

ANDRÉA DE MACEDO VALÉRIO

**ESTABLISHING ASSOCIATIONS BETWEEN PHRASAL VERBS
AND METAPHORS: AN ATTEMPT TO EXPLAIN THE
MEANINGS OF A SET OF PHRASAL VERBS
THROUGH METAPHORICAL CONCEPTS**


Segunda versão da dissertação apresentada como requisito parcial à obtenção do grau de Mestre, por determinação da Banca Examinadora em 04-11-97. Curso de Pós-Graduação em Língua Inglesa, Setor de Ciências Humanas, Letras e Artes, Universidade Federal do Paraná.

Orientador: Prof. Wolodymyr Kulczynskyj

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation is grounded on ideas and considerations stated in the book *Metaphors We Live By*, by LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980), where it has been investigated the mutual influence between thinking processes and language and, more specifically, how metaphorical concepts affect the way we think, behave and communicate. The purpose of this dissertation is to establish an association between metaphorical concepts as described by the aforementioned book and the meaning of a set of phrasal verbs.

The understanding of metaphorical concepts can be a valuable tool in the process of mastering the employment of phrasal verbs since it is a means of replacing the tedious task of learning by heart long lists by a meaningful awareness of the cognitive mechanisms behind the structure of phrasal verbs. Although the purpose of this dissertation is not proposing new teaching techniques, it may serve the ESL (English as a Second Language) learner as an instrument to understand the use and classification of phrasal verbs. Translators, instructors and teachers may also find this dissertation helpful in their work.

The phrasal verbs analyzed herein were selected due to their wide scope of occurrence in colloquial English and because they consist of the verbs plus the particles 'up' and 'down' and these particles are largely used by LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980) in order to explain metaphorical concepts.

RESUMO

Esta dissertação tem por base as idéias e considerações apresentadas no livro *Metaphors We Live By*, de LAKOFF e JOHNSON (1980), onde investiga-se a influência mútua entre os processos mentais e a linguagem e, mais especificamente, como os conceitos metafóricos afetam a maneira pela qual pensamos, nos comportamos e nos comunicamos. O objetivo deste trabalho é estabelecer uma associação entre os conceitos metafóricos, conforme descritos no livro supramencionado e o significado de uma série de *phrasal verbs*.

Compreender conceitos metafóricos pode ser uma ferramenta valiosa no processo de dominar o emprego de *phrasal verbs* por ser um meio de substituir a tarefa tediosa de aprender de cor longas listas por uma consciência significativa dos mecanismos cognitivos existentes por trás da estrutura dos *phrasal verbs*. Embora não seja objetivo desta dissertação propor novas técnicas de ensino, poderá servir de instrumento ao estudante de inglês para entender o uso e a classificação dos *phrasal verbs*. Tradutores e professores poderão, também, achar útil este estudo em seu trabalho.

Os *phrasal verbs* aqui analisados foram selecionados devido a sua ampla gama de ocorrência em inglês coloquial e por serem formados com o acréscimo das partículas 'up' and 'down', partículas essas extensivamente utilizadas por LAKOFF e JOHNSON (1980) para explicar os conceitos metafóricos.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 AIMS

This dissertation is an attempt to establish an association between a set of phrasal verbs and the notion of metaphorical concepts as defined by LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980). Such association does not intend to prove that all phrasal verbs can be linked with metaphorical concepts, rather its sole purpose is to show that there are instances where phrasal verb meanings are rooted in the notion of metaphorical concepts. Thus, this chapter gives an overview of the research matter focused in this study.

It has been many years since the study of metaphors reached an academic status and scholars have been examining them under aspects other than those dealing only with their literary meaning. It has been stated that "... the respectability of metaphor seems to be acknowledged all around" (COHEN, 1978, p. 3). Nevertheless, the same COHEN shows reservations on the "elevation in status" (COHEN, 1978, p. 6) granted by many to metaphors. His main concern has to do with meaning. He takes sides neither with those that associate metaphor with meaning, like RICOEUR (1978, p. 144), nor does he totally embrace opposite theories, like DAVIDSON's (1978), which deny any conceptual meaning to metaphors, but the one used for literary purpose: "It is something brought off by the imaginative employment of words [...] and it depends entirely on the ordinary meanings of those words and hence on the ordinary meanings of the sentences they comprise" (DAVIDSON, 1978, p. 33).

The phrasal verbs selected for this study consist of the verbs themselves and the particles '*up*' and '*down*', since these particles are the ones which have to do mostly with the concept of verticality.

According to by LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980), a metaphor cannot be considered simply as another figure of language, but instead as an interaction between life experiences and language itself. They claim that metaphors do pervade everyday situations and that our lives are, in a sense, 'metaphor-oriented' (LAKOFF & JOHNSON, 1980, p. 18).

Fourteen phrasal verbs encompassing eighty-two different meanings, consisting of the verb itself plus the particle '*up*' or '*down*', were selected for analysis under the LAKOFF and JOHNSON's (1980) proposed view of metaphorical concepts and, more specifically, orientational metaphors (LAKOFF & JOHNSON, 1980, p.14). Given the fact that phrasal verbs form a very productive feature of the English language, an analysis of their totality would deviate from the scope of this dissertation.

Notwithstanding the fact that the analysis of the phrasal verbs selected intended to justify them all by means of the metaphorical concepts stated by LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980), a significant number of them were literal and did not fit, for this reason, the metaphorical notion. Other verbs were based on metaphorical concepts not explicitly stated by by LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980). In those cases, different metaphorical concepts were established in order to account for those verb meanings.

1.2 DEFINITION OF METAPHORS

Firstly, the term ‘metaphor’¹ should be understood. So as to try to clarify further the word ‘metaphor’, some references to dictionaries are in order. One definition of metaphor is “a special kind of comparison, usually of something known for the sake of clarification of the former” (LIBERMAN and FOSTER, 1968, p. 84). It explains the classical role of metaphor in language, to elucidate ideas, subjects, situations or facts. A more specific, language-oriented definition of metaphor is: “any replacement of one word by another, or any identification of one thing, concept or person with another” (BROOKE-ROSE, 1958, p. 73). LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980, p. 5) define metaphor as “...understanding and experiencing one thing in terms of another.” Metaphor is a means of communication. Ideas, thoughts and feelings can be conveyed through metaphors, which are basically a form of comparison. The statement “*Life is a river*” (ALEXANDER, 1970, p. 26), invites us to establish associations between the intrinsic characteristics of a river (endless flow, unpredictability and continuity) and the similar aspects of life. In cases like this - and there are countless of them - actuality is explained by means of virtuality, the improbable in terms of the probable. A comparison is established. More than mere figures of speech, metaphors are “part of an intended communication” (BOOTH, 1978, p. 162). Metaphors can be “courtroom weapons, self-advertisements, sales pitches or potential firebombs capable of destroying entire cultures overnight in prime time” (BOOTH, 1978, p. 163).

Since metaphor is defined as an expression of similarity, it can be understood that “when two things share salient properties, one can be used as a metaphor for the other in order

¹ Etymologically, the term *metaphor* comes from the Greek metaphorá meaning “transfer, carrying over” (PUGSLEY, 1990, p. 153).

to evoke our recognition of some of those shared properties” (TURNER, 1987, p. 26). Those shared properties already exist in our conceptual representations, as it will be explained in Chapter 2.

1.3 A BETTER UNDERSTANDING OF METAPHORICAL CONCEPTS

Metaphorical concepts, on the other hand, are those concepts structured by metaphors, deeply embedded in human experiences which settle guidelines for people’s behavior and attitude towards life events. Let us consider, for example, the sentence *‘He sank into a coma’* (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, 1980, p. 15). LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980) explain that this statement contains a metaphor founded on metaphorical concepts such as CONSCIOUS IS UP-UNCONSCIOUS IS DOWN and HEALTH IS UP - SICKNESS IS DOWN (LAKOFF & JOHNSON, 1980, p. 15) .

So as to grasp this notion, we must refer to the ‘conduit metaphor’, as defined by REDDY (1979, p. 26). This metaphor deals with language about language and it is based on the following ‘complex metaphor’ (REDDY, 1979) : i) ideas (or meanings) are objects; ii) linguistic expressions are containers; and iii) communication is sending. What happens is that the speaker (or writer) transforms his ideas into words and sends the words to a hearer (or reader) who extracts the ideas (objects) from the words (containers). An example for this concept is *‘She keeps sending me all kinds of ambiguous messages’* (FOWLER, 1974, p.22). A trait of metaphorical concepts in general is that they tend to highlight some aspects of a fact and downplay others. Sometimes it is even hard to notice whether there is or not a metaphor

and if it is there, whether it is hiding something or not. Thus the 'conduit metaphor' poses some problems when it concerns a camouflage in the communication process. LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980) have covered some concealed entailments brought about by the 'conduit metaphor', namely that i) "Words are containers" imply that words and sentences have meanings in themselves, independent of any context or speaker, ii) "Meanings are objects" suggests that meanings do exist regardless of any context or speaker, and iii) "Words are containers for meanings" again suggests that linguistic expressions have meanings devoid of any context or participants (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, 1980, p. 11). Since context and participants are often paramount in communication, the 'conduit metaphor' cannot fit instances where context differences are important. Like the 'conduit metaphor', other metaphorical concepts give a partial understanding of their apparent intended message by stating that when it is said that "a concept is structured by a metaphor, we mean that it is partially structured and it can be extended in some ways but not others" (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, 1980, p.13) .

Another metaphorical concept present in our lives is the one which "organizes a whole system of concepts with respect to one another" (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, 1980, p.14) , rather than structuring one concept in terms of the other. It is grounded on the so-called orientational metaphors, since they deal with spatial orientation. LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980) account for their existence referring to the physical nature of our bodies plus their interaction with the environment. According to these authors, orientational metaphors evoke spatial orientation, therefore major direction-oriented notions of the sort *up-down*, *in-out*, *on-off*, *front-back*, *deep-shallow*, *central-peripheral* (LAKOFF & JOHNSON, 1980, p.56) are not arbitrary and depict physical and cultural experience. LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980)

have proposed a series of metaphorical concepts based on the '*up-down*' notion which will be discussed in Chapter 3 .

Furthermore, LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980) make use of metaphorical concepts explained by means of ontological metaphors. Also referred to as '*entity*' and '*substance*' metaphors, ontological metaphors refer to those concepts which allow speakers to "pick out parts of their experience and treat them as discrete entities or substances of a uniform kind" (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, 1980, p. 25). The authors claim that the experience-substance association enables us to refer to, categorize, group, and quantify said experiences, thus reasoning about them (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, 1980, p. 25).

An example of ontological metaphors is "INFLATION IS AN ENTITY" (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, 1980, p. 26). Inflation is a word which reflects the notion of rising prices and its understanding comes by the comprehension of the term in terms of providing it with an entity notion, in an "attempt to deal rationally with our experiences" (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, 1980, p. 26). In this way, sentences like '*Inflation must be fought at all costs*' derive from the metaphorical concept pervaded in the ontological metaphor 'INFLATION IS AN ENTITY' .

Metaphorical concepts can also be combined to account for sentences like, for instance, 'Christmas is coming up'. The metaphor 'CLOSE IS UP' combines with the metaphor that 'TIMES ARE MOVING OBJECTS'. (LAKOFF, 1997)

1.4 PHRASAL VERBS

A second step in this dissertation is a focus on the use of phrasal verbs which constitute a major problem for learners of English as a second language, even though they are quite simple for native speakers (GOODALE, 1993, p. iv). The Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs (1994, p. iv) define them as a conjunction of a verb and an adverbial or prepositional particle. Among the reasons that make difficult the apprehension of phrasal verbs by non-native speakers we can cite: i) the meaning of the combination verb + particle can differ substantially from their individual meanings. As an example, the expression *turn down* has no correspondence whatsoever with the verb *turn* or the preposition *down*; ii) some phrasal verbs have a number of different meanings, like *put off*, which can be translated either as to “postpone” or “cause someone to dislike something or someone, persuade or delay further action, discard, repel, and pass (money) or sell fraudulently” (THE AMERICAN HERITAGE DICTIONARY, 1985, p.1007); iii) new combinations of words forming phrasal verbs are constantly appearing, as *chill down* for instance.

Although this dissertation is based mainly on phrasal verbs as categorized by the Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs, there are other definitions of such verbs. PALMER (1974), for example, explains that phrasal verbs are encompassed within a larger verb category, that of compound verbs, i.e., those consisting of a verb plus a particle combination (PALMER, 1974, p.212). By the term ‘particle’ he means that this particle may be either an adverb or a preposition. He understands that “it might be possible to argue that English does not, in fact, have two word classes, adverb and preposition, but a single class ‘particle’ or, perhaps, ‘prepositional-adverb’” (PALMER, 1974, p.215). Such understanding derives from the

function similarity the two word classes have. To reinforce this position, PALMER (1974) demonstrates that it is possible to replace the adverb by the preposition followed by a noun phrase, as in '*He got across*' and '*He got across the river*', '*He came down*' and '*He came down the hill*' .

Nevertheless, adverbs and prepositions should be distinguished. Firstly, only the adverb may occur after the noun phrase, as in '*He ran the flag up*' . This cannot happen with a preposition - we say '*He ran up the hill*' and not * '*He ran the hill up*' (PALMER, 1974, p. 216). Then, only with an adverb can the sentence be converted into the passive voice : in the examples above, a '*flag being run up*' can be understood, however the same does not apply to a hill.

The Collins Cobuild English Grammar (1993) defines phrasal verbs as "a combination of a verb and an adverb and/or a preposition, which have a single meaning; e.g. *back down, hand over*" (p. xxi). This special group of verbs, by means of the combination verb + adverb/preposition, has a meaning which can be either an extension of the original meaning for the verb alone or have a totally different meaning itself. It is further clarified that "in the case of a few phrasal verbs, the first part is not found independently as a verb" (p. 162), being the instance of 'zero in on', 'sum up', and 'tamper with', among others. While there are intransitive phrasal verbs which are verb plus adverb combinations ('They should stop fooling around'), they can also combine a verb and a preposition ('I had that naive notion that nothing could possibly come between the two of us'). However, there are cases where the same particle accompanying the same verb may be either a preposition or an adverb, depending on the context . The sentences below clarify this point :

(1) "I could hang around your office." (p. 164)

(2) "We'll have to hang around for a while." (p. 164)

In the first case, the particle 'around' is a preposition, since there is a the need for a prepositional complement (your office). Conversely, the second sentence does not call for a complement since the context makes the message clear. Thus, in this case, the particle 'around' is an adverb.

Another group of phrasal verbs is presented as being "almost always used in transitive clauses" (Collins Cobuild English Grammar ,1993, p. 165). These are verbs such as 'step up', 'fill in', call up', 'tell apart', and 'find out', for instance. Like the intransitive phrasal verbs, they can also have their forming particles bearing adverbial or prepositional functions.

Phrasal verbs may be literal or idiomatic and the distinction between them is rather difficult. Although non-literal combinations are quite clear for native speakers of the English language, some combinations are marked by more complex degrees of idiomaticity (PALMER, 1974, p. 226). Two phrasal verbs that illustrate this are: "come up" and "give in". The meaning of the first one is rather conspicuous raising no problems whatsoever for its understanding. On the other hand, "give in" cannot have its significance readily abstracted from the composition of the two words "give" and "in". The fact remains that 'there is no clearly defined class of phrasal or prepositional verbs' (PALMER, 1974, p. 234), what can pose still another hindrance towards the learning and correct usage of phrasal verbs by non-native speakers. Associating phrasal verbs and metaphors is a means of overcoming this barrier.

1.5 CONCLUSION

A number of particles can be associated with verbs so as to form phrasal verbs. The commonest ones are 'away, down, off, out, on, about, up, in, down, over, along, back, to, ahead, under, for, through, into, at' (Collins Cobuild English Grammar ,1993, p. 165). This dissertation focuses the phrasal verbs formed by the particles 'up' and 'down' since the verticality implied by them makes clear the notion of orientational metaphors.

The understanding of metaphorical concepts, as elucidated by LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980), can be a valuable tool in the process of mastering the employment of phrasal verbs since it is a means of replacing the tedious task of learning by heart long lists by a meaningful awareness of the cognitive mechanisms behind the structure of phrasal verbs. The intent of this dissertation is to give the learner another instrument in order to understand the use and classification of phrasal verbs since "the ability to use them in context are among the distinguishing marks of a native-like command of English" (COWIE & MACKIN, 1975, p. vi). As it has been stated before. 'there is no clearly defined class of phrasal or prepositional verbs' (PALMER, 1974, p. 234). However, it is possible to group them together according to the metaphorical concepts they fit into.

2. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews some of the work that has been developed concerning the study of metaphors. Two trends are emphasized, the Traditional and the Lakoffian view, since they are in opposite fields as far as metaphors are concerned. As this dissertation attempts to establish a relation between metaphorical concepts and a set of phrasal verbs with the particles '*up*' and '*down*', it will be based on LAKOFF and those who have developed and studied his ideas so as to make that connection. Notwithstanding, it must be understood that there are phrasal verbs with meanings purely literal.

In order to give support to this intention, it is important to review what some authors have written lately on the subject. TURNER (1992) defends the idea that some parts of our bodies are capable of attributing meaning. Accordingly, it is inherent to brain activity to "attribute a vertical up-down gradient to the environment" and to "partition the world into objects and actions" (TURNER, 1992, p. 92). Besides, acknowledging a natural bodily boundary and accepting certain objects as being agents are attitudes seen by TURNER(1992) as fundamental to attribute and understand meaning. Inasmuch meaning lies solely inside the human brain and human brains do not always function in a homogeneous manner, "by virtue of our shared phylogenetic past and our similar ontogenetic experiences, we share some fundamental ways of attributing meaning". This statement accounts for the fact that there is no need to debate about the subjectivity or objectivity of meaning when it is linked with such brain capabilities, since they are simply inherent in human beings.

LAKOFF and TURNER (1989) account for the use of metaphors as common tools by explaining them in terms of everyday thought and language. According to them, metaphors are “accessible to everyone...conventional... and irreplaceable” (LAKOFF & TURNER, 1989, p.2), implying that everyday metaphor is automatically acquired since an early age, becoming an integral part of our daily experiences and being the only mode of thought capable of making us “understand our selves and our world” (LAKOFF & TURNER, 1989, p. 2). Thus, “metaphors are so commonplace that we often fail to notice them” ” (LAKOFF & TURNER, 1989, p. 4).

To this effect, EDELMAN (1992) believes that LAKOFF’s point of view concerning the way we build cognitive standards to reflect concepts concerning body-environment interactions is “in accord with the biological and psychological facts” (EDELMAN, 1992, p. 92).

TURNER (1987) further acknowledges conceptual metaphors for giving meaning to linguistic expressions which are, in his opinion, metaphorical ideas “as expressed in words” (TURNER, 1987, p. 24). He reasons that such metaphorical ideas originate from a few basic conceptual-level metaphors which combine with our cultural experiences to produce inference patterns. These patterns lie in below consciousness level and are “cognitive principles” (TURNER, 1987, p. 24) and they are not arbitrary, since they derive from our knowledge and cognition modes.

2.2 THE TRADITIONAL VIEW

Until the mid-fifties (BLACK, 1954) the importance of the metaphor has been overlooked by Western scholars. Positivism² dictated that its use was, at best frivolous and unnecessary, and most likely dangerous and misleading (COHEN, 1978, p. 4). In the seventeenth century, for example, Hobbes criticized vehemently the use of metaphors in his classical *Leviathan*³

The general use of speech, is to transfer our mental discourse into verbal; or the train of our thought, into a train of words. ... Special uses of speech are these; first, to register, what by cogitation, we find to be the cause of any thing, present or past; and what we find things present or past may produce, or effect; which in sum, is acquiring of arts. Secondly, to show to others that knowledge which we have attained, which is, to counsel and to teach one another. Thirdly, to make known to others our wills and purposes, that we may have the mutual help of one another. Fourthly, to please and delight ourselves and others, by playing with our words, for pleasure and ornament, innocently.

To these uses, there are also four correspondent abuses. First, when men register their thoughts wrong by the inconstancy of the signification of their words; by which they register for their conception, that which they never conceived, and so they deceive themselves. Secondly, when they use words metaphorically; that is, in other senses than that they are ordained for; and thereby deceive others.

... And therefore such (inconstant) names can never be true grounds of any ratiocination. No more can metaphors, and tropes of speech: but these are less dangerous, because they profess their inconsistency; which the others do not.

The quotation above depicts Hobbes' strong views against the use of metaphors for 'serious' purposes, since he saw them as misleading and deceptive. He even deemed metaphors as dangerous, due to their dubious character.

² The system of Auguste Comte (1798-1857) designed to supersede theology and metaphysics and depending on a hierarchy of the sciences, beginning with mathematics and culminating in sociology.

³HOBBS, Thomas apud COHEN (1978, p. 3)

Another influential philosopher that positioned himself firmly against the use of metaphors for non-literary intents was John Locke (MACPHERSON, 1962), affirming that metaphors should be avoided to preclude the possibility of misunderstandings.

Even though both Locke and Hobbes professed their ideas three hundred years ago, their influence prevailed until the mid-50's. The positivist school understands that metaphors lack three essential qualities: (i) capacity to convey knowledge, (ii) direct connection to reality, (iii) genuine meaning. Following the present trend away from positivism, this belief about metaphors has been mostly outdated and, currently, metaphors are regularly accredited with all three qualities.

2.3 THE CONTEMPORARY VIEW

The milestone in the perception of metaphor as a rational means of expression is the article "*Metaphor*" by Max Black, which dates from 1954-55⁴. Instead of recognizing only the traditional emotive characteristics of the metaphor, Black added a rational capability to it, i.e., he somehow conveyed a "respectable" status to the use of metaphors. It must be emphasized that the term 'rational' here is used as in opposition to 'emotional', since the role of metaphor had been confined to poetic usage for so many time.

⁴ BLACK, Max; **Metaphor**. Proceedings of Aristotelian Society, 1954-55, p.273.

Although the importance of metaphor in the field of linguistics became more apparent in the last three decades, research in this area only bloomed in the 70's with several articles. A good reference is the "*Special Issue on Metaphor*" of the periodical *Critical Inquiry* (autumn, 1978). The first article of this reference (COHEN, 1978, pp. 3-12) summarizes the work that has been done in this field. According to this author, metaphor was relegated to a second plane until the decade of 50. Following this line, the second paper (DE MAN, 1978, pp. 13-30) of the periodical also reviews the trajectory of the Western philosophy concerning this subject, from Locke to Kant and Nietzsche. DAVIDSON (1978) is one of the few contemporary scholars who questions whether there is an additional meaning to metaphors than the literal one. Nonetheless, he does not take sides with past century philosophers, who deny that metaphors have a cognitive content in addition to the literal and believes that metaphors are confusing and inappropriate for scientific discourse.

It is indisputable that metaphor, whatever the importance granted to it, has to do with communication. GUMPERZ (1982, p. 1) views communication as a social interaction which requires the efforts of two or more people. Communication happens when a move has elicited a response, either in oral or written activities since to take part in such exchanges require knowledge and abilities "which go considerably beyond the grammatical competence we need to decode short isolated messages" (GUMPERZ, 1982, p. 33). This capability to interact effectively in an automatic fashion can be developed in the non-native speaker if he or she is presented with the opportunity of viewing that metaphors are also important foundations for successful communication.

Metaphors are part of the language and language, as corroborated by linguists like ROBINS (1975), is very complicated since "...the immense power and range of human language has been perceived by all societies, and the realization of it is no doubt partly responsible for the magical association felt by some peoples in certain words related to things or events vital to their lives or fearful in their effects. Traces of such magical outlook on language are to be seen today in some familiar attitudes to certain words and expressions in most communities". (ROBINS, 1975, p. 15)

2.4 THE LAKOFFIAN VIEW

LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980) believe that metaphor pervades everyday language and thought. They claim that the human conceptual system is mostly metaphorical and that such system defines everyday realities. Metaphors are used for communication which is based on the same conceptual system for interaction. Language would be no more than an evidence of existing communication. The research conducted by LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980) finds theoretical support in their approach to metaphorical concepts in the work of ROBINS (1975) who established associations between the utterance and the context, including the cultural and physical environment so as to explain meaning in language.

When criticizing the mainstream linguistic community for its limited views on metaphor, LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980) speak from a privileged position of knowledge because their work calls for an improvement of the status of metaphor, from that of a superficial rhetorical device that decorates our speech, to the status of a deep, cognitively-

realized tool that organizes our thoughts, shapes our judgments, and structures our language. They cite as empirical evidence of this cognitive role of metaphor the immense systematicity that the phenomenon exhibits: individual metaphor systems, such as *Argument-is-War* or *Love-is-a-Voyage* (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, 1980, p. 44), seem to possess a vast generative capacity, inasmuch as they manifest themselves in a variety of guises, each guise portraying a different facet of the metaphor. LAKOFF's central thesis is that metaphors facilitate thought by providing an experiential framework in which newly acquired, abstract concepts may be accommodated.

2.5 METAPHOR AND THOUGHT

Besides LAKOFF's contributions to the new light shed on the study of metaphors, other publications have arisen during the last years. *Metaphor and Thought* (ORTONY, 1979), first published in 1979, represents a point of reference for the scholars interested in the relationship between metaphorical uses and cognitive processes. Cognitive processes are explained by the cognitive science, the interdisciplinary study of the acquisition and use of knowledge, including as contributing disciplines: artificial intelligence, psychology, linguistics, philosophy, anthropology, neuroscience, and education. It grew out of three developments: the invention of computers and the attempts to design programs that could do the kinds of tasks that humans do; the development of information processing psychology where the goal was to specify the internal processing involved in perception, language, memory, and thought. Cognitive science was a synthesis concerned with the kinds of knowledge that underlie human cognition, the details of human cognitive processing, and the computational modeling of those

processes. There are five major topic areas in cognitive science: knowledge representation, language, learning, thinking, and perception (EYSENCK, 1990).

In 1993, ANDREW ORTONY prepared a second, revised edition of *Metaphor and Thought*⁵, to which six new chapters were added, so that it continues to be an up-to-date anthology of theories of metaphor. The following four essays of *Metaphor and Thought* are indicative of the increasing interest in metaphorical processes: *The contemporary theory of metaphor*, by GEORGE LAKOFF (1993), where he proposes that there are occasions when metaphorical consistency does not best serve the purpose of inconsistency. Rather, insisting on maintaining a consistent extension of one metaphor may blind us to aspects of reality that are ignored or hidden by a metaphor. LAKOFF (1993, p. 205) suggests that we must allow for alternative metaphors even at the expense of completeness and consistency in order to achieve a fuller understanding.; *Process and products in making sense of tropes*, by RAYMOND GIBBS (1993), who reveals that psycholinguistic research has shown that, within a proper context, we take no longer to understand metaphor than to understand semantically comparable literal language.; *How metaphors work*, by SAM GLUCKSBERG and BOAZ KEYSAR (1993), explaining that literal and metaphorical expressions do not differ with respect to priority of understanding; *The shift from metaphor to analogy in Western science*, by DEDRE GENTNER and MICHAEL JEZIORSKI (1993), where they propose that present science may find analogous patterns earlier suggested by metaphors. Another chapter was written by ELLEN WINNER and HOWARD GARDNER (*Metaphor and irony : Two levels*

⁵ ORTONY, A. (ed.); **Metaphor and Thought**. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1993, 678 p.

of understanding) who investigate figurative language and focus the role of metaphor as a constitutive cognitive.

The texts in this anthology are related in many ways, but they do not fit into a general, unified theory of metaphor. Rather they represent a survey of theories of metaphor. It is worthy of note the fact that WINNER and GARDNER (1993, p. 420) do not recognize that most of our everyday uses of language involve metaphor. Their point of view is quite different from that of the other authors, who accept metaphors as pervading elements of our daily language. This new edition opens with BLACK's article *More about Metaphor* (1993, p. 11), in which he specifies and completes the interaction view of metaphor, explained for the first time in *Metaphor* (BLACK, 1954), which can be considered the beginning of the renewed interest in this topic. MAX BLACK's thought has been the ground for subsequent theoretic growth, especially in the epistemological and cognitive fields. JOHN SEARLE (1979), in his well-known essay *Metaphor*, criticizes scholars who, when studying metaphors, take for granted the nature and the functioning of the literal meaning. A classic essay on the subject, *The conduit metaphor: A case of frame conflict in our language about language*, REDDY (1979), was also included in this anthology in its first edition. To LAKOFF, Reddy showed "that the locus of metaphor is thought", and "that our everyday behavior reflects our metaphorical understanding of experience" (LAKOFF, 1993, p. 204). His reflection focuses on the conduit metaphor, which determines how speakers talk about human communication processing. In short, the conduit metaphor leads us to consider language as "a conduit, transferring thoughts bodily from one person to another" (LAKOFF, 1993, p. 207); this kind of action requires that "in writing and speaking, people insert their thoughts or feelings in the words" (LAKOFF, 1993, p. 208); so words accomplish the transfer by conveying thoughts and

feelings to others; finally, receivers extract them once again from the words. LAKOFF extended REDDY's first intuitions by elaborating a sort of map of conceptual metaphors, explicitly considered "not just a matter of language, but of thought and reason" (LAKOFF, 1993, p. 208). The contemporary theory of metaphor is a lucid explanation of the results obtained through the research directed by LAKOFF. REDDY's (1979) essay, as LAKOFF specifies, contradicts "much that appears in the others, many of which make certain assumptions that were widely taken for granted in 1977" (LAKOFF, 1993, p. 204).

2.6 THE MENTAL PROCESS

Because metaphorical concepts are deeply embedded within the mind, having their existence based on experience (both acquired and transmitted) and cultural background, it is useful to review what scientists and researchers have found out about cognitive science. This discipline associates psychology, psycholinguistics, computer science, psychobiology, anthropology and philosophy in an attempt to understand how we think. It provoked impact because it "shows that, while the mind's processes cannot be directly observed, they can be explored by means of circumstantial evidence" (HUNT, 1982, p. 31)⁶. Researchers have found, for instance, that when we communicate orally we do not understand each other just by hearing what is actually said. Rather, we make inferences based on our experience to supply what is missing from the dialogue. Furthermore, cognitive science has analyzed other human behavior features under a new focus. Human memory, for instance, was found to abridge "two

⁶ The information used in this section concerning Hunt's ideas was extracted mainly from an article published in The New York Times Magazine, in 1982. Nevertheless, the same information was found later on in his book, "The Universe Within : A New Science Explores the Human Mind" (1983).

distinctly different forms of information storage - short-term memory and long-term memory” (HUNT, 1982, p. 33). Thus, temporary information i.e., what is to be used and soon forgotten, goes to a temporary storage zone. Long term data, on the other hand, is stored in a long-term memory zone and it must go through elaborative mind processes to be recalled. Besides memory, language is another field put into the scope of cognitive science. Children not only have the ability to repeat what they hear but also, and more amazingly, to create sentences of their own based on words they have already learnt. Some internal “sense of syntax” (HUNT, 1982, p. 33) seem to direct such ‘language creation’.

According to HUNT (1982), in the late fifties related fields of research coincidentally started to focus several manners to understand how the human mind works. Visualization, concept formation, logical reasoning, language comprehension and problem solving were some aspects studied. Nevertheless, all those aspects were viewed in separate, without unifying principles to link them. In the early sixties, computer science managed to bring together such aspects by means of comparing the process information which takes place in computers with the human mind. In short, it was found out that the human mind transforms the information it receives into neuronal impulses which are compared to the information previously stored in memory. In this way, cognitive science unified the thinking processes. Scientists find particularly amazing the capacity of the human mind to retrieve from the memory what it needs, in the appropriate time. Human beings can group information into categories that are stored within the mind and used when necessary in an efficient manner and “most of our plausible reasoning relies on the intuitive recognition of similarities or analogies between two things” (HUNT, 1982, p. 52).

In fact, Cognitive Science became such a major body of studies that the University of California at San Diego created a special department which deals only with this innovative branch of knowledge. The researchers there have divided the investigation of this field into three main areas, namely : the brain, in order to understand neurobiological processes and phenomena; behavior, so as to apply the experimental methods and findings from the study of psychology, language, and the sociocultural environment; and computation, where the powers and limits of several representational formats, associated with studies of computational mechanisms, are analyzed. The study ranges from the individual neuron to neural systems, to the individual person, to social groups in which language, social organization, and culture play important roles. They have pointed out that the mind arises from and is shaped by the body and the brain and that most of thought is unconscious and metaphorical in nature. (UCSD, 1997, p. 2)

The fact remains that ‘the human person has a human brain in a human body in a human environment which it must find meaningful if it is to survive’ (TURNER, 1992, p. 92). For this reason, we find meaning in certain patterned experiences. Besides, we have basic conceptual abilities for attributing meaning as, for instance, metaphoric abilities. Such abilities ‘seem to be indispensable to the organism’ (TURNER, 1992, p. 93) and they set behavior and association parameters.

Although metaphor, like all figurative language, has been usually explained as a secondary linguistic process, this explanation does not satisfy some of the recent findings concerning the right hemisphere processing of language nor some recent cognitive studies

which ‘suggest that the figurative and literal language are processed simultaneously and share much structure’ (ROHRER, 1995, p. 6).

Until recently, cognitive science has largely ignored the investigation of figurative language in favor of investigating literal language. One of the reasons lays in the fact that poetic language is commonly seen as being beyond ordinary language. However, what writers and poets do is using basically the same tools we do, adding their talents into putting these words together. One of these tools are the metaphors which we use unconsciously and automatically ‘with so little effort that we hardly notice it’ (LAKOFF & TURNER, 1989, p. iii). Metaphor is omnipresent, accessible and conventional, being part of our routine. Plus, it is irreplaceable because it ‘allows us to understand our selves and our world in ways that no other modes of thought can’ (LAKOFF & TURNER, 1989, p. iii). In summary, abstract concepts are not defined by necessary and sufficient conditions, rather they are defined by clusters of metaphors.

As for LAKOFF’s work on metaphors, in what can be linked with cognitive science, he proposes that meaning results from the intrinsic workings of the body and the brain. Moreover, he indicates that individual humans construct cognitive models that reflect concepts which have to do with the interactions existing between the body, the brain and the environment.

In fact, we create cognitive models and since they are creations they are also abstractions. Thus, idealized cognitive models encompass conceptual embodiment and conceptual embodiment occurs before language itself. Grounded on this, LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980) argue that our ability to understand and reason abstractly derives from our

concrete bodily experience rather than the other way around, and that therefore 'high-level' intelligence depends crucially on embodiment. (KUSHMERICK, 1997, p. 19)

2.7 CONCLUSION

Two major opposed views have been studied in this chapter: the traditional view and the contemporary view. The former prevailed until the mid of the twentieth century following the strong influence that positivism exerted on philosophy. According to this view, metaphors should only have literary use. The contemporary view sees metaphor as a rational means of expression and was pioneered by BLACK (1954).

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the methodology used in this dissertation, in an attempt to associate a set of phrasal verbs and their metaphorical concepts. Again, it must be emphasized that by seeking the possibility of said association this dissertation aims only to demonstrate that there is a metaphorical notion implicit in the phrasal verbs analyzed with this purpose.

Firstly, the basic steps in the development of this dissertation are the following :

- a) discussion of metaphorical concepts based mainly on LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980) considering DAVIDSON's (1978) opposite views;
- b) selection of the specific metaphorical concepts for the purposes of this dissertation;
- c) selection of phrasal verbs which can be understood in terms of the metaphorical concepts analyzed;
- d) construction of classification tables depicting how the selected phrasal verbs fit into the proposed metaphorical concepts, aiming to prove the frequency and application of the metaphorical concepts as related to those verbs;
- e) analysis of each one of the selected phrasal verbs, establishing links between their meanings and the metaphorical concepts;
- f) presentation of examples to portray the use of the phrasal verbs in colloquial English;
- g) presentation of data, as follows :

- **E**, for each phrasal verb entry;
- **M**, for a meaning associated with that phrasal verb;
- **Ex.**, for a sentence exemplifying such meaning;
- **MC**, for the metaphorical concept which better accounts for the use of the phrasal verb in that instance;
- **C**, for a comment on the findings and the reasons for the application of possible metaphorical concepts. This comment was made only when a metaphorical concept other than those presented by LAKOFF and JOHNSON was used.

3.2 DISCUSSION OF METAPHORICAL CONCEPTS

The metaphorical concepts used to establish said association were mainly those concerning orientational metaphors, i.e., those dealing with the basic notions which guide our bodily movements, thus implying in a concept of spatial orientation. The spatiality conveyed by such notions is prompted by the oppositions '*up-down*', '*in-out*', '*on-off*', '*front-back*', '*deep-shallow*', '*central-peripheral*' (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, 1980, p. 56), since metaphorical orientations are not arbitrary because "they have a basis in our physical and cultural experience" (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, 1980, p. 14).

The phrasal verbs analyzed were chosen among the ones associated with the particles '*up*' and '*down*'. This choice was made based on the fact that the theoretical basis for metaphorical concepts laid by LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980) illustrates metaphorical

concepts linking specifically the particles '*up*' and '*down*' with general human western concepts. By '*western*', LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980) explain that cultures other than ours (the western one) often see life experiences and events under a different angle - the way we associate time and money, for instance, is rather different from some oriental cultures.

Below are the metaphorical concepts which arise from orientational metaphors, as described by LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980), namely:

I. HAPPY IS UP - SAD IS DOWN

This concept is linked with human posture. An erect posture conveys a positive image, while a drooping posture tends to be negative. Statements like '*I'm feeling up today*' (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, 1980, p. 15), and '*Don't allow him to let you down by the news*' (ALEXANDER, 1970, p. 66) infer a physical basis deriving from our cultural experience in the use of the concept.

II. CONSCIOUS IS UP - UNCONSCIOUS IS DOWN

Following the same line, people are usually standing when they are conscious and lying when unconscious. Examples like '*He never wakes up before the sun is well high in the sky*' (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, 1980, p. 15), and '*After such a meteoric climb, he fell into complete oblivion*' (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, 1980, p. 15) show the spatial orientation of the concept.

III. HEALTH AND LIFE ARE UP - SICKNESS AND DEATH ARE DOWN

LAKOFF and JOHNSON ponder that a serious illness *'forces us to lie down physically'* (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, 1980, p. 15). This physical power to restrict someone to a bed, for instance, is associated with another concept, CONTROL AND STRENGTH ARE UP. The immediate link to be established is the one between physical size and physical force. Being victorious in a fight implies in being on top. According to LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980), metaphorical concepts pervade our daily experiences. Thus, it can be understood why expressions like *'He was kept down by the majority of the company shareholders'* (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, 1980, p. 15) convey such a strong notion of power on one side and helplessness on the other.

IV. MORE IS UP - LESS IS DOWN

Again the spatial orientation plays the chief role here. Whenever an addition happens, the outcome rises. The sentence *'Interest rates are going up steadily'* (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, 1980, p. 15) exemplify the pervading notion of the concept.

V. HIGH STATUS IS UP - LOW STATUS IS DOWN

Besides the physical basis, this concept also conveys a cultural grounding since high status and social power are usually comparable. As a consequence, the message conveyed by a statement of the sort *'It is up to be invited to her parties nowadays'* (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, 1980, p. 16) is easily understood in terms of status and power.

VI. GOOD IS UP- BAD IS DOWN

Personal well-being is the physical basis in this case. By personal well-being, the presence of happiness, health, life, and control is implicit, since these physical and psychological conditions typify what is deemed as good. An excellent example of this concept is provided by LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980) : '*Things are looking up*' (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, 1980, p. 16).

VII. VIRTUE IS UP - DEPRAVITY IS DOWN

There are physical as well as social grounds here. This concept is organized with respect to another two concepts : GOOD IS UP plus SOCIETY IS A PERSON. Virtue then means an attitude directed towards the maintenance of well-being. Depravity indicates a lack of identification with the society one is part of.

This explanation fits expressions like '*He sank into a mud of drugs and alcohol*' (ALEXANDER, 1970, p. 13).

VIII. RATIONAL IS UP - EMOTIONAL IS DOWN

Again two other concepts help organize this one : CONTROL IS UP and MAN IS UP. Human beings see themselves as being in control over animals, plants and the environment because of their capacity of thinking. It is such capacity that makes them suppose themselves to be in a higher position over other beings.

Some of the phrasal verbs analyzed in this dissertation called for further clarification other than the one provided by orientational metaphors. When an additional clarification was called for, other metaphors were used with this purpose.

3.2.1 Ontological Metaphors

Also called entity or substance metaphors, ontological metaphors enable us to select parts of our experience and treat them as “discrete entities or substances of a uniform kind” (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, 1980, p. 26).

While orientational metaphors have to do with spatial orientation and help understand concepts in orientational terms, ontological metaphors permit the understanding our experiences in terms of physical objects and substances. When our experiences can be recognized as entities or substances, they can be referred to, categorized, grouped and quantified and reasoned about as a consequence. In this way, events, activities, emotions and ideas can be viewed as entities and substances. Ontological metaphors thus help us deal rationally with our experiences. The concept “INFLATION IS AN ENTITY” (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, 1980, p. 27), for instance, makes the experience of rising prices be metaphorically viewed as an entity via the noun ‘inflation’ and it allows us to refer to it, quantify it and take measures concerning it.

However, the single fact of understanding something as an entity or a substance does not always provide full understanding about it. Then, ontological metaphors can be developed in greater detail. As an example, the concept “THE MIND IS AN ENTITY” can be

understood under two different concepts : “THE MIND IS A MACHINE” and “THE MIND IS A BRITTLE OBJECT”, providing different sides of mental experience. It happens because the two concepts transmit different metaphorical models for the “mind” entity. The sentence “He broke down” is comprehended by means of the first concept while in the sentence “He cracked up” the second concept applies. (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, 1980, p. 28)

3.2.2 Container Metaphors

We have a view of the world as being outside our physical bodies. Following this reasoning, each human being is a container with a limited surface and an in-out orientation projected onto other “physical objects that are bounded by surfaces” (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, 1980, p. 28). Rooms are containers and going from room to room implies in moving from one container to another. The space around us is defined by territoriality, a basic human instinct. By defining a territory, a quantification is established. Besides this, objects have sizes which are equivalent of the amount of substance they contain. Thus, substances can be seen as containers as is the case of “a glass of milk” (glass is a container object and water is a container substance). Following the same reasoning, the visual field can also be a container (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, 1980, p. 30).

3.2.3 Structural Metaphors

Similarly to orientational and ontological metaphors, structural metaphors are based in systematic associations within our experiences. However, they are more sophisticated because they allow us to use “one highly structured and clearly delineated concept to structure another”

(LAKOFF and JOHNSON, 1980, p. 66). Examples of structural metaphors are “LABOR IS A RESOURCE” and “TIME IS A RESOURCE”. Labor is a kind of activity and an activity is understood as a substance, in terms of ontological metaphors. Likewise, time is a kind of abstract substance. Both metaphors are “complex structural metaphors employing simple ontological metaphors.

3.3 DISCUSSION OF PHRASAL VERBS

The main source for the selection of the phrasal verbs was the Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs (1994). The option for this reference work lies in the fact that it is considered to be among the most modern and comprehensive dictionaries on this subject. According to it (p. iv), phrasal verbs are combinations of verbs with adverbial or prepositional particles and their meanings which, besides not being always conspicuous, can bear totally different interpretations. Notwithstanding the diversity of meanings a single combination of ‘verb + particle’ can have, the index of particles provided by this dictionary helps in the elucidation of the non-arbitrariness in the construction of phrasal verbs.

There is no consensus about which particles can be used to form phrasal verbs. The Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs (1994, p. vi) lists the following :

aback	around	between	of	through
about	as	beyond	off	to

above	aside	by	on	together
across	at	down	onto	towards
after	away	for	out	under
against	back	forth	over	up
ahead	before	forward	overboard	upon
along	behind	from	past	with
among	below	in	round	without
apart	beneath	into		

Besides the possible combinations of verbs plus the particles above, it is also feasible to associate some verbs with two particles together, such as :

- (1) verb + out in (as in *bring out in*)
- (2) verb + out of (as in *come out of*)

It must also be stressed that the same particle may be either an adverb or a preposition, from a grammatical point of view. As an example, the Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs cites the particle 'about'. It explains that, as an adverb, it can be used in literal combinations such as *face about* and *turn about* while as a preposition it appears in combinations of the kind *know about* and *hear about* (COLLINS COBUILD, 1994, p. 449).

Eighty-two different meanings comprising fourteen phrasal verbs were investigated. The meanings were those provided by the Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs:

- a) **come down**, with eight meanings;
- b) **come up**, with ten meanings;
- c) **break up**, with three meanings;
- d) **break down**, with five meanings;
- e) **put up**, with seven meanings;
- f) **put down**, with nine meanings;
- g) **take up**, with nine meanings;
- h) **take down**, with five meanings;
- i) **hold up**, with five meanings;
- j) **hold down**, with three meanings;
- k) **bring down**, with five meanings;
- l) **bring up**, with three meanings;
- m) **get up**, with four meanings;
- n) **get down**, with six meanings;

The fourteen phrasal verbs analyzed comprise, in their totality, eighty-two meanings. Each meaning was studied separately and a chart was made for each phrasal verb along with its meanings, in an attempt to associate the metaphorical concept implied by the particle (*'up'* or *'down'*) accompanying the phrasal verb with the experiential basis pervaded in it.

3.4 DATA ANALYSIS

The selected phrasal verbs were analyzed in the following manner :

- a) their meanings were stated according to the Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs so as to facilitate the link to be made with the metaphorical concepts provided by LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980);
- b) metaphorical concepts were specified for each meaning;
- c) examples were cited for each meaning, in colloquial English. These sentences were taken both from the Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs and from novels, short stories and magazines written in English.

The phrasal verbs analyzed in this dissertation are those concerning verb + *up* and verb + *down*.

The Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs (1994) lists 482 occurrences of phrasal verbs with '*up*', emphasizing that this particle is the most frequent in phrasal verb combinations and its primary meaning is that associated with upward movement. This explanation provided by that dictionary meets the concept of orientational metaphors as defined by LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980), as we will see in the general discussion. Conversely, the particle '*down*' conveys the notion of downward movement, again complying with the concept of orientational metaphors. This dictionary lists 191 phrasal verbs accompanied by '*down*'.

3.5 CONCLUSION

Since the aim of this chapter was to outline the methodology used in this dissertation, it is paramount to re-emphasize that the backbone study upon which this dissertation is based is LAKOFF and JOHNSON's Metaphors We Live By (1980) and the main source for the selected phrasal verbs is the Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs (1994).

The steps taken towards the elaboration of this work were given and the basic metaphorical concepts provided by LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980) were explained. In the next chapter, the results and findings are going to be presented and discussed.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to establish an association between the metaphorical concepts proposed by LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980), chiefly those concerning orientational (spatialization) metaphors, and a set of phrasal verbs, selected with basis on the particles 'up' and 'down' and the possibility of their explanation by means of metaphorical concepts. However, in some examples, other metaphorical concepts are used in order to give an account of the verbs. In these cases, a comment has been included in order to justify such concepts. Again, there are other instances when the meaning is literal.

For a better visualization of the findings, abbreviations were created, as follows:

<u>Abbreviation used</u>	<u>Standing for</u>
E	entry
M	meaning
Ex.	example
MC	metaphorical concept
C ⁷	comment
CCB	Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs

⁷ A comment is included in those cases where the metaphorical concept had to be devised and was not strictly based on LAKOFF and JOHNSON's work.

After the presentation of the findings concerning each phrasal verb, the findings were summarized by means of tables, in order to give a better understanding. Besides, such tables show how many times the same metaphorical concept can account for several entries, as explained in Section 4.4.

4.2 RESEARCH FINDINGS

01. COME UP

01.1

E	<u>COME UP</u> (CCD: 65)
M	move from a lower position to a higher one, or towards someone or something
Ex	<i>"I passed the puck to Davey Johnson. He had come up on my right side and was ready."</i> (SEGAL, 1970, P. 10)
MC	CLOSE IS UP
C	Added to the association between closeness and the particle 'up', an accessory concept also explains this verbal meaning ; the ontological metaphor ' <i>visual fields are containers</i> ' helps in the achievement of a more consistent explanation, since the scope of vision marks a territory corresponding to a physical space and the movements made within that territory are easily perceived. Thus the metaphor CLOSE IS UP has the experiential basis that people who come closer to us rise in our visual fields.

01.2

E	<u>COME UP</u> (CCD: 65)
M	approach
Ex	<i>"They stiffened when I came up"</i> (HEMINGWAY, 1967, p. 214)
MC	CLOSE IS UP

01.3

E	<u>COME UP</u> (CCD: 65)
M	visit or move; used when the place is farther up or in a city
Ex1	<i>"Old Mr. Jones came up to Boston."</i> (SEGAL, 170, p. 70)
Ex2	<i>"I come up every year and spend a few days".</i> (DUNNE, 1993, p. 224)
MC	HIGH STATUS IS UP

01.4

E	<u>COME UP</u> (CCD: 65)
M	rise to the surface of water
Ex	e.g.: <i>"Stanford struggled violently, trying to come up for air, but he was no match for the giant."</i> (SHELDON, 1995, p.208)
MC	Literal meaning
C	Besides being literal, the meaning in this case is also compositional, i.e., it consists of a complex expression with a meaning different from the sum of the literal meaning of each one of the words, considered individually.

01.5

E	<u>COME UP</u> (CCD: 65)
M	mention or discuss something
Ex	<i>"In the silence that followed, I was thankful that she hadn't come up with the usual question : 'Barrett, like the hall?'"</i> (SEGAL, 1970, p. 5)
MC	BRINGING INTO EXISTENCE IS UP; EXISTENCE IS UP
C	By presenting something, it turns into something concrete. Moreover, when something is mentioned or discussed, the participants are conscious of it.

01.6

E	<u>COME UP</u> (CCD: 65)
M	be put for election as a candidate in an election (someone)
Ex	<i>"It had been gossiped for some time that Kennedy would be coming up for election."</i> (BIRMINGHAM, p. 88, 1978)
MC	COMING INTO EXISTENCE IS UP (EXISTENCE IS UP)
C	By being put for election, a person is acknowledged as a candidate. Thus his/her existence for the post is also acknowledged.

01.7

E	<u>COME UP</u> (CCD: 65)
M	become available (a job)
Ex	<i>"A position as weatherman came up last week."</i> (THAYER, 1996, p. 64)
MC	COMING INTO EXISTENCE IS UP (EXISTENCE IS UP)

01.8

E	<u>COME UP</u> (CCD: 65)
M	happen, perhaps unexpectedly
Ex1	<i>"This interview came up suddenly."</i> (PUGH, 1996, p. 268)
Ex2	<i>"Something came up. Sit down, Steve. We have a problem."</i> (SHELDON, 1996, p.50)
MC	COMING INTO EXISTENCE IS UP (EXISTENCE IS UP)

01.9

E	<u>COME UP</u> (CCD: 65)
M	reach a particular point or level
Ex	<i>"In the summers in Minnesota it can get up to a hundred and ten degrees."</i> (THAYER, 1996, p. 93)
MC	MORE IS UP

01.10

E	<u>COME UP</u> (CCD: 65)
M	achieve a higher status in society
Ex	<i>"Jack Bouvier did not quite succeed in coming up as he had intended."</i> (BIRMINGHAM, 1978, p. 82)
MC	HIGH STATUS IS UP

02. BRING UP

02.1

E	<u>BRING UP</u> (CCD: 31)
M	raise (a child)
Ex	<i>"We are a very close family, Father Murphy, and our father has brought us up to understand the obligations that people like us have toward those who are less fortunate than we"</i> (DUNNE, 1993, p. 125)
MC	Literal meaning

02.2

E	<u>BRING UP</u> (CCD: 31)
M	raise (a subject), mention, introduce a subject into discussion or conversation
Ex	<i>"I don't think it would be a good idea to bring that up this weekend"</i> (DUNNE, 1993, p. 269)
MC	BRINGING INTO EXISTENCE IS UP (EXISTENCE IS UP)
C	Something that is mentioned is naturally brought to attention thus arising consciousness, control, and rationality over the subject.

02.3

E	<u>BRING UP</u> (CCD: 31)
M	vomit (informal); throw up
Ex	<i>"He could not help bringing up all food he had had after he heard the news on Jack's death."</i> (QUICK, 1993 , p.127)
MC	Literal meaning

03. GET UP

03.1

E	<u>GET UP</u> (CCD: 129)
M	move from a lower position to a higher one
Ex	<i>"That goal really finished Dartmouth. Not really; that player got up again as soon as he got his breath again."</i> (SEGAL, 1970, p.10)
MC	Literal meaning

03.2

E	<u>GET UP</u> (CCD: 129)
M	rise to a standing position
Ex	<i>"If you are going to sit here, sit in silence, or I'm going to get up and walk out."</i> (DUNNE, 1993, p.257)
MC	Literal meaning

03.3

E	<u>GET UP</u> (CCD: 129)
M	get out of bed
Ex	<i>"Please get up. I can't lift you. You have to help me."</i> (MC NAUGHT, 1994, p.239)
MC	Literal meaning

03.4

E	<u>GET UP</u> (CCD: 129)
M	visit or go to a place (usually farther north or in a city)
Ex	<i>"Hell of a storm coming. We'll lead with it. If I ever get up there."</i> (THAYER, 1996, p. 18)
MC	HIGH STATUS IS UP

04. TAKE UP

04.1

E	<u>TAKE UP</u> (CCD: 393)
M	hold or carry an object
Ex	<i>"You take a camera up to the roof and don't come down until you've got tape of Dorothy's house disappearing over the rainbow."</i> (THAYER, 1996, p.20)
MC	Literal meaning

04.2

E	<u>TAKE UP</u> (CCD: 393)
M	start doing an activity or job
Ex	<i>"In the meantime he took up polo."</i> (DUNNE, 1993, p. 170)
MC	ENGAGING IN SOMETHING IS HANDLING IT
C	Involvement implies in participating. Added to this notion, whenever we engage in something we usually do so because we have chosen to do so. A sense of control over what one does is also implicit in this case.

04.3

E	<u>TAKE UP</u> (CCD: 393)
M	pursue, draw attention to a subject
Ex	<i>"Peter insisted that he should be the one to take up the subject of a national strike."</i> (INTERNET)
MC	ENGAGING IN SOMETHING IS HANDLING IT

04.4

E	<u>TAKE UP</u> (CCD: 393)
M	adopt
Ex	<i>"...my sister Randy taking up pregnancy as if it were a new art form she had invented..."</i> (JONG, 1973, p. 149)
MC	ENGAGING IN SOMETHING IS HANDLING IT

04.5

E	<u>TAKE UP</u> (CCD: 393)
M	continue doing an activity which had been stopped
Ex	<i>"So you think you will take up with Thomas once this is all over?"</i> (PUGH, 1996, p. 355)
MC	ENGAGING IN SOMETHING IS HANDLING IT

04.6

E	<u>TAKE UP</u> (CCD: 393)
M	occupy, use
Ex	<i>"I'm sorry if I've taken up your time."</i> (DUNNE, 1993, P. 190)
MC	ENGAGING IN SOMETHING IS HANDLING IT

04.7

E	<u>TAKE UP</u> (CCD: 393)
M	remove from a surface by force
Ex	<i>"The rails were taken up and used to make weapons."</i> (CCB, 1994, p. 394)
MC	Literal meaning

04.8

E	<u>TAKE UP</u> (CCD: 393)
M	patronize
Ex	<i>"You're lucky to have been taken up by a clergyman."</i> (CCB, p.393)
MC	ENGAGING IN SOMETHING IS HANDLING IT

04.9

E	<u>TAKE UP</u> (CCD: 393)
M	absorb
Ex	<i>"The fabric of her blouse took up all the wine she had spilled when she saw him entering the room."</i> (LUDLUM, 1988)
MC	Literal meaning

05. BREAK UP

05.1

E	<u>BREAK UP</u> (CCD: 26)
M	divide into smaller parts
Ex	<i>"The estate had been broken up to suit his last will."</i> (GABRIEL, 1993)
MC	DISINTEGRATION IS UP
C	Whenever something is disintegrated by force, the notion is upward. ⁸

⁸ On the other hand, natural disintegration is down, as it will be seen later on.

05.2

E	<u>BREAK UP</u> (CCD: 26)
M	separate, split up
Ex	<i>"I am against breaking up the LA Unified School District for the very reason that Mr. Gaytan DeLacey supports it". (PUGH, 1996, p. 343)</i>
MC	DISINTEGRATION IS UP

05.3

E	<u>BREAK UP</u> (CCD: 26)
M	finish (a relationship)
Ex	<i>"I came to the conclusion that he never meant to break up their affair."</i> (THAYER, 1996, p. 84)
MC	DISINTEGRATION IS UP

06. PUT UP

06.1

E	<u>PUT UP</u> (CCD: 289)
M	move something to a higher position or place it farther away from the ground
Ex	<i>"Trevayne leaned back on the pillow and put his feet up on the bed." (LUDLUM, 1988, p. 103)</i>
MC	Literal meaning

06.2

E	<u>PUT UP</u> (CCD: 289)
M	build, erect, construct
Ex	<i>"We never gave a second thought about putting up a power plant on that land."</i> (GABRIEL, 1993, p. 202)
MC	Literal meaning

06.3

E	<u>PUT UP</u> (CCD: 289)
M	open and spread something so that it can be used
Ex	<i>"Put your umbrella up."</i> (CCD, 1994, p. 289)
MC	Literal meaning

06.4

E	<u>PUT UP</u> (CCD: 289)
M	stick or fasten something to a wall, post, or noticeboard so that people can see it
Ex	<i>"Posters made by the girl students were put up at Leavenworth on the interurban trains."</i> (HEMINGWAY, 1917, p.7C)
MC	Literal meaning

06.5

E	<u>PUT UP</u> (CCD: 289)
M	oppose, resist, fight
Ex	<i>"She wouldn't surrender before putting up a good fight."</i> (PUGH, 1996, p. 24)
MC	FORCE IS UP
C	Putting something or oneself into standing position are associated with physical size and physical strength.

06.6

E	<u>PUT UP</u> (CCD: 289)
M	provide money
Ex	<i>"The banks will not put up money without government backing."</i> (CCD, 1994, p. 289)
MC	POWER IS UP
C	There is an immediate association between money and power in western culture which leads to the orientational metaphor above.

06.7

E	<u>PUT UP</u> (CCD: 289)
M	cause to increase
Ex	<i>"The current policy of putting up prices does not seem to be working as planned."</i> (QUICK, 1993, p. 182)
MC	MORE IS UP

07. HOLD

07.1

E	<u>HOLD UP</u> (CCD: 168)
M	raise
Ex	<i>"The soldiers held up their hands in fear."</i> (SHELDON, 1996, p.66)
MC	Literal meaning

07.2

E	<u>HOLD UP</u> (CCD: 168)
M	support, prop up
Ex	<i>"His eyes closing, Kendrick rolled back on the bed and over to the far side, holding up the sheet to negotiate the distance."</i> (LUDLUM, 1978, p. 179)
MC	Literal meaning

07.3

E	<u>HOLD UP</u> (CCD: 168)
M	delay an activity
Ex	<i>"Classes were held up after the explosion."</i> (DUNNE, 1993, p. 162)
MC	CONTROL IS UP
C	Again, the delay of an activity calls for control on the part of someone or something, even if such control is involuntary.

07.4

E	<u>HOLD UP</u> (CCD: 168)
M	rob
Ex	“ ‘You clowns hold up a bank or something’, said the driver, shifting into gear.” (LUDLUM, 1988, p. 305)
MC	CONTROL IS UP

07.5

E	<u>HOLD UP</u> (CCD: 168)
M	remain convincing or effective after use or examination
Ex	“None of his stories would hold up in public.” (CCB, 1994, 169)
MC	THEORIES ARE BUILDINGS
C	What remains convincing or effective appeals to the rational side of human beings. In order to prove the veracity of something, it is necessary sometimes to create theories to justify such veracity. Theories may be ordinary ways of talking about life situations, as it is acceptable to employ the word ‘build’ when talking about theories.

08. COME DOWN

08.1

E	<u>COME DOWN</u> (CCD: 56)
M	move from a higher position to a lower one or towards the position of someone
Ex	<i>"It should make clear the change in the country as you come down out of the mountain and into Valencia in the dusk."</i> (HEMINGWAY, 1967, p. 465)
MC	Literal meaning

08.2

E	<u>COME DOWN</u> (CCD: 56)
M	come downstairs towards someone; descend
Ex	<i>"At about half-past five Littlefield saw the Professor coming down the back stairs with a lighted candle in his hand."</i> (IRVING, 1967, p. 46)
MC	Literal meaning

08.3

E	<u>COME DOWN</u> (CCD: 56)
M	visit or move to a place near someone; used when the place is farther south in the country
Ex	<i>"Then Jackie came down to my place on the eastern shore of Maryland during the White House years . " (HEYMANN, 1989, p. 491)</i>
MC	LOW STATUS IS DOWN
C	Perhaps it is an attempt at intimacy, by lowering down our own position we invite the other party to join us, implying that we really expect the visit.

08.4

E	<u>COME DOWN</u> (CCD: 56)
M	collapse, fall to the ground
Ex	<i>"They walked into the clearing where the six-foot expanse of wall stood. 'Looks like it'd come right down with one good shaker. ' 'Wonder why your father never took it down. '" (PUGH, 1996, p. 245)</i>
MC	Literal meaning

08.5

E	<u>COME DOWN</u> (CCD: 56)
M	land or crash (a plane); move towards the position of someone
Ex	<i>"She arrived at the airport at the moment his plane was coming down."</i> (KRANTZ, 1988, p. 56)
MC	Literal meaning

08.6

E	<u>COME DOWN</u> (CCD: 56)
M	become cheaper or less than before (cost, level or amount of something); decrease
Ex	<i>"After one week he called Elliot and told him there would be no deal. The company shares had come down."</i> (THAYER, 1996, p. 154)
MC	LESS IS DOWN

08.7

E	<u>COME DOWN</u> (CCD: 56)
M	extend downwards as far as a particular point
Ex	<i>"...the roof coming down over the ceiling windows, as if hiding secrets and memories."</i> (ROBBINS, 1974, p. 99)
MC	Literal meaning

08.8

E	<u>COME DOWN</u> (CCD: 56)
M	fall heavily (rain, fog or snow)
Ex	<i>"...snow was coming down in and people still gathered around the body."</i> (THAYER, 1996, p. 60)
MC	Literal meaning

09. BRING DOWN

09.1

E	<u>BRING DOWN</u> (CCD: 28)
M	cause (a government or ruler) to lose their power; topple
Ex	<i>"A national strike would bring the government down."</i> (CCD, 1994, p. 28)
MC	BEING SUBJECT TO CONTROL OR FORCE IS DOWN.

09.2

E	<u>BRING DOWN</u> (CCD: 28)
M	reduce
Ex	<i>"Their policy included bringing down prices and raising salaries."</i> (WILLIAMS, 1969, p. 96)
MC	LESS IS DOWN

09.3

E	<u>BRING DOWN</u> (CCD: 28)
M	shoot someone so that they fall to the ground ; shoot down
Ex	<i>"Nothing was mentioned about the way their plane had been brought down."</i> (GABRIEL, 1996, p. 150)
MC	Literal meaning

09.4

E	<u>BRING DOWN</u> (CCD: 28)
M	make someone fall or pull them to the ground
Ex	<i>"They were jackals following the track of a lion, hoping to bring him down."</i> (SHELDON, 1996, p. 17)
MC	BEING SUBJECT TO CONTROL OR FORCE IS DOWN

09.5

E	<u>BRING DOWN</u> (CCD: 28)
M	make someone feel unhappy, depressed or disappointed; get down
Ex	<i>"Her moods had a peculiar way of bringing me down."</i> (LUSTBADER, 1994, p. 99)
MC	SAD IS DOWN

10. GET DOWN

10.1

E	<u>GET DOWN</u> (CCD: 123)
M	move from a higher position to a lower one
Ex	<i>" 'Yes, yes !' cries Larry, 'but for the love of God, get down here as quick as you can.' "</i> (WHIT, 1996)
MC	Literal meaning

10.2

E	<u>GET DOWN</u> (CCD: 123)
M	bend down and sit, kneel or lie on the ground
Ex	<i>"Will you pray for me? Will you get down on your knees, close your eyes and talk to God about me?"</i> (THAYER, 1996, p. 406)
MC	Literal meaning

10.3

E	<u>GET DOWN</u> (CCD: 123)
M	go somewhere (informal)
Ex	<i>"I told you he would get down here sooner than later."</i> (PUGH, 1996, p. 24)
MC	Literal meaning

10.4

E	<u>GET DOWN</u> (CCD: 123)
M	swallow food, especially with difficulty (informal)
Ex	<i>"I felt better yesterday, but I'm finding hard to get food down."</i> (CCD, 1994, p. 123)
MC	Literal meaning

10.5

E	<u>GET DOWN</u> (CCD: 123)
M	write down what someone is saying; take down notes
Ex	<i>"New students were advised to take all their notes down on specific notebooks."</i> (QUICK, 1993, p.24)
MC	IMMOBILIZATION IS DOWN.
C	Rendering something effective or concrete is immobilizing it. Once one takes down notes, he or she is pinning them and grasping their meaning, thus providing them with effectiveness.

10.6

E	<u>GET DOWN</u> (CCD: 123)
M	depress
Ex	<i>"All those days of snow were starting to get me down."</i> (LUDLUM, 1988, p. 44)
MC	SAD IS DOWN

11. BREAK DOWN

11.1

E	<u>BREAK DOWN</u> (CCD: 24)
M	founder, fail
Ex	<i>"The talks broke down over differences on doctrine."</i> (CCD, 1994, p.24)
MC	DISINTEGRATION IS DOWN
C	In this case, it can be perceived that something is being disintegrated in a natural manner, on account of doctrine differences. A disintegration which occurs as a natural consequence is pervaded with a down notion.

11.2

E	<u>BREAK DOWN</u> (CCD: 24)
M	stop working
Ex	<i>"Meanwhile, their forecasters have to rely on radar and computers that are so old some of them are breaking down..."</i> (THAYER, 1996, p.95)
MC	CEASING TO FUNCTION IS DOWN
C	Again in this verb meaning, there are intermediate concepts which lead to the main one. If something stops working it is understood that it has probably broken down, thus breaking, in this instance is down.

11.3

E	<u>BREAK DOWN</u> (CCD: 24)
M	separate (an idea, a statement, or information) into smaller parts in order to understand or deal with it more easily
Ex	<i>"You'll never have an answer unless you break the information into several entries."</i> (SHELDON, 1983, p.6)
MC	DISINTEGRATION IS DOWN

11.4

E	<u>BREAK DOWN</u> (CCD: 24)
M	have emotional and uncontrollable reactions
Ex	<i>"On the video Mrs. Livingston broke down crying."</i> (THAYER, 1996, p. 136)
MC	EMOTIONAL IS DOWN

11.5

E	<u>BREAK DOWN</u> (CCD: 24)
M	demolish
Ex	<i>"The water floods their homes or breaks down the walls."</i> (CCD, 1994, p. 24)
MC	DISINTEGRATION IS DOWN

12. PUT DOWN

12.1

E	<u>PUT DOWN</u> (CCD: 278)
M	place
Ex	<i>"As she was putting down the receiver, she saw me."</i> (SEGAL, p.21, 1970)
MC	Literal meaning

12.2

E	<u>PUT DOWN</u> (CCD: 278)
M	lower
Ex	<i>"Put that box down and give me a kiss."</i> (JONES, 1976, p. 42)
MC	Literal meaning

12.3

E	<u>PUT DOWN</u> (CCD: 278)
M	pay for something at the moment of a purchase, the rest to be paid in further installments
Ex	<i>"An amount will be required to be put down, although I believe this should not be a problem."</i> (SUNDERS, 1990, p. 28)
MC	IMMOBILIZATION IS DOWN
C	So as to make something concrete, it is necessary to immobilize it and put it to the ground. In this way, it is easier to deal with it in a rational manner.

12.4

E	<u>PUT DOWN</u> (CCD: 278)
M	write; type
Ex	“ ‘ <i>Never trust your memory</i> ’, he used to say. ‘ <i>Put everything down on paper</i> ’. ” (PUGH, 1996, p. 63)
MC	IMMOBILIZATION IS DOWN

12.5

E	<u>PUT DOWN</u> (CCD: 278)
M	suppress
Ex	“ <i>The rebellion was put down by European troops.</i> ” (CCD, 1994, p. 21)
MC	BEING SUBJECT TO CONTROL OR FORCE IS DOWN

12.6

E	<u>PUT DOWN</u> (CCD: 278)
M	criticize
Ex	“ <i>Now if her novelist-friend had won a Pulitzer or an NBA - or sold a book to the movies - that would be something. Of course, she would put that down, too.</i> ” (JONG, 1973, p. 150)
MC	LOW STATUS IS DOWN
C	This metaphorical concept is grounded, in this case, on another concept, namely <i>less is down</i> . As it happens, by criticizing someone we automatically take something from that person (value, esteem, confidence, trust, for example).

12.7

E	<u>PUT DOWN</u> (CCD: 278)
M	put a baby to sleep
Ex	<i>"She put Bob down to sleep and waited."</i> (CAMERON, 1986, p. 31)
MC	Literal meaning

12.8

E	<u>PUT DOWN</u> (CCD: 278)
M	kill, destroy
Ex	<i>"The Canine Defense League will not put down healthy animals."</i> (CCD : 1994, p. 278)
MC	DEATH IS DOWN

12.9

E	<u>PUT DOWN</u> (CCD: 278)
M	land
Ex	<i>"He tried to put her down but there was no time and the plane burst into fire."</i> (LUDLUM, 1988, p. 93)
MC	Literal meaning

13. TAKE DOWN

13.1

E	<u>TAKE DOWN</u> (CCD: 386)
M	go or make someone or something go with you to a lower place
Ex	<i>"I want them to take my ashes down to St. Paul and spread them over the Mississippi, that mean, unappeasing river."</i> (THAYER, 1996, p. 407)
MC	Literal meaning

13.2

E	<u>TAKE DOWN</u> (CCD: 386)
M	remove something that is attached to a wall, post, or other object
Ex	<i>"He was prosecuted for refusing to take the sign down."</i> (LINDSAY, 1991, p. 25)
MC	Literal meaning

13.3

E	<u>TAKE DOWN</u> (CCD: 386)
M	dismantle
Ex	<i>"They took the remnants of the party down before calling in the cops."</i> (LUDLUM, 1988, p. 123)
MC	DISINTEGRATION IS DOWN

13.4

E	<u>TAKE DOWN</u> (CCD: 386)
M	write
Ex	<i>"I didn't hear him very well but I took down his message all the same. See if you can understand what is it that he wanted."</i> (QUICK, 1993, p. 91)
MC	DISINTEGRATION IS DOWN

13.5

E	<u>TAKE DOWN</u> (CCD: 386)
M	demoralize
Ex	<i>"It is amazing how he always keeps taking her down."</i> (GABRIEL, 1993, p. 222)
MC	LOW STATUS IS DOWN

14. HOLD DOWN

14.1

E	<u>HOLD DOWN</u> (CCD: 165)
M	use force to keep someone or something in a particular place
Ex	<i>"The excess made me a little sick, but I held down what I had swallowed, and I really believe it soaked into my system as it does into the desert earth after a drought."</i> (WHIT, 1996)
MC	Literal meaning

14.2

E	<u>HOLD DOWN</u> (CCD: 165)
M	do not allow a group of people to have freedom, power or rights
Ex	<i>"Levi put up a better show, holding the Romans down till November."</i> (CCD, 1994, p. 165)
MC	BEING SUBJECT TO CONTROL OR FORCE IS DOWN

14.3

E	<u>HOLD DOWN</u> (CCD: 165)
M	control emotions
Ex	<i>"That was about all she could have. No longer could she hold down the feelings she had kept to herself for so many years."</i> (GABRIEL, 1993, p. 191)
MC	CONTROLLING EMOTIONS IS DOWN
C	The metaphorical concept in this case is pervaded by other intermediate concepts. Anger may be seen as the heat of a fluid in a container. Exerting control over anger is preventing the fluid from coming up. As the very particle indicates, manifesting strong feelings is letting them rise, thus being 'up'.

4.3 TABLES

Four tables, in the form of grids, are enclosed on the next pages to give a better visualization of the research findings.

Two tables (TABLE 4.1 and TABLE 4.2) contain the entries and corresponding metaphorical concepts for the phrasal verbs with the particle '*up*'. Two tables (TABLE 4.3 and TABLE 4.4) contain the entries and corresponding metaphorical concepts with the particle '*down*'.

The first column in each table corresponds to the metaphorical concepts which best explain each entry.

The other columns correspond to each one of the eighty-two entries analyzed in this dissertation.

The metaphorical concepts which explain the entries were ticked off under the entries where they apply.

The tables will be discussed in the concluding part of this chapter.

TABLE 4.2 - OCCURRENCE OF METAPHORICAL CONCEPTS - PHRASAL VERBS WITH THE PARTICLE 'UP'

Concepts	Entries																				
	04. TAKE								05. BREAK				06. PUT				07. HOLD				
	04	05	06	07	08	09	01	02	03	01	02	03	04	05	06	07	01	02	03	04	05
Literal Meaning				V		V				V	V	V	V				V	V			
High Status is up																					
Existence is up																					
More is up																V					
Close is up																					
Force is up														V							
Power is up														V							
Control is up																			V	V	
Disintegration is up							V	V	V												
Theories are buildings																					V
Engaging in something is handling it	V	V	V		V																

4. 4 CONCLUSION

This chapter deals with the research findings of this dissertation. Since its aim is to establish metaphorical concepts for a set of phrasal verbs with the particles ‘*up*’ and ‘*down*’, we tried to justify verb meanings by means of metaphors founded on human experiences, in accordance with the theoretical basis provided mainly on LAKOFF and JOHNSON’s book, *Metaphors We Live By* (1980). Nevertheless, in many cases other metaphorical concepts were used in order to account for some verb meanings. Moreover, there were some examples where the meaning was essentially literal.

In this dissertation we found the existence of a connection between metaphorical concepts and the phrasal verb meanings which have been analyzed individually.

The tables summarize the research findings obtained in a 3-step process:

- selection of a set of metaphorical concepts related with the prepositions ‘*up*’ and ‘*down*’;
- examination in the literature on phrasal verbs containing the particles ‘*up*’ and ‘*down*’ and their corresponding meanings according to the CCD;
- association in a grid of each meaning of a phrasal verb and its corresponding metaphorical concept, when the meaning was not literal.

Entries 01.4, 02.1, 02.3, 03.1, 03.2, 03.3, 04.1, 04.7, 04.9, 06.1, 06.2, 06.3, 06.4, 07.1, 07.2, 08.1, 08.2, 08.4, 08.5, 08.7, 08.8, 09.3, 10.1, 10.2., 10.3, 10.4, 12.1. 12.2. 12.7. 12.9,

13.1, 13.2, and 14.1 have literal meanings concerning the phrasal verbs analyzed. In these thirty-three cases, the explanation could not be accounted for in terms of metaphorical concepts. This fact suggests that there is a wide scope of phrasal verbs which have their meanings founded on the literal aspect rather than on the metaphorical one, since thirty-three literal entries among eighty-two are a significant number of literal meaning occurrences.

On the other hand, the link between phrasal verb meanings and metaphorical concepts cannot be denied. From the eighty-two phrasal verbs under study, forty-nine meanings can be explained in terms of metaphorical concepts. Although orientational metaphors played the main role in the verb analysis, other metaphorical concepts were devised in order to account for a number of meanings, as it will be seen hereinafter in more detail.

The metaphorical concept ENGAGING IN SOMETHING IS HANDLING IT was used to explain entries 04.2, 04.3, 04.4, 04.5, 04.6, and 04.8. It is remarkable that all these entries refer to six different meanings of the phrasal verb *'take up'*, namely *'start doing an activity or job'*, *'pursue, draw attention to a subject'*, *'adopt'*, *'continue doing an activity which had been stopped'*, *'occupy, use'*, and *'patronize'*. Although the meanings are not the same, all of them depict actions which are active in their essence. In order to engage in or to manage something it is necessary to handle it. Because it is coherent to be able to handle something so as to engage in it, we use the metaphorical concept capitalized in the first line of this paragraph. In doing this, we can perceive that concepts based on our experience structures different phrasal verb meanings.

It may be noticed in the tables two metaphorical concepts (DISINTEGRATION IS UP and DISINTEGRATION IS DOWN) which are apparently contradictory. Nevertheless, such contradiction is explained by the fact that whenever something is disintegrated by forceful means (an explosion, for instance), what comes to mind is an image of shattered parts up in the air, thus DISINTEGRATION IS UP. On the other hand, when something goes down naturally, the immediate association made by us is that of a downward movement taking place. Metaphors 'are not random but instead form coherent systems ... but it is easy to find apparent incoherence' (LAKOFF & JOHNSON, 1980, p. 41). For this reason the metaphorical concept DISINTEGRATION IS UP accounts for entries 05.1, 05.2, and 05.3, all of them different meanings for the phrasal verb '*break up*', while DISINTEGRATION IS DOWN explains meanings 11.1, 11.3 and 11.5 (meanings for the phrasal verb '*break down*'), and 13.3 and 13.4 (meanings for the phrasal verb '*take down*'). It is interesting to notice in '*break down*' that metaphorical concepts which are polar opposites and apparently contradictory explain equally opposite phrasal verbs.

Entry 07.5, which defines one of the meanings for the phrasal verb '*hold up*' as '*remain convincing or effective after use or examination*', is explained by the metaphorical concept THEORIES ARE BUILDINGS. Metaphors 'partially structure our everyday concepts and this structure is reflected in our language' (LAKOFF & JOHNSON, 1980, p. 49). Because metaphors are a usual manner of talking about everyday situations, the word 'building' is a usual manner of talking about theories (LAKOFF & JOHNSON, 1980, p. 51).

Another metaphorical concept, referred to in entries 12.3 and 12.4 ('*put down*' meaning '*to pay for something at the moment of a purchase*' and '*to write; to type*', respectively) and in

entry 10.5 (*'get down'* also meaning *'to take notes; to write down'*) is IMMOBILIZATION IS DOWN. This concept conveys the idea that for something to become concrete, effective, it is necessary to immobilize it, to put it to the ground so that it can be dealt with.

The metaphorical concept CEASING TO FUNCTION IS DOWN explains entry 11.2 (meaning *'to stop working'* for *'to break down'*). This is understood because we understand that ceasing to function is breaking and breaking is down.

CONTROLLING EMOTIONS IS DOWN is another metaphorical concept which accounts only for a single entry (14.3 - *'hold down'* as in controlling emotions). Metaphorically speaking, anger may be seen as the heat of a fluid within a container. Keeping anger under control implies in preventing the fluid from rising.

CLOSE IS UP is a metaphor grounded on the experiential basis that people who come closer to us rise in our visual fields. The accessory concept VISUAL FIELDS ARE CONTAINERS also help in the clarification of this verbal meaning, since the scope of vision marks a territory corresponding to a physical space and the movements made within that territory are easily perceived. Entries 01.1 and 01.2 (*'come up'*) have their meanings explained by this metaphorical concept.

As for the concept EXISTENCE IS UP, accounting for entries 1.05, 1.06, 1.07, 1.08 (*'come up'*, meaning respectively *'mention or discuss something'*, *'be put for election as a candidate in an election'*, *'become available'* and *'happen, perhaps unexpectedly'*) and 2.02

(‘bring up’, meaning ‘raise a subject, mention’), it encompasses the notions of COMING INTO EXISTENCE IS UP and BRINGING INTO EXISTENCE IS UP.

All other metaphorical concepts used to explain the phrasal verb meanings are those rooted in LAKOFF and JOHNSON’s (1980) theory of orientational metaphors, referred to in chapter 3. Among them, HIGH STATUS IS UP accounts for three entries (1.03, 1.10 and 2.02), MORE IS UP explains entries 1.09 and 6.07, FORCE IS UP 6.05, POWER IS UP entry 06.6, and CONTROL IS UP justifies entries 7.03 and 7.04.

Conversely, the orientational metaphors for the particle ‘down’ are LOW STATUS IS DOWN, explaining entries 8.03 (‘come down’), 12.6 (‘put down’) and 13.5 (‘take down’). BEING SUBJECT TO CONTROL OR FORCE IS DOWN is the metaphorical concept for entries 09.1, 09.4 (‘bring down’), 12.5 (‘put down’) and 14.2 (‘hold down’). Entry 10.6 (‘get down’) is explained by the concept SAD IS DOWN. Entry 11.4 (‘break down’) is explained by EMOTIONAL IS DOWN. The orientational metaphor LESS IS DOWN accounts for entries 08.6 (‘come down’), 09.2 and 09.5 (‘bring down’). Finally, DEATH IS DOWN fits the meaning of entry 12.08 (‘put down’).

The metaphorical concepts are eleven, for the phrasal verbs with the particle ‘down’, and ten for those verbs with the particle ‘up’.

Even though the tables in this dissertation are a good visualization device, this is not their main objective. They were used to help in the inspection of occurrence of the different metaphorical concepts with various phrasal verbs. LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980) provided a

small number of examples to prove their point that “the most fundamental values in a culture will be coherent with the metaphorical structure of the most fundamental concepts in the culture” (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, p. 22, 1980).

The aim of this Chapter is to show that associations between phrasal verbs and metaphorical concepts are possible and can be explained by means other than the meaning provided by dictionaries. The possibility of explaining all phrasal verbs founded on metaphorical concepts was not the intention of this study, given the immense complexity of such a task.

5. CONCLUSION

This dissertation is based on ideas and considerations stated in the book *Metaphors We Live By*, by LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980), where they investigated not only how the thinking processes have an influence on language but also how, conversely, language itself affects human attitudes. The subject matter of this dissertation is based on their book and it aims to establish a link between metaphorical concepts and a set of phrasal verbs, since an attempt to clarify their meaning is possible under the metaphorical concepts provided by orientational and ontological metaphors. The phrasal verbs analyzed herein were selected due to two main reasons. Firstly, on account of their wide range of occurrence in colloquial English. Then, because they consist of the verbs plus the particles '*up*' and '*down*', since these particles are extensively employed by LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980) in order to explain metaphorical concepts. The decision to follow this path came from the notion that metaphors are present in our everyday experiences. More specifically so the orientational metaphors, which convey messages that are understood due to our physical anatomy and physiology.

Even though this work is chiefly based on the work by LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980), an overview of the concerning bibliography is presented in Chapter 1. We expose the concepts of metaphor, metaphorical concepts and phrasal verbs in Chapter 2. The methodology for the study and classification of phrasal verbs used in this dissertation is presented on Chapter 3. The research findings are presented on Chapter 4.

Phrasal verbs consisting of a verb plus particles other than '*up*' and '*down*' can, in any instances, be justified by means of metaphorical concepts. LAKOFF and JOHNSON (1980)

give examples of such verbal constructions which are accounted for by metaphorical concepts: *"We've been working on this problem all day and now we are running out of steam"*. (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, p. 27, 1980), *"The ship is coming into view"*. (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, p. 30, 1980), *"He fell into a depression"*. (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, p. 45, 1980), *"We've gotten off the track"*. (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, p. 27, 1980), *"His ideas will live on forever"*. (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, p. 47, 1980), *"Those ideas died off in the Middle Ages"*. (LAKOFF and JOHNSON, p. 47, 1980). However, in this dissertation the aim is to focus only on phrasal verbs with the particles *'up'* and *'down'* because they can be explained mainly in terms of orientational metaphors due to their pervading notion of spatialization and verticality.

Nevertheless, as the analysis of the phrasal verb meanings was being developed, we perceived that it was necessary to make use of other metaphorical concepts in order to understand and explain a number of verb meanings. Besides, we found that the meaning of a significant number of entries (thirty-three) was purely literal.

An association between each one of the eighty-two phrasal verb meanings and the pertaining metaphorical concepts was established. Such association was reached as follows:

- a) each verb meaning received a number, and was considered as an entry or organizational purposes;
- b) the meaning was stated, in accordance with the Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs;

- c) an example was given for each entry, in order to represent the meaning. All examples were taken from books, dictionaries, magazines, and in some cases, were looked up on the Internet.
- d) the metaphorical concepts which applied to each meaning were provided.
- e) when necessary, i.e., when the metaphorical concept used to account for the entry had not been clearly stated by LAKOFF and Johnson (1980), a comment was made so as to justify the association made between the verb and the metaphorical concept.
- f) four tables were enclosed, two of them depicting the metaphorical concepts applied to the phrasal verbs with the particle '*up*' and the other two depicting the phrasal verbs with the particle '*down*'. This was made with the objective of showing which metaphorical concepts were more frequent in the explanation of the phrasal verbs.

The results presented on Chapter 4 show the relationship between metaphorical concepts and phrasal verb meanings. A total of eighty-two verb meanings have been analyzed individually, each one of them presented with its meaning, the corresponding metaphorical concept(s), one or more examples and a comment. To prove the metaphorical concept occurrence, tables were prepared (Tables 4.1, 4.2, 4.3, and 4.4) that sum up the information gathered.

Tables 4.1 and 4.2 show the findings for the selected phrasal verbs with '*up*', while Tables 4.3 and 4.4 show the findings for the selected phrasal verbs with '*down*'.

Although the purpose of this dissertation is not proposing new teaching techniques, I believe however, that ESL teachers, learners and translators can have a better understanding of phrasal verbs. Despite the fact that not all phrasal verbs can have their meanings grounded on the notion of metaphorical concepts, there is a number of them, especially those formed by a main verb plus the particles '*up*' and '*down*', which can be better grasped by non-native speakers if comprehended within a metaphorical-conception purview.

Further work can be developed in the same scope including, for instance, the analysis of phrasal verbs with other particles. This work could follow the same guidelines: selection of phrasal verbs, association with metaphorical concepts, presentation of results in form of charts, and construction of tables to summarize the findings. A related work is the investigation of metaphors and metaphorical concepts in the construction and use of idioms. Any of these mechanisms might prove to be a fruitful field of innovative investigation.

The field of metaphorical concepts is vast and further research is possible. This dissertation is but a tentative step towards a new way of explaining and justifying the existence of some phrasal verbs in the English language by means different from the conventional ones and it is devoid of any intention whatsoever of generalizing this idea for all phrasal verbs.

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