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How to Teach Phrasal Verbs Using Conceptual Metaphors

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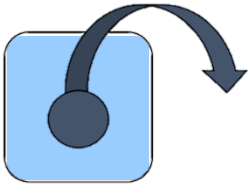
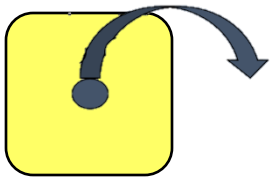
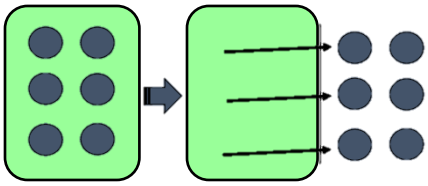


Max **checked out** of the hotel.



Max was **kicked out** of the Brownies.



Max **poured** his heart **out**, sharing his story.

How to Teach Phrasal Verbs Using Conceptual Metaphors

By
Daniel Thom

An excerpt from the WOU Honors thesis:
A Cognitive Linguistic Approach to Phrasal Verbs

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Introduction

The first time I ever taught phrasal verbs was a disaster. I remember standing in front of a roomful of students from my Intermediate English Class, preparing for the lesson on "Phrasal Verbs in the Workplace". After a couple introductory exercises to start off the class, we turned our attention to the phrasal verb exercise.

I began by identifying individual phrasal verbs from the vocabulary list and proceeded to offer definitions for the students. For many of the words (e.g. *call back, clean up, fill out, hand out, turn down, put away*, and *throw away*), I drew diagrams on the board to illustrate their respective meanings. I thought the presentation was straightforward and coherent.

Yet as the students started chiming in with their questions, it quickly became clear that the subject matter was far more complicated than I had previously anticipated. My 15 minute presentation quickly turned into 20 then 30, as students continued to question the varied meanings and usage of the new verb forms. I explained the verb and particle meanings; I tried to distinguish between different senses, but despite the illustrations and the graphic organizers I used, the students still seemed confused.

And based on exercises and comprehension checks later that night, I realized that much of what we worked on didn't stick. Many of the students left the class more confused than before. It seemed that, despite my efforts to clarify, phrasal verbs are simply too hard to teach effectively.

As teachers, perhaps some of you can relate to my experience and frustration in the classroom. Maybe you have attempted to teach phrasal verbs to your students or offer some sort of cohesive explanation to them. Perhaps after trying to demystify the constructions, you gave up on these idiomatic forms, as students repeatedly avoid and misuse them. As teachers, we want to be able to distill and explain difficult concepts for our students. We live for the moments where it all clicks for our students. Yet the moment of realization never seems to come with phrasal verbs. Instead, it seems like nothing but a litany of endless memorization, as students struggle with one phrasal verb after another.

My teaching experience catalyzed a personal investigation into theories and approaches to teaching idiomatic expressions like phrasal verbs. I was convinced that there must be some way to present these concepts in a way that English language learners could understand, apart from word lists and rote memorization. Eventually, after researching and comparing many different strategies, I discovered a growing body of research in cognitive linguistics, where researchers are finding systematic ways to organize and teach these constructions.

Over the last forty years, there has been a tremendous amount of research in cognitive linguistics aimed at analyzing idiomatic forms like phrasal verbs. Yet despite the breakthroughs in research, these new theories have failed to penetrate our pedagogical practices. To this day, there has been no significant change in teaching approaches to idiomatic expressions like phrasal verbs.

As such, this handbook serves as a bridge between the theory and practice, as it introduces the predominant theories in cognitive linguistics and sheds light on some pedagogical implications for teachers. In the following pages, we will overview traditional approaches to phrasal verbs and highlight the weaknesses of those views, specifically with a pedagogical focus. Then, by exploring research findings from cognitive linguistics, we will unpack a new way of approaching phrasal verbs, with what will be termed *the cognitive approach.*

There are far more extensive studies and materials written on cognitive linguistics, and it is not the purpose of this handbook to substitute for those resources. The following is merely an introduction to the theories and stepping stone for teachers to understand a new approach to teaching these constructions. This is a distillation of these concepts for teachers and opens the door for more practical and informed ways of teaching difficult language structures.

1.1 Importance of Explicit Instruction with Phrasal Verbs

One of the most frequent multi-word units in English is the phrasal verb. As Gardner and Davies (2007) note, phrasal verbs are "very common and highly productive in the English language as a whole" (p. 340), with a small percentage of them (less than 100) making up over half the phrasal verbs in the whole language. They also estimate that "learners will encounter, on average, one [phrasal verb construction] in every 150 words of English they are exposed to" (p. 347). And that ratio simply increases with conversational genres and registers. As language learners seek to become competent in spoken English, phrasal verbs are an essential construction to master (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999).

Yet with the rise of communicative language teaching, and as task-based approaches currently dominate English language pedagogy, the importance of explicit phrasal verb teaching -- and vocabulary teaching in general -- is sometimes overlooked. While teachers rightly focus on communicative competence and interactions between language learners in a variety of authentic language contexts, this focus can lead to some oversight. Many language teachers tend to look down on explicit instructional models and any form of direct vocabulary teaching in general, as they believe it takes away from the communicative contexts or task-based exercises. This is what Boers and Lindstromberg (2008) note when they state the following:

> Theorists of [language] pedagogy, particularly in English-speaking countries, have long tended to favour approaches that in one way or another discount the importance of teaching vocabulary, with many stoutly persisting in their methodological allegiances in the face of mounting evidence that vocabulary is a crucial factor in ability to read and understand challenging texts (p. 7)

While there is nothing wrong with communicative or task-based approaches, proponents of these approaches can tend to overlook the critical role that vocabulary -- and explicit vocabulary instruction -- plays in the acquisition of language. Instead of simply being additive to language learning, explicit vocabulary teaching is central to the development of language competence. With the development of large-scale corpora, linguists have been able to uncover language patterns previously unnoticed, revealing the ubiquity of multi-word

units and vocabulary collocations in English. These findings reveal that, instead of consisting strictly of lexis and syntax, language tends to be comprised of multi-word constructions and word collocations like phrasal verbs.

Boers and Lindstromberg (2008) note that these recent corpus findings have greatly influenced theories in English language teaching, and many theorists have come to the conclusion that "successful L2 learning is to a very great extent a matter of understanding and remembering collocational tendencies and prefabricated multi-word expressions (i.e. memorized phrases) and that learners ought to be helped to acquire them in large numbers" (p. 7). Thus, when it comes to developing a communicative competence of the language, multi-word vocabulary units are central for language learners to master. A large number of language teaching theorists are now accepting this new understanding of vocabulary (as expanded into words and phrases) as being of high importance in developing proficiency in English (Boers and Lindstromberg, 2008, p. 4).

The assumption of this handbook is that explicit vocabulary teaching is beneficial, not only in the traditional understanding of teaching single words, but also -- and perhaps even more importantly -- in teaching multi-word units. Central to these multi-word constructions is the phrasal verb, a form ubiquitous in the English language. Thus, it is the belief of the following book that learning phrasal verbs is a productive endeavor for any language learner, as it will directly contribute to their communicative competence in English.

As such, the teaching of phrasal verbs must be prioritized by English language teachers for their students' language development. A critical part of language instruction is understanding the key issues for students and the best practices for teachers to present those concepts. This handbook seeks to present those best practices. In the following pages, we will review and distill the most recent research in linguistics and language teaching and apply these theories to teaching applications regarding phrasal verbs.

Foundations in Phrasal Verb Teaching

Phrasal verbs -- such as *take up, go on, get over,* and *get along with* -- are also referred to as multi-word verb constructions. A phrasal verb contains multiple parts of speech (a verb and either a preposition or an adverb), forming three possible syntactical combinations:

1. Verb + preposition (e.g. *take over, fill up*)
2. Verb + adverb (e.g. *take away, give back*)
3. Verb + adverb + preposition (e.g. *come up with, get out of*)

One of the most important things to understand about phrasal verbs is that they are an independent construction, and the constituents that make them up function differently inside the phrasal verb than they normally do on their own.

Take a preposition, for example. A preposition is defined by its function as the head of a prepositional phrase: a preposition + noun phrase (e.g. *My fiancé is cooking dinner* ***in the kitchen***). The preposition *in* takes the noun phrase *the kitchen* and forms a prepositional phrase, adding locational context to the sentence. Prepositions can be defined as words that function forming prepositional phrases, and they form a closed class of words that fit this category.

When a preposition is combined with a verb to form a phrasal verb, it changes its function: It no longer operates as the head of a prepositional phrase; it is defined in terms of its function within a phrasal verb. When a preposition functions in this new role, we refer to it, not as a preposition, but as a particle, because it is functioning primarily as part of the phrasal verb. Thus, if we take a preposition like *in* and combine it with a verb to form a phrasal verb (e.g. *fill in* as in *we needed to* ***fill in*** *the intern on our company policies*), the preposition is referred to as a particle.

The same is true of adverbs, too. Adverbs also form a class of words, similar to prepositions, in that their function is to add contextual information, too. They differ from prepositions because they are not able to take noun phrases to form larger phrases. For instance, we could not say "*I am going **away** this city" because the adverb *away* cannot take a noun phrase like *this city* and form a larger constituent. Instead, we could say "I am going **away** from this city," because the adverb is able to modify a prepositional phrase, not a noun phrase.

When an adverb is combined with a verb to form a phrasal verb, it also changes its function: it no longer functions in a typical adverbial function but as part of the phrasal verb. Thus, like a preposition, when it functions inside a phrasal verb (e.g. *take away*), it is referred to as a particle.

This can be confusing for both English teachers and students, as phrasal verbs are often defined as verb + preposition constructions. While this is the typical structure of a phrasal verb, its simplicity is problematic in two ways. First, while the majority of phrasal verbs are the combination of a verb and a preposition, a few phrasal verbs use adverbs instead of prepositions. Secondly, when prepositions or adverbs function in a new role inside a phrasal verb, they lose their original function. It would be inherently misguided then to

refer to them as prepositions and adverbs because they are not functioning as such. They are functioning as part of a phrasal verb, so they are referred to as particles.

In the rest of this handbook, we will refer to words according to their function. When prepositions and adverbs are functioning independently as prepositions and adverbs, I will refer to them as such. Yet when they are functioning as part of a phrasal verb, I will refer to them as particles. As such, I will refer to phrasal verbs as verb + particle constructions. This is a comprehensive term that will refer to any of the above three syntactical structures.

2.1 The Meaning of Phrasal Verbs

The meanings of phrasal verbs cannot always be derived from the individual meanings of the verb and the particle they are composed of. Their meanings range from transparent or literal (where their meanings can be easily derived) to idiomatic, where there seems to be very little connection to the meanings of the verb and the particle. Consider the following examples of literal (transparent) phrasal verbs:

1. They need to **stand up** so we can see them.
2. Then let's **fill up** the water tanks
3. Toxic chemical **leaked out** of a storage tank and into the ground water

In these examples, the phrasal verbs are used literally. For instance, *fill up* literally refers to water being poured into a tank, and as more water goes in, the level rises (goes up). These are the easiest phrasal verbs for English language learners (ELLs) to learn, as their meanings are transparent and easily derived from the meanings of the verb and particle. However, take a look at the same phrasal verbs used idiomatically:

1. It is unlikely to **stand up** to valid scientific scrutiny
2. I was happy having her voice **fill up** the house
3. The story **leaked out** early in the day

In the second set of examples, the meanings of the phrasal verbs are very different from their literal meanings. The meaning of *stand up* (sentence 1) is *to confront*, *run up* (2) means *to reverberate throughout a building* (3) means *to secretly share information*. These meanings differ greatly from the meanings of their verb and particle constituents, and on first look, it may be difficult to see how their meanings are related to the original, transparent meanings.

2.2 What makes phrasal verbs difficult to learn?

As the previous section demonstrates, the meanings of phrasal verbs are not always transparent, making them difficult to learn for ELLs. Their meanings have often been regarded as arbitrary, random, and unpredictable (Walkova, 2012). As such, phrasal verbs are typically classified as a type of idiomatic expression, with ranging degrees of idiomaticity.

In addition to their seemingly arbitrary meanings, phrasal verbs are also highly polysemous, meaning the same phrasal verb might have multiple, distinct meanings. Consider the following example of the phrasal verb *pick up*:

1. He leads a group to a city park to **pick up** trash (*to lift or take off the ground*)

2. Cell phone towers are able to **pick up** a caller's location on a 911 call. (*to detect*)
3. He was trying to get a cab to go **pick up** his daughter (*to take in a car*)
4. Republicans failed to **pick up** a single seat in the chamber (*to take, to win*)
5. Momentum is starting to **pick up** (*to increase*)
6. You need to **pick up** where you left off (*to resume*)
7. Showing them pictures can help them to **pick up** the language (*to learn, acquire*)

Example sentence 1 shows a literal, transparent meaning of *pick up*, yet the other sentences demonstrate an array of idiomatic meanings ranging from learning a language to *detecting a location* to *increasing momentum*. This is not an isolated phenomenon with *pick up*, for Gardner and Davies (2007) found an average of 5.6 distinct meanings for each of the 100 most frequent phrasal verbs in English and over 20 distinct meanings just for the phrase *go on* (White, 2012, p. 1). This significantly adds to the complexity of learning phrasal verbs. While memorizing 100 verb-particle combinations might be feasible for a student, individually memorizing the distinct sense and context of each of the polysemous meanings is virtually impossible.

The question we want to explore in the next sections is what makes one phrasal verb literal and transparent and another one idiomatic. For a verb like *pick up*, how are all its meanings related? Is there a meaningful connection between the different senses, or are the differences arbitrary? How do phrasal verbs move from literal to idiomatic meanings? Can we predict their meanings or figure out how the idiomatic meanings are formed? These are the questions we will seek to answer as we continue to explore the meanings of these expressions.

2.3 How are the Meanings of Phrasal Verbs Related?

The question for teachers of English is whether there is any systematic structure or organizational system governing the meanings of these phrasal verbs. Traditional approaches to phrasal verbs have not been able to identify any coherent system or structure and have therefore classified them as idiomatic. However, recent research developments in cognitive linguistics have revealed semantic patterns that were previously undetected. These semantic patterns stem from the ways native speakers understand and refer to the world around them. In short, the patterns of meanings are cognitively motivated; that is, meaning resides in the cognitive framework of native speakers, not just in the surface language features.

These motivations are implicitly embedded within the cognitive structures of native speakers, and native English speakers are generally not explicitly aware of the ways their language (including phrasal verbs) flows from these conceptual structures. These motivations are not transparent to speakers of other languages learning English (since they do not have direct access to the same conceptual frameworks), making the meanings of phrasal verbs appear completely arbitrary and random.

2.4 Can Teachers Teach Phrasal Verbs in Meaningful Ways?

Despite the fact that ELLs are generally unaware of the conceptual motivations for English phrasal verb meanings, teachers are able to tap into these conceptual frameworks and explicitly teach them to students. Numerous studies have revealed the positive benefits on students' understanding and retention of phrasal verb meanings when these frameworks are explicitly taught (e.g. White, 2012; Neagu, 2007; Karahan, 2015; Yasuda, 2010)

When thinking about teaching phrasal verbs, there are five important principles to bear in mind:

1. **Since language is based on the conceptual frameworks of the speakers of that language, students from other language backgrounds do not have direct access to the conceptual frameworks of English.**
2. **Phrasal verbs rely heavily on these metaphorical conceptual frameworks.**
3. **Native English speakers are not normally consciously aware of these inherent metaphorical frameworks.**
4. **Teachers first need to become aware of these frameworks and turn their procedural knowledge into explicit knowledge.**
5. **Once these metaphorical structures are explicitly taught to ELLs, they will be able to understand how the meanings of these phrasal verbs are motivated.**

While we have already touched on principles one through three, the next section will focus primarily on the fourth principle: turning our procedural knowledge into explicit knowledge. As speakers of English, you already have developed and rely on conceptual frameworks to form your language, but you might not yet know how this works. In this way, you have formed a procedural knowledge of English: You know how to use language, but you do not necessarily know why you say everything you do. For any of us who have ever said "I don't know why; it's just how we say it," you are demonstrating your procedural knowledge but don't know how to translate that into explicit knowledge.

The purpose of the rest of the handbook is to give you the tools and insight as a teacher to make this switch and learn to explain why phrasal verbs act in the ways they do. In this next section, we will explore some of the theoretical underpinnings of the English language to gain access to this conceptual framework: the conceptual metaphor theory.

Cognitive Linguistics: A Foundation in Theory

We now turn our focus to the theories of language that support our pedagogical practices. This field of cognitive linguistics is less than forty years old, yet these concepts have already dominated fields of psychology and learning as well as linguistics. A thorough understanding of these concepts is vital in teaching phrasal verbs effectively.

3.1 Conceptual Metaphor Theory: How We Think and Speak About the World

Language is a profound tool, not only for speaking about our experiences and communicating with others, but also for making sense of the world around us and categorizing concepts we encounter. As Rudzka-Ostyn (2003) notes, speakers of some languages use speech to distinguish between animate and inanimate objects; masculine and feminine entities; past, present, or future; and different types and degrees of knowledge (p.6). For our purposes in this handbook, it is helpful to think of two main categories of entities that speakers refer to: concepts that we directly know through our experiences and abstract concepts that are outside of our direct experience.

Due to the fact that we are creatures with physical bodies in a physical world (not just disembodied minds), our understanding of the world is transmitted through our embodied experiences in the world (Tyler and Evans, 2003). As such, there are a number of physical phenomena that we experience directly with our bodies (e.g. heat, up/down orientation, objects moving through space, objects contained within other objects, etc.). These concepts are part of what we shall refer to as the experiential domain, where our knowledge is formed directly through our bodily experience in the world.

There is another domain (which we shall call the abstract domain) containing concepts and ideas such as love, relationship, time, causation, emotion, and so on. Many ideas in this abstract domain are inaccessible through our embodied experiences, so to access these ideas, we think about them -- conceptualize them -- in terms of something in the experiential domain. This process of thinking about and speaking about one domain in terms of another is what linguists Lakoff and Johnson call *metaphorical mapping*. We take ideas and entities in our experiential domain (the source domain) and "map" them onto ideas in the abstract domain (target domain) to make sense of the abstract ideas.

In this way, we are thinking and speaking of abstract ideas in terms of concrete, experiences. This is why this mapping is called metaphorical, because we are taking concepts from the source domain and mapping those ideas onto the target domain to conceptualize them.

3.2 Understanding Conceptual Metaphors: A Metaphor for *Knowledge*

To illustrate, consider the following example: The concept of *knowledge* is incredibly abstract, so to think about and conceptualize *knowledge*, we think of it in terms of a more concrete, accessible concept: sight. In our everyday experiences, we form an understanding of sight, and when things are hard for us to see, we might say they are unclear, murky, cloudy, fuzzy, opaque, or foggy, and conversely, when something is easy to see, we might say that thing is clear, bright, brilliant, or transparent. When we conceptualize *knowledge* (from the more abstract domain), we use the same terminology to describe it.

Something that is easy to understand can be described as clear, transparent, or crystal clear. Something that is difficult to understand might be said to be unclear or cloudy; we might be fuzzy about an idea, or something might seem foggy to us. If we lack knowledge, we use the sight domain as well. Someone might be "overlooking an important point" or be experiencing "tunnel-vision". Or maybe they are being "blind" or "myopic," perhaps because they are "blinded by love" or wearing "rose-colored glasses". If we want to gain more knowledge about something, we might need to "take a closer look," "gain perspective," or "have our eyes opened". Then, when someone "sheds some light" on the subject matter for us, we might have "a lightbulb moment," when we come to an understanding and acquire knowledge.

In this example, an idea or concept from an abstract domain (e.g. *knowledge*) is directly inaccessible by our bodily experience. Thus, in order to conceptualize it, we draw on the experiential domain of vision and sight to make sense of it.

3.3 The Ubiquity and Importance of Metaphors

Yet unlike traditional understandings of metaphor, conceptual metaphors are not just ornamental language that reside in our words; they are the way we think about the world. Lakoff and Johnson (1980), in *Metaphors We Live By*, argue that much of our cognition is dependent on metaphor. All abstract thinking is dependent on this metaphorical "mapping" of one domain on the other, of thinking of one thing in terms of another. For instance, we think about abstract concepts like time in terms of money (or a limited resource):

TIME IS A COMMODITY

- They were just trying to **buy some time**
- She now **spends her time** trying to educate others
- This sense of direction guides the way you **use your time**
- It would be silly to **waste time** daydreaming
- We are **running out of time**

In this example, we use the source domain of money to conceptualize the target domain of time. We also refer to arguments and debate in terms of competition (or even war):

THEORETICAL DEBATE IS COMPETITION

- It became an excuse to **attack his beliefs**
- They will ask the president to **defend his point of view**
- Statistics she quotes . . . seem to **bolster her argument**
- If she expresses herself in a true way, she's going to **get shot down**
- Peace advocates can no longer **defend their position**

Here, the source domain is competition, which is mapped onto the target domain of theoretical debate. We can also combine conceptual metaphors together for greater abstractions. For instance, we think about anger in terms of heat and our bodies as

containers for our emotions. Consider the following utterances that rely on this combination of conceptual metaphors:

ANGER IS HEAT and BODY IS CONTAINER FOR EMOTIONS

- It just started really **boiling inside** of me
- He wants to play basketball to **blow off some steam**
- She said her own fear had kept **bottled up**
- My father had a very **fiery temper**
- I'm going to **stew on that** for a minute

While it may not be immediately apparent, our conceptual understanding is largely built upon metaphor. Any abstract thinking we engage in is dependent on conceptual metaphors, drawing from our embodied experiences. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) rightly say, "If we are right in suggesting that our conceptual system is largely metaphorical, then the way we think, what we experience, and what we do every day is very much a matter of metaphor" (p. 4). As such, metaphors are both pervasive and integral in all parts of cognition, and these metaphors are expressed through our language.

In the next few sections, we want to relate this discussion to phrasal verbs, and specifically, the metaphorical usage of particles. We generally don't think of particles as having literal and metaphorical meanings, yet the way the meanings of particles are extended is one of the major factors in determining the meanings of phrasal verbs. In this next section, let's consider the literal (i.e. spatial or prototypical) sense of particles.

Particles and Phrasal Verbs

When we start applying these theories to phrasal verbs, one important concept to note is the compositional nature of phrasal verb meanings. As multi-word expressions, phrasal verbs derive their meaning from the meanings of the verb and particle of which they are composed. Sometimes, the meaning of the phrasal verb directly reflects the meanings of the constituents, but often, this is not the case, and it is difficult to see the connection between the phrasal verb and the meanings of the verb and particle.

This difficulty has led some to believe that phrasal verbs do not have compositional meanings, i.e. their meanings are not necessarily tied to the meanings of the verb and particle. For instance, they might argue that the particle *out* in *fill out* (as in *fill out a form*) is arbitrary and could easily be replaced with *in*, (as in **fill in a form*). On the contrary, as we will see in these next sections, the particular particles that are used in phrasal verbs are incredibly important, and they do directly relate to the compositional meaning of phrasal verbs.

4.1 The Spatial (Prototypical) Meaning of Particles

One of the most fundamental elements in our experience is the concept of direction, that is, spatial orientation. When we refer to the world around us, we don't conceptualize space in terms of fixed space and location, referring to exact angles, distances, or sizes. Rather, our concepts of space are relativized to ourselves and the world around us (Tyler and Evans, 2003, p. 21).

The language we use reflects this relativistic understanding of the space around us. Instead of referring to exact locations, we use prepositions and adverbs to talk about location, saying something is *across the room* or *on the table*, referring to things in relation to us and to our surroundings. Consider the following list of prepositions and adverbs listed below (adapted from Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003, p. 4-5) to see the way we refer to space around us:

1. With a bow, he hastened **across** the floor
2. A man rode his bicycle **along** the road
3. He lives eight miles **away** from here
4. I close the notebook and hand it **back** to him
5. Her apartment is **by** the stairs
6. The heavily laden van moved **down** the hill
7. I grabbed the bowl and hid it **in** the kitchen.
8. A resident **inside** the apartment was armed and fired
9. The plane slammed **into** the building
10. I swiped crumbs **off** my lap and onto the rug
11. There's a bucket of champagne already chilling **on** the table
12. He walked **out** of the room, and I was left sitting there

13. A pair of drones that hovered **over** the field
14. Bats flitted out **through** the tunnel, abandoning him.
15. She slips **under** the table and tickles her sisters' feet.
16. I watched one squirrel climb **up** the pole

Any preposition or adverb that refers to physical direction or space is called spatial (or prototypical) in meaning. Of all the ways prepositions and adverbs can be used, these are the most basic meanings, as they refer to location and space around us.

4.2 Phrasal Verb Usage: Transparent Meanings

As we established in Section 3.2.1, a preposition or adverb functioning within a phrasal verb is referred to as a particle. Thus, when that preposition or adverb is in its prototypical form, it is referred to as a particle functioning in its prototypical form. These prototypical particles -- when they combine with verbs -- form a class of phrasal verbs known as *transparent* or *literal* phrasal verbs. Since the prototypical meaning of particles pertain to our experiential understanding of space and direction -- they are accessible to us and easy to understand. The meanings of transparent phrasal verbs can be easily discerned by the meanings of the verb and the particle used. Consider the following examples:

1. Here is a hasty note asking you to **send back** to me the receipt I sent you
2. Tami climbed into the right seat and **put on** her helmet
3. The man scooted over so he could **sit down** on the futon
4. This book is something to **pull out of** my pocket at will

Consider the first example sentence: the meaning of *send* is to arrange for the transportation of something, and the spatial, prototypical meaning of *back* expresses the return of something to a prior location. When we put them together, the phrasal verb is easy to understand because it is based on the meaning of the verb and the prototypical meaning of the particle. A general rule is this: if the ELL knows the meaning of the verb, and the particle is in its spatial (or prototypical form), then the meaning can be derived by the meanings of the constituents. These phrasal verbs are the easiest for English language learners to acquire, since their meanings are transparent.

4.3 Extended Meanings of Particles:

Unfortunately, not all phrasal verbs have transparent meanings, and in fact, a majority of their meanings are idiomatic and polysemous. For these phrasal verbs, the particle takes on a different meaning from its prototypical meaning. Instead of referring to literal space and direction, these particles are used when other concepts are thought of in terms of space. Consider the following examples, where *difficulties* (an abstract concept) are conceptualized in terms of *containment* (an experiential source domain):

DIFFICULTIES ARE CONTAINERS

- How do you get **out** of this situation?
- He could be **in** a lot of trouble
- He's already **up** to his neck in the nation's troubles
- Well, I think we're **in** a mess
- I try not to get myself **into** too much trouble

As the examples above show, when *container* is used as a source domain, particles are frequently used in the expressions (e.g. out, in, up). This is because the concept of direction is embedded into the notion of a container. To speak of a container is to speak of being inside, on top of, out of, or into a container. Thus, when we use a container to make sense of an abstract entity like *difficulties*, we will rely on direction-related particles to aid in our understanding and language of the concept. The most primary experiences (like *orientation* and *containment*) serve as the source domain for us to conceptualize the majority of our abstract thoughts.

Notice how, in these examples, the particles refer to abstract entities instead of literal spatial orientation. In the first sentence, for example, the subject is asking how to escape from a situation, and they use *out* to express it. At a conceptual level, the difficult situation is thought of in terms of a container, and as such, the particles are used metaphorically, differing from their prototypical meanings.

4.4 Metaphorical Extensions of Phrasal Verbs

Depending on the conceptual metaphor used, these particles can take on a range of extended meanings, differing from their prototypical meanings. For instance, while the prototypical meaning of *up* literally means to move in an upward direction to a higher location, metaphorically, it refers to an increase in size, number, or strength (Kovacs, 2011b, p. 147). Notice these metaphorical extensions in the following phrasal verbs:

- The premiums have **gone up** since the Affordable Care Act
- I **came up** with the idea to provide students
- The students wanted to **make up** for that absence

Conversely, while *down* prototypically means moving in a downward direction to a lower position, it can be metaphorically extended to refer to a decrease in size, number, and strength:

- Interest rates have **gone down**
- My car **broke down** on the way to Minneapolis
- He allowed the mirth to **quiet down** a bit before continuing

These are just two examples of particles that are metaphorically extended. Their meanings are extended beyond the literal, spatial orientation to describing abstract entities. This is what makes some phrasal verbs difficult to learn; the conceptual metaphors that motivate these meaning extensions are not transparent to them.

In this next section, we will explore how meaning is extended metaphorically and the common conceptual metaphors that are responsible for these meanings. To fully understand the systematic ways meaning works, we will isolate one particle, *out*, and see how its prototypical meaning extends to many idiomatic phrasal verbs.

4.5 A Closer Look at Metaphorical Extension: The Example of *Out*

Like many other particles, the notion of *out* relies on the image of a container as a source domain for its metaphors. In its prototypical sense, *out* refers to exiting a container. We can use this prototypical sense of *out* to speak about objects exiting a number of different containers:

- Max **rushed out** of the house
- Yes, we **jumped out** of our seats
- Emma opened the cottage door to **let** the dog **out**
- She **stormed out** of the courtroom
- Moore told them to **check out** of the hotel
- Minorities were **driven out** of their homes

These are the most transparent of all uses of *out*. In these sentences, anything from a house to a seat is considered a container. Even in sentence 3, while it is not stated, the container is implied, as the dog was enclosed in the house and now is let out of that enclosure. Because they are physical containers, these phrasal verbs utilize the spatial-prototypical sense of the particle.

Multiple researchers (Lindner, 1983; Tyler and Evans, 2003; Tyler and Mahpeykar, 2015; Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003; Kurtyka, 2001; Neagu, 2007) have theorized the ways in which the central meaning of *out* is metaphorically extended and used in phrasal verbs (c.f. Lakoff, 1987 for an analysis of *over*). While they present different labels and categories, their analyses share many similar features, which will be summarized in the following sections.

4.6 OUT: Local Extensions with the Container Metaphor

Given that the central meaning of *out* is leaving a container, the way the expressions are metaphorically extended is when other entities are conceptualized as containers. Neagu (2007) notes that particle meanings are metaphorically extended in concentric circles from the central meaning. This means that not all metaphorical extensions are equally abstract; some are much more easy to discern than others due to their proximity to the prototypical sense. The following three local extensions form the first concentric ring around the central sense. The first extension is called the *Not In Situ Sense* (Tyler and Evans, 2003), where *being/eating in a home* is conceptualized as a container, and anything outside of that container depends on the use of out:

BEING/EATING IN A HOME IS A CONTAINER

1. Would you like to **go out** for lunch?
2. I don't think we should be **going out** tonight
3. Johnson would **invite** Scott **out** to dinner

4. That's sweet of you, but I want to **stay in** tonight (Use of *in* shows the metaphorical extension works both ways)

Notice how, in these sentences, the phrasal verb meaning is not fully transparent but still simple to understand from the verb and particle. In addition to the *Not In Situ Sense*, Rudzka-Ostyn (2003) identifies two other local extensions: Sets and groups are containers and bodies, minds, and mouths are containers. In addition to the first local sense, these extensions are relatively transparent in their meanings. Consider the meaning of *out*, as sets and groups are conceptualized as containers:

SETS AND GROUPS ARE CONTAINERS

- I was **kicked out** of the Brownies when I was about seven years old
- Maybe she'll get **picked out** of the crowd
- The guitar wonder **came out** of a non-blues tradition
- He's confident he was **forced out** of the NFL

The third conceptual metaphor is to view mouths (as well as bodies and minds) as a type of container:

MOUTHS ARE CONTAINERS

- She **stuck** her tongue **out** at me
- I **dealt out** praise for them in return
- "I... I don't know, " she **stammered out**
- The nerve to **speak out** against a government's abuse
- He **yelled out** orders to attack the herd
- She was startled and **cried out**

In these sentences, both physical objects (e.g. a tongue, in sentence 1) and abstract ideas (e.g. words and phrases) are conceptualized as leaving the mouth. Closely related to this mouth-as-container metaphor is one where the body and mind are viewed as a corporeal container for thoughts, emotions, and questions:

BODIES AND MINDS ARE CONTAINERS

- I couldn't **get** this question **out** of my mind
- He **poured out** his heart, sharing his story
- She's going to **squeeze** the life **out** of him
- I **reached out** to greet him
- I wonder if Ed **is out** of his mind
- He decided to **hear** her **out** anyway

Again, in these sentences, the body or mind is thought of as a container for emotions and inner thoughts. Even in the fourth sentence, as the subject stretches out their hand to greet, the body is thought of as a container, and the arms at the sides of the body are

thought to be inside the container. Reaching out to shake hands, then, is conceptualized as leaving the container of the body.

These three local extensions of *out* help us to see how the idea of containment is extended to a variety of contexts -- from corporeal containment to viewing groups or homes as containers. In the next section, we will consider further global metaphorical extensions, where more abstract concepts are thought of in terms of containment, giving rise to other phrasal verb meanings.

4.7 OUT: Global Extensions with Conditions as Containers

As we have mentioned, the prototypical meaning of *out* is extended metaphorically to include a range of various meanings. In the first concentric extension, *out* is extended as physical entities (i.e. homes, groups, and bodies) are thought of as containers. In the global extensions, more abstract entities (e.g. states or conditions) are viewed in terms of containment.

The first of these conditions is what we would deem a (usually negative) situation. This is an incredibly common and implicit metaphor in English. Consider the following phrases where this metaphor extends the meaning of *out*:

SITUATIONS ARE CONTAINERS

- The whole situation **got out** of control
- I believe that if Europe can **get out** of this mess
- If it helps you **crawl out** of debt for good, it's worth it

Another condition (or state) we conceptualize in terms of containment is focus. When we focus on something, our attention is given to that thing, and everything else is thought to be outside of that focus. When we focus on something, it consumes (i.e. contains) our mental energy, and when we shift our focus, it is thought of as leaving that container:

FOCUS IS A CONTAINER

- he'd asked her to **look out** for Grandma
- **Watch out** for those stump holes
- You can **check out** the name of recipes on the website

In these sentences, someone is being asked to turn their focus toward something outside their normal focus.

Aside from situations and focus being conceptualized as containers, several researchers (e.g. Lindner, 1983; Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003) have noted the pattern of default or normal states being conceptualized as containers. As such, when someone ceases to participate in that state, they are thought to be exiting *out* of the state. This could be leaving the state of existence to non-existence, consciousness to unconsciousness, knowledge to lack of knowledge, remembrance to forgetfulness, etc.

This pattern of things going from states of existence to non-existence can be illustrated in the following sets of sentences. Listed below are three of Rudzka-Ostyn's (2003) example subcategories: existence, consciousness, and usability.

EXISTENCE IS A CONTAINER

- He is helping others **put out** the fire
- The continent's long-term residents began to **die out**
- They saw their futures, their savings, their homes **wiped out**
- Her voice **faded out** again

CONSCIOUSNESS IS A CONTAINER

- The flight engineer was **knocked out** cold
- He **passed out** on the bed after a couple of drinks

USABILITY IS A CONTAINER

- By the time you **wore** it **out**, it would be out of fashion anyhow
- The wave had **washed out** the road in some places
- The lock on the patio door had **rusted out** long ago

In each of these examples, a state or condition is thought of in terms of a container, where something changes from a state (e.g. existence) to a different state. These examples follow a pattern of entropy, where things go from order to disorder, potential to lack of potential, etc. When something moves from this state of existence, it is thought to be leaving the container (*out*), motivating this phrasal verb pattern.

In her phrasal verb analysis, Rudzka-Ostyn (2003) finds that this same pattern for *out* exists the other way, too: non-existence is thought of as a container that can be escaped, too. This pattern holds true for things going from non-existence to existence, ignorance to knowledge, and invisibility to visibility. The following example sentences illustrate this series of metaphors:

NON-EXISTENCE/IGNORANCE/INVISIBILITY IS A CONTAINER

- The word must have **leaked out** that something was up
- Try to **figure out** what the administration is doing next
- Others examined the comet's surface, which **turned out** to be as hard as ice
- He **pointed out** that disaster flights are not what people want to read about
- We will pursue him until the full truth **comes out**
- She shuffled the deck and began to **deal out** the cards for study

In these sentences, something that was originally hidden from knowledge or sight becomes visible and brought into clear view. It could be a secret that gets leaked out, or it could be a discovery (e.g. the nature of the comet's surface). Even in the last sentence this pattern persists, for in the act of dealing out cards, the faces of the cards become evident (visible) to the card players. These are just a few of the many examples following this pattern of extension.

4.8 Generalizing Phrasal Verb Extension

Without the container metaphor, there would be little way for us to see a meaning connection between the phrasal verbs containing *out*. Yet due to viewing various entities (e.g. houses, bodies, focus, visibility, existence) as containers, we are able to see how the meaning of phrasal verbs are motivated by conceptual frameworks. There is a logical and systematic organization of phrasal verbs, and it primarily stems from the metaphorical extension of particle meaning, using a family of related metaphors.

For our example, we looked at *out* and saw how its spatial, prototypical meaning was extended metaphorically, but we can take the same principle and apply it to every other particle, too. As such, by beginning with the spatial, directional meanings of particles, we can determine a wide range of extended meanings, simply by using conceptual metaphors. This recent breakthrough in our understanding completely transforms the way we can understand and teach phrasal verbs. Instead of presenting isolated phrasal verbs, we can identify and expose the conceptual structures that really drive the meanings.

Pedagogical Approaches to Phrasal Verbs

We now move to the pedagogical section of the handbook: turning our theory into practice. Now that we have built an understanding of how conceptual metaphors drive phrasal verb meaning, we are ready to learn how to best present these concepts to our students. I remind you of the five principles in teaching phrasal verbs as we shift our discussion toward pedagogy:

1. Since language is based on the conceptual frameworks of the speakers of that language, students from other language backgrounds do not have direct access to the conceptual frameworks of English.
2. Phrasal verbs rely heavily on these metaphorical conceptual frameworks.
3. Native English speakers are not normally consciously aware of these inherent metaphorical frameworks.
4. Teachers first need to become aware of these frameworks and turn their procedural knowledge into explicit knowledge.
5. Once these metaphorical structures are explicitly taught to ELLs, they will be able to understand how the meanings of these phrasal verbs are motivated.

So far in our discussion, we have established the first four pedagogical principles. We now understand how phrasal verb motivation occurs and how meaning is extended, turning our procedural knowledge to explicit knowledge. The question of this next section is how we can turn this understanding into meaningful learning experiences for our students.

5.1 Weaknesses of Traditional Pedagogical Approaches

Without the understanding of metaphor from cognitive linguistics, teachers are left with two primary ways to present phrasal verbs: semantic and syntactic organization. With semantic organization, teachers categorize phrasal verbs according to topic or usage. These groups of phrasal verbs usually appear in the vocabulary section of the textbook, grouped by themed chapters on “Family and Relationships,” “Workplace,” or “Travel and Transportation”. While the phrasal verbs have similar contexts of use, they are not necessarily related to each other; thus, this approach leads teachers to present lists of phrasal verbs for their students to memorize.

Another pedagogical strategy -- syntactic organization -- seeks to focus on the syntactic elements (either verbs or particles) and categorize the constructions accordingly. An example would include teaching a list like *take after, take down, take over, take up,* etc. While this approach is closer to a cognitive approach, it still fails to identify the real motivations of meaning: the conceptual metaphors that drive particle meaning. Thus, like the semantic approach, the syntactic approach fails to identify the real motivations for meaning extension.

5.2 The Importance of Conceptual Visualization

Based on this understanding of metaphorical meaning extension, cognitive linguists have proposed a new approach to teaching phrasal verbs -- one that relies heavily on visualization. Kurtyka (2001) summarizes the importance of visualization by saying “the

ability to form mental representations of verbal and non-verbal input, seems to be indispensable in learning" (p. 33), citing numerous studies pointing to the centrality of the image in learning retention. Many scholars and researchers (e.g. Shone, 1984; Shabiralyani, G. et al. (2015)) have pointed to the efficacy of visuals in learning, and it has become a widely-accepted norm in language teaching.

One might take this understanding and choose to illustrate individual phrasal verbs for their students, drawing diagrams for each individual PV construction. This is the technique I tried before coming to an understanding of cognitive linguistics, and I have seen multiple teachers use it in their teaching.

The problem with this approach is that the visuals are over-contextualized, as the learner is presented with an individual picture for each phrasal verb. In other words, the teacher must present a single picture to represent the PV *fill up* and another for the PV *fill out*, as the meanings and contexts of use are incredibly different. Further, in order to effectively teach these polysemous constructions, the teacher would have difficulty drawing a picture to fully encapsulate the drastically different meanings of the following phrasal verb:

1. He leads a group to a city park to **pick up** trash (*to lift or take off the ground*)
2. Cell phone towers are able to **pick up** a caller's location on a 911 call. (*to detect*)
3. he was trying to get a cab to go **pick up** his 3-year-old daughter (*to take in a car*)
4. Republicans failed to **pick up** a single seat in the chamber (*to take, to win*)
5. momentum is starting to **pick up** (*to increase*)
6. You need to **pick up** where you left off (*to resume*)
7. Showing them pictures can help them to **pick up** the language (*to learn, acquire*)

Imagine drawing one picture that would satisfy all the meanings of this one phrasal verb! It would no doubt be impossible, so teachers would have to resort to either teaching only one meaning for the phrasal verb or instead drawing seven pictures to illustrate its meanings. This is surely not an effective use of time and energy for teachers and students.

Cognitive linguists have proposed a different type of visualization: a cognitively-based image. Instead of drawing images for each individual phrasal verb and context, this approach allows teachers to present the metaphorical structures for students through visuals. These visuals are based on the spatial-prototypical meaning of phrasal verbs, and as such, they are more abstract to elucidate the conceptual motivations to students. As we learn this visualization approach, we must develop an understanding of two important concepts: landmark and trajector.

5.3 Landmark and Trajector: Learning to Visualize Metaphorical Extensions

In order for teachers to gain an in-depth pedagogical understanding into the metaphorical network of extended meanings, it is important to introduce two new concepts: *trajector* and *landmark*. These terms help to label and define how these metaphors work and also give rise to pictorial representations of these abstract metaphors. These terms were initially introduced by Langacker (1987), but they have since then been adopted by a majority of prominent cognitive linguists.

In short, the terms *trajector* and *landmark* help us label the way humans make sense of the world around them and focus on and speak of particular objects around them. When

we speak about things, we speak of one thing in relation to another, with one entity in focus and another as a backdrop. Rudzka-Ostyn (2003) notes that "we unconsciously foreground or focus on a (moving) entity and view it against a background seen as container or surface" (p. 9). The moving (or foregrounded) entity is referred to as the *trajector*, while the container or surface against which the trajector is viewed is called the *landmark*. In her work, Rudzka-Ostyn (2003) demonstrates the notion of landmark and trajector through a series of sentence comparisons. Consider the following example sentences, following that pattern:

	SENTENCE	**TRAJECTOR**	**LANDMARK**
1.	He locked himself away in his room	he	room
2.	He picked up the glass sitting on the table	glass	table
3.	Bay took a paperback out of her backpack	paperback	backpack
4.	Corbin pulled alongside the curb and stopped	Corbin's car	curb

In these sentences, the foreground entity is the moving entity, and the landmark is the container or surface against which the trajector is positioned. Now, consider the same sentences where the landmark and trajector are switched and the background entities are moved to the foreground:

	SENTENCE	**TRAJECTOR**	**LANDMARK**
5.	*His room is locked around him	room	him
6.	*The table is sitting under the glass	table	glass
7.	*Bay's backpack is surrounding a paperback	backpack	paperback
8.	*The curb is next to the Corbin's car	curb	Corbin's car

The first set of sentences affirms our natural interpretation of the world around us, while the second set (the awkward sentences offset with asterisks) contradicts this organizational system by switching the foreground and background entities. While this categorization of the world might not be true for all languages and peoples, it is certainly the predominant way native English speakers organize and speak about their experiences.

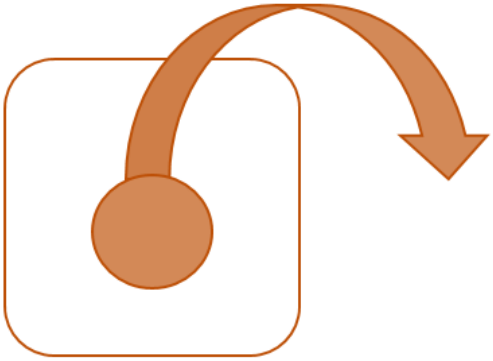
When we apply the concept of trajector and landmark to phrasal verbs, we think of the subject in focus as the trajector, and the landmark is conceptualized as a type of container, path, group, or surface.

5.4 Using Trajector and Landmark to Represent Metaphors

Linguists have used a number of ways to represent trajector and landmark in pictorial form, and the following visualization approach is an adaptation primarily derived from Rudzka-Ostyn, (2003). The trajector (the entity in the foreground) is represented by a dark circle, and the landmark (the background entity) is represented by a large rectangle.

To illustrate this visualization approach, we will revisit the central and extended meanings of *out* to see how these pictures help elucidate these concepts for students. The pictures thus contain an abstract representation of a container (the landmark) and an entity leaving the container (the trajector). The following picture is a representation of the prototypical meaning of *out*, based on its spatial-orientation.

Figure 1.1: Central Meaning of *Out*



This image can be used to elucidate the meanings of the following expressions:

- Max **rushed out** of the house
- Yes, we **jumped out** of our seats
- Emma opened the cottage door to **let** the dog **out**
- She **stormed out** of the courtroom
- Moore told them to **check out** of the hotel
- Minorities were **driven out** of their homes

For the illustration, the landmark (container) and the trajector (the dark dot) substitute for a variety of different entities. This allows teachers to draw one abstract illustration (based on the prototypical meaning of the particle) and extend it to various contexts. Students will be able to build their understanding of the metaphorical extension by visually seeing how different entities are metaphorically represented by this container metaphor. For instance, the spatial image of *out* (Figure 1.1) can be extended to visually represent the following phrasal verbs:

USABILITY IS A CONTAINER

- By the time you **wore** it **out**, it would be out of fashion anyhow
- The wave had **washed out** the road in some places
- The lock on the patio door had **rusted out** long ago

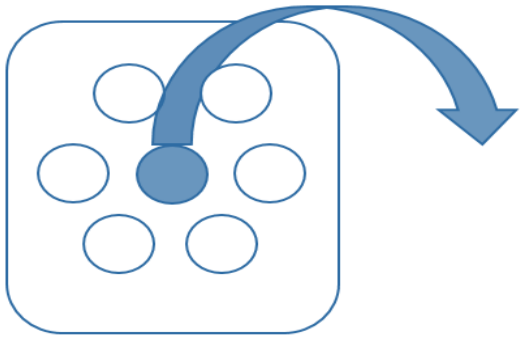
In these sentences, the concept of *usability* is represented by the container landmark, and the entities that move out of use (the dark dot) are thought to be leaving the containment of *usability*. The important piece to this visualization is that the image does not change. The only difference is the referents for the trajector and landmark, but the image of entities exiting a container remain the same.

5.5 Further Adaptations to Landmark and Trajector

To further illustrate the variety of phrasal verbs represented by the notion of containment, it is sometimes helpful to adapt and modify visualizations to show how the

meanings are logically extended. Taking the example of *out*, consider how to visually represent *out* as leaving a group:

Figure 1.2: *Out* as Leaving a Group



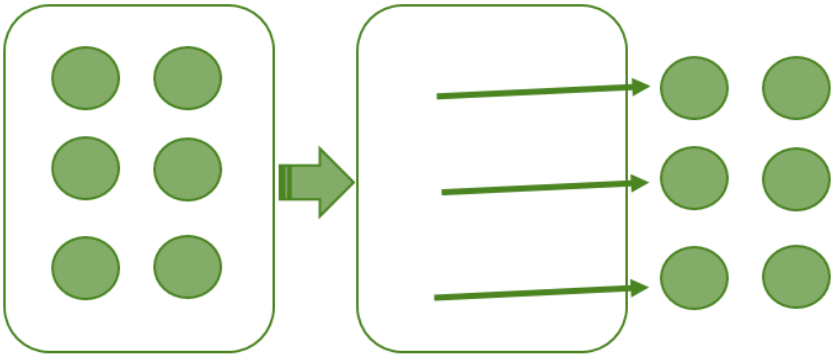
A visual like this one helps us to make sense of the connection between the following extensions and phrasal verbs:

SETS AND GROUPS ARE CONTAINERS

- I was **kicked out** of the Brownies when I was about seven years old
- Maybe she'll get **picked out** of the crowd
- The guitar wonder **came out** of a non-blues tradition
- He's confident he was **forced out** of the NFL

Without an image like this one, though, language learners might struggle to find a meaningful connection between *came out, kicked out*, and *picked out*. Yet with this picture, these metaphorical connections are made explicit for learners. The trajector represents an entity in a group (the group is represented by other dots inside the landmark), and the connection is made clear. Lastly, consider the following image, where *out* represents thoughts and emotions leaving the body:

Figure 1.3: *Out* as Leaving the Body



BODIES AND MINDS ARE CONTAINERS

- I couldn't **get** this question **out** of my mind
- He **poured out** his heart, sharing his story
- She's going to **squeeze** the life **out** of him
- I **reached out** to greet him
- I wonder if Ed **is out** of his mind
- He decided to **hear** her **out** anyway

In these examples, the trajector represents thoughts, emotions, and disposition, and the landmark represents the body or mind in which the trajector is contained. Instead of drawing unique pictures for each of these PVs, teachers can illustrate a whole body of related meanings through one image and relate all the respective PV meanings to it.

5.6 Benefits of a Conceptual Approach to Presenting Phrasal Verbs

Compared with traditional approaches, this cognitive linguistic approach has a number of benefits for teachers and students.

1. **Use of Visuals**. This approach puts visuals to use, which have been shown to lead to better retention of vocabulary and stronger understanding of academic content.
2. **Grounded in Metaphor**. This is perhaps the most important aspect, as the illustrations represent the actual meaning motivations, not just contextual information. This leads to understanding of why and how various meanings are related, rather than simply providing illustrations to individual phrasal verbs.
3. **Ease for the Teacher**. This approach allows the teacher to move from the arduous process of explaining the meaning and context of each individual phrasal verb and toward a more comprehensive approach to related meanings. Teachers can also build lessons on each other, presenting the central meaning first and extended meanings in further lessons, which adds continuity and structure to the lessons.
4. **Ease for the Student**. Since the CL approach reveals the conceptual underpinnings of PV meaning motivation, students are able to learn and memorize families of PVs instead of individually learning each PV meaning and context.
5. **Related Illustrations for Diagrams**. The *out* phrasal verbs all rely on a series of related container metaphors, and the visual illustrations reveal those relations. For instance, most landmarks are demarcated by either a container or surface image, which makes it simple for teachers and adds continuity for students learning these illustrations and meanings.

In short, there are a host of reasons why this method of presenting phrasal verbs has immense potential to reduce time and energy of learning and also add to overall retention of the content. Multiple studies (Condon, 2008; Boers and Lindstromberg, 2000) have shown benefits of using related approaches in classrooms, and researchers are developing more resources for teachers to utilize these in the classroom.

5.7 Application in the Classroom: Crafting Meaningful Lesson Plans

When it comes to turning these approaches into lesson plans, there are several practical ideas for teachers to consider. Instead of simply providing example lesson plans, this section presents a number of principles and ideas for consideration when crafting lesson plans and activities for your particular classroom.

1. Modify traditional fill-in-the-gap exercises. These exercises are often used during class time to build students' understanding and gauge their comprehension. Rudzka-Ostyn (2003) recently developed a series of what are called *exetests*, a combination of a standard fill-in-the-gap exercise and a comprehension check for students. In those *exetests*, a series of sentences were used in which students had to choose from a phrasal verb word bank to select the correct form for the sentence. Sometimes, the words were omitted; other times, the phrasal verb would substitute for a synonym. Exercises like these have been shown to be useful in learning and retention in a variety of contexts (Kurtyka, 2001).

Teachers can also expand on these standard fill-in-the-gap exercises to steer them to a more task-based approach. As long as the students are exposed to explicit forms and are able to make the conceptual connections, task-based adaptations are incredibly helpful and useful. Teachers could turn these *exetests* into standard gap-fill exercises, where students work in pairs or groups to complete an activity together. An example of this might be the following: After presenting the BODY/MIND AS CONTAINER metaphor, have students cut out faces from magazines and talk about the emotions expressed in terms of containment, using target forms. Then, have them write and share stories about their lives (perhaps a particular event) or about another person, speaking of their emotions and feelings in similar terms. These adaptations of simple lessons has immense potential to make the content more meaningful and accessible for students.

2. Make space for explicit instruction on form. As mentioned in the introduction, within communicative and task-based language teaching, the importance of explicit focus on forms -- and phrasal verb teaching, specifically -- is often overlooked, as they believe it takes away from the communicative contexts of the task-based exercises. Nevertheless, while it is important to utilize authentic contexts and use communicative approaches, these activities must be combined with focus-on-form instruction.

In order to successfully present the conceptual metaphors and give students the opportunity to visualize the abstractions, teachers will have to explicitly present the material to the students. Holme (2017) agrees and calls for "more teacher control over input and output" or what he terms "input engineering, to make sure that forms reoccur and are noticed when they do" (p. 23). Noticing (Schmidt, 1990) is a vital aspect of language learning, and to make sure our students understand and are exposed to a variety of phrasal verbs, we must be willing to explicitly teach the forms to them.

3. Utilize student-centered visualizations. A recently developed approach (White, 2012) combines cognitive linguistic approaches with Vygotsky's sociocultural theory to develop what is termed *conceptual mediation*, where students are the originators of the conceptual imagery. This approach differs from many other approaches in that the activity that students engage in is a tool for discovery, rather than a practice exercise for a discovery already made. According to Negueruela (2008), "conceptually mediated learning activity not

only prepares the way for development to occur but at the same time promotes development itself" (White, 2012, p. 422).

This approach in essence refocuses the classroom, where the student is viewed as the originator of mental schemas, instead of the teacher presenting diagrams and images to the class. Students are presented with contextualized phrases, and they must use landmark and trajector to illustrate the meaning of the phrasal verb. After the students are exposed to a conceptual understanding of phrasal verbs and given the appropriate tools for illustrating and labeling their diagrams, they are given the opportunity to collect samples on their own and draw pictures of related phrasal verbs. The teacher can then use those drawings as a launching point to explain how the individual phrasal verbs are connected to each other. This activity has been tested on older students (White, 2012) and would tend to be most successful with older language learners and students in high intermediate and above courses, where they are able to dissect meaning of a phrasal verb from the context of a passage.

4. Use corpus concordance lines for demonstrating phrasal verb use. The use of corpora, large, digital collections of written texts representative of a particular genre or language group, are increasingly commonplace in language research and teaching. One of the many contributions of a large-scale corpus is that it present representative language data of how language users actually use language. We have many assumptions on how we use language, but looking at authentic texts gives us insight into the existence and prevalence of various speech and language patterns.

For PV instruction, teachers can go to a large-scale corpus (e.g. COCA: Corpus of Contemporary American English) and find instances of phrasal verbs in actual usage. This is preferable to making up examples or even using textbook examples, which can be arcane and rarely used. With a corpus, you can show students the most common phrasal verbs and how their meanings are extended in authentic contexts. This also might help you demonstrate to your students how prevalent the metaphoric, extended meanings are in phrasal verbs. (See Appendix B for an example of concordance lines).

These suggestions are just a few starting points as you consider how to construct meaningful lessons for your particular classes. As you develop and expand your knowledge, there are several helpful resources to consider. In the next section, we will consider some of these resources and next steps in your research.

5.8 Resources for Further Knowledge

As this handbook comes to a close, there are a few resources that are helpful to consider -- sources that have aided in my understanding and will surely benefit you and further elucidate these concepts. The purpose of this handbook is to provide teachers with a conceptual and pedagogical introduction, but it is by no means exhaustive. To flesh out your knowledge on these concepts, consider looking further into these resources:

Metaphors We Live By -- (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980) In their seminal work, Lakoff and Johnson introduced the theory of the conceptual metaphor and catalyzed much of what this current work is based upon. While the theory has been nuanced, expanded, and adapted over the years, the same principles persist, and this work fleshes out many of these concepts

in great detail. This is an accessible read, and it would be beneficial for any teacher wanting to understand the prevalence and ubiquity of metaphor in thought and language.

The Semantics of English Prepositions -- (Tyler and Evans, 2003) One of the principle elements in determining phrasal verb meaning is particle meaning changes, and this work comprehensively covers the topic. Tyler and Evans explain the reasons why particular particles are used and change meanings the way they do, and they also provide guidelines for determining the prototypical and distinct senses of particles, something other researchers had not done before. Finally, they delve into the theory of embodiment and show how cognition and language are dependent on our embodied experiences. If you would like to expand your knowledge on the theory behind this methodology, this is the source to explore.

Word Power: Phrasal Verbs and Compounds -- (Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003) Much of the pedagogical work in this handbook is based on and adapted from Rudzka-Ostyn's text. The book is a comprehensive overview of over a dozen different particles, and while I chose to demonstrate with *out*, Rudzka-Ostyn provides an in-depth analysis for many particles, listing *exetests* and offering pedagogical suggestions. If, as a teacher, you plan to use this approach to teach phrasal verbs, this is a must-have. A straightforward, to-the-point text like this is invaluable for instruction, as it is replete with examples and helpful diagrams.

Appendix A: Frequent Phrasal Verb Combinations in English

from Gardner and Davies (2007)

TABLE 5

Verb-Particle Frequencies of Top 20 Lexical Verbs Functioning in Phrasal Verb (PV) Forms (*Continued on p. 351*)

Verb	Out	Up	On	Back	Down	In	Off	Over
GO	7,688	3,678	14,903	8,065	4,781	1,974	2,104	991
COME	5,022	5,523	4,830	8,029	3,305	4,814	518	1,004
TAKE	3,426	4,608	4,199	1,628	775	509	2,163	5,420
GET	3,545	3,936	2,696	4,552	1,538	1,127	1,086	293
SET	4,633	10,360	11	265	504	281	1,869	1
CARRY	10,798	36	3,869	172	84	32	170	131
TURN	4,284	2,710	292	1,373	1,051	149	594	975
BRING	1,425	2,507	390	2,200	1,022	2,505	31	129
LOOK	1,641	3,871	244	2,251	2,221	250	2	207
PUT	1,660	2,835	1,428	1,369	2,873	810	742	76
PICK	856	9,037	35	3	3	1	44	18
MAKE	1,105	5,469	25	270	65	16	277	75
POINT	6,984	104	0	7	56	0	6	2
SIT	191	1,158	118	834	4,478	145	1	3
FIND	6,619	33	9	128	34	57	4	5
GIVE	532	4,186	34	507	11	579	121	198
WORK	4,703	334	411	36	98	182	33	31
BREAK	996	1,286	3	4	2,199	220	549	2
HOLD	1,507	1,624	908	823	369	34	91	40
MOVE	573	477	1,419	566	306	790	242	201
Total	68,188	63,772	35,824	33,082	25,773	14,475	10,647	9,802
% of PV	13.1	12.3	6.9	6.4	5.0	2.8	2.1	1.9
Cum %	13.1	25.4	32.3	38.7	43.7	46.5	48.5	50.4

Appendix B: Example Concordance Lines for *Pick Up* for Classroom Use

A random sample from the Corpus of Contemporary American English

1	MAG	. . . take a minute to **pick up** any bits of litter lying about, break up fire rings and bury . . .
2	FIC	I drop off the 2carbon dioxide and **pick up** more oxygen. I am bright red again! From the lungs I go . . .
3	FIC	. . . off to school before their parents got ready for work. They'd **pick up** a little when they got home. They might clean on weekend.
4	FIC	. . . then Barbara called this morning to say you'd be back in two weeks to **pick up** your things and the Mustang once the two of you got back . . .
5	SPOK	So he doesn't need to **pick up** a phone and call somebody and say do a terrorist attack.
6	NEWS	(Sacramento County) # **PICK UP** THE TAB # Editor -- Now that the Jeremiah O'Brien has shown the world . . .
7	SPOK	She ought to be careful because I'll send one of my friends to **pick up** her girlfriend, and I think it would be very easy.
8	SPOK	. . . moment, could be made to look terrible. And then if the news programs **pick up** that little snippet and an editor . . .
9	FIC	I have to go, too. I just stopped by to **pick up** those financial printouts. If you have them, I can take them now . . .
10	MAG	. . . tips that could benefit Black women. From the warning signs they want us to **pick up** on sooner to birth control options, this is what we found . . .
11	NEWS	Mann will sometime **pick up** the twins at preschool, spend the evening at home with them, then . . .
12	ACAD	. . . long as they could play the right sounds. These students are usually quick to **pick up** the vocabulary and often, because of their aural skills . . .
13	FIC	. . . was last Tuesday as I already said. Big Master Henry was in Memphis to **pick up** some fabric ordered by Miss Caroline.
14	SPOK	. . . fell eight votes short of the 60 it needed to pass. But it did **pick up** the support of most Republicans including minority leader . . .
15	FIC	I know a two-week lull can feel like forever, but things will **pick up** for you. I know about this. " # Spencer looked at her . . .
16	FIC	She has a husband and a baby. Who can blame her? I **pick up** the Hazzard book and try again. This is so depressing.
17	FIC	. . . it onto the floor, had to grope over the side of the bed to **pick up** the receiver. " That you, Mr. Buford?

18	MAG	During the forelimb stretch, stand to the front and side of the animal and **pick up** the front leg by grasping it above the knee, and gently pull it . . .
19	MAG	Haut, the old man's got a press release he wants you to **pick up** and take it around town.' " # When I pressed Haut about . . .
20	MAG	You've seen pictures, but it's always bigger than you expect **Pick up** your jaw and drop down to Glacier Creek, which leads north . . .
21	SPOK	. . . so I'm really handy to the banjos anywhere I am so I can **pick up** a banjo and tinker with it and see what happens . . .
22	SPOK	Elsewhere, House Democrats will have to **pick up** the pieces from the election debacle with a new leader.
23	MAG	Besides, " she added wistfully, " I might just happen to **pick up** a few pieces of my Wedgwood. " So the three women drove to . . .
24	FIC	One neuronic pathway goes down, and the other parallel pathways **pick up** the processing load. But if the nanobots are affecting them . . .
25	NEWS	Mary Kay Woodward says. " While you're at it folks, **pick up** your towel and toss it in the bin. It doesn't escape me

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