& Thornton 1983, cited in Ketabi & Shahraki, 2011). Vocabulary was supposed to be acquired naturally through interactions during the lesson, so vocabulary was presented in context and was graded from simple to complex, so vocabulary was emphasized over grammar (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Concrete words were taught through objects, pictures, physical demonstration, and abstract words were taught by grouping words according to a topic or through association of ideas (Zimmerman, 1997).

Reading Approach

Following the Coleman Report in 1929, reading became the goal of most foreign language programs in the United States and its popularity lasted until World War II (Richards & Rodgers, 2003). This approach began to function as an alternative to the Direct Approach and was chosen for practical reasons, limited class hours, the qualification of the teachers, and the need of the learners. In this approach, reading knowledge could be achieved through the gradual introduction of words and grammatical structures in simple reading texts.

The vocabulary used in the reading passages was controlled at beginning levels and chosen according to their frequency and usefulness. The acquisition of vocabulary

was considered to be more important than grammatical skills and was expanded as fast as possible through intensive and extensive reading. The translation of vocabulary items and sentences were permitted (Celce-Murcia, 2001).

Audiolingualism (United States)

The Audiolingual Approach which was dominant in the United States during the 1940s, 1950s, and 1960s is known to be a major paradigm shift in foreign language teaching (Larsen-Freeman, 1986, cited in Ketabi & Shahraki, 2011). This approach adopted the behaviorist view as its theory of learning which claimed that learning was a matter of "habit formation" (Decarrico, 2001). The main emphasis in this approach was to overlearn the grammar of a language. The new grammatical points and vocabulary were presented through dialogues. In this approach, language teaching was to acquire the grammatical and phonological structures of a language; thus, vocabulary learning was kept to a minimum (especially in the initial stages) and new words were introduced and selected according to their simplicity and familiarity to make the grammar practice possible (Zimmerman, 1997). Takefuta and Takefuta (1996, cited in Ketabi & Shahraki, 2011) claimed that one reason that vocabulary was "restricted" under this approach is that it emphasized the phonological aspects of language learning. But, Coady (1997) stated that vocabulary learning might seem to be fruitful in this approach because exposure to good language habits may lead to an increased vocabulary.

Oral-situational Approach (Britain)

This approach was developed by the works of British functional linguists, especially J.R. Firth, who believed that language form is determined by its context and situation (Celce-Murcia, 2001). In this approach, all lexical and grammatical items were presented and practiced in situations (e.g. at the supermarket, at the bank, at the post office). The vocabulary items were chosen according to the situations being practiced. Vocabulary selection procedures were used to ensure that useful vocabulary items were covered (Richards &Rodgers, 2003).

Cognitive Approach

The Cognitive Approach was influenced by cognitive psychology (Neisser, 1967) and Chomskyan linguistics (Chomsky, 1957, 1965). According to Chomsky's Generative linguistics, language is represented as a speaker's mental grammar with a set of abstract rules for generating grammatical sentences. In this approach, language learning is viewed as rule-acquisition, not habit-formation. Vocabulary is important, especially at intermediate and advanced levels.

Although no teaching method directly stems from the Cognitive Approach, Gattengo's Silent Way (1976) shared certain principles with it. The principle of Silent Way, that "teaching is subordinated to learning", is in keeping with the active search for rules ascribed to the learner in the Cognitive Approach (Richards &Rodgers, 1986, p. 100). In this method, a distinction is made between several classes of vocabulary items. Richards &Rodgers (1986, p.101) states that the first class consists of common expressions in the daily life, the second class consists of words used in communicating more specialized ideas such as politics and the last class consists of more functional words of language.

Affective-humanistic Approach

This approach which emphasized respect for the individual (each student, the teacher) and for his or her feelings, emerged as a reaction to the Audiolingualism and Cognitive Approach that lacked the affective consideration (Celce-Murcia, 2001). In this approach, learning a foreign language is viewed as a self-realization process. Much of the instruction involves pair-work and group-work; peer support and interaction are viewed as necessary for learning.

Lozanov's Suggestopedia (1978) can be an example of this approach. In this method, the memorization of vocabulary pairs, in which a target word was followed by its native translation, was emphasized. In this method, lexis and lexical translation were emphasized more than contextualization and the success of the method was focused on acquiring the large number of words (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

Another teaching method which was the result of the influence of Roger's humanistic psychology is Curran's Community Language Learning (1976). This method advised teachers to consider their students as "whole persons" and it was often used in the teaching of oral proficiency. A conventional language syllabus that determined in advance the grammar and vocabulary to be taught in the lesson was not used, so learners had a chance to nominate the things they wish to talk about. Particular grammar points, pronunciation patterns, and vocabulary were worked with, based on the language the students have generated (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

Asher's Total Physical Response (1977) is the result of his investigation about the Comprehension-Based Approaches, Developmental and Humanistic Psychology and his own principles of learning theory. In this method, grammatical structure and vocabulary were emphasized over other language areas. It required initial attention to meaning rather than the form of the items (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

As stated above, with the shift from generative linguistics in the 1960s, vocabulary in the Cognitive and Affective-Humanistic was given more importance, but the focus on rules of grammar was still served to reinforce the idea that lexis was somewhat secondary (Carter & McCarthy, 1988).

Bridal (2003, cited in Ketabi &Shahraki, 2011) argued that vocabulary instruction has been treated in more or less the same way throughout the history of language teaching and it is apparent that direct vocabulary instruction has not been important in L2 classrooms, so this area has been neglected. However, after the 1970s, as Communicative Approach emerged, vocabulary teaching suddenly became an important point (Takefuta& Takefuta, 1996).

Communicative Approach

This approach was the result of the works of anthropological linguistics (e.g. Hymes, 1972) and Firthian linguists (e.g. Halliday, 1973) who viewed language as a system for communication. In the 1970's attention was drawn to the importance of communicative competence and knowledge of the rules of language use (Hymes, 1972). This attention led to a shift from the focus on accuracy and forms of language to a focus on communication and fluency. Therefore, this approach typically focused on functions of language use and a more authentic use of language in the L2 classroom. In other words, it centered on discourse level functions rather than focusing on sentence level forms (Ketabi &Shahraki, 2011). However, as this approach emphasized fluency on accuracy and focused on encouraging learners to communicate their messages and intentions using the linguistic resources available to them, vocabulary has not been a primary concern of this methodology and was given secondary status, taught mainly as a support for functional language use (Decarrico, 2001). As in previous approaches, it was generally assumed that vocabulary would take care of itself; therefore, it is supposed that there is no real need for direct vocabulary instruction (Schmidt, 2000).

From the overview stated above , we can see that during the last three decades, the outlook on vocabulary has radically changed and researchers have shown great interest towards this area. However, vocabulary teaching has not yet reached the level of consistency and systematicity that the teaching of other language skills have such as grammar, although it has recently gained much attention in second language acquisition research. (Ketabi& Shahraki, 2011). Further studies may help find out the most effective procedures for vocabulary teaching and involve the learners in their own

learning and to make them aware of the importance of vocabulary and responsible for their own vocabulary development.

2.3.1. The Importance of Vocabulary in Language Learning

Mastering vocabulary is one of the most challenging tasks that any learner faces when learning a foreign language; thus, many language learners devote a great deal of time on memorizing lists of L2 words and rely on their bilingual dictionary as a basic communicative resource because they are aware of the fact that they need to develop their vocabulary to be able to improve their language skills. Moreover, lexical competence is currently acknowledged to be a core component of communicative competence by many vocabulary specialists, which provides much of the basis for how well learners speak, listen, read and write (Coady &Huckin, 1997; Richards &Renandya, 2002). Several researchers have also underlined the importance of vocabulary in both the L1 and L2 acquisition context (Ehren, 2002; Graves, 2006; Nunan, 1991; Read, 2000; and Zimmerman, 1997). Hunt & Beglar (2005, p. 2) suggested that "the heart of language comprehension and use is the lexicon", as well.

Furthermore, it is not possible to learn a language and communicate precisely without words. As Wilkins (1977, p. 111) claimed "without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed." To be able to use the target language effectively, a learner has to acquire both the rules and words of the language. The grammar of the language helps the learners build up new sentences, but " vocabulary is a powerful carrier of meaning" (Scrivener, 1994, p. 73). Therefore, teaching a foreign language not only deals with presenting grammatical structures, but also implies thinking about which vocabulary to teach and making the learners conscious of how a word or phrase should be used in order to convey meaning. In fact, the first aspect of language that any person learns in his or her mother tongue is related to words or set of words that help them to communicate (Cera, Castro &Oviedo, 2010). Thornbury (2000, p.1) stated that "language emerges first as words, both historically, and in terms of the way each of us learned our first and any subsequent language". In other words, the more words the learners know, the more fluent they become when using a foreign language (Cera, Castro &Oviedo, 2010).

Moreover, Folse (2008, p.12) contended that "basic level of vocabulary will allow learners to communicate some ideas to certain degree, better communication can be

accomplished when learners have acquired more vocabulary". According to Nation (1994), a rich vocabulary knowledge, an essential element connecting the language skills, makes the skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing easier to perform, because language use and development is related to the vocabulary size that the learners have to enhance during the learning process.

In addition, Gough emphasized that as follows:

"Vocabulary is important because it is words which carry the content of what we want to say. Grammar joins groups of words together, but most of the meaning is in the words. The more words you know, the more you will be able to communicate. You can say a lot with words. There is not much you can say with grammar alone."   (Gough, 2001, p. 3)

Moreover, Cameron (2001) claimed that vocabulary has moved to the centre stage in language teaching in recent years, backed by substantial and increasing research and states:

"The more we find out about how words work in language and how vocabulary is learnt, stored and used, the more difficult it becomes to uphold the traditional split between vocabulary and grammar. Much important grammatical information is tied into words, and learning words can take students a long way into grammar. This suggests that if we give a high priority to vocabulary development, we are not, thereby, abandoning grammar. Rather vocabulary learning can serve as a stepping stone to learning and using grammar"   (Cameron, 2001, p.72).

However, we do not mean that vocabulary should be much more important than grammar. As Allen (1983, p. 5) stated that "in the best classes, neither grammar nor vocabulary is neglected. There is thus no conflict between developing a firm command of grammar and learning the most essential words." Thanks to vocabulary, we can express our ideas, thoughts and feelings in a good way but with better grammar, we can express them more fluently, effectively and accurately because grammatical structures and expressions consists of words. They also play an important role in communication.

The more words we know, the more precisely we can communicate with others as we can convey our messages easily by means of the lexis of the language.

To sum up, "vocabulary teaching and learning is central to the theory and practice of ELT. Words have a central place in culture, and learning words is seen by many as the main task (and obstacle) in learning another language" (Carter & Nunan, 2001, p. 47).

Furthermore, the latest developments in language teaching have widely accepted that vocabulary teaching should be part of the syllabus, and taught in a well-planned and regular basis (Moras, 2001). Lewis (1993) assumed that vocabulary should be at the centre of language teaching because language consists of grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalised grammar. Similarly, Swan & Walter (1984) state that vocabulary learning is one of the most important and difficult challanges for the language learner. Therefore, as teachers of English relying on research to achieve our aims of successful teaching, we should keep in mind the words of :

"If language structures make up the skeleton of the language, then it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and the flesh…. In real life, however, it is even possible that where vocabulary is used correctly it can cancel out structural accuracy. For example the student who says: "Yesterday… I have seen him yesterday" is committing one of the most notorious tense mistakes in English but he or she will still be understood as having seen him yesterday because the word yesterday"

(Harmer, 1991, p. 153)

As mentioned above, the learners may have difficulties in using the grammatical structures and rules correctly, but this does not mean they can not convey the message they want if they have enough vocabulary knowledge. The communication may be fostered even with lack of grammatical rules as cited by Wallace:

"Not being able to find the words you need to express yourself is the most frustrating experience in speaking another language. Of course vocabulary is not the whole story: the system of language is also important. Nevertheless, it is possible to have a good knowledge of how the system of a language Works and yet not be able to communicate in it; whereas if we have the

vocabulary we need it is usually possible to communicate, after a fashion."

<div align="right">(Wallace, 1988, p. 9)</div>

2.3.2. What Does It Mean to Know a Word?

Understanding how second or foreign language learners acquire vocabulary requires knowing exactly what we mean when we say we know that word. Most learners assume that when they see a word and recognize its meaning, they have acquired this word knowledge because these learners may think that vocabulary knowledge consists of only two facets: meaning and word form (Cameron, 2001). In fact, recognising the meaning of a word when heard or seen is only receptive knowledge of that word and it is not enough to say we have got all the aspects of word knowledge. According to Hedge (2000), vocabulary knowledge can be seen as a scale running from recognition of a word at one end to automatic production at the other end. In other words, the potential knowledge of a word is rich and complex because word knowledge involves more than just the link between the meaning and form (Harmer (1993), Laufer (2004), Nation (2001), Richards (1976), Ur (1996), et al.). So generally speaking, knowing a word involves knowing its form and its meaning at the basic level, but if we go a bit deeper it means the ability to know its usage and grammar as well. (Harmer, 1993).

In addition, Ur (1996, p. 60) cited clearly the vocabulary of a language as follows:

Vocabulary can be defined, roughly, as the words we teach in the foreign language. However, a new item of vocabulary may be more than a single word: for example, *post office* and *mother-in law*, which are made up of two or three words but express a single idea. There are also multi-word idioms such as *call it a day,* where the meaning of the phrase cannot be deduced from an analysis of the component words. A useful convention is to cover all such cases by talking 'items' rather than 'words" .

As can be understood from Ur's views, word knowledge is not only a matter of meaning, but it requires other aspects.

Moreover, Nation (2001, p. 23) stated that "Words are not isolated units of language, but fit into many interlocking systems and levels. Because of this there are many things to know about any particular word and there are many degrees of knowing". Also, Nation (2001) proposed a more comprehensive system of word

knowledge emphasizing that knowing a word involves knowing the form, meaning and use of the word. Each consists of three aspects: form covers spoken and written forms and word parts; meaning covers form, concepts and referents, and associations; and use covers grammatical functions, collocations and constraints on use. Nation declared that there are two types of knowledge entailing different mental processes: receptive knowledge and productive knowledge. In his own words,

> Essentially, receptive vocabulary use involves perceiving the form of a word while listening or reading and retrieving its meaning. Productive vocabulary use involves wanting to express a meaning though speaking or writing and retrieving and producing the appropriate spoken or written word form.
>
> (Nation, 2001, p. 24-25)

Receptive knowledge is the kind of word knowledge needed to perceive the form of a word in listening or reading and retrieving its meaning simultaneously and productive knowledge is that needed to express meaning through speaking or writing and retrieving and producing the appropriate word form. The aspects of vocabulary knowledge with reference to the receptive/productive knowledge is summarized in Table 1. This distinction applies to every single aspect involved in word knowledge, namely, word form, meaning and use, as shown in the following table taken from Nation (2001, p. 27).

Table 1

What is involved in knowing a word?

	Spoken	R	What does the word sound like?
		P	How is the word pronounced?
Form	Written	R	What does the word look like?
		P	How is the word written and spelled?
	Word parts	R	What parts are recognisable in this word?
		P	What word parts are needed to express the meaning?
	Form and	R	What meaning does this word form signal?
	Meaning	P	What word form can be used to express this meaning?
Meaning	Concepts and	R	What is included in the concept?
	Referents	P	What items can the concept refer to?
	Associations	R	What other words does this make us think of?
		P	What other words could we use instead of this one?
	Grammatical	R	In what patterns does the word occur?
	Functions	P	In what patterns must we use this word?
Use	Collocations	R	What words or types of words occur with this one?
		P	What words or types of words must we use with this one?
	Constrains on Use	R	Where, when and how often would we expect to meet this word?
	(register, frequency…)	P	Where, when and how often can we use this word?

Note: In column 3, R: Receptive Knowledge P: Productive Knowledge

We can understand from the table that, with regard to word form, learners should perceive a word when heard and produce it orally with a correct pronunciation, stress and intonation. Besides, they should recognise a written term and produce it with a correct spelling. Lastly, learners should be acquainted with the formation of new words using affixes as a means of increasing their lexical storage. Nation (2001) claimed that if students focus on these aspects, they will implicitly learn a word in different contexts.

As for meaning, learners should be competent in establishing a link to the meaning of a word when read or heard and also in recalling the word form when trying to express a particular meaning. Moreover, words do not exist in isolation but in connections with other terms. Thus, the learners should know the underlying concept behind a lexical item, being aware of the cultural differences between L1 and FL as well as the word lexical meaning (denotation) and inferential meaning based on context (connotation). In addition, learners should be conscious about the semantic networks in which the lexis of a language is organised, such as "synonymy, hyponymy, meronymy,

antonymy, troponymy,entailment [...] useful starting points for devising classification activities" (Nation, 2001, p. 55). Finally, word use involves knowing the syntagmatic relations, based on what part of speech they are (nouns, verbs, adjectives...) as well as the collocational patterns of words that are usually used together (ready-made sentences).

Furthermore, Richards (1976, p. 82) summarized the aspects of word knowledge as the following :

- The native speaker of a language continues to expand his vocabulary in adulthood, whereas there is comparatively little development of syntax in adult life.
- Knowing a word means knowing the degree of probability of encountering that word in speech or print. For many words we also know the sort of words most likely to be found associated with the word.
- Knowing a word implies knowing the limitations imposed on the use of the word according to variations of function and situation.
- Knowing a word means knowing the syntactic behavior associated with the word.
- Knowing a word entails knowledge of the underlying form of a word and the derivations that can be made from it.
- Knowing a word entails knowledge of the network of associations between that word and other words in the language.
- Knowing a word means knowing the semantic value of a word.
- Knowing a word means knowing many of the different meanings associated with a word.

Moreover, Cameron (2001, p.77) prepared the following table according to the assumptions that Richards (1976) and Nation (1990) had brought to the notion of knowing a word :

Table 2

Knowing A Word

Type of knowledge	What is involved?	Example
Receptive knowledge : Aurol/Decoding	To understand it when it is spoken/written	
Memory	To recall it when needed	
Conceptual knowledge	To use it with the correct meaning	Not confusing *protractor* with *compasses*
Knowledge of the spoken form: Phonological knowledge	to hear the word and to pronounce it acceptably, on its own, and in phrases and sentences	to hear and produce the endings of verb forms, such as the /n/ sound at the end of undertaken
Grammatical knowledge	to use it in a grammatically accurate way; to know grammatical connections with other words	*she sang very well* not ** she sang very good*; to know that *is* and *be* are parts of the same verb
Collocational knowldge	to know which other words can be used with it	*a beautiful view* not ** a good-looking view*
Orthographic knowledge	to spell it correctly	*protractor* not ** protracter*
Pragmatic knowlege: knowledge of style and register	to use it in the right situation	*would you like a drink*? is more appropriate in a formal or semi-formal situation than *what can I get you*?
Connotational knowledge	to know its positive and negative associations, to know its associations with related words	to know that *slim* has positive connotations, when used about a person, whereas *skinny* is negative
Metalinguistic knowledge	To know explicitly about the word, e.g. its grammatical properties	To know that a *protractor* is a *noun*, to know that *pro* is a *prefix*

As can be seen, knowing a word is an extremely complex process which involves the mastery of many word features.

According to Cameron (2001, p.74), word knowledge :

" ….. is not something that is done and finished with, but a cyclical process of meeting new words and initial learning, followed by meeting these words again and again, each time extending knowledge of what the words mean and how they are used in the foreign language. Each time children meet familiar words again, they too have changed and will bring new first language and conceptual knowledge to the vocabulary" .

Therefore, this section shows us that foreign language teachers should do everything they can to ensure that their students enlarge the size of their vocabulary with the conscious of the semantic and syntagmatic relations between words. However, for the learner of English, one of the most annoying and provoking aspects of the language is forming special expressions, such as idioms and PVs. When the students begin to get in to that language, they discover that there are dozens of word combinations whose meanings have very little or no relationship with the individual words they are composed of, and PVs are one of these aspects.

2.4. Phrasal Verbs

In this part, we are going to focus on PVs which constitute a major problem for learners of English. In fact, McArthur (1992) noted that these verbs are also referred to by other names, such as verb phrases, discontinuous verbs, compound verbs, verb-adverb combinations, and verb-particle constructions. Crystal (1995, p. 204) also considered this linguistic phenomenon as a "multi-word verb" that is best described as a lexeme, a unit of meaning that may be greater than a single word.

Whatever we call them, PVs are considered to be a very important and frequently occurring feature of the English language because they are very common in every day conversation, and the habit of inventing PVs has been the source of great enrichment of the language (Olteanu, 2012, p. 13). Moreover, Olteanu (2012, p. 14) claimed that non-native speakers who wish to sound natural while speaking English need to extend their PVs knowledge with the awareness of their grammar in order to know how to produce them correctly. In addition to these roles of PVs in English language, according to Olteanu (2012, p. 14) by means of PVs, the greatest variety of human actions and relations can be described as well. For example, people can be *taken up, taken down, taken off, taken in* or one can *keep in* with people, one can *set* people *up* or *down,* or *hit* people *off* (Olteanu, 2012, p.14). From these points of views, we can understand that phrasal verbs have an important place in English language; however, for the teachers, making the students learn them is a demanding job while for the learners, learning them is really difficult. To some extent, learning phrasal verbs out of the dictionary may help, but students really need to understand the correct usage of phrasal verbs. Furthermore, to be able to use them correctly, one has to be aware of what they mean, what categorization they have and why they are so difficult to learn and teach.

Thus, now it will be good to look at the definitions, categorization s and difficulties of these verbs.

2.4.1. Defining Phrasal Verbs in English

The Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs (1994, p. iv) defines phrasal verbs as a 'conjuction of a verb and an adverbial or prepositional particle'. The same definition is given by some researchers like Broukal &Woods (1990, p.189) when they define a phrasal verb as "the combination of a verb and an adverb particle and sometimes the particle may be followed by a preposition and most of the particles look like prepositions but act as adverbs, and usually change the meaning of the verb they are connected to". Moreover, Kollin (1982, p. 12) stated that "PVs are common structures in English. They consist of a verb combined with a preposition like word, known as particles''.

In addition, PVs are considered by Graver (1963, p. 261) as "semicompounds" whereas Palmer (1965, p. 215) regards them as "single units in the grammar" by stating that "there are severe collocational restrictions. We can give in but not give down. We can look after someone but not look before him". He (1965, p. 216) also adds that PVs are "obviously semantic units" because 'give in' equals 'yield', 'look after' may be replaced by the literary 'tend', 'put up' has the meaning of 'invent', and 'put up with' means 'tolerate'.

Furthermore, PVs are two word verbs that include a verb followed by a particle (preposition or adverb) which alters the meaning of the verb. These two word verbs function as a single word in the sentence structure, such as, "John pulled up the rope." (Parninskas, 1975, p. 26) . Many grammarians such as (Courtney,1983; Celce & Larsen,1983; Turton & Manser, 1985; and et. al.) also define the PVs as a combination that consists of a verb as a root and an adverbial particle or a preposition or a combination of the two which together have an idiomatic or a figurative meaning that cannot be understood or realized from its individual constituents.

Another notion of the PVs is signaled out by Ghazala (2006, p. 133) who defined PVs as well established and popular idioms and a combination of a verb or an adverb or preposition such as "*UP, DOWN, ON, OF, IN, OUT, OVER, etc*," and they have   special idiomatic meanings that cannot be understood from the individual meaning of the verb plus the adverb or preposition taken together.

From all these definitions, we can understand that a PV is composed of a verb, such as 'go', 'come', or 'put ' and a particle, either an adverb like '*UP*' or '*AWAY*' or a preposition like 'into' and this particle may change the meaning of the verb. In other words, PVs in English are syntactically defined as combinations of verbs and prepositions or particles, but semantically their meanings are generally not the direct sum of their parts. For example, *give in* means *submit, yield* in the sentence:
 Adam's saying it's important to stand firm, not give in to terrorists.
Adam was not *giving* anything and he was not *in* anywhere (Tu &Roth, 2012, p. 1)

In the following part, firstly the particles will be defined and later on the categorization of PVs will be introduced in terms of both semantic and syntactic features of PV structure.

2.4.2. Particles

Collins Cobuild English Usage (1992, XV) defined a particle as an adverb or a preposition, such as *OUT* or *UP*, which combines with a verb to make up a PV. In terms of the frequency of the particles, Lindstromberg (1997, p. 254) observed that *OUT* is more common than *IN*; *UP* is more common than *DOWN* and *OVER* is fairly common. Also, Rustka- Ostyn (2003, p. 75) assumed that *UP* is the most frequently used particle in English and after this particle comes *OUT, OFF, IN(TO), DOWN, ON, AWAY, etc.*

As a matter of fact, the present study mainly focuses on the meanings of particles. Actually, the meanings of particles vary from merely idiomatic, based on chance without any rules and unsystematic, to groups of related meanings used in a quite systematic way. In general view, traditional semantic approaches consider the meanings of particles as arbitrary and based on chance and they have no role in the meaning of phrasal verbs. According to Fraser (1976, p. 77), "We are assuming here that there is no need to associate any semantic feature with the particle, only phonological and syntactic features". However, Lindner (1983, p. 67) contradicted this assumption and claimed that:

Particles can contribute to the meaning of a particular phrasal verb most of the time because regardless of the diversity of particle meanings, they are all connected to one another through a semantic frame. Certain aspects of

language, by their nature, simply cannot be predicted in absolute terms. …many aspects of language are best expressed in terms of tendencies and likelihoods, rather than fully predictive rules (Lindner, ibid).

By the way, in our study, we will focus on a systematic process to deal with the abstract meanings of particles that play an important role in giving clues to understand the verb as a whole. This process will be based on conceptual metaphor theory which assumes that prepositions help make the mental mappings of spatial scenes possible and then, their meanings can be spread to other domains to demonstrate more abstract concepts through a process of abstraction; thus, all the possible meanings of a preposition in general and of a PV in particular seem to be interconnected instead of creating a set of arbitrary, unrelated ones (Requejo & Diaz, 2008, p. 112).

2.4.3. Categorizing Phrasal Verbs

Smith (1984, p. 178) stated that PVs have two characteristics: the syntactic characteristics and the semantic ones.

2.4.3.1. Structural/Syntactic Categorization:

PVs are categorized according to their syntactic and morphological characteristics. Verb particles, prepositions and adverbs affect this categorization. According to Smith (1984) , the syntactic characteristics indicate that the elements used to form the PVs are composed of verbal element plus prepositions used as adverbs.

In point of origin of the particle that follows the main verb, Courtney (1983, cited in Olteanu, 2012, p. 15) distinguishes three types of PVs:

1) Verb+ adverb as in: *The old lady was taken in* ('deceived') *by the salesman.*
2) Verb+ preposition as in: *She set about* ('started') *making a new dress.*
3) Verb+ adverb+ preposition as in: *I cannot put up with* ('bear') *him because he is always complaining.*

Moreover, some grammarians, like Veres (1998) and Vlad (1998) divide PVs into transitive and intransitive:

- **Transitive PVs:** These are the PVs, taking a direct object. An object can follow the verb.

    Examples: We will have to <u>put off</u> the meeting.
    They <u>turned down</u> my offer.

In the point of transitivity, according to Stageberg (1965, p. 225), "the transitive verb adverbial composite has an object and is symbolized by (VAC +O)". Examples of such PVs are 'fill in', 'look for', and 'throw away'. Sometimes, the subject of a PV is a pronoun (it, them, me, you, him, her, and us). In such cases the pronouns go before (on, off, in, out, up, down,etc.) as stated by Murphy (1985, p. 262). The following example is showing where the pronoun is placed:

- They gave me a form and told me to <u>fill</u> it <u>in</u>. (not 'fill in it')

Murphy (1985, p. 263) also refers to the use of a PV- preposition by saying that "the object always comes after the preposition".
Here are two examples:

- -You are walking too fast, I can't <u>keep with</u> you.
- -Jack has <u>cut down</u> on smoking. He smokes five cigarettes a day now.
- **Intransitive PVs**

Intransitive PVs do not take any object or any noun after the adverb or between the verb and the adverb. Also, there is no passive form with the intransitive PVs.

    Examples: - We invited them to <u>join in</u>. (No noun or object follows the PV.)
    - He shouted to them, <u>"Hurry up!"</u> (No noun or object follows the PV.)

Meanwhile, according to Stageberg (1965, p. 224). intransitive PVs have "three characteristics which tend to be common to intransitive VAC (verb-adverbial composite) ; and which can be used as VAC tests" . This can be shown by the following two examples:

- She <u>turned up</u> late as usual (arrived).
- The plan <u>took off</u> at ten O'clock.(left the ground).

The second characteristic is that the adverbial particle in an intransitive VAC is not moveable as one can not say:

- She <u>turned</u> late as usual <u>up.</u> Or,
- The plane <u>took</u> at ten o'clock <u>off</u>.

The third characteristic is that the verb and the adverbial particle are inseparable. Stageberg (1965, p. 224) indicates that "a modifier separating them results in a strange or non-English locution".

Examples: -He <u>turned</u> suddenly <u>up</u> at seven O'clock.
-We <u>took</u> immediately <u>off</u> for Memphis.

Therefore, in terms of an object that receives the action of the verb, the object may come before or after the particle. It can be concluded that English PVs may be intransitive as in :

- The party <u>broke up</u> when we turned in.

Or transitive as in:

- She <u>put</u> the heckler <u>down</u>. Or,
- She <u>put down</u> the heckler. (Sangoor, 2012, p. 100)

In additon, certain PVs can be separated and some others can not.
- Separable PVs

Praninskas (1957, p. 217) states that "separable two-word verbs permit the object between the two parts in a certain cases and require it there in others". In other words, separable PVs are the ones whose two parts can be separated and the object can

be placed between them. Thus, it is possible to place the short noun object after the particle or before it without changing the meaning of the sentence.

For example:
- His mother <u>brought up </u>his son with great difficulties. Or
- His mother <u>brought</u> his son <u>up</u> with great difficulties.
- The boss <u>turned down</u> the offer. Or
- The boss <u>turned</u> the offer <u>down</u>.

However, in long noun objects, Praninskas (1957, p. 217) makes it clear that the verb and its particle are never separated and the noun stays at the end:

- She <u>gave in</u> her test which was finished.

When we put the particle of the PV in the above mentioned sentence at the end, there will be absence of word order and the sentence sounds illogical. But, when we use pronoun objects, we can place them after the verb as in the following example:

- She <u>gave</u> it <u>in</u> (Praninskas, 1957, p. 217).
- **Inseparable PVs:**

Moreover, another type of PVs is where the object never comes between the two strings of the verb. Examples of such PVs are 'call on', 'get over', 'go over', 'keep into', 'run across', 'run into'…etc.

For example:
- He <u>got over</u> a bad heart attack. (correct)
- He <u>got </u>a bad heart attack <u>over</u>. (incorrect)

Broukal& Woods (1990, p. 190) also emphasize that "when the verb is followed by a preposition (not an adverb particle), the verb and the preposition are not separated and the pronoun is placed at the end.

For example:

> -She <u>looked for</u> it, and she <u>looked</u> it <u>for</u>.

However, if the direct object is a pronoun, we must certainly separate these two parts and put the pronoun between them.

For example:

> - My father <u>turned on</u> the radio.
> - My father turned <u>it</u> on.
> - I picked up Ahmet.
> - I picked <u>him</u> up.

Meanwhile**,** it is necessary to distinguish between PVs and prepositional verbs. According to Quirk & Greenbaum (1985, p. 148) there are four different types of verb-particle combinations:

a. If the verb is intransitive, the particle is a prepostitional-adverb, functioning as adjunct. Thus, it is a PV.
b. If the verb is transitive, and the particle is not mobile it is a prepositional verb.
c. If the verb is transitive, but the particle is mobile, it is also a PV.

Moreover, Schneider (2004, p. 230) stated that prepositional verbs are verb-preposition combinations, such as look for or remind of, in which prepositional functions of the second constituent are still preserved strongly, so with a following noun phrase a construction can be explained either as " a simple verb + prepositional phrase (consisting of preposition + noun phrase)" or as "(complex) verb (consisting of verb + preposition) + noun phrase (as object).

For example:

> - He looked for his book.
> - She had to cope with it.

In addition, not to get confused about adverbial particles that join with a verb to make up a PV and prepositions, it will be useful to indicate that Swan (2005, p. 15) compared them with some examples:

1) I ran <u>down</u> the road.

   Please sit <u>down</u>.

2) Something is climbing <u>up</u> my leg.

   She is not <u>up</u> yet.

In these expressions above, Swan (ibid) stated that the words *DOWN* and *UP* in *down the road* and *up my leg* are prepositions because they have objects (*the road and my leg*). However, in *sit down* and *is not up yet*, *DOWN* and *UP* do not have objects, so they are adverbs and usually called 'adverbial particles'.

2.4.3.2. Semantic Categorization

In terms of semantics, each of the words in a PV has its own meaning when used independently, but when it is part of the PV, it loses that meaning and cooperates with another word to create a new meaning.

Kollin (1998, p. 35) emphasized that English PVs may define only the combinations that form an idiom, a phrase whose meaning can not be founded on the meaning of its parts. This can be an example of a semantic point of view focusing mainly on the meaning of the verb combination.

For example:

- The balloon <u>went up </u>into the sky.

Kollin (1998, p. 35) also claimed that 'go up' in the above mentioned sentence, is not example of a PV because the sentence can be rephrased as:

- <u>Up</u> the balloon <u>went </u>into the sky.

In this sentence, according to Kollen (ibid), 'up' is as an adverb modifying 'went' and she also applies the test of meaning to phrasal verbs as in: 'give in' by

'surrender', 'come by' by 'acquire', and 'break up' by 'end'. It is clear that we can replace each phrasal verb with a single verb with the same general meaning.

Furthermore, on the semantic basis, Fraser (1974, p. 12) pointed out that PVs can be grouped into different classes according to their semantic features. For example, verbs like 'cement in\on', 'paste up', 'nail up', and 'clamp down\ up' are of similar sense because all the objects specified by each one of these verbs are used to join materials.

In addition, Bollinger (1971, p. 153) focused on PVs as a semantic unit consisting of a verb plus a particle and this semantic unit has a special degree of what he calls cohesion. Moreover, Murphy (2002) claimed that the kind of particles used with the PVs can be restricted to the semantic reference of these verbs. For instance, the particle '*UP, OUT* and *OFF'* are used with verbs of movement such as 'go', 'get' and 'come'.

Moreover, in terms of the semantic nature of the PVs, Cornell (1985) groups these verbs as idiomatic and non-idiomatic, and states that large numbers of PVs are non- idiomatic in the sense that their meaning is easy to deduce if the verb element is known. Accordingly, Dagut& Laufer (1985, cited in Liao& Fukuya, 2004) classify PVs into three groups as literal, figurative and completive. In this classification, literal PVs have a compositional meaning. The particle retains its original meaning as a preposition, so the meaning is clear.

> E. g. : *go away, stand up,* and *sit down, .etc.* In figurative PVs, a new meaning is
> derived from a metaphorical change of meaning and semantic fusion of the
> individual components.
> E. g. : *turn up, let down and blow up, etc.* Finally, the result of the action in a
> sentence is described by the particle in completive PVs. In these verbs, the
> action is completed or finished. E. g. : *eat up, burn down.*

On the other hand*,* Laufer &Eliasson (1993) classify PVs in three categories as transparent, semi-transparent and figurative or semantically opaque. This categorization may seem different at first but in fact we do not see any difference in meaning and function. They focused on the semantic features of the particles and prefer the following categorization: *a) direction, b) place, c) physical orientation of a noun in the sentence.*

Also, Fraser (1976) categorizes PVs as follows and they mainly focus on the same points but use different terminology:

- Literal: The verb retains its basic meaning and the adverb or preposition maintains a literal meaning. E. g. : c*limb up*
- Semi idiomatic: The verb retains its meaning, but the adverb or preposition adds a difference that would not be discernible from its basic meaning. E. g. : *wash up*
- Idiomatic: No part of the meaning of the combination is predictable from the meanings of the verb and the adverb or the preposition. E. g. : *let down*

In additon to the classifications above, Celce-Murcia& Larsen-Freeman (1999) identifies three types of PVs in the same manner:

- Literal or transparent : The categorization of PVs as transparent or literal depends on the contribution of the verb and particle to the overall meaning. The meaning of the verb and adverb or preposition equals the meaning of the whole phrasal verb.
  E. g. : *fall down*
- Aspectual : The meaning is not literal, but is not completely idiomatic either, the particle retains a consistent aspectual meaning. E.g.: *run on, carry on, hurry along* where the particles on and along have a continuative property
- Idiomatic : the meaning is nearly impossible to determine by the sum of the two parts. E.g.: *run out.*

Finally, in the recent studies, Liao &Fukuya (2004) have used the same way of categorization with different terminology. Liao& Fukuya classify PVs as *literal* and *figurative*.

In the present study, we aim to focus on the particles that affect the meanings of the PVs in terms of their literal and figurative categorization.

2.4.4. Why are PVs Difficult to Learn?

As stated beforehand, in English, there are several elements of vocabulary and grammar that may be difficult for the learners to comprehend and master. PVs are one of these elements that are difficult for the students who want to be proficient in English (Boers, 2000b; Kurtyka, 2001; Littlemore & Low, 2006). One of the reasons for the difficulty with PVs appears to be related especially with the learners who lack PVs in their mother tongue (Neagu, 2007) and Celce & Larsen (1983, p. 256) pointed out that there are few non-Germanic languages that have PVs, therefore; most ESL/EFL students may find such verbs strange and difficult. As we know, PVs are commonly used in Germanic languages and studies showed that PVs are avoided by language learners whose native language lacks this language structure (Dagut & Laufer, 1985; Laufer & Eliasson, 1993; Liao& Fukuya, 2004).

As a matter of fact, research into the language typology has shown that conceptual structures are lexicalized differently in different languages (Talmy, 1985, 1991, 2000). For example, in English the core schema of the path trajectory (movement into, out of, etc.) is encoded by a satellite to the main verb, such as a particle and preposition, whereas it is encoded by the verb itself in languages, such as Turkish, Japanese, Tamil, Polynesian and Korean (Cadierno, 2008, Conventry & Guijarro-Fuentes, 2008; Talmy, 2008). The satellite-framed language speakers may provide richer descriptions of path trajectories than the verb-framed language speakers (Cadierno, 2008; Slobin, 1997; Talmy, 1985, 1991, 2000). The findings related with the typological difference between satellite-framed and verb-framed languages may explain the problem with comprehending phrasal verbs for Turkish EFL learners. In other words, the difficulty with PVs may exist because of the lack of awareness of the orientational meanings of particles and not understanding why one particle is used in preference to another. Therefore, such EFL learners may perceive PVs as being purely idiomatic, inseparable, and arbitrarily used, because they may not be aware of the special constructional contribution of the original particle to the whole structure (Yasuda, 2010, p. 251). At this point, Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman (1999, p. 426) indicate that:

> …most ESL/EFL students will find such verbs strange and difficult. Yet
> they are ubiquitous in English; no one can speak or understand English, at least

the informal register, without knowledge of phrasal verbs. Because they don't realize this, some nonnative speakers of English have a tendency to overuse single lexical items where a PV would be much more appropriate.

Moreover, according to Heaton (1965, p. V) prepositions and adverbial particles cause more difficulty to many EFL learners than any other aspect of the English language. It is because the choice of a preposition or a particle following a certain verb, noun, adjective or adverb is not easy to determine, and the particle that combines with a verb to form a PV possesses a new meaning. It is because the meaning can rarely be inferred from the knowledge of the verb and the particle separately and the meaning of already known verbs changes drastically when combined with different particles and becomes a PV (Alexandra, 2001, p. 257). In that case, if the meaning of one single word is unknown or unclear, it may make a whole perfectly grammatical sentence incomprehensible that may also cause difficulty for the learners.

Besides, the difficulty of PVs in the English language may lie in the idiomatic meaning of the PVs which is usually defined as the fact that "the meaning of the complex unit does not result from the simple combination of those of its constituents" (Arnaud & Savignon, 1997, p.161). In this regard, Hook (1981, p. 5) argued that the difficulties of such combinations arise from the fact that their meanings cannot be predicted or expected, so the students may find themselves at a loss when trying to understand or realize idiomatic PVs. From a semantic perspective, Laufer (1997, p. 25) called this feature of PVs as "deceptive transparency", that is, the meaning of the PVs cannot always be deduced by analyzing the inherent parts. For example, in the sentence 'take down the book from the shelf', *take down* is much more transparent and literal in meaning than *take off* in ' I'm going to take off'. According to Dagut& Laufer (1985) in the second sentence, *take off* has two possible difficulties. One difficulty lies where the learner may only know one meaning of *take off*, such as referring to the removal of clothing or an airplane leaving the ground, but may not know the extended polysemous meaning of leave. The other difficulty is that the verb as a PV form may not be familiar to the learners, which makes it difficult for the learners to recognize the two words together with a unique meaning. Furthermore, many PVs are polysemous; that is, they have more than one meaning. For example, the PV *to put down* has the literal meaning of putting something down on the table or floor. But it also has the idiomatic meanings:

- *to make someone feel small, to criticize and humiliate them*
- *to kill* as in the sentence *I had to have my cat put down.*
- *to stop, quash, put an end to* as in the sentence *The police put down the riots with unnecessary brutality.* (The Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs, 2002)

With regards to having multiple meanings, the learners face with some confusion while trying to gain insights to the meanings of PVs.

Meanwhile, the separate parts of idiomatic PVs may tell us little or nothing about the meaning of the whole, for example, the learners may be familiar with the words *pick* and *up* and their meanings individually, but this knowledge does not help the learners when they come across with the idiomatic meaning of pick up in "business is picking up". In fact, in such a situation, the learner should take into account the contexts in which such combinations occur while trying to comprehend the PVs and give their meanings, which means another obstacle to master the idiomatic PVs. In this respect Baker (1992, p. 62) stated:

> Idioms are frozen patterns of language which allow little or no variation in
> form and, in the case of idioms often carry meaning which cannot be
> deduced from their individual components . And some idioms are
> misleading; they seem transparent because they offer reasonable literal
> interpretation and their idiomatic meanings are not necessarily signaled in
> the surrounding text. A large number of English idioms have both literal
> and idiomatic meaning, e.g. ; go out with means (have a romantic or
> sexual relationship with someone) and take someone for a ride means
> (deceive or cheat someone in someway).

Also, PVs have another difficulty related with grammar. The Collins Cobuild dictionary (2002, p. V) sums it up:

> There are restrictions on the positions in which an adverb can be placed in
> relation to the object of a verb. Some particles, such as about, over, round, and
> through can be used as both adverbs and prepositions in particular PV

combinations, although in other combinations they are restricted to one word class only, either adverb or preposition but not both. Some PVs are not normally used with pronouns as objects, others are normally only used with pronouns as objects.

Namely, each PV may be transitive or intransitive, thus possibly requiring a direct object, or it may be separated by a noun, pronoun, or phrase, such as *bring* it *back* or *bring* the book *back*. Some PVs have completely different meanings when they are used transitively or intransitively. The following sentences <u>exemplify</u> this property:

1) A-"Harold <u>turned on</u> the radio." (vt)
   B-"Harold <u>turned on</u> to punk rock."(vi)
2) A-"Bibi <u>came across</u> a new recipe for fudge."(vt)
   B-"Bibi really <u>came across</u> well."(vi)

<div align="right">(Celce & Larsen, 1983, p. 266)</div>

The preceding examples show that the same PV can be used transitively or intransitively with completely different meanings. The idiomatic PV *turn on* used in sentence (1a) means "allowed the electric current to flow," whereas in (1b) it means "was strongly attracted by". In sentence (2a) and (2b), the PV *came across* means "met by chance" in the first and "made a good impression" in the second. Because this sort of PV is used transitively or intransitively with completely different meanings, the learners may be confused by them and their tasks will be fruitless if they do not focus on the context to guess the meaning of such combinations (ibid, p. 267).

Moreover, word order may cause another problem for the learners, attempting to understand sentences like the following :

3) A-"I <u>saw</u> the plan <u>through</u>".
   B-"I <u>saw through</u> the plan".

<div align="right">(Seidl & Mcmordie,1988, p. 102)</div>

The meaning of sentence (3a) is completely different from that of sentence (3b). The first means "I continued until the plan was completed"; and the second means "I realized the trick of the plan" (Ibid).

Also, Courtney (1983, p. 648) assumed that the objects in a context may cause another problem for the learners. That is, when the object is used as a person, the meaning of the PV differs from the one which has the object as a thing. The following sentences are examples:

4) A-"I listened to the speech carefully, but I still couldn't <u>take</u> it all <u>in</u>."

B-"The salesman finds it easy to <u>take in</u> old ladies and persuade them to give him their money."

In these sentences, the PV *take in* has two different meanings. It means "understand" in sentence (4a) and "deceive" in sentence (4b).Thus, the learners need more attention to the object in the context with which he/she is dealing (ibid). As can be understood, learning all these restrictions related with PVs may lead the learners to some confusion and frustration.

As a conclusion, all of these difficulties can be depressing for learners to overcome in the process of integrating PVs with their active vocabulary knowledge.

2.5. Metaphor

Metaphor is a figure of speech saying that one thing is another different thing. This allows us to use fewer words and forces the reader or listener to find the similarities between the concepts. Moreover, metaphor is defined as making comparison by transferring a name from one thing to another, or refer the meaning from one concept to another on the basis of perceived similarities. In other words, metaphor is "a shift, a carrying over of a word from its normal use to a new one" (Callies& Zimmermann, 2002, p. 6, Bloor& Bloor, 2007, 69).

However, the study of metaphors is not only confined to the rhetoric field that views it as a set of extraordinary figurative expressions , but has also extended to linguistics and cognitive psychology that regarded metaphor as a part of our mind and language expressions in our daily life. Now we are going to look at the traditional view of metaphors firstly and then go on with the cognitive linguistics view on which our study is based. In the literature of this field, capitals are used to indicate conceptual metaphor ideas and so it is in this paper.

2.5.1.Traditional View

The word "metaphor" originates from the Greek word "metapherein" which means "to carry from one place to another" (Miller, 1979, p. 156). Aristotle (1965, cited in McGlone, 2007, p. 110) considered metaphor as a sign of language mastery and genius, but he also deemed it ornamental, appropriate for poetry but too enigmatic for philosophical or scientific discourse. According to the Aristotelian ''comparison view,'' metaphors could be formed as X is a Y and understood by implicitly converting them into simile form, X is like a Y (This journal is like a gem). In that way, any two things, even a journal and a gem, are literally alike in some respects. Moreover, once converted into a simile, the metaphor is then interpreted by determining the commonalities of the two things compared. The comparison view thus treats metaphor as a species of analogy and asserts that the perception of similarity is the basis of metaphor use and comprehension (Miller, 1993; McGlone, 2003, cited in McGlone, 2007, p. 110). Unfortunately, Aristotle's view of metaphor had the unfortunate effect for language scholars to ignore the topic altogether; therefore, up until the late 19th century, the study of metaphor was primarily the province of literary scholars who focused on the interpretation of particular tropes in poetry and fiction. Later on, Richards (1936, p. 90) argued that metaphor was not mere ornament, but a ubiquitous feature of language and a principal device of linguistic change and introduced a terminology of metaphor that has become fairly standard:

The term used metaphorically is the ''vehicle'' (e.g., gem), the term to which it is applied is the ''tenor'' or ''topic'' (e.g., this journal), and the meaning of the metaphor is the ''ground.'' Building on Richards' work, Black (1962, cited in McGlone, 2007, p.110) articulated an influential alternative to traditional views of metaphor understanding. Having rejected Aristotle's comparison view as too simplistic, Black argued that metaphor is a communicative phenomenon operating not at the level of mere word meaning, but at the deeper level of conceptual structure. According to his ''interaction view,'' metaphors are understood by perceiving the topic concept ''in terms of'' the vehicle concept to produce a ground that combines their alignable conceptual attributes and thereby transcends their literal denotations (McGlone, 2007, p.110)

Hornby (2000, p. 803) also defines metaphor as "a word or phrase used in an imaginative way to describe somebody or something else in order to show that the two

things have the same qualities and to make the description more powerful". Therefore, in common sense, such sentence as "She has a heart of stone" is a metaphor in which "heart" is compared to "stone". According to Nhu& Huyen (2009, p. 12) metaphor can be used to achieve some literary and persuasive effect, adding eloquence to our communication. Moreover, Kovecses (2002, p. vii, cited in Nhu& Huyen, 2009, p. 13) featured this traditional view of metaphor concisely with five of its most widely accepted characteristics:

- Metaphor is a property of words; it is a linguistic phenomenon.
- - Metaphor is used for some artistic and rhetorical purpose, such as when Shakespeare   writes "*all the world's a stage*".
- Metaphor is based on resemblance between the two entities that are compared and identified.
- Metaphor is a conscious and deliberate use of words, and you must have a special talent to be able to do it and do it well. Only great poets or eloquent speakers can be its masters.
- It is also commonly held that metaphor is a figure of speech that we can do without, we use it for special effects, and it is not an inevitable part of everyday human communication.

Even though this conception of metaphor is popular in both academic and general views, it is not the only perspective on metaphor.

2.5.2. Cognitive Linguistic View

Reddy (1993, p. 167-168) stated that the pervasiveness of metaphor in everyday language was first realized in 1979 since speakers of English used a lot of metaphorical expressions when their topic was about communication, for example, "to pack thoughts into words", "the sentence was filled with emotion", "hollow words", "find good ideas in the essay", "seal up meaning in sentences". Therefore, a new conception of metaphor that challenged all the above features of the traditional view with its systematic and coherent basis was first proposed in 1980 by George Lakoff & Mark Johnson's study "Metaphors We Live By". Their perspective has been widely known as the cognitive linguistic view of metaphor. According to them, most of our ordinary conceptual system

is metaphorical in nature (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 3). In other words, how we perceive, how we think, and what we do are structured by metaphors. Moreover, cognitive linguistics views metaphor as a cognitive instrument, which means that metaphor is not just a way of expressing ideas by means of language, but a way of thinking about things (Ungerer & Schmid, 2001, p. 118). For instance, when we are using the English sentence "You are wasting my time.", we are not just exploiting the metaphor TIME IS MONEY linguistically, we are actually thinking of, or conceptualizing the target category TIME via the source category MONEY, which is a valuable item and a limited resource. Also, understanding one conceptual domain in terms of another conceptual domain is called metaphor according to cognitive semantics. Therefore, Lakoff & Johnson (1980, p. 6). state that: "the essence of metaphor is understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another". In this view, metaphor is the result of a special process for arriving at or interpreting a meaning.

According to Wilson (2005, cited in Nhu& Huyen, 2009, p.15), metaphor is also attributed to structuring much of human thinking rather than simply being a literary device. For example, the following sentences are some of the evidence for metaphor's ubiquity both in thought and everyday language:

1. This is <u>where I want to be </u>in life.
2. It's time to stand up; besides, you shouldn't live <u>without direction </u>like that.
3. I'm stuck <u>at the crossroads </u>of life.
4. With such a talent for music, he is bound to <u>go places </u>in life.
5. He's very determined and would never let anyone <u>get in his way</u>s.
6. His children are now more sympathetic towards him after all he's <u>gone through</u>.

As can be understood from the examples, the ways we speak about life in English can be traced from the ways we speak about journeys. Cognitive linguists explain this phenomenon by stating that the concrete concept of journey aids the thinking about abstract concepts such as life (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 4)

Therefore, the cognivitive linguistics view of the metaphors emphasizes that:

1. Metaphor is a property of concepts, and not of words.

2. The function of metaphor is to better understand certain concepts, and not just some artistic or esthetic purpose.

3. Metaphor is often not based on similarity.

4. Metaphor is used effortlessly in everyday life by ordinary people, not just by special talented people;

5. Metaphor, far from being a superfluous though pleasing linguistic ornament is an inevitable ornament, process of human thought and reasoning. (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, pp. 3-6)

Namely, metaphor is not only a figure of speech, but a way of thought. From that time on, the cognitive approach to metaphor has grown into one of the most exciting fields of research in the social science (Nhu& Huyen, 2009).

2.6. Conceptual Metaphor Theory

Lakoff &Johnson (1980, p. 3) claimed that the fundamental principle behind Conceptual Metaphor Theory is that metaphor is part of our everyday life and deeply rooted in our conceptual system. It is not only a matter of language, but also of thought and action. The theory argues that our concepts structure the world and how we function in it. By claiming that our conceptual system to a large extent is metaphorical, Lakoff & Johnson (ibid) also suggested that metaphor is a major part of our everyday functioning. This, however, does not mean that they deny its role in language. Instead, they view language as a source of evidence for what our conceptual system is like, since communication is based on that same system (Lakoff & Johnson, ibid). Furthermore, they argue that our conceptual system is grounded in the world and our experiences in it, which leads them to claim that metaphors are grounded in our constant interaction with our environment, in both physical and cultural terms (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 119).

A conceptual metaphor is "a metaphor that exists in the mind of a speaker, and may thus be unconscious" (Johansen, 2007, p. 11). In fact, conceptual metaphors play an important role in human thought processes and a conceptual metaphor is constituted when the knowledge from one domain is mapped onto another domain. Conceptual metaphors consist of two components, and in this study, we will use Lakoff and Johnson's terms for the two components where the domain, or concept, that is mapped

onto is referred to as the target domain, while the domain that is mapped from is known as the source domain. In short, we can say that "the essence of metaphor is understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 5). We can represent this mapping as: TARGET DOMAIN IS SOURCE DOMAIN (Johansen, 2007, p. 13)

The source domain is a concept that is more basic and easily accessible by physical experience and it includes "a set of literal entities, attributes, processes and relationships, linked semantically and apparently stored together in the mind" (Deignan, par. 2). On the other hand, the target domain is a more abstract concept which cannot be experienced straight away, so the target domain has a tendency to be abstract and mirrors the source domain's structure, which is a set of "relationships between entities, attributes and processes" (Deignan, par. 2), through conceptual metaphor.

Here we have an example of conceptual metaphor: TIME IS MONEY (Nhu& Huyen, 2009, p. 16). In this example, the source domain is MONEY, which can easily be seen, touched, and controlled while the target domain is TIME that is a concept which cannot be perceived directly by the five senses. To be more specific, we can consider the everyday expressions below (all from Lakoff & Johnson, 2003, p. 7-8):

(1) You're wasting my time.

(2) This gadget will save you hours.

(3) I don't have the time to give you.

(4) How do you spend your time these days?

(5) That flat tire cost me an hour.

(6) I've invested a lot of time in her.

(7) Do you have much time left?

(8) He's living on borrowed time.

In all of the above sentences, the topic is time. The domains can be said to be systematically related as having something to do with human relation to money and all has a relationship with the conceptual metaphor TIME IS MONEY.

Another example of conceptual metaphor: *"When is the next wave of immigrants going to hit us?"* the use of *wave* is metaphorical, the target domain is immigration and the source domain is water; and he or she is thus conceptualizing

immigrations in terms of waves of water. In this example, the conceptual metaphor is IMMIGRANTS ARE WATER.

(Johansen, 2007, p.13)

Moreover, if someone utters the sentence "*There are too many facts in this report for me to digest*" , the use of '*digest*' is metaphorical, the target domain is idea and the source domain is food; and he or she is thus conceptualizing 'facts' in terms of 'food'. In this case, the conceptual metaphor can be formulated into IDEAS ARE FOOD (Nhu& Huyen, 2009, p. 17).

Another example of conceptual metaphors by Lakoff and Johnson (1980, p. 6) is HAPPY IS UP. Examples of such expressions are *I'm feeling up* and *My spirits rose* (Lakoff & Johnson 1980, p. 15). In the metaphor HAPPY IS UP, Lakoff and Johnson (ibid) argue for the existence of a conceptual link between the ideas HAPPY and UP. However, we seldom use the exact metaphor HAPPY IS UP when writing or speaking. Instead, we use expressions that reflect this metaphor, such as *I'm feeling up*. In other words, it is not *metaphors*, but *metaphorical expressions,* that are most commonly used in written and spoken language (Lakoff & Johnson, ibid).

In addition, the conceptual metaphor LOVE IS A CONTAINER entails a correspondence between love relationships and containers, and between the lovers and entities inside a container. These correspondences are inferred from expressions such as "We are in love, We fell out of love, and We are trapped in this relationship". The conceptual metaphor

LOVE IS A JOURNEY entails correspondences between lovers and travelers, the love relationship and a traveling vehicle, problems in the relationship and obstacles in the path of travel, and so forth. Expressions such as "We are at a crossroads in our relationship,

Love is a two-way street, and We may have to go our separate ways" are consistent with these correspondences (McGlone, 2007, p. 111).

2.7. Properties of Conceptual Metaphors

According to Johansen (2007),   there are six points that deal with how conceptual metaphors are structured and how they function. Firstly, conceptual metaphors seem to be *culturally dependent*. It means that different cultures employ different metaphorical conceptualizations and systems. Namely, "the most fundamental

values in a culture will be coherent with the metaphorical structure of the most fundamental concepts in the culture" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 22). For example, the statement 'The future will be better' reflects a value tightly bound to modern, western culture- the concept of progress. It is consistent with the conceptual metaphor THE FUTURE IS UP or GOOD IS UP (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Moreover, when we look at the conceptual metaphor TIME IS MONEY again, we can say that we normally tend to conceptualize TIME in relation to MONEY. But, this is not the only way to map the ideas of time because the linguistic analysis of its metaphorical expressions in different cultures may convey various conceptual metaphors (Johansen, 2007).

Secondly, conceptual metaphoric structuring is *partial* in nature. Fan (2006, p. 72) stated that "the very systematicity that allows us to comprehend one aspect of a concept in terms of another will necessarily hide other aspects of the concept". It means that when we map from one domain in order to bring some enlightenment to another domain, we only map *some*, not all, of the features that define the source domain onto the target domain (Johansen, 2007, 14). For example, sometimes when we talk about theories we employ the conceptual metaphor THEORIES ARE BUILDINGS, seen in surface language when we talk about a *strong* or *weak* theory, the *foundation* and *framework* of theories, theories that need *support*, and theories that *stand* or *fall*. However, it would be very strange to think of theories as having *staircases*, different *rooms,* and a *roof*, though these are properties of buildings too: "Thus the metaphor THEORIES ARE BUILDINGS has a "used" part (foundation and outer shell) and an "unused" part (rooms, staircase, etc.)" (Lakoff &Johnson, 2003, p. 52).

Thirdly, conceptual metaphors have *multiple mappings*. A single concept may have several different conceptual metaphors that describe different parts of how we understand that concept (Johansen, 2007). For example, we may sometimes conceptualize the human mind as a machine while in other instances we may employ the MIND AS A BRITTLE OBJECT metaphor. These two different conceptual metaphors enable us to focus on different aspects of mental experience.

For example:

He broke down. (THE MIND IS A MACHINE)

He cracked up. (THE MIND IS A BRITTLE OBJECT)

(Lakoff & Johnson 2003, p. 28)

Fourth, the mapping from one conceptual domain to another lies in the relations, events, and contexts that characterize the domain in a s*ystematic* way. In other words, conceptual metaphor theory is concerned with the mapping of inferences from source to target. For instance, when people encounter such metaphors as "They constructed this theory from the ground up", they unconsciously and automatically relate it to the underlying conceptual metaphor THEORIES ARE BUILDINGS.

Within the source domain BUILDING and the target domain THEORY, systematic mappings can be clearly identified (Figure). The systematicity of these mappings is supported by the invariance principle:

Metaphorical mappings preserve the cognitive topology (that is, the image-schema structure) of the source domain, in a way consistent with the inherent structure of the target domain. (Lakoff, 1993, p. 208)

This principle guarantees that foundation in the BUILDING domain will correspond to assumptions in the THEORY domain, rather than other elements.
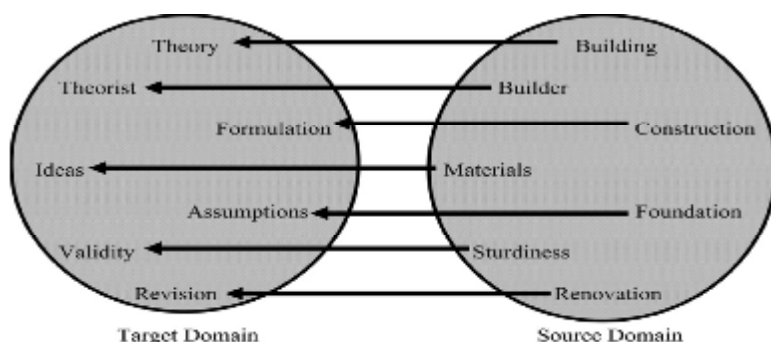
Figure 1: Hypothesized correspondences between the domains of 'theory' and 'building'
Source: McGlone, 2007, p. 113

Fifth, conceptual metaphors may have a special property of *highlighting and hiding*. Johansen (2007, p. 15) claimed that a concept may be understood by mapping certain aspects of other concepts onto itself, and it may come down to context as to which concepts are used as source domains. In that way we can choose to highlight certain features of the target domain, for example, when we use the MIND IS A BRITTLE OBJECT metaphor, we may emphasize the psychological strength, or lack

of the mind. Also, when we use the MIND IS A MACHINE metaphor, we may stress that the mind has levels of efficiency, a certain productive capacity and such (Lakoff&Johnson, 2003, p. 28). However, a conceptual metaphor may also hide certain aspects of a concept. The CONDUIT metaphor in which ideas and meanings are seen as objects, linguistic expressions as containers and the act of communication as sending is a conceptual metaphor that hides some aspects. For example: when we say "It's hard to *get* that idea *across* to him", "It's difficult to *put* my ideas *into* words", "His words *carry* little meaning" , we can realize that the CONDUIT metaphor hides the fact that words and sentences are dependent on context and speaker to have any meaning, words and sentences do not correspond in a one-to-one relationship with our thoughts (Lakoff &Johnson, 2003, p. 100). In addition, in the conceptual metaphor WAR IS A COMPETITIVE GAME, war is conceptualized as a game of chess, football or boxing, but where other aspects of war are played down, such as injury, marring, explosions, gunfire and death (Lakoff 1991, cited in Johansen (2007, p. 16).

Lastly, conceptual metaphors have also *asymmetric* aspect (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p.59) Generally, the target domains are abstract entities while the source domains are concrete ones, or, in other words, "we typically conceptualize the nonphysical in term of the physical" (ibid). It is common sense that we map from a domain which is tangible and easy to understand to the domain that we cannot touch or perceive physically (Johansen, 2007). For instance, while a term like JOURNEY be used metaphorically to refer to LIFE, the reverse metaphor is not possible, linguistically or conceptually. Likewise, it poses no problem in referring to a person as warm but it would be meaningless to refer to a glass of milk as passionate (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980).

2.8. Kinds of Conceptual Metaphors

Lakoff & Johnson (1980) differentiate between three main kinds of metaphors, namely structural, orientational and ontological metaphors.

2.8.1. Structural metaphors

Lakoff & Johnson (1980, p. 14) defined structural metaphors as a metaphorical system that characterizes the structure of one concept by relating it to that of another

concept and stated that these metaphors are the most complex of the three types of comparison, requiring us to transfer one basic domain of experience to another basic domain. In other words, these are the instances where we metaphorically structure one complex concept (mostly abstract) in terms of another (usually more concrete) concept. In this kind of metaphor, the source domain (concept A) provides a clearly structured definition to the target concept B and helps the learners understand the target concept A by means of the structure of the source concept B.

This phenomenon is exemplified with the conceptual metaphor ARGUMENT IS WAR (Lakoff &Johnson, 1980, p. 14). In this example, the concept of ARGUMENT is metaphorically structured in terms of the concept WAR. This conceptual metaphor can be realized in language by expressions, such as: *He shot down all of my arguments.*

> *Is he not entitled to hit back?*
> *Criticisms were right on the target.*
> *She defended her arguments till the end.*
> *The leader of the discussion*
> *To loose/win the rhetorical fight*
> *To attack the opponent with words*

In this structural metaphor, the verbal discourse of an argument is reframed in terms of the physical conflict of war. Generally, an argument comes out when we begin to disagree about a subject and defend our point of view imposing the characteristics of war (physical conflict and violence) onto the elements of conversation.

Moreover, Lakoff &Johnson (ibid) claimed that we do not only talk about arguments in terms of war, but the metaphor also partially structures the way we act when we argue. For example, we can actually win or lose an argument and we see the other person in the argument as an opponent. As Lakoff &Johnson (ibid) argued, "we talk about arguments that way because we conceive of them that way - and we act according to the way we conceive things". Although we may not engage in physical battle, some of our actions reflect the structured concept of war. Our behavior is directed by means of this metaphor when we use expressions like, "he attacked every weak point in my argument," and "I've never won an argument with him." We conceptualize, understand and speak about arguments in terms of wars when we attack on the others' points of view to be able to defend our own, plan some strategies for the

argument, and consider others as winners or losers of the discussion (Lakoff &Johnson (ibid). In additon, with this metaphor, we can explain the abstract concept discussed with the help of this concrete war concept and the words that are linked to it.

Likewise, we use some common metaphors to make meaning out of life, love, ideas, or time. The following metaphors are some examples:

- LIFE IS A JOURNEY

    He has been absolutely lost since his dog died.

    Her goal in life is to get her Ph.D.

    As we go through life, I hope we will always be friends.

    He just does not seem to be going anywhere in life.

    You are on the right path now.

- LOVE IS WAR

    She is just another one of his conquests.

    They fought over her for months, but in the end her old boyfriend won out.

    She fled from his advances.

    He won her hand in marriage.

    He made an ally of her mother.

- IDEAS ARE FOOD

    His remarks left a bad taste in my mouth.

    I can't digest all these ideas at once.

    Now there is an idea you can sink your teeth into.

    He expected us to swallow his claims about the new product.

    Well, now, there is food for thought.

- TIME IS MONEY

    He is obviously wasting his time on that.

    "Let's spend a little time together this weekend.

    When we cash in at the end of our lives.....

The preceding examples are a combination of general structural metaphors (LIFE IS A JOURNEY, LOVE IS WAR, IDEAS ARE FOOD and TIME IS MONEY) and their daily language expressions. It is clear that these general structural metaphors help us to make sense out of the world around us. It is a natural process of language that reflects our understanding of the abstract or less concrete concepts. Besides, we can

realize the relationship between these metaphors and their language expressions that enhances our comprehension of these ideas hidden in the sentences.

2.8.2. Orientational metaphors

As can be understood by their name, these metaphors organize concepts by giving them a spatial orientation. Lakoff &Johnson (1980, p. 3) contended that orientational metaphors give a concept a spatial orientation, that is, "our ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature". This suggests that these metaphoric representations are not random; they are based on the structure of our bodies and derived from our experience in daily life and how we physically interact in a specific culture or environment. Also, orientational metaphors are more extensive than structural ones, in that they organize a whole system of concepts with respect to one another (Lakoff & Johnson 1980, p. 14). These kinds of metaphor have to do with spatial orientation, such as up-down and in-out, and Lakoff and Johnson (ibid) argued that these orientations arise from the fact that our human bodies look and behave the way they do in the physical environment in which we exist. An example of an orientational metaphor is the above-mentioned HAPPY IS UP. Accordingly, there is also a conceptual metaphor with the opposite meaning, namely SAD IS DOWN (Lakoff & Johnson 1980, p. 15).

The following examples of orientational metaphors presented by Lakoff& Johnson (1980):

Table 3

The list of Orientational Metaphors

HAPPY IS UP	SAD IS DOWN
CONSCIOUS IS UP	UNCONSCIOUS IS DOWN
HEALTH IS UP	SICKNESS, DEATH IS DOWN
HAVING CONTROL OR FORCE IS UP	BEING SUBJECT TO CONTROL OR FORCE IS DOWN
MORE lS UP	LESS IS DOWN
FORESEEBLE FUTURE EVENT IS UP - HIGH STATUS IS UP	LOW STATUS IS DOWN
GOOD IS UP	BAD IS DOWN
VIRTUE IS UP	DEPRAVITY IS DOWN
RATIONAL IS UP	EMOTIONAL IS DOWN

Source: Lakoff &Johnson, 1980, p. 15-17

To illustrate, when we say "HIGH STATUS IS UP**;** LOW STATUS IS DOWN, Lakoff & Johnson (1980, p. 16) emphasized that these metaphors have social and physical basis in which status is correlated with (social) power and (physical) power is UP. For example:

"He has *a lofty* position. She'll *rise* to the *top.* He's at the *peak* of his career. He's *climbing* the ladder. He has little *upward* mobility. He's at the *bottom* of the social hierarchy. She *fell* in status." (Lakoff & Johnson, ibid)

Another example is: CONSCIOUS IS UP; UNCONSCIOUS IS DOWN

With regard to this example, Lakoff & Johnson (1980, p. 16) focused on physical basis of the concepts. In fact, humans and most other mammals sleep lying down and stand up when they awaken, such as:

Get *up.* Wake *up.* I'm *up* already. He *rises* early in the morning. He *fell* asleep. He *dropped* off to sleep. He's *under* hypnosis. He *sank* into a coma.

In all these examples, we can see the orientation in space clearly. Spatial orientations like up-down, front-back, on-off, center-periphery, and near-far provide an extraordinarily rich basis for understanding concepts in orientational terms (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 26)

2.8.3. Ontological metaphors

The third type of metaphor is ontological metaphor. This is claimed to be the most basic kind when it comes to comprehending and understanding our experience (Lakoff & Johnson 1980, p. 25). Ontological metaphors are about understanding our experiences with physical objects in terms of entities and substances, and so they can be named after *entity* and *substance metaphors*, as well. These experiences can be identified and categorised as entities restricted by a surface without a boundary or with artificial boundaries that we have set up. When we specify these experiences as substances, we can "refer to them, categorize them, group them, and quantify them - and, by this means, reason about them" (Lakoff & Johnson, ibid).

For example:
-        INFLATION IS AN ENTITY
        Inflation is lowering our standard of living.

If there's much *more inflation,* we'll never survive. We need to *combat inflation.*
        Inflation is hacking us into a corner.
    Inflation is taking its toll at the checkout counter and the gas pump.
    Buying land is the best way of *dealing with inflation. Inflation makes me*
    sick.   (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 27).

In these sentences, Lakoff & Johnson (ibid) considered inflation as an entity allows us to refer to it, quantify it, identify a particular aspect of it, see it as a cause, act with respect to it, and perhaps even believe that we understand it. By means of ontological metaphors we can deal rationally with our experiences. Moreover, ontological metaphors involve some ways of viewing abstract concepts, such as feelings, activities, and ideas as entities:

    1) He is <u>out of sight.</u>
    2) We're <u>out of trouble</u> now.
    3) He <u>fell into</u> a depression.
    4) She <u>fell in love with</u> him.

In the examples above, *sight*, *trouble*, *depression* and *love* are all abstract concepts in English, which are metaphorically viewed as concrete concepts bearing boundaries. According to our experiences, the meaning of these sentences can be grasped easily (Li, 2010).

In addition, understanding our experiences in terms of entities requires viewing them as containers. These *container metaphors,* the most typical kind of ontological metaphors, are also based on the fact that we view our own bodies as entities or containers. According to these metaphors, we are physical beings, bounded and separated from the rest of the world by the surface of our skins, and we experience the rest of the world as outside us. "Each of us is a container, with a bounding surface and an in-out orientation. We project our own in-out orientation onto other physical objects that are bounded by surfaces" (Lakoff & Johnson 1980, p. 29). Therefore, the human body can be considered as a container where we can have food or where we can keep emotions and fill it up to the point of a metaphorical burst in anger or in tears. We can conceptualize external areas and regard them as containers, as well. Our mind may also be perceived as a container full of ideas. What is more, we can metaphorically understand abstract concepts in terms of physical containers, such as the visual fields, events, actions and states as proved by the use of the particles like '*IN*' and '*OUT*' in sentences like "I have him in sight" and "He fell into a depression" (Lakoff & Johnson, ibid). The schematic meaning of '*IN*' and '*OUT*' can be visualized from the mental image of a container: there is something that is outside or inside that container (Tyler & Evans, 2003).

Figure 2: Basic Spatial Scene for 'IN' and 'OUT'
Source: Requejo & Diaz, 2008, p. 115

Some examples for container metaphors:

- ACTIVITIES ARE CONTAINERS (Haase, 2002, p. 8)

a) The problem will be dealt with *in* the next discussion.

b) You can see his feelings *in* his writings.

c) She could not *get out* of laughing.

- STATES and EMOTIONS ARE CONTAINERS (Lakoff & Johnson, 1998, p. 42).

a) He fell *in* love.

b) We will be *out of* the trouble soon.

c) She entered the bureau *in* fear.

However, we also impose imagined boundaries on things that are not, such as the mind. The ontological metaphor THE MIND IS AN ENTITY can be an example of this. This metaphor can be extended with other metaphors such as THE MIND IS A MACHINE and THE MIND IS A BRITTLE OBJECT (Lakoff & Johnson 1980, p. 27-28).

Examples:

a) I'm a little *rusty* today. Can we spare that math problem for tomorrow?

b) My mind can never *operate* well under pressure.

In above sentences, the mind is assumed to be an entity.

Moreover, Lakoff &Johnson (1980, p. 33) claimed that the most obvious ontological metaphors are cases when we specify a physical object as being a person; when we see something nonhuman as human. This is called *personification*, and covers a wide range of metaphors, each of which focuses on different aspects of, or ways of looking at, a person (Lakoff & Johnson 1980, p. 33). Personification is realized by expressions, such as;

This fact argues against the standard theories,
This theory explains everything,
The facts are against it,
Life betrayed me. (Lakoff & Johnson 1980, p. 34).

In these expressions, we attribute the human qualities and traits to nonhuman phenomena (Kovecses, 2002).

All these metaphors use our experiences of physical objects, as containers or as persons, and help us to understand abstract phenomena like emotions, states and activities. Our study is based on the orientataional and ontological metaphors framing the particles to explain the meanings of phrasal verbs.

2.9. Phrasal Verbs and Conceptual Metaphors

Conceptual metaphors, as mentioned beforehand, helps to explain the underlying links between expressions, such as 'a *heated* debate, 'a *fiery* temper', or 'getting *hot under the collar*'. As Lakoff &Johnson (1980) have shown, these formulations are all connected by the fact that when English-speakers talk about anger, they unconsciously invoke a metaphor in which 'being angry is like getting hot or being on fire' (Rundell, 2005, par. 10). Therefore, we suppose that in this study we may find a way to ravel out the mysteries of phrasal verbs and their particles with regards to these ideas.

Rundell (2005, par. 11) stated that most of the common particles, such as *UP, DOWN, IN, OUT* or *OFF*, have some literal- basic meanings related to spatial orientation. However, these spatial concepts may also have some figurative uses; for example, the ideas of being 'up' or 'down' are often equated metaphorically with high and low quantities, with status and power, and with a person's mood (happy or sad). If an amount goes *up* it becomes larger, if it goes *down* it becomes smaller. In the same sense, powerful people are considered as being 'high up', whereas the weak and powerless are 'down at the bottom'. Also, when we say we are 'down in the dumps', we mean the opposite of being 'up on cloud nine'.

As Lakoff &Johnson (1980, p.18) argued, there is a system that works coherently here and the metaphorical development of literal spatial concepts is 'rooted in [our] physical and cultural experience'. Conceptual metaphor theory helps the learners make the mental mappings of spatial scenes for the particles, and then, their meanings can be spread to other domains to show more abstract concepts "through a process of abstraction in motivated relations and systematic principled ways (Brugman& Lakoff, 1988; Dirven, 1993; Evans & Tyler, 2005; Lakoff, 1987; Lindner, 1982; Tyler & Evans, 2001, 2003). Rundell (2005, par. 11) illustrated this with an example focusing on the link between being *up* and having power. This link, in fact, has a basis in our experience of the world: if two people fight and one of them is physically on top of the other, that person usually ends up having the power. By means of this

systematic process, the spatial particles with basic meanings can bring out new and more abstract senses, many of which are non-spatial, and lead us to a deep understanding of the expressions (Tyler & Evans, 2003; Evans & Tyler, 2005). Talebinejad& Sadri (2013, p. 334) stated that particles in English have developed complicated polysemy networks thanks to this process and they argued that the multiple meanings associated with a particle are driven by the same spatial scene; hence, they are systematically related within a motivated semantic network.

Meanwhile, when it comes to phrasal verbs (PVs), the metaphorical meanings of the particles provide us with understanding of the whole verb in this systematic network. As the choice of particle is not arbitrary, through our experiences, we can get the clues to the meanings of PVs from the particles associated with spatial orientations. For example, when we say the scholarship was *cut down*, we mean there is a decrease in quantity of the money, and if a plane is removed from the ground, it is *taken off*. In each case, we can see the clues provided by the particles to comprehend the meaning (Rundell, 2005). In short, in terms of conceptual metaphors, PVs are not regarded as arbitrary outcomes of the human mind, but as a system of organized meanings, because these metaphors, more importantly ontological and orientational metaphors, bring two different domains, that is, SPATIAL ORIENTATIONS and ABSTRACT CONCEPTS together and make up a strong link between the domains, based on our own physical and cultural experiences, so as to reveal the underlying meanings of PVs (David, 2002).

Considering the relationship between PVs and conceptual metaphors, we will present some examples to make it clear.

The following sentences are with the same PV:

1. Would you help me <u>blow up</u> all these balloons? (Cambridge International Dictionary, 2001)
2. She <u>blew up</u> suddenly and started to shout at us. (McCarthy& O'Dell, 2004)

In the sentences above, the PV in the first sentence has a literal- basic meaning and refers to a physical action such as filling the balloon with air while the one in the second sentence is metaphorical and describes an action which has a direct connection, expressing some similarities, to the first (Nyu&Huyen, 2009). That is, when we blow up ballons, we fill them with air, so they get bigger and the process is similar to the way in which our anger is getting from a lower level to a higher one, so it becomes more.

However, some PVs may have only metaphorical meanings, such as: 'break up' and 'break down'. 'to break up something means 'to separate, divide into smaller parts or finish (relationship)' (Cambridge International Dictionary, 2001, p. 26). On the surface, there seems to be no connection in meaning between the verb 'break' and the particle '*UP*'. But, if we imagine that the activity has reached the highest limit, we may understand that it has come to an end (has reached the time limit) or has affected the whole object (has reached the object's boundaries) (Rustka-Ostyn, 2003, p. 88). Thus, the meaning gap between the verb and particle can be bridged: when we 'break up' relationship, we disintegrate with someone. The second PV is 'break down', which means 'fail, stop working, demolish, have emotional and uncontrollable reactions' (Cambridge International Dictionary, 2001, p. 24). If we take the differences in *volume, temperature, weight, prices,emotions, one's sense of importance or respectability, social relations,power* and many other abstract domains (Rustka-Ostyn, 2003, p. 107) into consideration, we can associate the particle '*DOWN'* with the expressions of decrease in intensity and value; therefore, the meaning of the phrasal verb may turn out to be more explicable.

On the other hand, we have to indicate that the potential process of teaching and learning PVs through conceptual metaphors is difficult to understand and apply due to the fact that the learners may be unaware of the concrete-to-abstract procedure of phrasal verbs' meanings (Neagu, 2007). With this view, we have to accept that the learners will need a systematic explanation to recognize the rules. Rundell (2005, par. 5) suggested that "there are a lot more of these rules and a lot more 'system' in the language than we had previously suspected". These rules can be useful for the learners a lot to help remove a heavy load on their memory, so we suppose that a good instruction of the particles may promote the comprehension of the PVs.

After that, we will present some of the most common particles in terms of conceptual metaphors.

2.10. Particles in This Study

The particles chosen for this study are *UP, DOWN, OUT, IN, INTO* and *OFF*. We chose these particles according to thier frequency, but more importantly, we decided on them with regards to their usage in the participants' textbooks and language exams. These particles have spatial meanings and these meanings can be extended

towards non-spatial and metaphorical senses. In this way, the various meanings of the particle with several uses of the PVs will be presented as a meaning unit.

We will give an account for each particle above in terms of conceptual metaphors to make ontological and orientational metaphors more clear.

2.10.1. Some Orientational Metaphors with *'UP'* – *'DOWN'*

1. INCREASING IS UP – DECREASING IS DOWN

From the conceptual metaphors MORE IS UP/ LESS IS DOWN, it is possible to associate the particle '*UP*' with a motion from a lower to a higher place and an increase in the level of categories like size, speed, or quality while '*DOWN*' expresses the opposite idea of motion and decreasing in the same categories (Rustka-Ostyn, 2003).

Therefore, we can form sentences like:

a)Taking responsibility for yourself is part of growing up.

b) Prices have gone up again.

c) I've spent too much money this month- I have to cut down a bit.

d) The road works are slowing down the traffic in the mornings.

e) The council played down the threat to environmental issues.

(Nyu&Huyen, 2009, 34)

2. POWER IS UP – WEAKNESS IS DOWN

We know that when one person has strength or power and controls another, he or she is in a higher position than the other; thus, some PVs with *UP* contain the notions of someone in control or more powerful than others. On the contrary, *DOWN* expresses the concept of someone in a weaker position or state (Moon, 2005). Examples:

a) They have come up in the world of finance.

b) She's been moved up to a more important job.

c) The rebellion was hard to put down.

d) If I fail the final exams, I will have to move down.

e) All the stress is beginning to wear her down.

(Rustka-Ostyn, 2003, p. 85-93)

3. HAPPY IS UP – SAD IS DOWN

The emotional feelings are associated with *UP* and *DOWN* because of the concepts of happiness or sadness. The posture of standing straight with a positive emotion like happiness refers to *UP* particle while bending or hanging one's head down typically means unhappiness or depression referring to *DOWN* particle (David, 2002).

Examples:

a) Things are <u>looking up</u>.

b) We sent some flowers to the hospital to <u>cheer her up</u> .

c) You should study hard so that you won't <u>let </u>your parents <u>down</u>.

e) This weather is <u>getting me down</u>.

(Rustka-Ostyn, 2003, p. 88-95)

4. MORE VISIBLE, ASSESSIBLE and KNOWN IS UP

When the entity is comes to a higher level or location, it can be seen more easily. This is true both for concrete objects and abstract entities. Therefore a feature that is characteristic

of many verbs with *UP* is that what was hidden or unknown becomes visible or known (Rustka-Ostyn, 2003, p.86).

Examples:

a) He was determined to <u>bring up</u> the issue at the meeting.

b) How many people will <u>show up</u> at the party?

5. COMPLETE IS UP

When we say 'use up' or ' drink up' or 'sum up', we mean that we have done something until no more is left. Therefore, 'up' carries the idea of completeness. For example:

a) Don't <u>use up </u>all the eggs.

b) There's no sign that the speaker will <u>sum up </u>his talk.

c) <u>Drink up </u>your coffee before it goes cold.   (Nyu&Huyen, 2009, 36)

6. MOVEMENTS OF EATING OR WRITING ARE DOWN

'Eating or writing' actions accompany downward movement, so it is possible to use *DOWN* particle with these verbs.

a) Please <u>write down</u> the address.

b) He listened very carefully, but <u>took down</u> nothing.

c) It is hard to <u>swallow down</u> this medicine.   (Rustka-Ostyn, 2003)

7. FAILING IS DOWN

DOWN also has the idea of completion; however, this completion goes with negative meanings such as failing, reaching a goal in an extreme limit down the scale of *degree, value and measure* (David, 2002; Rustka-Ostyn, 2003). For example, if someone stays in bed because of illness, he/ she is *DOWN*. Other examples:

a) <u>Shut down</u>your computer before switching it off.

b) If your computer <u>breaks down</u>, do not open it and call a technician.

c) Their marriage <u>broke down </u>after 3 years

2.10.2. Some Container Metaphors with *'IN'- 'INTO'- 'OUT'*

1. BODY/ MOUTH AS A CONTAINER

When we talk, the words leave us physically, but when we are told something, the message or information seems to enter into us (Moon, 2005). The following expressions illustrate the idea that the concepts of HUMAN BODY or MOUTH are viewed as CONTAINER:

a) She <u>poured out </u>her emotions.

b) He <u>breathed in </u>deeply and then spoke.

c) Plants <u>take in </u>water through their roots.

d) Don't be shy! Just <u>speak out </u>what you think.

leaflets for them in town.

2. BUILDING AS A CONTAINER

Our home, the groups we are members of, our professional jobs are viewed as containers in(side) which we spend a lot of time, so we use OUT once we move out of them and IN once we go inside (Rustka-Ostyn, 2003, p. 20).

Here are a few examples:

a) It's cold outside. Please come in!

b) Oh no! My keys are in the room! I think I've locked myself out.

3. NON-EXISTENCE, IGNORANCE, INVISIBILITY FUNCTION AS CONTAINERS

From our experience of containers, we know that something inside a container is usually hidden from sight, so when something unknown is discovered, it is usually conceived as "getting out" (Requejo & Diaz, 2008, p. 119).

Examples:

a) The broke out suddenly between the two allies..

b) The sun came out late yesterday.

4. A BAD HABIT AS A CONTAINER

A container may have the idea of confinement with some obstacles or problems that must be overcome (Tyler & Evans, 2003 & 2004). In that sense, we usually perceive these obstacles or problems as bad habits keeping the person trapped inside.

a) How did he get into drugs?

b) Mary managed to get out of smoking.   (Requejo & Diaz, 2008, p. 118)

5. A BLANK AS A CONTAINER

Blanks can be conceptualized as containers even though they do not have any frames or clear boundaries (Requejo & Diaz, 2008).

a) Could you write inyour name and age please?

b) Please fill in the application form correctly.

6. ACTIVITY AS A CONTAINER

Activities are assumed to have physical boundaries and contain other actions or participants like areas or spaces. In PVs, 'in' carries the meaning of being involved, while 'out' denotes the notion of avoiding or stopping the involvement (Moon, 2005, cited in). For example:

a) We were invited to a karaoke but I was too embarrassed to <u>join in </u>the singing.

b) Championship matches usually <u>pull in </u>a large crowd.

c) My sister has <u>grown out</u> of her clothes rapidly.　(Nyu&Huyen, 2009, 34)

7. STATES/ SITUATIONS AS CONTAINERS

Rustka-Ostyn (2003, p. 22) indicated that we often only talk about abstract entities, such as time, emotions, thoughts, social relations and language in concrete terms. In that sense,

states of existence, work, duty, knowledge, consciousnessor awareness, possession, accessibility, visibility, etc. are seen as entities with boundaries around them as containers.

Examples:

a) As we <u>ran out</u> of money, we could not visit London.

b) When she heard the news, she <u>burst into</u> *tears.*

2.10.3. Some Conceptual Metaphors For *'OFF'*

1. DEPARTURE/ SEPARATION IS OFF

Concrete objects occupy a certain space as a container. In addition to space, objects often occupy a surface. When we stand, sit or lie, we also occupy some surface, but we can leave this surface, and in this situation OFF can be used. We have to bear in our mind that we do not have to mention about the surface (Rustka-Ostyn, 2003, p. 124).

a) The plane <u>took off</u> very late last night.

b) We went to the airport to <u>see </u>her <u>off</u>.

2) SEPARATION AS INTERRUPTION OF FLOW/SUPPLY

Some verbs can express an interruption of supply for water, electricity, gas and of flow for the relations, traffic, speech with OFF. In that sense, the amount provided for the supply or flow is stopped.

a) The gas was <u>cut off</u> because we forgot to pay the bill.
b) England <u>broke off</u> the relations with Rondovia after the killing of British tourists.

What is more, all the examples given beforehand will shed light on our study based on teaching and learning PVs through conceptual metaphors. We are going to give some clues explicitly to the meanings of PVs from the particles associated with their spatial orientations using conceptual metaphors. By doing so, we will be able to raise our participants' awareness to the hidden links between the particles and the meanings of PVs.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This study aims to investigate whether using conceptual metaphors help the 11th grade learners to acquire the meanings of phrasal verbs (PVs) and whether using conceptual metaphors enhance the retention of PVs over longer periods of time. It also explores whether learning PVs through the conceptual metaphors contribute to the students' level of motivation, interest, enjoyment, pleasure towards teaching and learning of PVs. Both quantitative and qualitative research methods in this case study study were employed in order to address our research questions. Thus, a mixed methods research methodology was conducted for the implementation of this study.

3.2. Research Design of the Study

This study was designed as a case study with the aim of specifying the role of conceptual metaphors in teaching and learning phrasal verbs (PVs) to eleventh grade learners in a public high school. According to Yin (1984, p.23) in general, case studies are empirical inquiries which investigate contemporary phenomena within their real-life contexts, especially when the boundaries between the phenomena and contexts are not clearly evident and in which multiple sources of evidence are used. Case studies are only one of many ways of doing social science research, with experimentation, observation and surveys, each suited to a certain type of research problem and a degree of experimental control over events and historical/contemporary perspectives. Case studies usually take their principal subjects from selected examples of a social entity within its normal context. At the simplest level, case studies provide descriptive accounts of one or more cases, yet can also be used in an intellectually rigorous manner to achieve experimental isolation of one or more selected social factors within a real-life context (Schnell, 1992, p. 3).

With regards to the nature of case study method, we wanted to look for the details of interaction with its context in a systematic way of looking at events, collecting

data, analyzing the data and discussing the results. In this study, we specifically wished to examine whether conceptual metaphors help students enhance their PVs learning and help to retrieve them when needed. Therefore, we have integrated conceptual metaphor activities to the curriculum using authentic and realistic situations.

We conducted a mixed method research in our case study in order to obtain more reliable results and have a deeper understanding of the research findings. Mixed method design, which means that "both qualitative and quantitative research methods are used to answer the research questions in a single study" (Mertens, 2003, p.292), was used in this study. Johnson, Onwegbuzie and Turner (2007, p.120) defined mixed methods research as "a class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study or set of related studies". The combination of quantative and qualitative data provides us with various data collection instruments and data analysis techniques, which bring about more valid and reliable findings in order to address our research questions. In our case study, we aimed to find the answers to the following questions:

- Does using conceptual metaphors help the 11th grade learners acquire the meanings of phrasal verbs?
- Does using conceptual metaphors enhance the retention of phrasal verbs over longer periods of time?
- Does learning phrasal verbs through conceptual metaphors contribute to the students' level of motivation, interest, enjoyment, pleasure towards the teaching and learning phrasal verbs process through conceptual metaphors?

In this study, quantitative and qualitative data collection occurred in sequential form. *Phrasal Verbs Tests* and *Intrinsic Motivation Inventory* results provided a basis for quantitative method while *Informal Interviews* results were used for qualitative data.

3.3. Context of the Study

Barbaros İMKB Anatolian High School is located in the southern suburbs of Adana. In order to enroll in this school, the students need to take a level determination exam (SBS) implemented by Ministry of Education. The number of the students at

school is 550 and each class has between 25 and 30 students. In terms of language programs, English class hours can be compulsory or elective and are varied among the grades from 9 to 12. The details of the English Language Program in Anatolian High Schools are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

English Language Program in Anatolian High Schools

	English Class Hours	
Grades	**Compulsory**	**Elective**
9	6	-
10	4	4 or 6
11	4	4 or 6
12	4	4 or 6

It seems evident from the Table 4 above that it is compulsory for the students to learn the English language during four years in high schools. Apart from the compulsory hours, after the ninth grade, the students may select extra hours (4 or 6 hours) to learn English. These students take English for Specific Purposes (ESP) classes and prepare for the Undergraduate Placement Examination 5 (LYS 5) in order to study any English related department or any other language at universities. We have three ESP classes at each grade (10-11-12 grades). The students in these classes cover course books required by Ministry of Education in their compulsory English hours while they study grammar, vocabulary and reading, in line with LYS 5, in their elective English hours.

3 4. Participants

This case study was carried out in Seyhan, Adana, Turkey during the spring semester of 2012/2013 school year. The participants were twelve (7 female and 5 male students) eleventh grade students in ESP class. They were seventeen years old at the time of the study. Most of the students were being transported from neighbouring towns by school bus servises, and some were staying at private dormitories in the city centre. Thus, all the students regularly participated in the activities carried out by the researcher. The researcher, who has been teaching at this school for three years, was their English teacher.

The study group was an already existing group of students. The students in this classroom were studying four compulsory English hours. In addition, they had six elective English hours. As stated beforehand, they were an ESP class and aimed to pass the Undergraduate Placement Examination 5 (LYS 5) for studying any department related to English or any other language at universities.

Moreover, the Common European Framework divides high school learners into three broad divisions which can be divided into six levels (Table 5) :

A Basic User	A1 Breakthrough	A2 Waystage
B Independent User	B1 Threshold	B2 Vantage
C Proficient User	C1 Effective Operational Proficiency	C2 Mastery

Table 5

Common European Framework Levels

Level	Description
A1	Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce him/herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.
A2	Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment). Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need.
B1	Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes & ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.
B2	Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation. Can interact with a degree

(Table 5 Continue)

C1	of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.
	Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognise implicit meaning. Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
C2	Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. Can summarise information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations.

3.5. Data Sources

In this present study both qualitative and quantitative data sources were used. Quantitative data was collected by *Phrasal Verbs Tests* and *Intrinsic Motivation Inventory*. Also, in order to obtain detailed information about students' opinions and feelings concerning teaching and learning PVs through conceptual metaphors, qualitative data was collected by *Informal Interviews*.

The table below depicts the research questions and relevant data collection methods.

Table 6

Research Questions and Data Sources

Questions Guiding the Study	Methods and Sources of Data
- Does using the conceptual metaphors help to enhance the 11th grade learners acquire meaning of phrasal verbs?	Phrasal Verbs Tests
- Does using the conceptual metaphors enhance the retention of phrasal verbs over longer periods of time?	Phrasal Verbs Tests
- Does learning phrasal verbs through conceptual metaphors contribute to the students' level of motivation, interest, enjoyment, pleasure towards the teaching and learning phrasal verbs process through conceptual metaphors?	Intrinsic Motivation Inventory, Informal Interviews

3.5.1. Phrasal Verbs Tests

'UP'- 'DOWN'-'OUT'- 'IN - INTO' and 'OFF' are the most frequently used particles in the English language (Rudzka – Ostyn, 2003). Likewise, these particles frequently occur in course and text books at high schools. For this reason, we focused on these particles and covered PVs with these particles in this study.

We used seven PVs tests in our study to find out the answers to our first and second research questions stated beforehand. All the tests consisted of multiple choice tests (MCT) and fill in the blanks (FB) type of questions (see Appendix 3). There were a total of 50 questions for all the tests. The sentences used in the tests were derived from the ones applied during the teaching and learning process, from Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs (Collins COBUILD, 1989), Word Power: Phrasal Verbs and Compounds (Rudzka – Ostyn, 2003), and Phrasal Verbs Organizer with Mini Dictionary (Flower, 1998).

We applied the tests in the third, fifth, seventh, eighth, ninth, tenth and twelfth weeks of the study. The implementation time of the tests was parallel with the treatment period of each particle. After finishing studying each particle, we applied a PVs test.

The table below depicts the details of the PVs tests:

Table 7

Summary of The PVs Tests

Test Number	Particles	Multiple Choice Questions	Fill In The Blanks Questions	Total	Implementation
Test 1	UP	50	-	50	3rd Week
Test 2	UP- DOWN	30	20	50	5th Week
Test 3	UP- DOWN- OUT	35	15	50	7th Week
Test 4	UP- DOWN- OUT-IN	35	15	50	8th Week
Test 5	UP- DOWN- OUT-IN- INTO	35	15	50	9th Week
Test 6	UP- DOWN- OUT-IN- INTO- OFF	30	20	50	10th Week
Test 7	UP- DOWN- OUT-IN- INTO- OFF	30	20	50	12th Week

As can be seen from the table, the number of the particle increased in number in each test because in each test we included the PVs we covered in previous weeks as well as the newly acquired ones. As we wanted to assess whether using conceptual metaphors help learn and keep PVs over a longer period of time, we used all the particles learned in previous weeks. The only exception was Test 7. The particles used in this test were the same as Test 6. It is because Test 7 was a test applied for answering our second research question. It was applied after two weeks of the implementation to find out to what extent teaching PVs through conceptual metaphors conrtibute to the retention of these verbs in the long run.

The distribution of the particles in each test was shown in the Table 8 below:

Table 8

The Distribution of Particles in each PVs Tests

Test Number		UP	DOWN	OUT	IN	INTO	OFF
				Particles			
Test1	MCT*	50	-	-	-	-	-
	FB*	-	-	-	-	-	-
Test2	MCT	15	15	-	-	-	-
	FB	10	10	-	-	-	-
Test3	MCT	10	10	15	-	-	-
	FB	5	5	5	-	-	-
Test4	MCT	8	7	10	10	-	-
	FB	2	3	5	5	-	-
Test5	MCT	7	7	7	7	7	-
	FB	3	3	3	3	3	-
Test6	MCT	3	3	3	3	5	13
	FB	2	2	2	2	5	7
Test7	MCT	6	6	6	3	3	6
	FB	4	4	4	2	2	4

MCT: Multiple Choice Tests

FB: Fill in the Blanks Questions

The last data collection instruments used in this study were Intrinsic Motivation Inventory (IMI) and informal interviews were carried out with the students throughout the study period.

3.5.2. Intrinsic Motivation Inventory

Intrinsic Motivation Inventory (IMI) was brought forth by Deci& Ryan in 1982 in order to assess the participants' personal experiences related to a target activity. It has been used in various studies to look into intrinsic motivation and self-regulation (e.g. Ryan, 1982; Ryan, Mims & Koestner, 1983; Plant & Ryan, 1985; Ryan, Connell, & Plant, 1990; Ryan, Koestner & Deci, 1991; Deci, Eghrari, Patrick, & Leone,1994).

IMI consists of six subscales: interest/enjoyment, perceived competence and choice, pressure/tension and value/usefulness levels. Most of the researchers choose the

subscales relevant to the issues that they are searching for and adopt the IMI. For example, Altınkamış (2009) used in his case study: interest-enjoyment, perceived choice, pressure/tension, perceived confidence and value/usefulness while Karagöl (2009) used four subscales in her study; interest-enjoyment, perceived competence, pressure/tension and perceived choice.

In our study, we used the interest- enjoyment, perceived competence, pressure-tension and value- usefulness subscales. As the participants of our study were the eleventh graders, they were proficient enough in English, so we applied the test in English.

Table…..below depicts the four subscales and their focuses in the IMI which was used in our case study: interest-enjoyment, perceived competence, pressure/tension and value/usefulness (see Appendix 1)

Table 9

Four Subscales in the Intrinsic Motivation Inventory

Section	Number of Statements	Subscale	Focus
Subscale 1	6	Interest/Enjoyment	Have the students found the activities interesting and enjoyable?
Subscale 2	6	Perceived Competence	Have the students perceived themselves competent about the activity?
Subscale 3	5	Pressure/Tension	Have the students felt pressured and tense during the activity?
Subscale 4	5	Value/Usefulness	Have the students found the activities valuable and useful?

3.5.3. Informal Interviews

According to Ekmekçi (1999), an interview is useful to gather personal opinions of the participants about the issue in concern and especially used in case studies. In our study, to be able to elicit students' opinions about the conceptual metaphor activities implemented to teach PVs, informal interviews were done with the students during the breaks and lunchtime in the teacher's office. This kind of interviews provided oppotunity to the researcher and the students to share their ideas and emotions about

the activities. Moreover, the students felt relaxed and as they were not being assessed to get high grades, they were more willing to share their feelings and opinions. In fact, while this study investigated the effectiveness of conceptual metaphors in PVs learning, informal interviews have become important in the data collection process because the idea of learning conceptual metaphors and PVs may affect the motivation of the students.

The interviews were unstructured in the form of informal conversations. The process was similar in manner to a friendly talk. As the number of the students was small, we had a chance to interview all the students each week. Each interview lasted ten minutes for each student. We asked the students eliciting questions on conceptual metaphor activities to get a better feel for their thoughts about the treatment. The researcher started interviewing the students from the first week of the study because we wanted to make the students feel relaxed about the study, raise their awareness of the activities and consider the implementation period as a natural process taking place in the classroom.

The kinds of questions asked in the interviews varied. We asked *probing questions*, such as "How did you feel when you learn PVs with conceptual metaphors?", "Why did you feel that way?", "In what ways do you think conceptual metaphors are effective?", "What new information did you learn?", *direct questions* like "Did you enjoy the activities?", "Were you nervous or relaxed while learning PVs with conceptual metaphors? ", "Do you think that the conceptual metaphor activities we have in classroom make learning PVs easier and more entertaining?", "Do you think it is an effective way to learn PVs?", *follow- up questions,* such as "When you tried to remember the meaning of a PV, you said the activities we had in classroom helped you, please make it clear, how did these activities help you", "Do you think conceptual metaphors will be useful for you in the future?".

After the interviews, the researcher wrote down the main points in order to keep the written record of what was talked about during the conversation.

3.6. Description of the Classroom Practices

In this section we will describe the conceptual metaphor activities implemented to teach the PVs which were included in the curriculum throughout ten weeks. To be able implement our case study, the spring term annual plans included in the curriculum

published by the Ministry of Education were used as a frame work. Conceptual metaphor activities were integrated to the elective English lessons of eleventh grade students. The activities implemented by the researcher were as follows:

First of all, the students were introduced with the concept of " Metaphor" one week before the implementation of the study. To be able to make the students aware of what metaphor is a quote from William Shakespeare was written on the board:

" All the world's a stage,

And all the men and women merely players,

They have their exits and their entrances".

The researcher asked the students to read the quote and tell about the main idea in the quote. After eliciting the answers, the researcher explained that a *metaphor* is a figure of speech that says that one thing is another different thing. In metaphor, we find the similarities between the two things.

The researcher wrote another example: "Her home was a prison".

In this sentence, the researcher explained that the home is likened to a prison. We understand that this home had some of the characteristics of a prison. The person living in this house did not feel free, she may not do whatever she wants. We may imagine that she could not leave her home and she was trapped inside.

After that explanation, the researcher asked the students to find the metaphors in the quote above. The answers were: "The world is a stage" and "the men and women are players".

Moreover, to make metaphors more comprehensible, the researcher asked the students to make up their own sentences with metaphors. Examples:

A language learner is……..

An English teacher is………

LYS-5 is………

After raising the students' awareness of the metaphors, we began to conduct our study in a ten-week period. The researcher prepared six activity sets for the most common particles *(UP-DOWN-OUT-IN-INTO-OFF*)   in English PVs, which are frequently found in the students' grammar and vocabulary books, as well. Each week

we focused on one particle and taught the PVs with this particle through conceptual metaphors. The particles and total number of PVs for each particle were as shown in Table 10:

Table 10

Particles and Number of PVs

Particles	Total number of PVs with each particle
UP	41
DOWN	20
OUT	37
IN	15
INTO	7
OFF	14

The particles were distributed into the weeks as follows:

UP: Week 1, 2 and 3

DOWN: Week 4 and 5

OUT: Week 6 and 7

IN: Week 8

INTO: Week 9

OFF: Week 10

As a matter of fact, the number of the phrasal verbs in the students' course and text books affected the distribution of the particles into the weeks, so we studied PVs with "UP" particle for three weeks, "DOWN"and "OUT" particles for two weeks, "IN, INTO and OFF" particles for one week.

Moreover, throughout the ten-week period, the researcher emphasized the manners in which the orientational and ontological metaphors (in CAPITAL LETTERS) of the adverbial particles contributed to the meanings of the whole verbs rather than simply translating them. It is important to note here that no dictionary was allowed during clas.

The explanation of the link between conceptual metaphors and the meanings of PVs was made by the researcher from the more concrete level to the more abstract one through some example sentences with PVs and conceptual metaphors related to the target particles reinforced by some drawings from Rudzka- Ostyn (2003). As a result, the students were taught the conceptul metaphors explicitly to be able to recognize the the metaphors underlying the abstract meanings because with the respect of our view that foreign language learners do not often see this path, we believed that explicit teaching and learning would be more effective for this study.

Besides, during the implementations, after the students all got the gist of this new method and found out the hidden link between the metaphors and particles, the teacher asked the students to make up new sentences using the PVs they had just learned. After eliciting the sentences, the handouts prepared for the target PVs and particles were delivered and students were required to apply the already learned conceptual metaphors to do the exercises. The PVs listed in the handouts were categorized according to the conceptual metaphors that represent them, from the concrete to the abstract level. The exercises were designed according to Bloom's Taxonomy for educational objectives in the cognitive domain. These exercises at first started from lower order skills. Later on they advanced into higher order skills. For example, if the first task served to check students' comprehension of the concepts by asking them to fill in the blanks with the most suitable verbs presented in the handout (Appendix 2), the second task was a bit more challenging and higher in order since participants were required to choose between the particles so that the sentences made sense (Appendix 2).

It means that the students had to analyze which particles went with which verbs accordingly. We used different kinds of handouts not to make the students bored with the same activities and reduce the random guessing of the answers. The last type of exercise was the highest one because the students did not only have to guess the meaning of PVs from contexts but also match the items in column A with their corresponding ones in column B (Appendix 4). This reflected the synthesizing and evaluating levels of Bloom's taxonomy where students developed and justified their own knowledge based on their own judgments and experience. One more demanding thing about this exercise was that in column B, there were extra items that students did not need to use. The aim of the worksheet was to locate if there was any improvement

in performance of the learners. Every week, the researcher instructed the students to pay attention to these conceptual metaphors in learning the PVs.

The sentences used in the handouts were derived from Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs (Collins COBUILD, 1989), Word Power: Phrasal Verbs and Compounds (Rudzka – Ostyn, 2003), and Phrasal Verbs Organizer with Mini Dictionary (Flower, 1998) .

Besides, after the treatment each week, the students were given the Intrinsic Motivation Scale and during the breaks and lunch times the teacher had informal interviews with the students about their experiences. Lastly, we have to make it clear that the researcher did not give a pretest to make sure that the students really did not know the PVs, because giving a pretest may have given them a hint to the meanings of PVs (Yasuda, 2010)

In brief, in the first three weeks of the study, as stated above, we studied PVs with '*UP*' particle. The researcher presented the meanings of PVs through cognitive approach based on the orientational metaphors embedded in the '*UP*' particle. For example, '*UP*' literally describes movement towards a higher position, but metaphorically it may increase in size, number or strength.

The details of the activities are presented below:

Table 11

Description of Activity Pack 1

Week 1- 2 and 3

Subject : Phrasal Verbs with "UP" particle
Time : 90 mins × 3 weeks (6 lessons in total)
Content Objectives : To identify the literal and figurative meanings of UP particle,
To build a relationship between conceptual metaphors and phrasal verbs with UP particle
Language Objectives : to practice phrasal verbs with UP particle
Target Vocabulary :
Week 1 : blow up, come up, go up, turn up, keep up, get up, throw up, put up, call up, fill up, give up, take up, sign up for
Week 2: brush up, cheer up, fix up, brighten up, dress up, face up to, grow up, keep up with, live up to, look up to, make up, speak up, catch up with, speed up
Week 3: bring up, come up with, draw up, make up, show up, turn up, clean up, dry up, break up, hold up, stand up for, think up, put up with, make up for,
Materials : Handouts, PVs Test 1
Procedure : As the students were familiar with the metaphors, the researcher started to give some examples with conceptual metaphors. After explaining the examples, the researcher told the students that they could make a connection between the conceptual metaphors and PVs and showed some drawings of the meanings of "UP" particle on the interactive board (Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003, p, 75-88). Some examples from the implemeantation:
1) UP: position at a high place or moving up to a higher one

(Table 11 Continue)
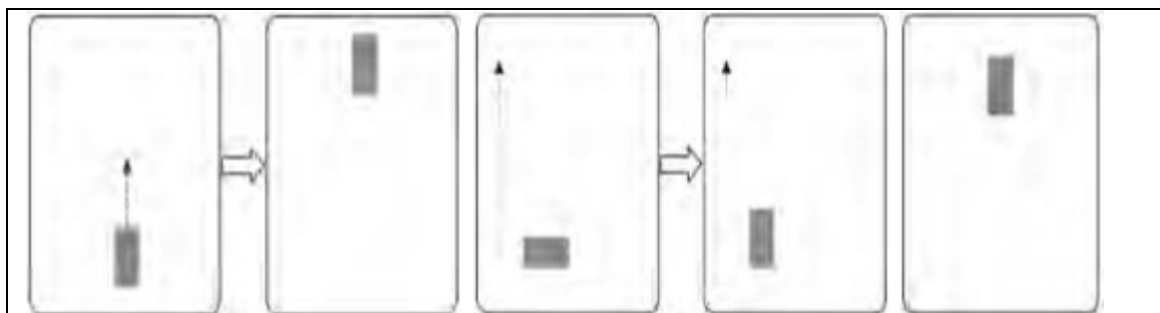
The teacher wrote the examples of the conceptual metaphor related with "UP" on the board.
Examples: 1) We cannot cross the river because the bridge has been <u>blown up.</u>
2) The sun <u>came up</u> late this morning.
The researcher explained that those phrasal verbs instantiate the orientational metaphors such as MORE or HIGHER IS UP, MORE VISIBLE IS UP (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980).
2) UP (to): aiming at or reaching a goal, an end, a limit
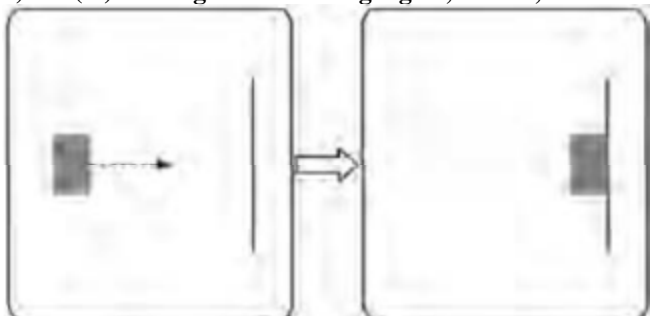
3) <u>Come up</u> and see us during holidays, will you? CLOSE/ APPROACH is UP
4) <u>Fill</u> the kettle <u>up</u> with water. COMPLETION is UP
5) Our daughter wants to <u>take up</u> music and maths. HANDLING is UP/ EMOTIONAL STATES-HABITS- LIKES are UP
In these examples, the researcher clarified that there was a hidden path in the meaning of the PVs and metaphors and explained the conceptual metaphors leading to the meanings.
3) UP: moving to a higher degree, value or measure
The researcher explained that we can talk about abstract domains in concrete terms so it is possible to categorize these abstract domains by assigning values to many of them spatially, along vertical lines: this is the case e.g. of *temperatures, social and professional ranks, attitudes, knowledge, opinions, feelings, possession, accessibility of things, degrees of intensity, etc.* (Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003, p, 80), Therefore (the researcher stated);

what increases or what is good, beautiful, cheerful, big, strong, solid, courageous/positive, is on top of this vertical dimension or **up** (or high);
what decreases or what is bad, ugly, sad, small, weak, fragile, discouraging
or negative is at the bottom of this vertical line of evaluation or **down** (or low).
The researcher wrote the examples of the conceptual metaphor related with Up on the board and clarified the conceptual metaphors:
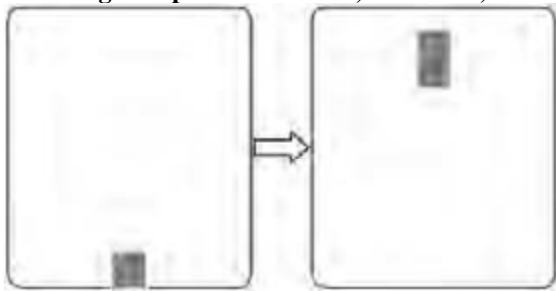 **Examples:** 1) I need to <u>brush up</u> my English. How should I do it?
HIGHER LEVEL of KNOWLEDGE is UP
2) The football team <u>cheered up</u> their fans with two goals. HAPPY is UP

(Table 11 Continue)

4. UP: higher up is more visible, accessible, known

The researcher stated that when the entity is at or comes to a higher level or location, it can be noticed more easily (Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003, p, 86). The researcher wrote the examples of the conceptual metaphor related with Up on the board:
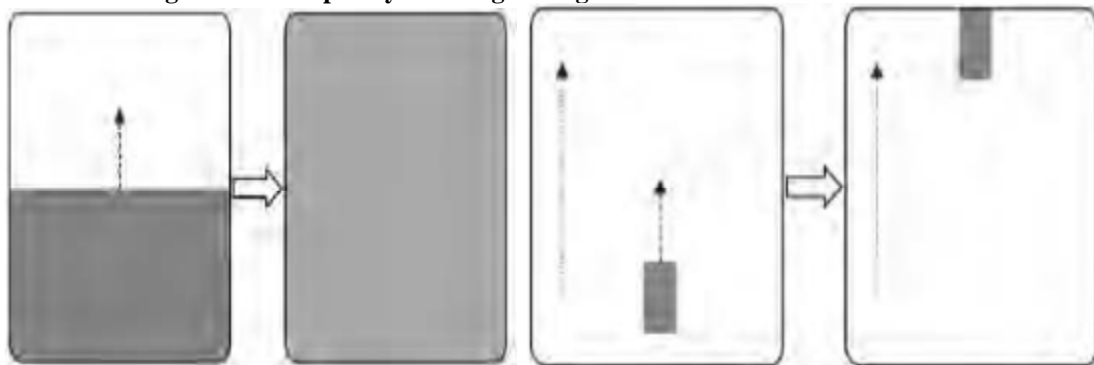
Examples: 1) The architect was asked to <u>draw up</u> plans for a new house.
ASSESSIBLE/KNOWN is UP

2) He was determined to <u>bring up</u> the issue at the meeting.
BECOME KNOWN is UP

5. UP: covering an area completely/reaching the highest limit

With this meaning of UP, the teacher gave the explanation that sometimes the 'level' at which any idea is considered uninteresting may be given up/ abandoned, "

After that explanation, the teacher wrote some examples on the board with their conceptual metaphor equivalents.

Example: 1) It has been so hot that the pond has <u>dried up.</u>
COMPLETION is UP

Moreover, the teacher explained that "UP" particle sometimes expresses arrival at the very top, the highest point along a vertical path, or at the boundary of the given location, whatever it may be. The notion of top or boundary can be metaphorically extended to any abstract limits. This being the case, one can use up to say that an activity has come to an end (has reached the time limit) or has affected the whole object (has reached the object's boundaries) (Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003, p, 88).

Examples: 1) After years of friendship, they <u>broke up.</u>
COMPLETION/ FINISH is UP

2) I have decided not to <u>put up with</u> this nonsense any longer.
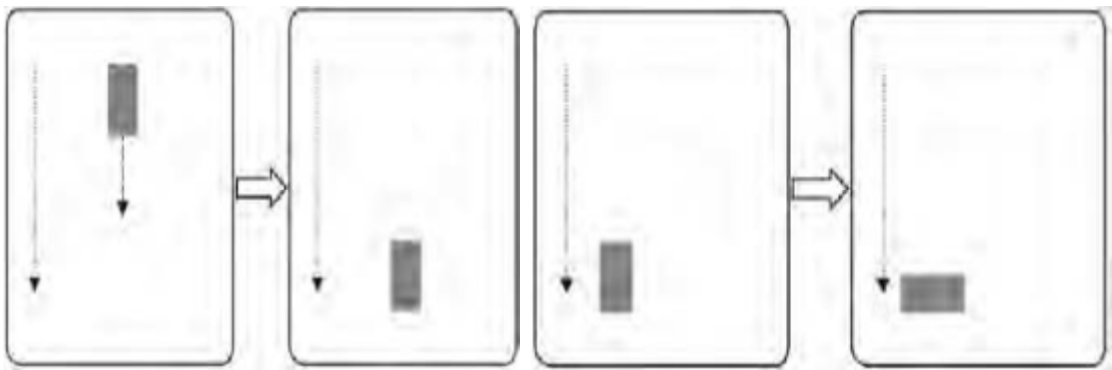REACHING THE LIMIT is UP

At the end of the third week, after finishing the treatment of PVs with '*UP*' particle, we applied PVs Test 1 in order to assess the effectiveness of conceptual metaphors in teaching and learning PVs.

Besides, *'DOWN'* particle was the focus of the forth and fifth weeks. The researcher emphasized that *'DOWN'* literally describes movement towards a lower position, but metaphorically it may describe decreases in size, number or strenght, etc. The examples used were reinforced with some drawings related to the meaning of the particle.

Table 12

Description of Activity Pack 2

Week 4 and 5
Subject : Phrasal Verbs with DOWN
Time : 90 mins × 2 Weeks (4 lessons in total)
Content Objectives : To identify the literal and figurative meanings of DOWN particle,
To build a relationship between conceptual metaphors and phrasal verbs with DOWN particle
Language Objectives : to practice phrasal verbs with DOWN particle
Target Vocabulary :
Week 4: go down, put down, turn down, break down, bring down, calm down, cut down, let down, look down on, slow down, settle down
Week 5: pull down, burn down, knock down, tear down, copy down, jot down, take down, put down, swallow down
Materials : Handouts, PVs Test 2
Procedure : The researcher showed some drawings of the meanings of DOWN particle on the interactive (Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003, p, 104). The first one is the literal meaning of DOWN, it is just for reminding the students that down indicates an object may be moved from a higher place to a lower place, from vertical to horizontal.
1) DOWN: movement from a higher to a lower place
The researcher said that the most common examples of this meaning are "SIT DOWN, FELL DOWN, LIE DOWN". These phrasal verbs keep their own meanings and show that an object is displayed from the top to the bottom.
The researcher told the students that their focus would be on the second meaning of *DOWN* that day to be able to build the relationship between conceptual metaphors and *DOWN* particle.

(Table 12 Continue)

2) DOWN: decrease in intensity, quality, quantity, size, degree, value, activity, status, strength
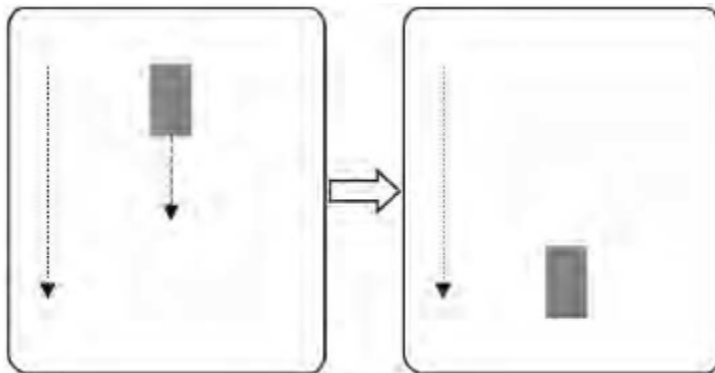
 (Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003, p, 107)

The researcher said that the changes in space from a higher to a lower location could be associated with differences in *volume, temperature, weight, prices,emotions, one's sense of importance or respectability, social relations, power* and many other abstract domains. These metaphorical associations usually express *decrease in intensity and value.* (Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003, p, 107)

After that explanation, The researcher wrote some examples on the board with conceptual metaphors.
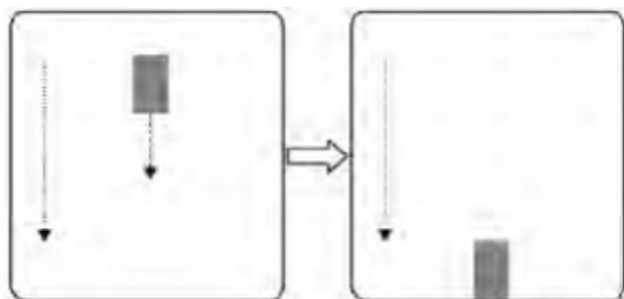
Examples: 1) Why did the principal put me down in front of the other students?

LOWERING POSITION/ DECREASE IN VALUE is DOWN

2) Turn down the TV a bit, please.

LOWERING VOLUME/ DECREASE IN INTENSITY is DOWN

3) DOWN: reach a goal, completion, extreme limit down the scale

 (Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003, p, 111).

The researcher reminded the students that several verbs + up conveyed the meaning of intensity, completeness of action, such as reaching the goal or the highest limit. According to Rudzka-Ostyn (2003, p, 112) many verbs with down also stress completion in the same way, but this time it is to the lowest limit on the scale of *degree, value, measure,* etc.

Examples: 1) Several houses and shops burned down in the devastating fire.

COMPLETION TO THE LOWEST LEVEL is DOWN

2) Before constructing a new building, the old one must be pulled down.

COMPLETION TO THE LOWEST LEVEL is DOWN

After these examples and explanations related to the path between "DOWN" and conceptual metaphors, the researcher went on with the other meanings:

(Table 12 Continue)

4) DOWN: movements of eating or writing
The researcher explained that as the downward movement accompanies eating and writing actions, many of the verbs expressing these activities contain the particle down.
Examples: 1) The clerk <u>wrote down</u> everything the witness said.
WRITING is DOWN
2) This bitter medicine is hard to <u>swallow down.</u>
EATING is DOWN

At the end of the fifth week, the students took PVs Test 2 with '*UP and DOWN*' particles.

In the sixth and seventh weeks we focused on '*OUT*' particle. Our main concern was container metaphors found in the meanings of '*OUT*' particle.

Table 13

Description of Activity Pack 3

| |
|---|
| **Week 6 and 7** |
| **Subject :** Phrasal Verbs with OUT |
| **Time :** 90 mins × 2 Weeks (4 lessons in total) |
| **Content Objectives :** To identify the literal and figurative meanings of OUT particle, To build a relationship between conceptual metaphors and phrasal verbs with OUT particle |
| **Language Objectives :** to practice phrasal verbs with OUT particle |
| **Target Vocabulary :** |
| **Week 6:** cut out, rush out, look out, squeeze out, turn out, lock out, grow out of, keep out, wipe out, check out, ask out- invite out, sort out, cross out, set out, pick out, figure out |
| **Week 7:** be out of, pull out- take out, hand out- give out, think out, pour out, cry out, run out of, knock out, go out, drop out of, put out, die out, come out, make out, point out, break out, burst out, wear out |
| **Materials :** Handouts, PVs Test 3 |
| **Procedure :** The researcher explained that OUT particle spatially includes in its meaning the concept of a container and an object which moves *out of* the container. |
| The container/surface/landmark may be whatever surrounds a given entity/ trajector that moves *out of* it. It may be an enclosure, a building, a room, a car, a cup, a pot, a nest, a hole, a shell, a tunnel, an outer cover, a field or any other enclosed area; |
| – a substance (liquid or solid), e.g. water, wood, rock or earth; |
| – a set or group of objects, animals or people; |
| – our body, mind (Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003, p, 14). The researcher gave some examples with different containers: |
| **Examples:** 1) Teenagers like to <u>cut out</u> magazine articles about their idols. |
| LEAVING A CONTAINER is OUT |

(Table 13 Continue)

The researcher emphasized that in this example 'articles' are containers and when we cut them, we take the entity- piece- out of it.

2) When the alarm rang, all the people rushed out of the building.

LEAVING A CONTAINER is OUT

In the other examples given for this conceptual metaphor, the researcher asked the students to find the containers hidden in the meanings.

**2) OUT: eat or inviting to eat away from home**
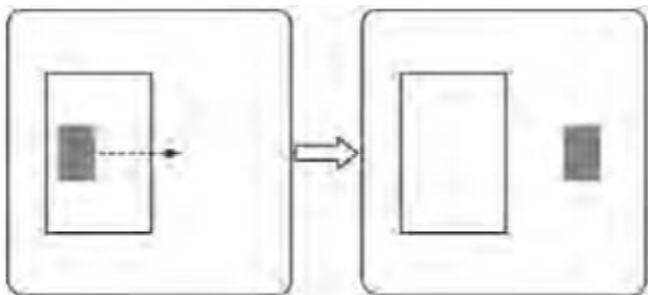
The researcher explained that OUT sometimes may be related to personal or social treatment as well:

Examples: 1) I would like to ask you out to lunch.

invite you out (to a meal).

To emphasize the meaning, the researcher stated that our home, the groups we are members of, our professional jobs are viewed as containers in(side) which we spend a lot of time. It is therefore normal that we use *out* once we move *out of* them (Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003, p, 19)

3) OUT: sets, groups are containers
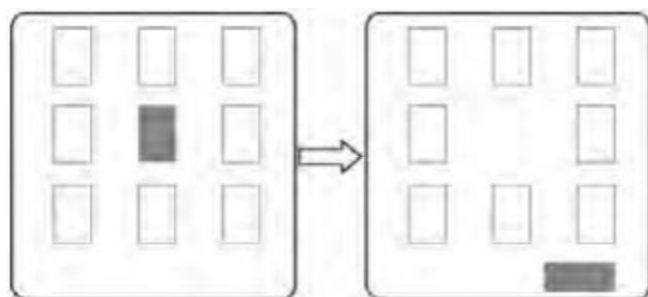
 (Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003, p, 19)

The researcher clarified that sets or groups (of objects, people) are viewed as containers inside which there are members or elements. In some cases members can be rearranged or given a new position, in others the member does not remain inside the set or group and it moves out (of it) (Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003, p, 20)

Examples:

1)Begin to sort out the problems you can do something about now.

CLASSIFIYING is OUT

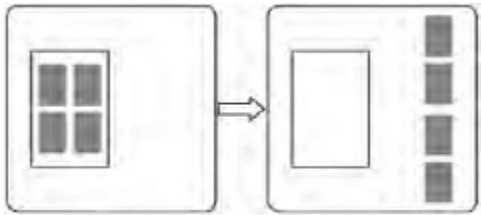2) She picked out the most expensive dress in the shop.
CLASSIFIYING is OUT

In the seventh week, the teacher explained that in Western cultures, a person's body or his mind can be seen as a container, and one's *feelings, thoughts, ideas* as entities fill the container. Expressing (verbally) one's feelings is very much like taking *money out of one's pocket.* In both cases, the moving object which

(Table 13 Continue)

is inside the container (one's pockets, one's mind) moves out of it and can therefore be linked to one and the same image (Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003, p, 21).

4) OUT: bodies, minds, mouths are viewed as containers

Examples: 1) He <u>was out of</u> his mind and behaved like a madman.

LEAVING A CONTAINER (MIND) is OUT

2) The dentist suggested <u>pulling out / taking out</u> the decayed tooth.

LEAVING A CONTAINER (MOUTH) is OUT

The STATE of	with OUT
existence	ceases to exist
being conscious	ceases to be conscious
being known	ceases to be known
being remembered	ceases to be remembered
being visible	ceases to be visible
being used	ceases to be used
being in one's possession	ceases to be possession
being possible	ceases to be possible
	(Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003, p, 22)

5) OUT: states/situations are containers

For this conceptual metaphor, the researcher showed the following states:

In this part, the teacher explained the general principle related with states and situations.

Examples: 1) As our friends <u>ran out of</u> time and money, they couldnt visit London.

CEASING TO POSSESS is OUT

2) In the third round, the heavyweight champion was <u>knocked out.</u>

UNCONCIOUSNESS is OUT

5) OUT: non-existence, ignorance, invisibility also function as containers

Moreover, the researcher stated that the STATE of non-existence, ignorance, invisibility and silence

With OUT; comes into existence, becomes known, becomes visible and becomes to be heard, as well. If something is invisible at first, it becomes visible later.

Examples: 1) The sun <u>came out</u> vey late this morning.

BECOMING VISIBLE is OUT

2) The book <u>came out</u> the day before yesterday.

COMING INTO EXISTENCE is OUT

At the end of the seventh week, the students took PVs Test 3 with '*UP, DOWN and OUT*' particles.

In the eighth week we focused on '*IN*' particle. Our main concern was container metaphors found in the meanings of '*IN*' particle.
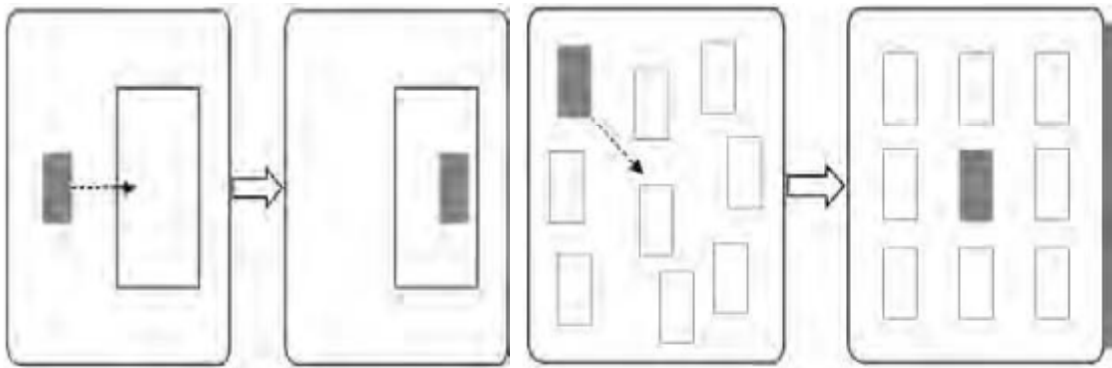
Table 14

Description of Activity Pack 4

Week 8

Subject : Phrasal Verbs with IN
Time : 90 mins (2 lessons in total)
Content Objectives : To identify the literal and figurative meanings of IN particle,
To build a relationship between conceptual metaphors and phrasal verbs with IN particle
Language Objectives : to practice phrasal verbs with IN particle
Target Vocabulary : leak in, pack in, pop in, turn in, pull in, rush in, break in, take in, come in, drop in, check in, fill in, fall in, cut in on, put in
Materials : handouts, Test 4
Procedure : In this week, the researcher explained that when we use IN particle, the container/surface can be a garden, a building, a room, a car, a box, a pot, a cup, a purse, a lake, ground, rock, a field, a town or a country, one part of one's body, etc. The entity either moves *into* the container or is already *inside* it. Also the researcher emphasized that we do not use the names of the containers with IN particle, because the meaning is almost always clear from the context. (Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003). In this week again we focused on container metaphors with "IN" particle.
1) IN: being inside or entering a container
Examples: 1) The rain was <u>leaking in</u> through a crack in the roof.
ENTERING is IN
2) It's already midnight, it's high time to <u>turn in.</u> BEING INSIDE is IN
2) **IN: psychological, physical states viewed as containers**
The researcher clarified that any *state, knowledge, condition, attitude or activity* – whether physical, emotional, mental or intellectual – which affects a given object – is seen as a container. Therefore, we can view containers as the states of *being old,* of *loving, admiring, doubting, thinking, knowing or being healthy,* which explains why IN particle can be used. (Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003, p. 58)
Examples: 1) He is very childhish, so it is easy to <u>take</u> him <u>in.</u>
EMOTIONAL/MENTAL STATES are IN
2) Did you know Mary <u>fell in</u> love with John?
EMOTIONAL/MENTAL STATES are IN
Moreover, the researcher explained that when we focus on language or the flow of speech, it can viewed as a container and entering into this 'container' explains the use of IN.
Examples: 1) "Wait a minute" he <u>cut in</u> on the speaker, "I disagree with you."
INSIDE THE SPEECH is IN
 2) I wanted to <u>put in</u> a few words, I couldnt.
INSIDE THE SPEECH is IN

At the end of the eighth week, the students took PVs Test 4 with '*UP, DOWN, OUT* and *IN*' particles. In the ninth week we focused on '*INTO*' particle.

Table 15

Description of Activity Pack 5

Week 9

Subject : Phrasal Verbs with INTO

Time : 90 mins (2 lessons in total)

Content Objectives : To identify the literal and figurative meanings of INTO particle,

To build a relationship between conceptual metaphors and phrasal verbs with INTO particle

Language Objectives : to practice phrasal verbs with INTO particle

Target Vocabulary : break into, bump into, get into, turn into, burst into, convert into, look into,

Materials : handouts, Test 5

Procedure : In this week, there were only 7 phrasal verbs to cover, because the researcher chose only the most common ones seen in their course and text books.

1) INTO: motion into a container

The researcher showed the drawings above on the smartboard and gave the examples with their conceptual metaphors. The researcher reminded the students that as INTO is only a preposition, the container is *always* mentioned explicitly whereas with IN (which functions as an adverb or as a preposition) the container/surface is frequently not mentioned as it is generally known from the context allowing it to be omitted. Also, Sometimes the use of INTO implies that the entity or moving object hits another. (Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003, p. 69)

Examples: 1) I cant get into this dress any more; it's too small.

PHYSICAL MOTION is INTO

2) Thives broke into my office yesterday. PHYSICAL MOTION is INTO

3) The drunk man bumped into the lamppost and broke his nose.

PHYSICAL MOTION is INTO

2) INTO: change is motion from one state into another

In this part, the researcher explained that states (habits, emotions, etc.) are viewed as containers. When one passes from one state *into* the other, one uses the motion preposition INTO. (Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003, p. 70)

Examples: 1) When she heard the news, she burst into tears.   CHANGE IN EMOTIONS is INTO

2) When the temperature drops, this gas turns into a solid.   STATE CHANGING is INTO

3) In England, you can convert euros into pounds.   STATE CHANGING is INTO

4) I bumped into my old friend at the shopping centre last weekend.

PRESENCE CHANGING is INTO- ENTERING INTO THE PRESENCE

At the end of the ninth week, the students took PVs Test 5 with "*'UP, DOWN, OUT, IN and INTO'* particles.

In the last week of the study we focused on *'OFF'* particle.

Table 16

Description of Activity Pack 6

Week 10

Subject : Phrasal Verbs with OFF

Time : 90 mins (2 lessons in total)

Content Objectives : To identify the literal and figurative meanings of OFF particle,

To build a relationship between conceptual metaphors and phrasal verbs with OFF particle

Language Objectives : to practice phrasal verbs with OFF particle

Target Vocabulary : get off, take off, call off, pay off, keep off, see off, break off, see off, cut off, turn off, lay off, wear off, doze off, give off

Materials : Handouts, Test 6

Procedure : The researcher explained that OFF has the meaning of "loss of contact" with a surface in the following ways:

– an object is separated from its place;

– two objects which touch each other become separated; or,

– a part of an object is removed or moves away from the whole (Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003, p. 121).

1) OFF: loss of spatial contact or spatial separation
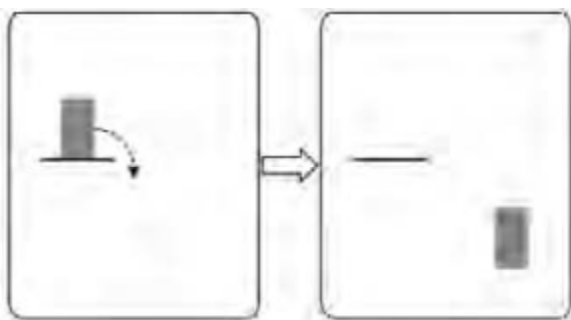
 In this meaning, due to the law of gravity loss of

physical contact or separation generally results in a downward motion (Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003, p. 122).

Examples: 1) He had to get off the bus because of the smell inside.

DEPARTURE is OFF

2) It's high time we set off, we still have a long way to go.

DEPARTURE is OFF

3) The whole family went to the airport to see her off.

SEPARATION/DEPARTURE is OFF

2)OFF: separation as interruption of flow/supply

(Table 16 Continue)

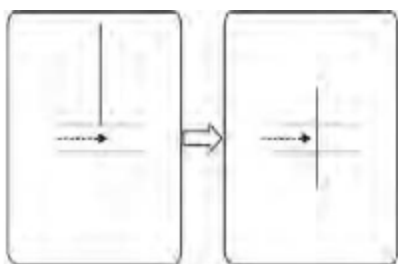The researcher explained that as Rudzka-Ostyn (2003, p. 126) stated with certain verbs, OFF can also express *interruption of the flow/supply of e.g. water, gas or electricity* (by turning a tap, a switch or other devices). In this case, the amount of water, gas, etc. that potentially can be provided is viewed as separated from the amount that has already been supplied. Furthermore, other parts of reality such as *relations, traffic, cables, speech* can also be viewed as consisting of a flow and as a result OFF can be used to indicate an interruption of it.

Examples: 1) The company intends to <u>cut off</u> our electricity tomorrow.

INTERRUPTION is OFF

2) Please <u>turn off</u> the radio/ the TV/ the lights/ the water.

INTERRUPTION is OFF

3) Maria <u>broke off</u> her relations with her friends after her marriage.

INTERRUPTION is OFF

3)OFF: separation due to motion away from its former state, condition or point of reference

Examples: 1) The factory will <u>lay off</u> about one third of its workers.

SEPARATION is OFF

2) Tonight's meeting has been <u>called off/ put off.</u>

STOPPING/CANCELLING is OFF

3.7. Procedure

The implemention of our study carried out in ten weeks. According to the curriculum of Ministry of National Education of Turkey, the participants had four compulsory and six elective hours of English classes for a week. We spent two class hours every week to teach PVs through conceptual metaphor activities. The examples used in this study were chosen according to the students' linguistic competence. With regards to the characteristics of the students, the target PVs were repeated in different sentences throughout the implementation time. We decided on the number of the PVs according to the curriculum proposed by the Ministry of National Education. In fact, the PVs were chosen considering their importance for the Undergraduate Placement Examination 5 (LYS-5).The sentences were commonly used in their course and text books. Also these selections were made on the purpose of making the PVs more comprehensible and useful for the students. In order to practice and reinforce the target PVs, the researcher conducted activities, such as making up new sentences, asking questions with the new PVs, matching pictures with the PVs to reinforce the conceptual metaphors, matching PVs with their meanings, and fill in the blanks exercises. Also,

with the aim of collecting our data, during the ten weeks period, the students were asked to fill in the Intrinsic Motivation Inventory (IMI) after each activity. The aim was to elicit the students' own ideas about their interest /enjoyment, perceived competence and effort, and the value/usefulness of each activity. With this aim, we had informal interviews during the breaks each week, as well.

Moreover, throughout our case study, the students were given PVs tests in third, fifth, seventh, eighth, ninth, tenth and twelfth weeks to assess whether using conceptual metaphors help learn and recall PVs over a longer period of time. To be able to assess the retention rates, we started to include the PVs that were in the previous tests from PVs Test 2 implemented in fifth week. Thus, the PVs Test 2 involved 25 PVs from the previous test; the PVs Test 3 involved 30 PVs from the PVs Test 1 and Test 2; the PVs Test 4 involved 35 PVs from the PVs Test 1, Test 2 and Test 3; the PVs Test 5 involved 40 PVs from the PVs Test 1, Test 2, Test 3 and Test 4; the PVs Test 6 involved 30 PVs from the PVs Test 1, Test 2, Test 3, Test 4 and Test 5 and finally the PVs Test 7 involved 50 of the PVs covered in ten weeks period and it was administered in twelfth week for assessing the retention rates of the students.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

4. 1. Introduction

In this study we intended to find out if using conceptual metaphors is helpful in teaching and learning phrasal verbs (PVs). The other concern of this study was to examine the effects of conceptual metaphors on PVs retention in longer period of time. Last, students' level of motivation, interest, enjoyment and pleasure towards the teaching and learning of PVs was explored. More specifically, the following three questions (see Chapter I, part 1. 5) were investigated:

1- Does using conceptual metaphors help the 11th grade learners acquire the meanings of phrasal verbs?
2- Does using conceptual metaphors enhance the retention of phrasal verbs over longer periods of time?
3- Does learning phrasal verbs through conceptual metaphors contribute to the students' level of motivation, interest, enjoyment, pleasure towards the teaching and learning phrasal verbs process through conceptual metaphors?

During the ten-week period of the experimental teaching of PVs with the target particles (*UP-DOWN-OUT-IN-INTO-OFF*) through conceptual metaphors, students were given seven PVs tests at previously planned time intervals. Also, the students were asked for their subjective experiences about the conceptual metaphor activities implemented during the study through Intrinsic Motivation Inventory (IMI) every week. In order to obtain detailed information about students' opinions concerning the use of conceptual metaphor activities, informal interviews were utilized. Both descriptive statistics analysis procedures and a repeated measures ANOVA were used to analyze the data gathered via the PVs tests and the IMI (see Appendices 5-6). The data was analyzed using the SPSS.19 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). For examining the data collected through the informal interviews, content analysis was conducted.

In the following parts, we are going to present the findings of our study and discuss the these finding on the basis of our research questions.

4.2. Phrasal Verbs Tests Findings

Our first research question was *whether using conceptual metaphors help enhance the 11th grade learners' acquiring of meanings of phrasal verbs* and the second research question was *whether using conceptual metaphors enhance the retention of phrasal verbs over longer periods of time.*

To achieve the answers of these two questions, we prepared PVs tests including *multiple choice* and *fill in the blanks type of questions.* The data obtained from these tests revealed the success of participants, regarding their learning and retention of the PVs focused in this study. As it was explained in chapter III, PVs tests were applied seven times at the third, fifth, seventh, eighth, ninth, tenth weeks and finally the last one was applied at the twelfth week, two weeks after the study. The implementation time of the tests was in accordance with the treatment period of each particle. After finishing teaching PVs with each particle, we applied a PVs test.

The details of the PVs tests, reported in Table 17, describe that the timing of the testing depended totally on the time we finished studying the new particle.

Table 17

Timing Of the PVs Tests

Particles	Teaching and Learning Period	Implementation time of PVs tests with Particles
UP	3-week	3rd week- Test 1 (UP)
DOWN	2-week	5th week- Test 2 (UP-DOWN)
OUT	2-week	7th week- Test 3 (UP-DOWN-OUT)
IN	1-week	8th week- Test 4 (UP-DOWN-OUT-IN)
INTO	1-week	9th week- Test 5 (UP-DOWN-OUT-IN-INTO)
OFF	1-week	10th week- Test 6 (UP-DOWN-OUT-IN-INTO-OFF)
		12th week- Test 7 (UP-DOWN-OUT-IN-INTO-
2 WEEKS AFTER THE STUDY		OFF)

As can be seen from the Table 17 above, we spent three weeks teaching PVs with "*UP*" particle because PVs with this particle were the most common ones in students' books. We applied Test 1 at the end of the third week of the study to evaluate the students' knowledge related to the meanings of the already acquired PVs. The number of the PVs with "*DOWN*" and "*OUT*" particles was nearly equal, so we spent two weeks for each particle. The application time of PVs Test 2 and 3 was arranged with respect to the treatment of each particle (Test 2- week 5, Test 3- week 7). Considering the PVs with "*IN, INTO* and *OFF*" particles, we spent one week for each particle. PVs with these particles were small in number in students' books. We applied Test 4 (8th week), Test 5 (9th week) and Test 6 (10th week) successively on time in regards to each particle.

The last PVs Test 7 was applied two weeks after the study (twelfth week) with the aim of finding out if using conceptual metaphors enhance the retention of PVs over longer periods of time.

Moreover, as mentioned beforehand, the content of the tests starting from the second one, included PVs from previous weeks. In each test, the students were asked for newly acquired PVs as well as the ones covered in previous weeks.

All the tests had the same number of questions (# 50). Each correct answer was scored by two points. The scores of the participants were calculated according to the amount of correct choices that were provided to the multiple choice and fill in the blanks type of questions. After calculating the number of correct answers, each student was given a total score between 0 and 100. Descriptive analysis procedures and a repeated measures ANOVA were used to analyze the data gathered via these tests.

4.2.1. Descriptive Statistics of PVs tests

Table 18 below displays the results of the descriptive statistics for the scores.

Table 18

Descriptive Statistics of PVs tests

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
test1 (week 3)*	12	60,0000	18,72286	28,00	86,00
test2 (week 5)**	12	57,8333	14,35798	28,00	78,00
test3 (week 7)	12	72,6667	17,10573	44,00	94,00
test4 (week 8)	12	69,0000	15,43314	38,00	90,00
test5 (week 9)	12	70,3333	14,03459	44,00	94,00
test6 (week 10)***	12	68,1667	17,67295	36,00	96,00
test7 (week 12)	12	69,5000	18,25327	36,00	98,00

(*: Test 1 is significantly different from Test 4 and Test 5)

(**: Test 2 significantly different from Test 3, Test 4, Test 5, Test 6 and Test 7)

(***: Test 6 is significantly different from Test 7)

As shown in Table 18 the mean scores of the tests had a changing nature during the teaching and learning process. According to the Table…. above, Test 1, with only "*UP*" particle applied at the third week, had a mean score of 60, 00 while Test 2, with "*UP-DOWN*" particles applied at the fifth week, had a mean score of 57,83. When it comes to Test 3, with "*UP-DOWN-OUT*" particles, applied at the seventh week, we observed an increase with a mean score of 72,66. With regards to Test 4, with "*UP-DOWN-OUT-IN*" particles applied at the eight week, it had a mean score of 69, 00 while Test 5, with "*UP-DOWN-OUT-IN-INTO*" particles, applied at ninth week, had a mean score of 70, 33 and Test 6, with all the particles covered during the treatment (*UP-DOWN-OUT-IN-INTO-OFF*) applied at the tenth week, had a mean score of 68, 16. Lastly, Test 7, with all the particles and applied two weeks after the study, had a mean score of 69, 50.

Table 18 above displayed that there are differences among the mean scores of the tests. We observed a decrease between the mean scores of Test 1 and Test 2, statistically insignificant, rising from the fact that it was the first time for the students to encounter a test with more than one particle (*UP-DOWN*). Yet in Test 3 the mean score increased again, indicating that the students gained insights of the conceptual metaphors hidden in the meanings of the PVs taught during seven weeks of the study. However, in Test 4 there was a decrease in the mean score. In fact, the time we applied Test 4 was

midterm exam week. As the students had got their exams, they may not have paid attention to the conceptual metaphor activities carefully. They may feel pressured because of the exams that week. After the exam week, we noticed another increase in the mean score of Test 5 (week nine), proving our assumption that external factors, such as exams, affected the success of the students in the tests. We saw a decrease between Test 5 and Test 6 as well. The mean score of Test 6 is lower because it was final exam week, so the students may feel nervous and not focus on the implementation. This result was parallel with the mean score of Test 4. Due to the exams in those weeks, the students were stressed and had some difficulties in achieving the target PVs. Lastly, the increase in the mean score of Test 7 in comparison with Test 6, a statistically significant one, indicates that the students still had the knowledge of the meanings of PVs even after two weeks (Week twelfth).

Furthermore, we conducted a repeated measures ANOVA for the analysis of the scores in order to determine whether there were statistically significant differences in implementing conceptual metaphors to teach PVs in a ten- week period.

4.2.2. Repeated Measures ANOVA Findings

Based on the data we got from the PVs tests via a repeated measures ANOVA, we found out that there were no outliers and the data was normally distributed for each group, as assessed by boxplot and Shapiro-Wilk test (p> .05), respectively. The assumption of sphericity was violated, as assessed by Mauchly's Test of Sphericity, $x^2_{(2)}$ = 63.258, p= .0005. Therefore, a Greenhouse-Geisser correction was applied (ε = 0.489). Using conceptual metaphors to teach PVs elicited statistically significant changes in learning PVS over time, F (2.933, 32.258) =11.265, p<.0005, partial η^2= 0.506 (See Appendix 5)

Also, Post hoc analysis with a Bonferroni adjustment provided additional data for our study (see Appendix 6). It revealed that the mean score of Test 1 was only significantly different from the mean scores of Test 4 and 5. However, the mean score of Test 2 was significantly different from all the other scores. Referring to our first research question

 - *whether using conceptual metaphors help enhance the 11th grade learners' acquiring meanings of phrasal verbs*- it can be noted that the significant differences between these tests (Test1 and Test 4-5; Test 2 and Test 3-4-5-6-7) pointed out that

conceptual metaphors helped the 11th grade learners to enhance acquiring the meanings of PVs.

Moreover, the mean scores of Test 6 were significantly different from the scores of Test 7. Regarding our second research question- *whether using conceptual metaphors enhance the retention of phrasal verbs over longer periods of time-* the conclusion we might draw from this meaningful and significant difference is that the students did well at the last test even after two weeks of the treatment. This data supports the view that using conceptual metaphors may reinforce the retention of PVs over longer periods of time.
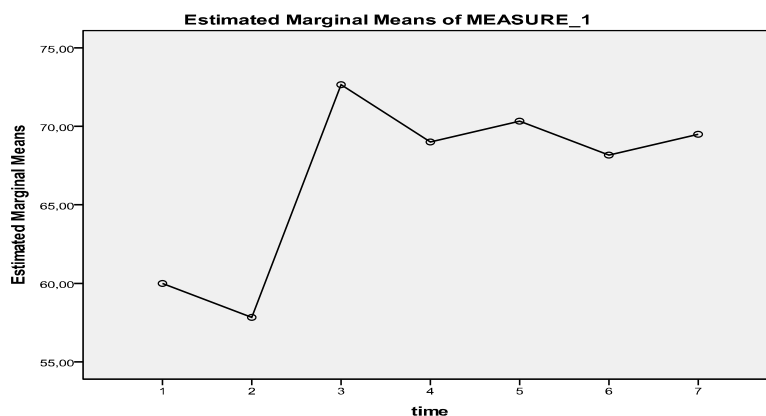

Figure 3: Marginal Mean Scores Of PVs Tests

All in all, Figure 3 above clearly depicts that the the implementation has contributed to the students' success in learning and retrieving of the target PVs despite the changeable nature of mean scores of the PVs tests throughout the treatment.

4.3. The Results of Intrinsic Motivation Inventory

Our last research question was *whether learning phrasal verbs through conceptual metaphors contribute to the students' level of motivation, interest, enjoyment, pleasure towards the teaching and learning phrasal verbs process through conceptual metaphors.* In order to answer this question we used Intrinsic Motivation Inventory (IMI). This Inventory, as explained in Chapter III, is a multi-dimensional measurement which assesses participants' individual experiences related to the target activities. To reveal how the students perceive the classroom activities regarding conceptual metaphors, this inventory was administered. A 22-item version of the inventory was used with four subscales: interest/enjoyment, perceived competence, pressure/tension and

value/usefulness. The interest/enjoyment subscale is considered the self-report measure of intrinsic motivation; perceived competence is supposed to be positive predictor of both self-report and behavioral measures of intrinsic motivation. The pressure/tension subscale is assumed to be a negative predictor of intrinsic motivation while the value/ usefulness subscale is considered to be positive predictor.

There were 17 positively-keyed items and 5 negatively-keyed items in the IMI used in this study. Positively-keyed items represent a relatively high level of the being measured feature, if there is an agreement with the item. Whereas negatively-keyed items express a relatively low level of the being measured feature if there is an agreement with the item. If an inventory includes positively-keyed and negatively-keyed items, the negatively-keyed items must be "reverse-scored"before calculating the participants' total scores. Therefore, the items with the number of 3,4, 12, 13 and 15 (See Appendix 1) were reversed. In scoring the IMI we gave the score of 3 to the option 'I *agree*'; the score of 2 to the option '*I partly agree'*, and the score of 1 to the option 'I *disagree*. In scoring the reversed items, we subtracted the scoring point of the item response from 4, and the result became the new scoring point but the point 2 remained unchanged. Later, the total scores were computed by averaging all the items' scores.

For each IMI the students could get a maximum score of 66. The total scores were calculated and the mean scores of each week were found. The descriptive statistics presented in Table 19 below demonstrates the mean scores of the IMI applied after each activity.

Table 19

Descriptive statistics of IMI

	N	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Std. Deviation
IMI1	12	58,4167	40,00	66,00	7,02539
IMI2	12	58,2500	41,00	65,00	6,56610
IMI3	12	58,6667	41,00	66,00	6,67878
IMI4	12	58,9167	42,00	66,00	6,55686
IMI5	12	58,7500	42,00	65,00	6,68954
IMI6	12	59,0833	43,00	66,00	6,47314
IMI7	12	59,2500	42,00	66,00	6,85068
IMI8	12	59,3333	42,00	66,00	6,77339
IMI9	12	59,1667	42,00	66,00	7,05605
IMI10	12	59,1667	42,00	66,00	7,00433

The analysis of the Table 19 above revealed that the mean scores of the IMI started with a high level of average from the first activity with 58,41 out of 66 mean score and continued to increase throughout the study. Based on this data, it appears that the students had positive attitudes towards the process of teaching and learning PVs through conceptual metaphors. Therefore, it is possible to say that the treatment was found to be interesting, enjoyable, valuable and useful by the students. Moreover, the students felt themselves competent while doing the classroom activities during the treatment.

Figure 4 below also illustrates the trend of IMI scores throughout the study.
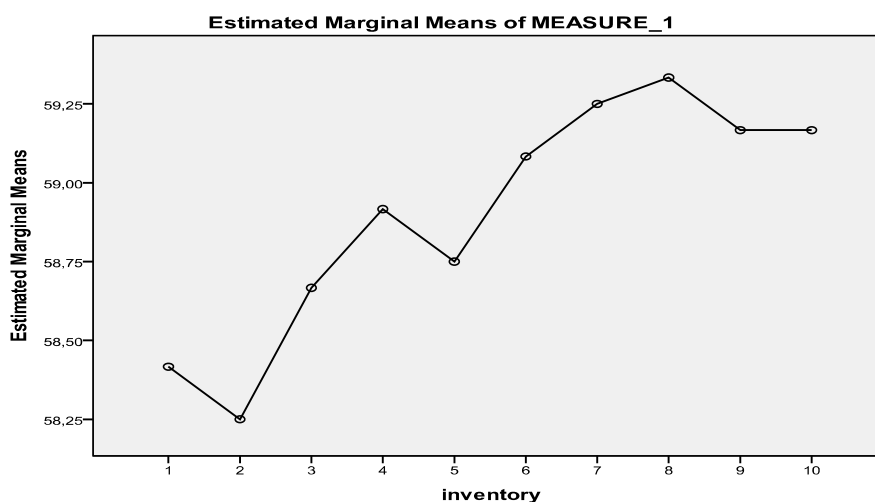

Figure 4 : Mean scores of IMI

The slight decrease we observed in Table 19 and Figure 4 above is, in fact, in accordance with PVs Tests scores. As mentinoned in the analysis of PVs tests, external factors, such as exams, had a negative effect on the students' scores in PVs tests and such factors might cause a slight decrease in the students' instrinsic motivation, as well.

Generally speaking, according to the results of the IMI, using conceptual metaphors to learn PVs contributed to students' level of motivation, interest, enjoyment and pleasure.

4.4. The Results of the Informal Interviews

Another source of data, to answer the last research question, *whether learning phrasal verbs through the conceptual metaphors contribute to students' level of motivation, interest, enjoyment, pleasure towards the teaching and learning phrasal verbs process through conceptual metaphors,* were informal interviews**.**

The researcher conducted these unstructured interviews in a conversational style that provided valuable data to find out the contribution of learning PVs through conceptual metaphors to students' level of motivation, interest, enjoyment, pleasure towards the teaching and learning phrasal verbs process through conceptual metaphors. The interviews were carried out in the teacher's office as friendly talks. They were sometimes done in pairs and sometimes individually. Each interview section lasted approximately ten minutes. The content of the interviews mainly consisted of students' thoughts, comments and experiences about learning PVs through conceptual metaphors.

The kinds of questions asked in the interviews varied. We asked *probing questions*, such as "How did you feel when you learn PVs with conceptual metaphors?", "Why did you feel that way?", "In what ways do you think conceptual metaphors are effective?", "What new information did you learn?", *direct questions* like "Did you enjoy the activities?", "Were you nervous or relaxed while learning PVs with conceptual metaphors? ", "Do you think that the conceptual metaphor activities we have in classroom make learning PVs easier and more entertaining?", "Do you think it is an effective way to learn PVs?", *follow- up questions,* such as "When you tried to remember the meaning of a PV, you said the activities we had in classroom helped you, please make it clear, how did these activities help you", "Do you mean conceptual metaphors will be useful for you in the future?". During the interviews, the researcher took detailed notes and in order to achieve an in-depth understanding of the responses

given, we analysed these notes carefully from the beginning to the end. This elaborative reading of the data brought out initially two groups of results:

- students' attitudes towards the conceptual metaphor activities done in classroom,
- students' thoughts about the PVs learning process through conceptual metaphors

The students' attitudes towards the conceptual metaphor activities, in fact, had three subgroups as displayed in the following Table….This table represents the first group and its subgroups: students' feelings about conceptual metaphor activities, students' perceptions of the usefulness and value of conceptual metaphor activities, students' enjoyment and interest for conceptual metaphor activities. The table also includes brief extracts from the data.

Table 20

Group 1: Students' Attitudes

	Students' feelings	Perceptions of usefulness and value	Enjoyment and interest
First two weeks of the study: "Memorizing the Turkish equalivents of the meanings seems easier for me. Now it seems difficult to see the relationship. I sometimes feel nervous". "I have to find a way to understand both the conceptual metaphors and PVs so I sometimes feel stressed" "I am not sure whether I will learn the PVs or confuse all conceptual metaphors. I'm a bit confused".	From the third week to the tenth week: "I like the way of matching the meanings of PVs and conceptual metaphors. I feel more compotent now". "By these activities, I liked to learn PVs a lot. I never thought I would be able to learn these difficult verbs. I'm so relaxed". "I want to spend more time on conceptual metaphors." "Whenever I learn them and understand the phrasal verbs, I feel more motivated and interested"	"Learning phrasal verbs is like living. The conceptual metaphors are a part of this life." "Conceptual metaphors should be a part of our vocabulary books, so we will have more chance to learn more words". "Conceptual metaphors helped me change my ideas about phrasal verbs. They are effective. "In vocabulary exams, I couldnt find the correct answers, I even left out the sentences with phrasal verbs, I hated them,but now I'm better". "I have never thought about UP-DOWN-IN-OUT or any other particle in this way. It is very easy, they are all around me".	"Conceptual metaphors are very enjoyable". "Learning PVs is very interesting with these activities. The lessons end very quickly and I do not realize how time passes". " Conceptual metaphors are completely interesting". "By these activities I have a chance to learn PVs while having a good time, it is unbelievable". "Finding the relation between conceptual metaphors and phrasal verbs is like a puzzle, it's very enjoyable".

As the quotes given in Table 20 show, the first subgroup emerged in the interview data relating the students' feelings towards conceptual metaphor activities done in classroom. In the first two weeks, some of the students had confused feelings about the activities they had in the classroom. They asked the researcher if they were really able to learn the PVs using the conceptual metaphors, because they were not sure if they would be able to keep all the metaphors in their mind. One of the students said "memorizing the Turkish equalivents of the meanings seems easier for me". This student

may be used to learning through rote learning so conceptual metaphors seemed difficult for her. However, as weeks passed by, most of the students said that they were really enjoying the lessons because they thought that the activities made them curious about the relationship between conceptual metaphors and PVs, so they liked having such kinds of activities in their classes because they thought such kinds of activities aroused willingness to learn PVs and make them feel more motivated and interested. One of the students said: "I want to spend more time on conceptual metaphors". It is clear that as the students got used to the conceptual metaphor activities, they began to have more positive feelings.

During these talks, the students also shared their perceptions of the usefulness and value of the conceptual metaphor activities. One student said: "conceptual metaphors should be a part of our vocabulary books." As can be understood, this student benefited from the conceptual metaphors and believed that these metaphors were valuable so he wanted to spend more time on conceptual metaphors.

Regarding the students' enjoyment and interest for the conceptual metaphor activities, the students all agreed they enjoyed the lesssons and interested in the links between conceptual metaphors and PVs. With this view, one of the students said: "The lessons end very quickly and I do not realize how time passes". The idea of this student indicated that the student enjoyed the lessons and became so completely focused on the activities that she did not have any time to feel bored during the study.

Considering the second group- *the students' thoughts about the teaching and learning process*- the students all agreed that the process with conceptual metaphors helped them to find a more effective way to learn PVs.

Some words from the students' own ideas are:

- *I'm sure that such an interesting process has changed something in my study habits, I used to look up the words in a dictionary whenever I saw a phrasal verb, but now at first I check the particle and try to remember the conceptual metaphor related to it.*
- *When I am reading a text or a sentence with a PV, I have learned to visualize it using the particle. For example, when I read a sentence such as "We set off very early in the morning", it comes to my mind that OFF was LEAVING and I comprehend the sentence better. I force myself not to use the Turkish meaning of the verb.*

From the quotes above, it is clear that conceptual metaphors were effective in learning PVs. The idea of this process has changed my study habits' supports this view. The students were aware that they could infer meanings through going over the particles. Another important point to be focused on here is that the students benefited from 'visualisation of the particles' and found the hidden links between the particles and verbs, which shows us the students could try mental images to deduce the meanings after raising awareness of conceptual metaphors in the classroom.

Most of the students believed that conceptual metaphors contributed to their PVs learning and expressed their ideas about the benefits of the process as follows:

- *Learning PVs was a big problem for me. I had to find a way. By conceptual metaphors I learn them in a very enjoyable way.*
- *To be honest, I'm fed up with our phrasal verbs book, it has all the verbs in an alphabetical order. It's something like a dictionary without any meaning. It was just a burden for me. But now it makes sense to learn these verbs from a different point of view.*
- *So far, I can't understand how I could not realize the importance of particles. They were just prepositions without any sense. I didnt even know why we used phrasal verbs. Now, I have realised that I'm aware of the meanings of the prepositions, I can find the meaning easily without translation. I do not need to find any further way for learning phrasal verbs.*

As can be seen in the remarks above, PVs were problematic for the learners. They had some prejudgments against PVs; however, they believed that conceptual metaphors could be helpful and change thier views for PVs.

- *I always hate the memorization of words. I think I dont need any more, the relation between the particles and verbs will help me find the correct meaning. Also I believe I can try these metaphors while learning other words.*

The other contribution of our study, according to the students' thoughts, was getting rid of memorizing all the words which did not make much sense to them. Exploring the relation between the particles and verbs seemed to be more helpful.

In addition, the reseacher found out that the students generally believed that the process of learning PVs through conceptual metaphors helped them recall these verbs when needed.

- *I can easily understand the sentence with a phrasal verb by remembering the conceptual metaphors we have studied in class. So I'm doing better in vocabulary exams.*
- *I used to keep a notebook for vocabulary with their Turkish meanings but I had difficulty in recalling the meanings. Now I revise my notes for conceptual metaphors and try to find the connection between the meaning of phrasal verbs and these metaphors.*

When we know a word, we not only know its meaning and usage, but we also have to recall it when needed. In this respect, the students found it more effective to revise their notes for conceptual metaphors to recall their meanings.

- *When I think about the activities we have done in class, I visualise the particles, so I remember the meanings easily because after our lessons with conceptual metaphors, I prepared myself some drawings for the particles, so I won't forget them any more.*
- *Until now, I have wanted to use a dictionary even in my exams, because I could not remember the meanings of some words, especially phrasal verbs. But now, the only thing I'm doing is recalling the particle and thinking about the movement of this particle, finding the link between the verb and this movement.*

While trying to recall any meaning, the students used the images, drawings and movements we covered throughout our study, which gives us the idea that visualisation really helped the students bring about the meanings of PVs and gain the insights of conceptual metaphors that are a part of our daily life.

All in all, following the overall responses to the informal interview questions, we can say that there is a positive conclusion to be drawn from this study that the implementation of the conceptual metaphor activities to teach PVs contributed to students' levels of motivation, interest, enjoyment and pleasure towards the teaching and learning of PVs.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In this chapter we are going to discuss the conclusions of our study gathered through phrasal verbs tests, intrinsic motivation inventory and informal interviews with some implications. Also, suggestions for further studies will be presented.

5.1. Introduction

In our case study, we carried out both qualitative and quantitative research methods in order to obtain more reliable results and have a deeper understanding of the research findings. Mixed methods research was followed up with exploring whether using conceptual metaphors enhance the learners' acquiring the meaning of phrasal verbs (PVs) and help the retention of PVs over a longer period of time. Also, we aimed to find out if conceptual metaphor activities contribute to students' levels of motivation, interest, enjoyment and pleasure towards the teaching and learning of PVs. The participants of the study were 11th grade learners at Seyhan Barbaros İMKB Anatolian High School in Adana. The number of the participants was twelve and they were taught PVs through conceptual metaphors for ten weeks.

5.2. Discussion and Conclusion

In our age, learning English as a second or foreign language is an important privilige importance because English is in every part of our lives. If we want to follow the developments and innovations around the world, we need the knowledge of English; therefore, all the countries in the world, the researchers, scholars, authorities are looking for the ways to teach and learn this language effectively. In order to be a good and efficient language user or learner, one has to be communicatively competent, that is what language users or learners are "able to do with a language", as defined by Common European Framework Reference (CEFR) (CEFR, p.43). These users and learners have to be able to use a range of competences, set areas of knowledge, or aptitudes and skills and of attitudes (CEFR 2.1, p. 9). One of these competences is

linguistic competence that comprises the knowledge and skills related to lexis, phonology and syntax and other features of language systems, considered independently of the sociolinguistic impact of variations in use and of the pragmatic functions of the utterances produced (CEFR 5.2.1, p. 109 and CEFR 2.1.2).

In this study, we focused on one aspect of these components of competences: Lexical knowledge. It is evident that without knowing the words of any language, we cannot read, write, listen or speak this language. McCarthy (1990) claims that no matter how successfully and well students learn grammar and sounds, without words which are used for conveying meaning, communication in a second or foreign language may be difficult for the learners. Hence, vocabulary learning has been the centre of language learning and the most essential part for students.

However, teaching and learning vocabulary is a hard and demanding process. Actually, when it comes to multiwords, such as PVs, it gets even harder. As mentioned earlier (Chapter 2), phrasal verbs are defined as combinations of verbs with adverbial or prepositional particles. In the English language, they are common and a prolific source of new words with important features especially when it comes to denoting new social phenomena (Bolinger, 1971). He (ibid) cites as examples of this: "sit-in," "drop out," "freak out," "hang up," "spin off, and "log in.". In addition, he (ibid, cited in Ceplair, 2008, p. 4) believes that PVs add what he terms "perfectivity." They specify the completion or conclusion of an action ("pass by" rather than "pass"; "pick out" rather than "choose"; "look over" rather than "examine"; and "go away" rather than "leave"). PVs are also pervasively used in English as an essential part of daily communication. Due to their frequent occurrence and use, great importance has been attached to the ability to understand and use English PVs (Bingqing, 2011).

Generally speaking, PVs have been widely accepted as a difficult and troublesome lexical area for foreign language learners. One of the reasons for the difficult nature of PVs is that the verb-framed languages, e.g.Turkish and Japanese, do not have these verbs. The native speakers of these languages assume that PVs are non-analyzable and fixed expressions with arbitrary meanings (Yasuda, 2010). Because of the typological difference between our L1 (Turkish) and L2 (English) we may not be aware of the orientational meanings of particles. Thus, we teach and learn the PVs by explaining the meanings or just giving the Turkish equivalents. Memorization seems to be the easiest way for the language learners in Turkey. Yet, when the learners can not

recall the meanings, they have to look up those words in the dictionary again and again which makes PVs learning stressful.

Considering these difficulties, in our case study, we attempted to suggest an alternative approach to teach and learn PVs, dealing not with the verbs, but the particles. Traditionally, metaphors are considered to be poetic and ornamental expressions. In this study, rather than this traditional view, we focused on the cognitive linguistic view of metaphors. That is, as Lakoff & Johnson (1980A, p. 3) claimed:

"our concepts structure what we perceive and how we relate to other people. Our conceptual system plays a central role in defining our everyday realities. If we are right to suggest that our conceptual system is largely metaphorical, then what we do every day is very much a matter of metaphor".

According to the cognitive view of metaphors, the learners may develop strategies of visualizing the meanings of PVs in terms of conceptual metaphors (Littlemore & Low, 2006). Visualization may help the leaners infer the meaning of the PVs on the basis of the information conveyed by the conceptual metaphors and encourage them to figure out the meanings of unfamiliar PVs independently before turning to the teacher or a dictionary for help (Boers, 2004). Also, this may boost learning of PVs faster and retain them longer.

Keeping this in mind and based on the preceding studies (Bingqing, 2011 ;Nhu & Huyen, 2009; Yang & Hsieh, 2010; Yasuda, 2010) the present study proposed to apply conceptual metaphor theory to the teaching and learning of English PVs. We aimed to describe how a holistic view of particle meaning can account for better acquisition of PVs in English language teaching by showing how conceptual metaphors can be employed as an effective tool in teaching PVs. As this study served as an experiment for the researcher, a large number of PVs, albeit formed by a limited number of particles (six particles: *UP, DOWN, OUT, IN, INTO and OFF*), were incorporated according to the PVs in their course and vocabulary books and were taught explicitly through conceptual metaphors to the students in ten weeks. Having done so, the students had a chance to gain insights into the underlying conceptual metaphors in English PVs.

As regards to the analysis of the results of quantative and qualitative data and the whole process of the implementation, major findings can be summarized as follows:

(RQ 1): *Does using conceptual metaphors help the 11th grade learners to acquire the meanings of phrasal verbs?*

Throughout our case study, the participants were given PVs tests in the third, fifth, seventh, eighth, ninth, tenth and twelveth weeks to evaluate their knowledge and recollection of the PVs presented. These tests consisted of the PVs that the students were expected to learn during the implementation period. With regards to the scores of these tests, statistical analysis (SPSS. 19) was done as presented in Chapter IV. PVs tests results showed that focusing on particles in teaching and learning PVs on the basis of conceptual metaphors was an effective and helpful method for the participants to acquire the meanings of PVs. Through the experiment, it was clear that the spatial movement feature of particles was the bridge between particles and conceptual metaphors, thus, building the relationship between particles and conceptual metaphors, especially orientational and container metaphors, were the keys to applying conceptual metaphor theory to the acquisition of PVs. In this respect, it was useful for the students to associate the meanings of PVs and the metaphors hidden in the particles. This finding was backed up by a dissertation conducted by Valerio (1998) on establishing associations between PVs and metaphors, grounded on ideas and considerations stated in the book *Metaphors We Live By,* by Lakoff& Johnson (1980). The results showed that associations between PVs and metaphors were possible. Our findings are also in agreement with the studies conducted by Bingqing (2011), Nhu & Nguyen (2009), Yang & Hsieh (2010) and Yasuda (2010) who mentioned the usefulness and positive effects of applying conceptual metaphors to facilitate students' grasp of the meaning of PVs.

(RQ 2): *Does using conceptual metaphors enhance the retention of phrasal verbs over longer periods of time?*

In terms of the retention of PVs through conceptual metaphors, after two weeks of the study (twelfth week) PVs Test7 was applied. As presented in Chapter IV, the results of the statistical analysis revealed that using conceptual metaphor activites to teach PVs contributed to effective learning and the recalling of the PVs. We found out that the recognition of PVs' meaning was maintained in their mind. Retention of PVs through conceptual metaphors was also supported by Ganji (2011) who conducted a study comparing the effectiveness of three different methods in learning PVs:

translation, sentential contextualization and metaphorical conceptualization among Iranian university students. According to this study, the contextualization and translation were helpful in predicting the meaning of unfamiliar PVs while conceptual metaphor techniques helped students retain the meaning of PVs, which was parallell to our finding. Likewise, Waehayi& Sripetpun (2012) carried out a study on the effectiveness of the conceptual metaphor technique in teaching PVs to grade 12 students in a secondary school in Thailand. The results of this study, too, confirmed our findings with respect to the fact that the participants could generally learn the PVs while retaining the knowledge of these verbs. Another study which was based on retention of PVs was conducted by Hu&Luo (2013) to explore whether EFL learners in Taiwan could show better memory retention in both short- and long-term time frame with cognitive instruction with image schemas and lexical network than instruction of list and translation providing non-schematic pictures with no obvious link and a list of definitions that were displayed in learners' first language. The results of this study revealed that the translation instruction was mostly helpful in the short term retention while for long-term retention, especially from the pre-test to delayed post-test, cognitive instruction proved to be significantly better than translation approach. Similarly, Khumbangly (2005), too, compared the achievement rate in learning PVs through the instruction of the meaning of adverb particles -*OFF, OUT and UP*- and the traditional approach. It was found out that the improvement ratio of acquiring PVs by means of learning adverb particles was slightly higher than that of the traditional approach, but the results also revealed that the learning of adverb particles in PVs fostered the retention. This result supported our result with respect to the long term retention of PVs.

(RQ 3): *Does learning phrasal verbs through conceptual metaphors contribute to the students' level of motivation, interest, enjoyment, pleasure towards the teaching and learning phrasal verbs process through conceptual metaphors?*

From the results of Intrinsic Motivation Inventory and informal interviews, we found out that the participants attitudes towards learning PVs through conceptual metaphors were positive in general. These results depicted conceptual metaphors promoted students' level of motivation, interest, enjoyment and pleasure towards the teaching and learning of PVs. The findings of our study considering the affective dimension of using conceptual metaphors were also supported by other studies. For example, Bingqing (2011) carried out a study on acquisition of English PVs based on this conceptual metaphor theory and investigated the attitudes of the students in

experimental groups towards the new method to acquire PVs. She (ibid) discovered that the students in experimental groups were more positive, motivated and confident in learning PVs and that they would use conceptual metaphors in the future of learning PVs.

The anaysis of the interview data gathered from the informal talks done throughout the study revealed that the participants felt a bit confused at the first weeks of the implementation as they were accustomed to memorizing the Turkish equavalents of the PVs. As a matter of fact, learning PVs through conceptual metaphors was a new method to them. The students were not aware of the claim that most of our ordinary conceptual system is metaphorical in nature (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 3) and we are using these metaphors unconciously everyday. Nevertheless, in the following weeks, it got easier for the participants to build up the relationship between PVs and conceptual metaphors. Thus, rather than memorization, they could learn and recall the meanings much more easily. After raising the participants' awareness of the conceptual metaphors, they acquired the meanings of PVs more easily. Kovecses&Szabo (1996) contended that the enhancement of metaphor awareness of particles could facilitate students' acquisition of PVs, which promotes our findings, as well.

5.3. Implications

This study sheds light on the reality that EFL learners may not be aware of how the particles are needed in order to comprehend the meanings of PVs. We focused on the particles and their relations with the conceptual metaphors to teach PVs. As the particles change the meaning of verbs, the learners find them difficult to acquire. However, we believe that when the learners become aware of the importance of particles, they can piece together the relationship between the particles and their own conceptual metaphors in their minds and experiences. In fact, metaphors are pervasive in our everyday thought, an intrinsic element of conventional language and moreover, it plays a central role in organization and the functioning of the human conceptual system (Lakoff&Johnson, 1980, p. 3). If the students realize that metaphors, for example orientational metaphors, are originated from people's physical and cultural experiences, it will be easier to understand the meanings of PVs. Making associations between their experiences, thoughts and the language they are acquiring may help them explore the semantic networks out of which the meanings come (Lakoff&Johnson, ibid). Therefore,

during the teaching and learning of PVs it is necessary and significant to develop students' awareness of conceptual metaphors. To achieve this, it is important to instruct students explicitly to comprehend the meanings of PVs based on the meanings of particles with conceptual metaphors.

Using conceptual metaphors to teach and learn PVs involves dealing with abstract meanings. The students might have some difficulties in abstract meanings at first, as it was the case in our study, but after practicing the meanings in context, it became easier to visualize and infer the meaning. The students should be provided with some meaningful contexts to help them get the meanings of particles in specific contexts.

Condon (2008) argues that teaching PVs through the cognitive approach seemed to impove the students' learning. When teaching PVs, teachers should explicitly form the relation between the particle and the meaning of the PV by making use of conceptual metaphors. The cognitive linguistic view to metaphors and PVs may facilitate learning and longterm retention of these verbs because this view may reveal the hidden relationships that run among conceptual metaphor expressions and PVs (Kövecses, 2002). In other words, PVs teaching and learning can be motivated by the existence of these certain metaphors. The fact that the systematicity of conceptual metaphors have an impact on the way we act, think and express our inner thoughts may help second/ foreign language learners (L2) categorize metaphorical expressions under certain conceptual domains (Boers, 1999, p. 54). The key point is to make the students realize the bridge between particles and conceptual metaphors so that they can develop their own learning strategies through abstraction and stimulate their acquisition of PVs.

Lastly, another implication of this research emphasizes that in order to reduce the problem of learning and teaching PVs, curriculum writers may need to design textbooks and teaching materials with more image schemas and pictures in order to provide visual practices on PVs and conceptual metaphors. This may activate their schema and foster their learning. Also, curriculum writers should be careful in grouping the PVs according to their particles, not to the alphabetical order. Nowadays, PVs are designed in alphabetical order with an example sentence and Turkish equivalent in course and vocabulary books. For example: *break down: bozulmak*

Our car broke down on the way to Antalya (YDS Publishing, 2010, p.4).

We suggest grouping PVs according to their particles with conceptual metaphors. That is;

UP particle:

Conceptual Metaphors with UP

1) *HABITS/LIKES are UP: My sister <u>took up</u> music and maths last week.*

2) *HIGHER LEVEL of KNOWLEDGE is UP: I need to <u>brush up</u> my German.*

In this way, the learners may get the gist of the hidden relations between PVs and conceptual metaphors and comprehend the meanings more easily. Instead of rote memorization of the Turkish meanings of PVs, they may improve their learning skills through conceptual metaphors.

The cognitive linguistic view to metaphors appears to serve as an alternative, helpful and complementary strategy for teaching and learning PVs. But at the same time, it is difficult to implement because of the the learners' unawareness of the metaphoric extensions, so we should keep in mind that firstly we have to activate the students' knowledge of metaphors explicitly in a systematic way.

5.4. Suggestions for Further Studies

One of the limitations of this study was the small number of the participants. The group we used for the implementation was an already existing one with twelve students. So we can not generalize the results of this study to all the 11th grade learners in Turkey. We suggest that this study can be conducted on a larger scale with a wider range of participants at various levels and types over longer periods of time to make more accurate generalizations.

Another limitation of this study was that we implemented the last test (Test7) after two weeks of the study, as it was the end of academic year, but it would be better to extend the time more than two weeks to investigate students' retention and confirm students' memory.

Also, in our study we chose the most common PVs in Undergraduate Placement Examination 5 (LYS 5). Other studies may choose PVs according to their frequency of use in real life. The other limitation of this study relates to the assessment method. We evaluated the knowledge of the students by *multiple choice* and *fill in the blanks* types of questions on purpose, which are the most common types of questions included in language exams. We accessed only the receptive skills. In other studies, different assessment tools can be used and productive skills can be assessed.

Besides, other studies can be process- oriented in order to find out how the participants are using the semantic networks and what they are doing or not doing during this learning process through conceptual metaphors.

Last, similar studies with different word items, such as idioms and collocations may be some areas that seem worthy of further investigation in order to provide a much better understanding of the complex uses of conceptual metaphors.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1. Intrinsic Motivation Inventory

<div align="center">

I agree - I partly agree - I disagree

3   **2**   **1**

</div>

INTEREST / ENJOYMENT

1) I enjoyed doing this activity very much.

2) This activity was fun to do.

3) I thought this was a boring activity. (R)

4) This activity did not hold my attention at all. (R)

5) I would describe this activity as very interesting.

6) While I was doing this activity, I was thinking about how much I enjoyed it.

PERCEIVED COMPETENCE

1) I think I am pretty good at this activity.

2) I think I did pretty well at this activity, compared to other students.

3) After working at this activity for awhile, I felt pretty competent.

4) I am satisfied with my performance at this task.

5) I was pretty skilled at this activity.

6) This was an activity that I couldn't do very well. (R)

PRESSURE / TENSION

1) I did not feel nervous at all while doing this. (R)

2) I felt very tense while doing this activity.

3) I was very relaxed in doing this activity. (R)

4) I was anxious while working on this task.

5) I felt pressured while doing this activity.

VALUE / USEFULNESS

1) I believe this activity can be of some value to me.

2) I think that doing this activity is useful for learning phrasal verbs.

3) I think this is important to do because it can help me keep the meanings of the phrasal verbs.

4) I think doing this activity will help me recall the phrasal verbs easily.

5) I think this is an important activity because I learned phrasal verbs more effectively and meaningfully.

APPENDIX 2. Examples from Handouts

A) Fill in the blanks with the correct phrasal verbs given:

(give out, drink up, wear down, pull in, take in, work out , break down)

1) If you want more information about the English course, you can contact John.

   He's in charge of ………brochures.

2) The responsibilities of raising 5 children can't ………….. her ………… .

3) The magic show at that circus is still …………… ……….. the crowds.

4) Our talk ………. because of some problems on the telephone line.

5) Don't ………. all the milk, we need some for breakfast.

6) When we breathe, we …… oxygen.

7) I can't ……… the answer to this difficult mathematical sum.

B) Fill in the blanks with the correct particles: UP, DOWN, OUT, IN, INTO, OFF

1**.** Tonight's meeting has been put………

2. When she heard the news, she burst………….. tears.

3. No one can figure …………..how the fire started.

4. I wonder why my application for the job was turned………….. Is that because I'm a woman?

5. Do you know how many people showed ………….at the party last night?

6. The factory will lay…………about one third of its workers.

7. She was so shocked by the accident that it took her hours to calm……………..

C) Match the items in column A with the suitable ones in column B. There are some extra ones in column B that you don't need to use.

A

1) Sum up

2) I had to read the letter twice

3) Julia seems to be under a lot of stress.

4) The loss of his only child

5) My brother is going to…

6) Because we've promised to go dancing with them,

B

    a) we can't just back out now.

    b) we finally got in from work at 10pm.

    c) the letter and put it in the envelope.

    d) after presenting the program for eight years.

    e) to take in the news

    f) I think she's feeling weighed down by all her responsibilities.

    g) tennis on Saturday.

    h) really pulled him down.

APPENDIX 3. PVs Tests Example Questions

1) The thieves…………….our house last night.

a) broke into   b) checked into   c) looked into

2) Tonight's meeting has been………

a) taken off b) put off   c) set off

3) The lights are too bright. Could you please…..them….?

a) let down   b) turn down   c) calm down

4) My cousin believes people easily, so it's very easy to …her ….

a) put in   b) take in   c) look in

5) The terrorists...………the bridge last weekend, so the people cant go the town now.

a) blew up   b) filled up   c)turned up

6) The explorers…….at 5 c'lock in the morning.

a) looked out   b) set out   c) grew out

7) He……….his heart to her.

 a) dropped out of   b) died out   c) poured out

8) You need new shoes; these are completely …..

a) worn out   b) gone out   c) put out

9) My classmate………….. on hearing the good marks from our teacher.

a) cheered up   b) added up   c) called up

10)The lecture was dull, so most of the students …

a) called off   b) bought off   c) dozed off

APPENDIX 4.

Mauchly's Test of Sphericity

Within Subjects Effect	Mauchly's W	Approx. Chi-Square	df	Sig.	Epsilon[a]		
					Greenhouse-Geisser	Huynh-Feldt	Lower-bound
Time	,001	63,258	20	,000	,489	,686	,167

Tests of Within-Subjects Effects

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
time	Sphericity Assumed	2250,476	6	375,079	11,265	,000	,506
	Greenhouse-Geisser	2250,476	2,933	767,410	11,265	,000	,506
	Huynh-Feldt	2250,476	4,114	547,007	11,265	,000	,506
	Lower-bound	2250,476	1,000	2250,476	11,265	,006	,506
Error(time)	Sphericity Assumed	2197,524	66	33,296			
	Greenhouse-Geisser	2197,524	32,258	68,123			
	Huynh-Feldt	2197,524	45,256	48,558			
	Lower-bound	2197,524	11,000	199,775			

APPENDIX 5. Pairwise Comparisons

(I) time	(J) time	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	2,167	2,380	1,000	-7,170	11,503
	3	-12,667	3,432	,075	-26,130	,796
	4	-9,000[*]	2,125	,029	-17,336	-,664
	5	-10,333[*]	1,920	,005	-17,866	-2,801
	6	-8,167	2,599	,197	-18,362	2,029
	7	-9,500	2,595	,079	-19,681	,681
2	1	-2,167	2,380	1,000	-11,503	7,170
	3	-14,833[*]	2,081	,000	-22,997	-6,670
	4	-11,167[*]	1,336	,000	-16,408	-5,925
	5	-12,500[*]	1,258	,000	-17,436	-7,564
	6	-10,333[*]	2,533	,038	-20,269	-,398
	7	-11,667[*]	2,533	,016	-21,602	-1,731
3	1	12,667	3,432	,075	-,796	26,130
	2	14,833[*]	2,081	,000	6,670	22,997
	4	3,667	2,922	1,000	-7,794	15,128
	5	2,333	2,509	1,000	-7,508	12,174
	6	4,500	3,076	1,000	-7,567	16,567
	7	3,167	3,010	1,000	-8,640	14,973
4	1	9,000[*]	2,125	,029	,664	17,336
	2	11,167[*]	1,336	,000	5,925	16,408
	3	-3,667	2,922	1,000	-15,128	7,794
	5	-1,333	1,287	1,000	-6,382	3,716
	6	,833	2,587	1,000	-9,317	10,983
	7	-,500	2,560	1,000	-10,542	9,542
5	1	10,333[*]	1,920	,005	2,801	17,866
	2	12,500[*]	1,258	,000	7,564	17,436
	3	-2,333	2,509	1,000	-12,174	7,508
	4	1,333	1,287	1,000	-3,716	6,382
	6	2,167	2,037	1,000	-5,824	10,157
	7	,833	2,096	1,000	-7,387	9,054
6	1	8,167	2,599	,197	-2,029	18,362
	2	10,333[*]	2,533	,038	,398	20,269
	3	-4,500	3,076	1,000	-16,567	7,567
	4	-,833	2,587	1,000	-10,983	9,317
	5	-2,167	2,037	1,000	-10,157	5,824
	7	-1,333[*]	,284	,014	-2,448	-,218

7	1	9,500	2,595	,079	-,681	19,681
	2	11,667*	2,533	,016	1,731	21,602
	3	-3,167	3,010	1,000	-14,973	8,640
	4	,500	2,560	1,000	-9,542	10,542
	5	-,833	2,096	1,000	-9,054	7,387
	6	1,333*	,284	,014	,218	2,448

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

*. The mean difference is significant at the ,05 level.

CURRICULUM VITAE

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