

# Phrasal Imperatives in English

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## Abstract

The present study has both theoretical and practical sides. Theoretically, it sheds light on phrasal imperatives (and hence PIs) as a phenomenon in English. That is, phrasal verbs are multi-word verbs that are generally composed of a verb and a particle. These verbs can be used imperatively instead of single-word verbs to form PIs.

This study seeks to answer certain research questions: which form of phrasal verb can be allowed to be used as PIs? which type of phrasal verbs can be used “mostly” as PIs? in which function is the PI most frequent?

It is hypothesized that certain forms of phrasal verbs can be used imperatively. Another hypothesis is that certain functions can be mostly realized by PIs.

Practically speaking, this study is a corpus-based one. In this respect, corpus linguistics like Corpus of Contemporary American English (And hence COCA) can be regarded as a methodological approach since it is empirical and tends to use computers for analyzing.

To fulfill the aims of this study, the researcher chooses twenty-three phrasal verbs which are used as PIs in COCA. These verbs are gathered manually through the wordlists of COCA.

Using the technique of Microsoft Office Excel in the corpus analysis, it is concluded that PIs of the affirmative form are mostly used in the corpus data. As for the functions of these PIs, it seems that direct command has the highest occurrences there.

*Article Received: 18 October 2020, Revised: 3 November 2020, Accepted: 24 December 2020*

## 1

### . Introduction

The term imperatives refers to verb form or sentences, which are used in the expression of command. Imperatives verbs are either realized by single – word verbs , ( e.g Close the door!) or multi - word verbs especially phrasal ones , (e.g Drink up quickly ) and ( e.g Go on with your work). Phrasal verbs consist of verb and a second element called particle or preposition. Their meaning can be idiomatic and non – idiomatic . According to Alexander(1990:116), it is probable to say (Take off your jacket) than (Remove your jacket) , and (Come in) than (Enter). Like any imperatives, phrasal imperatives can be either positive (e,g put out the lamp) or negatives (do not mix up with bad boys).Both positive and negative phrasal imperatives will be covered in this study. Thus, the

current study attempts to find answers for the following research questions:

1. Is every phrasal verb can be aloud to be used in imperative constructions?
2. Which type of phrasal verbs can be used “mostly” as imperative?
3. In which function is the phrasal imperative most frequent?

The study aims at:

1. Investigating that most of phrasal verbs can be used imperatively.
2. Presenting syntactic, semantic, and pragmatics features of phrasal imperatives.
3. Investigating the usefulness of the type of PIs and describing their meaning.
4. Analyzing PIs by using COCA.

In accordance with nature of the study, the researcher puts the following hypotheses:

1. It is hypothesized that every phrasal verbs can be used imperatively.
2. It is hypothesized that affirmative form are most frequent use in PIs in contrast with other.
3. Corpus-based techniques are quite helpful in producing quantitative and qualitative analysis.
4. Microsoft office Excel is the only program which determine the occurrences of PIs.

The scope of the study includes phrasal verbs, which are used imperatively. Depending on twenty-three phrasal imperatives that mention by Biber.

The study is also limited to a corpus-based analysis in order to investigate the forms, types, and functions of the phrasal imperatives. As for samples, PIs are collected from different genres inside the corpus itself.

As far as steps of procedure are concerned, this study is composed of two parts: theoretical and analytical. The whole study goes according to the following procedures: The theoretical part discusses a general overview of the main concepts and survey examine what has been written and achieved about the different perspective of phrasal imperatives and corpus linguistics. This part presents in chapter two and three.

The analytical part sheds light on the methodology of collecting and specifying and analyzing the corpus of this study. Chapter four and five cover this part.

As regards the practical aspect, there are certain procedures, which follow this study: The corpus is collected by using COCA and output the number of occurrences by using *Microsoft Excel*. Using COCA to find out the data from different genres. Calculating the total samples manually from the wordlist inside the corpus itself. Finding the number of the occurrences for each sample by using *Microsoft Excel*.

This study is hoped to be valuable for researchers. It presents the possible suggestions and recommendations that may be used to help the learner who face some difficulties in learning English phrasal imperatives since PIs receive little attention by researchers.

## 2. Literature Review

Many linguists deal with phrasal verbs and various terms have been used to refer to this particular language form as “Multi – word verbs”. A number of researchers use the term “phrasal verb” to refer to the combination of lexical verb + adverb particle and how this combination can be used imperatively to form phrasal imperative verb ( PIs ). Phrasal

verbs including PIs present challenge for English language since linguistics texts have not mentioned phrasal imperatives directly.

For discussing PIs first needs to know how imperatives are approached, Hobson ( 2001: 218) gives a short definition for the imperative. He describes the term as the mod of clause expressing a command (ibid.). Having only a basic form verb without a subject , imperative is found only in the main clause in the normal speech ( Takashi, 2012: 26).

However, Biber et al. (1999: 2019) give the reason that imperatives are used to tell the addressee or ask people to do something(or not to do something) after the moment of speaking, hence there is no need for tense, aspect or modal specification.

Additionally, Crystal (2008:237) argues that the term “imperative” is used as a noun and as an adjective in the grammatical classification of the sentence types, and usually seen in contrast with indicative, interrogative, etc. He remarks that an imperative usage refers to verb forms or sentence, clause types usually used in the expression of command , e.g ( *Go away* ).

This example shows that imperatives can be recognized by multi – word verb especially phrasal one , and not only recognized by a single verb.

However, phrasal verb can be defined as a type of verb consisting of a sequence of lexical element plus one or more particle , e.g ( *come in, get up, look out for* ) . According to syntactic ground , particles are either preposition or adverb and they can be confirmed by using transformation or substitution criteria crystal ( 2008: 510) .

For example

1. She **got up** at six .
2. She rose at six .
3. What time did she get up.

(ibid)

There are other phrasal verbs which are used imperatively such as the following sentences ( Spears, 2007: 183).

4. **Get out** of here without cigarette!

( ibid )

5. **Stay out** of crowds at rock concert.

( ibid: 223 )

6. **Slow up** a little!

( ibid: 182 )

Besides, Melvine ( 2014: 248-249 ) argues that each phrasal verb consists of verb + prep / particle and some of phrasal verbs have particle and preposition. There is a similarity between the particle and preposition, but the particle is frequently used as an adverb since it is placed after the main verb and gives more meaning to the verb.

The most frequent particles are (*on, off, into, up, down, away, back, over, etc.*). Therefore, Crystal (2008:352) defines 'particle' as a term used in grammatical description for showing different forms of particle. Firstly, it refers to invariable item with grammatical function which is not suitable to the basic parts of speech. This case illustrates the infinitive "to" which is called particle and preposition "to" regardless the surface similarity between them, but they don't have common features. Secondly, it refers to "negative particle" which indicates to "NOT". Finally, it refers to "verbal particles" which are used in "phrasal verb". Hence, phrasal verbs can be identified either by substituting a single verb for a verb and the word following it "particle", for example:

7. She **pointed out** the truth to us or she **showed** the truth to us.

Or by using "to" and "should":

8. To look up                      should look up.

9. To warm up                    should warm up.

10. To point out                    should point out.

Or by moving a particle away from its verb, for example:

11. She **looked up** the answer / she **looked** the answer **up**.

Evelyn et al. (2010: 38)

## 2.1 Phrasal Imperatives in Syntax

Syntax can be defined as "the science of the composition of sentences seeks to describe and explain the order of the constituents in a sentence and their relationship to each other" (Schweikert, 2005: 6).

To achieve this definition, phrasal imperative verbs depend on the main predicate and their arguments since PIs are resulted from combining the verb and the particle (preposition or adverb) (O'Dell and McCarthy, 2007: 6). This leads to be the order either V + O + Prt. or V + Prt. + O.

PI combines the syntactic features of imperatives and the syntactic features of phrasal verbs. The particle's position is considered one of the primary syntactic development in English language (Thim, 2012: 5). For explaining, particles are small words either preposition or adverb such as (about, around, at, away, back, down, off, in, at, on, over, through, up, etc.). particles are used to form phrasal verbs by adding them to the basic verb (O'Dell and McCarthy, 2004: 6). Like any other sentence type, syntax discussing imperatives sentences; English has three basic sentence types: imperative, interrogative, and declarative. As for imperatives, they have many grammatical features that make

them distinct from the other two (Saltarelli and Alcazar, 2014: 2). The most common features that should be differentiating between imperatives and other types of sentences are presented by Quirk et al. (1985:827), as follows:

a. It has no subject.

b. It has an imperative finite verb (the basic form of the main verb).

Through these differences, it is noted that the subject of the imperatives is comprehended through the context (Saltarelli and Alcazar, 2014: 2). That is, imperatives can be used either to talk to one person or more than one, they are used for expressing command or request (Norman, 1980:119).

As for PIs, these features apply to them too. Notice the following sentences:

Please, **switch** the fan **on**.

(Cowan, 2008: 208)

**Clean up** the mess.

**Stake out** the plain clothes.

**Head up!**

(Bolinger, 1971: 25,88)

There are some syntactic characteristics which are related to phrasal verbs and can apply also to phrasal verbs used imperatively (phrasal imperatives):

### 2.1.1 Negation in Phrasal Imperatives

As for imperatives, phrasal imperatives can be either positive (**Stand up!**) or negative (**Don't give up**). To express negative, Melvin (2014: 41) suggests that initial Don't can be added, such as:

**Don't turn off** the light before you go out.

(ibid.)

**Don't wrinkle up** your jacket.

(Cowan, 2008: 242)

**Don't mess me up**.

(ibid: 122)

**Don't mix up** the papers on my desk.

(ibid: 121)

**Don't drag out** the meetings so long.

(ibid: 64)

**Don't ring me up** in the morning.

(Nain, 2012: 173)

The negative command is used for giving a strong feeling of personal entreaty by using the stressed form of Tune, as in: '**Don't go away**, will you?' (Allen, 1954: 98)

### 2.1.2 Verb- particle or preposition combinations

These combinations consist of prepositional verbs and phrasal-prepositional verbs. A prepositional phrase can be defined as "a lexical verb followed

by preposition with which it is semantically and syntactically associated” for example:

**Look at** these pictures. (Quirk, 1985: 1155).

However, Quirk et al. (1985: 1167) and Locke and Downing (2002: 335) illustrate many distinctive phonology and syntactic features for differing phrasal verbs, including PIs from PPs, as follows:

1. The particle of phrasal verbs can be placed before or after the noun phrase, while preposition can be placed before the noun phrase. For instance:

a. **Take off** your hat (PIs).

> **Take** your hat **off**.

b. **Listen to** this record (PPs).

\*Listen this record to.

(Alexander, 1998: 116)

2. If the noun phrase (object) is a pronoun, it will precede the particle in phrasal verb. While in prepositional phrase it, it will follow the preposition.

a. **Take it off** (PIs).

b. **Listen to** it (PPs).

(ibid.)

3. When adverbs have adjunct function, they shall intervene between the verb and particle in prepositional verbs but not in phrasal verbs.

a. They **called** angrily **on** the dean (PPs).

b. \* They **called** angrily **up** the dean (PIs).

(Quirk, 1985: 1167)

4. In phrasal verbs, the particle cannot precede a relative pronoun at the beginning of relative clause and interrogative word at the beginning of wh-question.

a. **On** which man did they call? (PPs)

b. \* **Up** which man did they call? (PIs)

(ibid.)

Phrasal - Prepositional Verbs are another main types of multi - word verbs will be called phrasal-prepositional verbs due they include lexical verb in addition to both an adverb and a preposition as particles. These verbs are limited in informal English (Quirk, 1985: 1160).

Likewise, Cowan (2008: 180) who defines phrasal-prepositional verbs as ‘verbs which are followed by two elements: a particle and a preposition. They are transitive verbs since they are taken direct object (NP). For example:

**take it out** on me. (Quirk, 1985: 1160)

On the other hand, Thim (2012: 28) defines phrasal-prepositional verbs as ‘verbs with prepositional complement’. These verbs have idiomaticity. To elaborate, phrasal-prepositional

verbs behave as single verb “one - word paraphrase” since these verbs have idiomatic meanings, e.g (put up with = tolerate, look in on = visit) (Quirk, 1985: 1160). Such as the following sentence;

**Look in on** your way home. (visit, call) (Stone, 1967:40)

### 3. Forms of Phrasal Imperative Verbs

Imperative’s form is “the same as the bare infinitive” (Alexander, 1988: 184). He (ibid.) identifies the forms of imperatives as: Affirmative form (base form of the verb), Negative short form (Don’t + base form), Emphatic form (Do + base form), Addressing someone (vocative), Imperative + question tag, and Imperative joined by “and” as the basic imperative forms.

These forms cannot be realized by the single verbs only but the phrasal verbs can be used too in order to form phrasal imperatives. The forms of PIs can be used for expressing command or directing someone to do something. The subject is deleted, but it is comprehended from the context (Murphy and Smalzar, 2002: 74):

#### 3.1. The Base of PIs

Imperative verbs can be “bare root or minimally inflected form”. To illustrate, with reference to morphology, these forms are subjectless and as a result they are bare forms (Saltarilli and Acazar, 2014: 14). For instance:

Go away!

(Crystal, 2008: 237)

Sit down!

(Alexander, 1990: 140)

#### 3.2 Don’t + PIs

Imperatives can be negated by putting an obligatory ‘DO-support’ followed by the negator ‘not’. This apply to all imperative verbs, including PIs to form negative imperative. However, the negative marker in imperatives (Don’t) can be used as a lexical item since it carries the meaning of ‘prohibition’ (Aikhenvald, 2010: 165). For example:

Don’t turn the light on!

(Alexander, 1990: 140)

Don’t give up!

(Cowan, 2008: 170)

According to Quirk et al. (1985, 831), negative imperatives might be rarely followed by tag question especially with the positive auxiliaries like ‘will’ and ‘can’ which take the falling tone. For example:

‘Don’t go away, ‘will you?’

(Allen, 1954: 98)



### 3.3 Emphatic form (Do + PIs)

Imperatives including PIs can be used to emphasize what the speakers say. In addition, it can be used as a polite form in offers and invitations. Emphatic form requires 'Do-support' followed by the base form (Eastwood, 2005: 10). For example:

Do sit down.

(Swan, 2005:242)

### 3.4 Addressing Somebody (Vocative)

Vocative can be defined as "nominal expressions that refer to the addressee of the utterance directly or indirectly". It is used to sign or signal the speakers and listeners or the speakers only (Saltarilli and Acazar, 2014: 20). However, PIs might be used for addressing or speaking to one person or more than one person in particular. Vocative forms occurs by adding the pronoun 'You' in order to get the attention of the person. There are certain ways for attracting the attention of people (Alexander, 1997: 185-186). They are as follows:

You + imperative:

You go and sit down!

(Biber et al. 1999: 411)

You + name(s) or name(s) + You:

John, you listen to ME!

(Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973: 186)

Imperative + name or Name + imperative, like:

Drink up your milk, Sally! Or Sally, drink up your milk.

(ibid.)

Pick on Mary! Or Mary, pick on.

(Dixon, 1992: 274)

### 3.5 PIs + tag question?

After imperatives including PIs, tag question like (will you, won't you, can you, can't you, could you, and would you) might be used to express a variety of purposes such as annoyance/ impatience, request, friendly offers, and suggestion with (will you, and won't you) as:

Come in, will you/ won't you?

(Alexander, 1988: 186)

Sit down, won't you?

(Swan, 2005: 243)

Not only this form of tag question, but there is another form 'why don't you?' can be used as a tag question, for instance:

Go off for the weekend, why don't you?

(Alexander, 1988: 186)

### 3.6 PIs joined by (and)

this form might be applied by putting 'and' between double imperatives (ibid.). As in:

Draw a chair up and sit down.

(Spears, 2007: 65)

Quirk et al. (1985: 829), on the other hand, add something new to form PIs by using the verb "let". As a result, "Let's form" is used for directing rather than command since it is restricted to the first and third person subject. For instance:

Let's fry some chicken up for dinner. (Spears, 2007: 83)

Furthermore, many grammarians concerned with the form of imperatives like Xrakovskij (2001) and Aihenvald (2010) (cited in Saltarelli and Alcazar, 2014:14) assume that imperatives can be defective since they find that imperatives are "the most morphologically complex form in some languages". For example in English language, imperative's forms lack the absence of grammatical categories like tense, mood, etc. and subject. Based on these grammatical properties (lacking of grammatical categories and subject) it is supposed that imperative's subjects are optional. That is, imperatives are either with subject or without subject. But subjectless is mostly used in imperatives since the imperative subjects are limited to the second person. There is another unique feature which distinguishes imperatives from other types. This is the indexical element that Aikhenvald (2010: 133) (as cited in ibid: 30) mentions either as "Distal imperatives" which are used for expressing the relative extent of the recipient to the speaker, for instance:

1. Eat here! (close to the speaker)

2. Eat over there! (away from where the speaker is addressed to people outside the house)

(ibid.)

or as "extralocality" which refers to the action taken up and located differently like the verb 'look', for instance:

3. Look at it there! (singular addressee)

(ibid.)

## 4. Types of phrasal Imperatives

There are many approaches discussing the types of phrasal verbs. The present study sheds light on Quirk's divisions of phrasal verbs, including those used imperatively. According to Quirk et al. (1985: 1152), phrasal verbs are divided into two types: intransitive phrasal verbs and transitive phrasal verbs. As for PIs these types apply to them too.

### 4.1. Intransitive phrasal verbs

The structure of an intransitive verb plus a particle is one main type of multi-word verbs, for example: Get up at once. (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973: 303)

In addition, the particle's movement has a basic role in an intransitive phrasal verbs. The function of the particle here is place adjunct. Typically there should not be any structure between the particle and the verb. To illustrate, adverb might be functioned either as the clause element adverbial or as modifier. When adverbs are functioning as the clause element adverbial such adjunct, they cannot be deleted and as a result they are obligatory since adjuncts are "relatively integrated within the structure of the clause" (Quirk et al. 1985: 440). For example:

Drink up quickly.

\*Drink quickly up. (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973: 303).

However, in some cases, intensifiers are used to modify the particles when the later are used as intensifiers, perfectives or referring to direction, for example:

Go right on. (ibid.)

Another type of intransitive phrasal verbs, is the one where the particle consists of a prepositions adverb and has the function of a preposition with some Ellipsis of its complement. The particle can be placed as the first element within a complex preposition in sentences, as in:

Come along (with us/me)

According to Cowan (2008:174), intransitive phrasal verbs consist of two subtypes, as follow:

#### 4.2 Pure Intransitive Phrasal Verbs

These verbs cannot be separated from the particle since they behave as a single verb like ( *come over* = *visit* , *get together* = *meet*, etc). These verbs can be used imperatively (Cowan, 2008: 173). For example:

Stand up! (Nain, 2012: 174)

#### 4.3 Ergative Intransitive Phrasal Verbs

Terminology, it is derived from the Greek word *ergon* "work".

This term can be defined as " designating a particular kind of verb or construction with which the same phrase can be used as subject when the verb is intransitive and as direct object when the verb is transitive" (Aarts et al. 2014:143). In addition, Lyons (1968) (as cited in ibid.) assumes that the syntactic relationship that holds between (the ship blew up) and terrorist blew up the ship) is ergative, the subject of an intransitive phrasal verbs becomes the object of transitive phrasal verbs. That is, They are called ergative since they are used for describing action which performed by the subject like ( *die down*, *taper off*, and *crop up*), for example:

After about an a hour, the storm began to die down. (Cowan, 2008: 174).

#### 4.4 Transitive phrasal verbs

Transitive phrasal verbs, including PIs, can be defined as verbs take a direct object (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973:303), like:

Find out whether they are coming.

(obj.)

(ibid.)

Drink up your milk quickly.

(obj.)

(ibid.)

However, Cowan ( 2008: 177) divides transitive phrasal verbs into three subtypes according to the particle's movement. To illustrate, the particle can be placed either before or after the direct object. That is, the separation of the particle from its verb depends on the object (Quirk, 1985: 1154). These divisions apply to PIs too, as follows:

#### 4.5 Separable Transitive Phrasal Verbs

They are called "separable" since there is a separation of the particle, for example:

a. Put off the meeting.

Put the meeting off. (Dixon, 1992:274)

In this sentence, the particle's movement rule can be applied only in transitive phrasal verbs. To elaborate, the particle can be moved optionally before or after the direct object. But if the object is personal pronoun like (him, her, it, them, etc) or demonstrative pronoun like (this, that, these, those) the particle must be placed before it ( Cowan, 2008: 171). For example:

a. Wake up Mr. Smith.

Wake him up.

(Krohn, 1971: 122)

##### 2.6.2.2. Inseparable Transitive Phrasal Verbs

A set of transitive phrasal verbs, including PIs, don't employ the particle's movement rule. That is, there is no separation of the particle from its verb even if the object is a noun phrase, like:

Don't pick on my brother.

Don't pick on him.

\*Don't pick him on.

Look after my sister, will you?

Look after her , will you ?

\*look her after , will you?

(Cowan, 2008: 172)

#### 4.6 Permanently Separated Transitive Phrasal Verbs

A set of transitive phrasal verbs will permit the direct object to be placed between the verb and the particle if they are "permanently separated

transitive phrasal verb". That is, the particle can't be placed next to the verb. For instance:

Let someone off.

Get someone down.

Do something over.

Ask someone out.

(Cowan,2008: 173)

Moreover, Wyatt (2006: 3-4) divides phrasal verbs into five types. These types can be used imperatively, as follows

Type1.Intransitive phrasal verbs, like

Sit down!

Hurry up !

Stand up !

(Alexander,1990: 116)

Type2.Transitive phrasal verbs, like

Don't mix up with the bad boys

(Nain,2012: 171)

Type3.Transitive phrasal verbs "where the object must come between the verb and the particle", like

Take them off.

(Krohn,1971:122)

Type4.Transitive phrasal verbs "where the object must come after the particle", like

Pick up the paper.

(ibid.)

Type5.Transitive phrasal verbs " with two objects, one after the verb and one after the particle", like

You. Take your hands off me.

(obj.1) (obj.2) (Swan,2005: 234)

## 6. Functions of Phrasal Imperative verbs

Linguistically, function can be defined as the term which corresponds with a variety of meanings to show "the relationship between the linguistic form and other parts of the linguistic pattern in which it is used" (Crystal,2008: 201).

That is, there is a correspondence between the form and function in the sentences. For instance the English sentences have three forms; they are declarative , interrogative , and imperative. The functions of these sentences are stating a fact (declarative) , asking a question (interrogative), and giving order (imperative). Imperatives are precisely described as a sentence type with distinctive morpho-syntactic properties whose function is the performance of directive speech act (Jary and Kissine,2014: 14).

More precisely, imperative sentences have distinctive morphology and syntax since they are identified by the absence of subject and the use of non-finite forms of verb. This leads to specifying that these forms utilized to express certain functions. Identically, many functions don't entail to perform by using one form only (ibid.).

Alexander (1988: 185), however, confirms that imperatives have many functions. These functions can be used for a variety of purposes such as direct order , suggestions, advice, etc. In addition, there are many signs like 'stress and intonation, gesture, facial expression, situation and context' which can be used to determine whether this form is friendly, abrupt, impatient, persuasive, etc. Here are some functions achieved by phrasal verbs:

### **Offers**

Let's put some music on. What would you like to hear?

(Murphy,2019: 280)

### **Prohibitions**

Don't turn the light on.

(Alexander,1990: 140)

Don't give up.

(Cowan,2008: 170).

Don't ring me up in the morning.

( Nain,2012: 176).

Don't hold out false promises to anyone.

(ibid.)

Don't wake up the baby.

(Murphy,2019: 274)

### **Directions**

Go head with patience , you will get success.

(ibid.)

### **Warning**

Look out ! A bus is coming !

(Alexander,1990: 140 ).

Watch out for traffic signal!

(Joshi,2013: 4)

### **Orders**

Turn off that T.V !

(ibid.)

Stand up!

Turn round!

(Ur,1988: 127)

### **Requests**

Please look up the meaning of this word in the dictionary.

(Nain,2012: 176)

### **Advice**

Stay out of crowds at rock concert.

(Spears,2007: 223)

### **Invitation**

Come in and sit down.

(Eastwood,1994: 303)

Come on and tell me about Nick.

(Biber et al.1999: 407)

### **Expressing rudeness**

Shut up!

Push off! (Alexander,1988: 185)

### **Instructions**

look in the mirror before you drive off.  
(Swan,2005: 242)

Fill out this form.  
(Joshi,2013: 3)

### **Suggestions**

Keep up your English.  
(ibid.)

## **7. Methodology**

This section discusses four main disciplines:  
Corpus linguistics, The main corpora for English,  
Corpus- based studies, and the main search tools.

### **7.1 Corpus linguistics**

Many linguist describe corpus linguistics (henceforth CL) from different perspective and explanations. Kenedy (1998: 2-3) illustrates that CL is not a mindless process of automatic language description. Instead, it is used corpora for answering questions about language and solve problems. This leads to make the researchers use computer for analyzing and discovering facts about language which have been never observed or written about previously. The same is discussed by (Esimaji and Hunston, 2019: 7) saying that CL is a type of language inquiry which implies corpus data or corpus evidence for answering language variety, theories of language, how language is learnt, and how language is used in particular context. To know what this means, CL is a kind of method that can be seen in almost all the linguistic fields, but it cannot be regarded as a separate field in itself (McEnery and Wilson, 2001: 2). However, it is an important to recognize that CL is a heterogeneous field. This refers to the differences CL holds in classifying its approach according to the use of corpus data (McEnery and Hardie (2012:1). Therefore, they (ibid.) define CL as a study area which concentrates on a set of procedures and methods for studying languages. The study of this language depending on authentic examples of language use in real –life situations (McEnery and Wilson, 2001: 1).

7.2 The main corpora for English: COCA as a model

Linguistically speaking, a corpus is precisely described as a computerized collection of texts which might be written or spoken or both. Corpora are gathered depending on what is included and how the text is tagged. Tagging is “ the process by which the material in the corpus is marked or coded to make it searchable” (Bloomer and Wray, 2006:196). In order to get an overview of discovering corpora, it is better to list the main corpora in English language:

7.3 The Bank of English: It has several hundred million words of written and spoken English. They

are collected at the University of Birmingham, and can be found at COBUILD series of dictionaries and grammars. This corpus contains more than 5 million word and can be found in Word banks Online [www.collins.co.uk/bokks.aspx?group=154](http://www.collins.co.uk/bokks.aspx?group=154) (ibid:200).

7.4 The British National Corpus: containing 100 million words, one can find different styles of written (90 percent) and spoken (10 percent) British English and each word is grammatically tagged. The search tool SARA is one of the tool that are used to access this corpus <http://view.byu.edu/> (ibid).

7.5 The International Corpus of English ICE: containing 1 million words of spoken and written English (500 texts of about 200 word each) from different countries that their people speak English as either first or second language, and this corpus can be found through [www.ucl.ac.uk/english-usage/ice/avail.htm](http://www.ucl.ac.uk/english-usage/ice/avail.htm) (ibid:201).

7.6 The International Corpus of Learner’s English: this type is considered as part of ICE, that is found at the University of Louvain, Belgium. It has over 2 million words from EFL learners. Its data is collected from advanced student’s written essays. This corpus is a available through these two websites:

[www.fltr.ucl.ac.be/ltr/germ/etan/cecl/cecl-project/icle.htm](http://www.fltr.ucl.ac.be/ltr/germ/etan/cecl/cecl-project/icle.htm), and [www2.lael.ucs.br/corora/bricle/index.htm](http://www2.lael.ucs.br/corora/bricle/index.htm) (ibid).

7.7 The World Web: it contains 11.5 billion index able pages (Gulli and Signorini,2005: NP). Although it’s so huge, this resource has some disadvantages: variation in the reliability of the language, repetition, and changeability. It’s available at the search engine (Google, Altavista, Yahoo) or the Webcorp tool (ibid).

7.8. Literary works: it refers to the use of words by one or more literary authors. There are many literary works that download from internet like Gutenberg Project, [www. Gutenberg.org/](http://www.Gutenberg.org/) (ibid: 202).

Lindquist(2009) in his book under the title “Corpus Linguistics and the description of English”, confirm that corpora have large variety of types and the number of corpora is growing rapidly. In this regard, the type of corpus is linked to its purpose. He (ibid) describes the main corpora through the most common type of them, such as:

#### **i) Spoken Corpora:**

The Brown/ Frown and LoB/ FloB are corpora whose aim is to represent general language at particular point in time. Since spoken corpora have complicated technically and, therefore, take a lot of time, they lagged behind of written ones. Famous



example of spoken corpora: The London-Lund corpus of Spoken English(LLC). These corpora contain 500,000 words (ibid: 11).

### **ii) General Corpora:**

The general corpora is used to discover something about the language in general (ibid: 18). In addition, Dash(2008: 61) illustrates that general corpora consider as the most common type since they consist of texts with different genres, styles, subject fields and disciplines. Nonetheless, a general corpus is “large in size, rich in variety, wide in text representation and reliable with regards to information”. That is, this largeness is come from an infinite number of written and spoken texts samples (ibid).

Famous examples of general corpora are: The Bank of English (BoE), The British National Corpus (BNC), The American National Corpus(ANC), The International Corpus of English (ICE), and Corpus of contemporary American English(COCA) (Lindquist,2009: 17). The present study focused on COCA. This type of corpora is produced by Mark Davies at Brigham Young University and appeared in 2008 after only a year of preparation, and it is freely available. Containing 385 million words, it is organized in sections of 20 million words per year from 1990 onwards, and will go on being expanded by 20 million words per year. The sources are American T.V, radio, books, magazine, newspapers, and journals. These sources are divided into five registers of equal size: spoken (mainly transcribed conversation from television and radio), fiction, popular magazines, newspapers (various types), and academic journals from a number of different fields. COCA, therefore, is considered as “an example of new and promising way of creating large corpora by downloading texts from the web” (ibid).

### **iii) Specialized Corpora:**

According to (Hunston, 2002: 14; Meyer,2004: 36; and 2017: 51), specialized corpus is formed to get specific research purposes. its aims should be representative of a given text type for discovering a particular type of language (Hunston,2004:14).

Therefore, Dash(2008: 62) says that a specialized corpus consists of texts or small samples of texts that belong to a specific variety of language, dialect or genre. That is, specialized corpus is gathered for a special purpose in specific manner with specific goals. By the same token, it is limited in its purpose since it is used to answer specific research question (Lindquist, 2009: 18).

Some examples of this type of corpora are: The Michigan Corpus OF Academic Spoken

English(MICASE), and The International Corpus of Learner English(ICLE) (ibid).

### **Historical (diachronic)Corpora**

Diachronic corpora are used to investigate language changes over time, like the differences between older texts and modern ones. Containing texts from older periods of English(ibid: 19).

Famous examples of Historical corpora are: The Helsinki Corpora, and Lampeter Corpus of Early Modern English Tracts (ibid: 20).

### **Parallel and multilingual corpora**

There are set of corpora containing two or several languages. This means, they contain either original and their translation (which in translation studies are called source texts and target texts) or similar text types in different languages. These corpora refer to comparative linguistics studies and translation studies (ibid: 20).

### **Dictionaries as Corpora**

They refer to electronic dictionaries which can be used as corpora like: the Dictionary of Old English, and the Middle English Dictionary(MED), and the Oxford English Dictionary(ODE) (ibid).

### **Text archives as Corpora**

Text archives refer to text databases rather than corpora, and can be defined as “ collections of texts which are put together for their own sake (their literary value or information content). They are freely available and some examples of this kind of Corpora are: Newspapers on line or on CD-ROM, The Time Magazine Corpus, The Oxford Text Archives (OTA), and Project Gutenberg (ibid: 22).

### **The Web as Corpus**

The web is used to investigate the nature of web language and to produce minimal corpora which can be used in linguistic researches (Gatto,2014: 37). It means that researchers are used the web as an electronic store in order to get their own corpora (ibid). However, Waller and Jones (2015: 6-7) give another description about the corpora. They(ibid) define corpora as “ an electronically stored, searchable collection of texts”. These texts might be written or spoken. Because of the relative ease of storing and locating electronic texts, and requiring a lot of time for recording spoken data, written corpora tend to be larger. Therefore, corpora have variety of size and there is no limitation about the number of tokens they contain, actually there is no set maximum size. For example, small corpora can be regarded as a large one since it depends on the purpose and the principle of its considerations. In this regard, the measure of these texts depend either on the number of words (tokens) which contain or by the number of different words types (e.g. how many adjective, verbs, etc.) (ibid).

They (ibid),also, confirm that corpora can be mono-model which refer to one medium typically text or multi-model which refer more than one medium

text and video. But because of costs most corpora are mono-modal. However, Adolphs and Carter

(2013: NP) as cited in (Waller and Jones, 2015: 7) give another examples of Corpora:

Table 1.1 Examples of corpora

<i>Corpus name</i>	<i>Spoken/written or both</i>	<i>Number of tokens</i>	<i>Text types</i>	<i>Availability</i>	<i>Dates</i>
Brigham Young University-British National Corpus (BYU-BNC) (Davies, 2004)	Both	100 million	Newspapers, fiction, journals, academic books, published and unpublished letters, school and university essays, unscripted conversation, meetings, radio phone-ins and shows	Open-access (registration needed)	1980s–1993
Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) (Davies, 2008)	Both	450 million	Fiction, newspapers, magazines, academic texts, unscripted conversations	Open-access (registration needed)	1990–2012
Corpus of Global Web-Based English (GloWbe) (Davies, 2013)	Written	1.9 billion	Web pages from 20 English-speaking countries	Open-access (registration needed)	2013
Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE) (Seidlhofer et al., 2013)	Spoken (English used as a Lingua Franca)	1 million words	Interviews, press conferences, service encounters, seminar discussions, working group discussions, workshop discussions, meetings, panels, question-answer, sessions conversations	Open-access (registration needed)	2008–2011
Cambridge English Corpus (CEC)	Spoken and written	Multi-billion words	Learner English, business English, academic English, unscripted conversations	No general access	No dates given
The Cambridge English Profile Corpus (CEPC)	Spoken and written (learner data)	10 million words	Spoken and written texts from English language tests	Access to the English vocabulary profile available. Once complete, parts of the CEPC will be open-access	2005–present

## 8.

**The main Search Tools**

Corpus is authentic material. Even if it is tagged, but it is still just a collection of data. Each corpora has certain tools for doing searches in order to answer certain questions. There are many computational tools that are used for making the research possible (Bloomer and Wray, 2006: 197). As follows:

**8.1 Word frequency**

It is concerned with knowing which words occur most frequently in the texts. That is, the researcher will be used text-analysis program which tells the computer to count up the occurrence of each word form and list them descending or ascending order of frequency, or alphabetically (ibid: 197).

**8.2 Co- occurrences of words.**

They refer to know what sorts of words tend to occur in the immediate environment of a given word. This requires concordance program. The researcher chooses key word and the program searches for all the occurrences of it. The way of sorting concordance depends on the alphabetical order of the word (ibid).

**8.3 Distributions of words:**

They illustrate how certain words or sets of words are distributed through different parts of text (ibid).

**8.4 Collocations:**

According to (Firth, 1968: 179) as cited in (Bloomer and Wray, 2006: 198), the meaning of a word is determined by the word that it occurs with. Many patterns discovered through collocation research.

However, in order to understand linguistic analysis and language. It is better to use corpus linguistics since the latter is used to illustrate how language is actually used in particular contexts, and how it can vary from one context to another (Csomay and Willian, 2016: 5). The contexts depends on the researcher and how defines it either written such as news writing, text messaging, and academic writing, or spoken language like news reporting, face to face conversation and academic lecture (ibid).

Identically, corpora can be seen as a collection of texts or examples that share similar contextual or situational characteristics. By the same token, it is important to realize that these texts or examples are analyzed collectively in order to understand how language is used in various contexts (ibid). The result of this analysis is a set of language patterns which are frequent in the corpus and either give an explanation about the language use or function as the basis for further language analysis. As an example, the researcher uses Corpus of

Contemporary American English (COCA) since the latter is used to search about particular word or phrase for showing what other words are found with the reference word (ibid:6).

Furthermore, Partington (2003: 2) regards "concordance" as an essential tool since it is used for searching a text or a set of texts for strings of keyword or phrase and offer all examples in a list with certain amount of co-text for each one. Such a list makes the analyst discover eventual patterns in the surrounding co-text which present information about the use of key-item. In this regard, the entries might be sorted and ordered alphabetically. In addition, the concordances are prepared by using either MicroConcord or WordSmith tools for numbering the frequency of words. To illustrate, each corpus contains words. These words are listed in corpus according to how frequency they are in corpus (ibid).

**9. The present study**

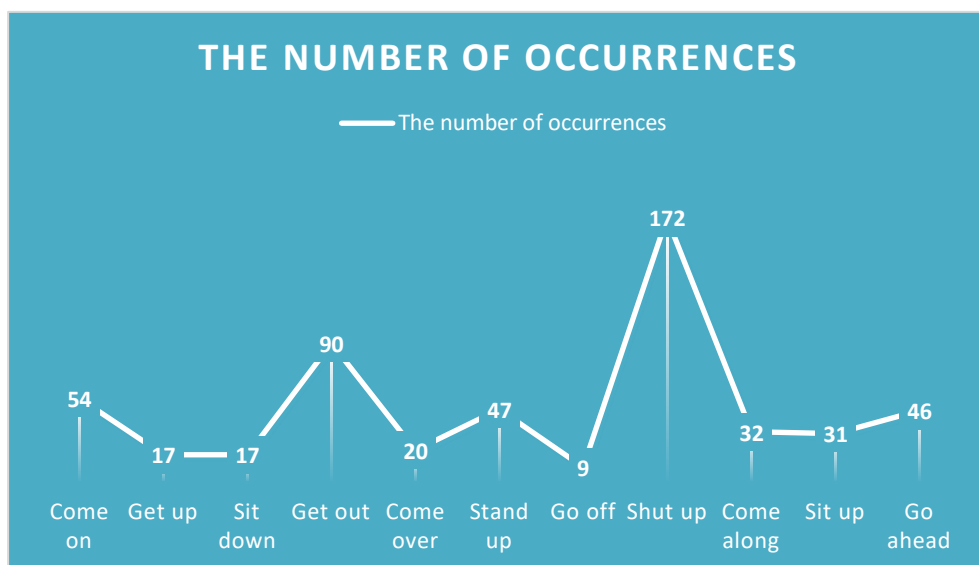
This study concentrates on three supposition: Corpus-based techniques are helpful in producing empirical and quantitative descriptions. The corpus is designed according to the corpus linguistics. It is focused on a general corpus and using Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) as an example. This corpus is considered as a data base that focused on the certain tool like word-list and co-occurrence since it relates to certain words in particular context.

**9. Analysis and Results**

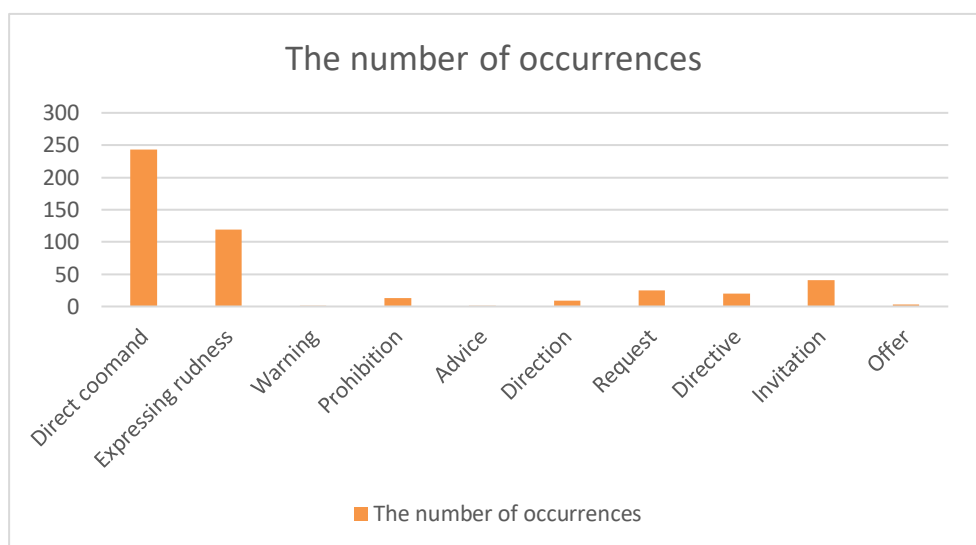
This section is meant to state the analysis procedures, discussed previously in chapter three, are put into practice. This chapter might be used as a sort of quantitative and qualitative demonstration formulated for twenty four phrasal verbs especially imperative ones are utilized in the corpus under investigation.

**9.1 Corpus Analysis**

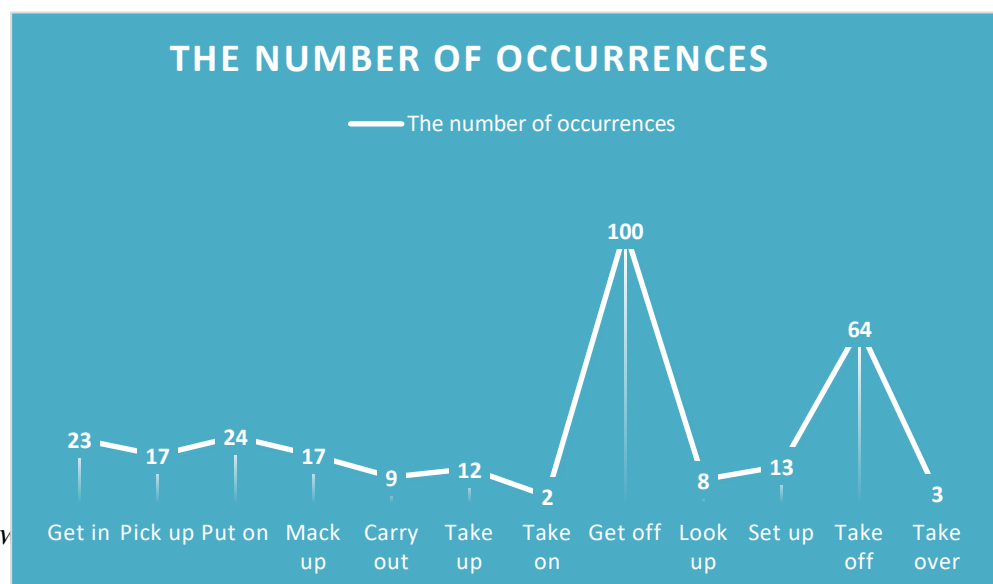
As it is used in corpus – based studies. The main techniques utilized in analyzing data are mainly Microsoft office Excel and digital corpora. As for this research, the researcher uses Microsoft office as a main program to analyze data since it is used for explaining word frequencies and making visual graphs. However, Microsoft office (hence forth MOE) is used as a tool for representing matrices, logarithms, charts, and different mathematical processes (see [www.microsoft.com](http://www.microsoft.com)). In the following diagrams illustrate the analysis of PIs:



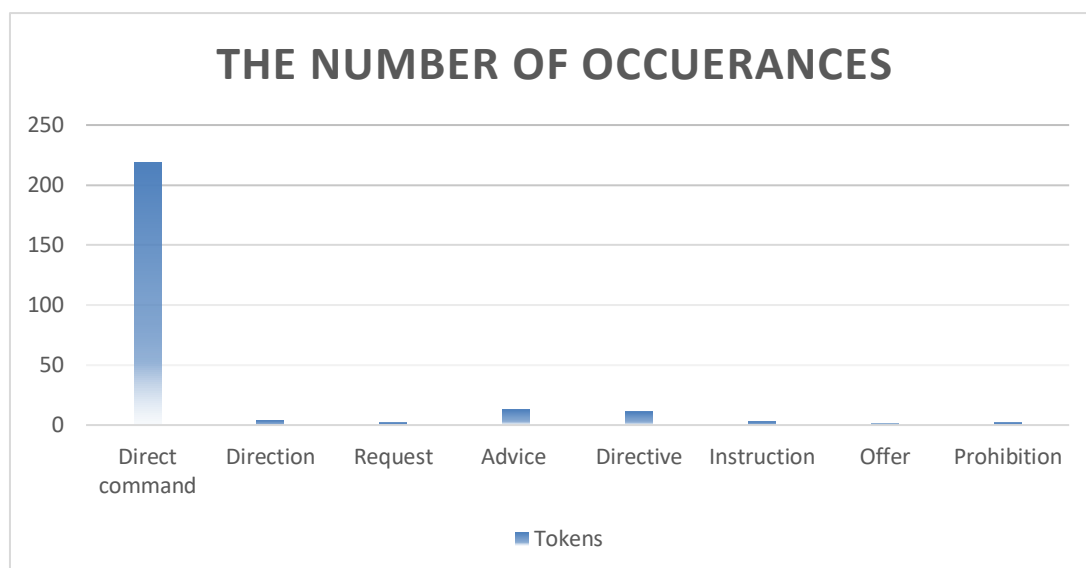
The above diagram shows the PIs and their occurrences. Through the number of occurrences the intransitive phrasal imperative verb 'shut up' has the highest occurrence in contrast with other.



In this diagram, Direct command has the highest occurrences in contrast with others.







**Figure (3): Transitive phrasal verbs and their occurrences**

### 9.3

#### The Present Study

This study concentrates on three supposition: Corpus-based techniques are helpful in producing empirical and quantitative descriptions. The corpus is designed according to the corpus linguistics. It is focused on a general corpus and using Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) as an example. This corpus is considered as a data base that focused on the certain tool like word-list and co-occurrence since it relates to certain words in particular context.

In this respect, There are twenty four phrasal verbs especially imperative ones. These phrasal verbs are collected by using data base Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA). COCA is a well-known database that uses in American of English as a corpus. It consists of more than “one billion words” from different genres: “spoken, fiction, popular magazines, newspapers, academic texts, and (with the update in March 2020): TV and Movies subtitles, blogs, and other web pages”.

However, the occurrences of the present study includes samples which composed of **1000** tokens. These samples rely on tokens that are used imperatively. Furthermore, This section is dedicated to analyze data sets which are gathered from Biber et al.(1999: 410) who divides phrasal verbs into: Transitive and Intransitive.

### 10. Conclusions

As a result of the theoretical and practical sides of this study. It is concluded that multi-word verbs

especially phrasal ones can be used imperatively to form phrasal imperative verbs. This study shows that phrasal imperatives contain certain types, forms, and functions. In this respect, as for types, Phrasal imperatives have transitive and intransitive. As a form, there are : affirmative form, vocative, PIs joined by ‘and’, let’s form, and negative form. As for functions, they have direct command, prohibition, instructions, directive, directions, and advice.

However, the current study contains a set of research questions which are used to illustrate the theoretical part of this dissertation and to analyze the data. Depending on digital readable database, corpus linguistics illustrates some major techniques for gathering and analyzing data, designing corpora, developing new tools for analyzing and answering research questions. Within the scope of corpus based studies, relating to the current study, corpus linguistics considered as methodological approach since it depends on quantitative and qualitative analytical procedures, also it is empirical since its analysis depends on the actual patterns of use in natural texts (corpus).

As for analyzing, this dissertation concentrates on twenty-four phrasal verbs which are used imperatively. These Phrasal imperatives are gathered by using database Corpus of Contemporary American English(COCA). They analyze manually through the word-list inside the corpus itself.

Moreover, as a result, the researcher uses Microsoft-Office in order to get the more frequent imperative verbs. These results reveal that phrasal imperatives mostly use affirmative forms in contrast with other forms, and as function, they have direct command.

### 11. Implications for Pedagogical practice and Research

This study introduces some recommendation, which are as follows:

1. It is recommended to adopt some kind of guidance framework on sampling methodologies in order to make the process more easy for utilizing deferent and new types of corpus data within texts analysis.
2. The contextual situations must be taken into consideration when analyzing the writing data because contexts determine specific functions.
3. The major task before producing a corpus-based study is the demonstration that such study can be approached either quantitative or qualitative or both.

As a result of the practical and theoretical facets of the study, the following areas need investigations:

1. It is suggested to conduct "PIs" syntactically.
2. Another study can be conducted "PIs" in daily conversations.
3. Another study can be done in novels and short stories.
4. Pragmatic aspect of PIs can be studied.
5. Discovering the semantic domain of PIs can be studied.

### Acknowledgments

First and Foremost, never-ending thanks go to Allah the Ever-Merciful; the Ever-Guider for confermenting me with willpower and strength that endows me to complete this study.

A special debt of gratitude is owed to my supervisor Prof. Taiseer Flaiyih Hesan for suggesting the topic of the thesis. The thesis could not have been completed without her invaluable comments, efficient guidance and precise advice during the process of writing the thesis. I would also like to express my indebtedness and appreciation to her for teaching me how to be a real and hard-working researcher.

I need to express my deepest gratitude to the professors of the Department of English, College

of Education for Humanities, University of Thi-Qar who taught me during the study of my MA program Prof. Dr. Raad Shakir, Prof. Dr. Khalid Shakir, Prof. Dr. Mohammed Jasim, Prof. Dr. Zainab Kadhum, the late Dr. Raheem Khalaf, asst. Prof. Kamal Gatta, asst. Prof. Marzuqat Rahil, asst. Prof. Dr. Muhamad Alsahlani, asst. Prof. Dr. Hasan Kazim, asst. Prof. Dr. Hani Kamil.

I am sincerely thankful to everyone who had patiently shared their academic experience and answered my questions.

Many thanks go to my family for their love, spiritual support, efforts and patience during the writing of this thesis.

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