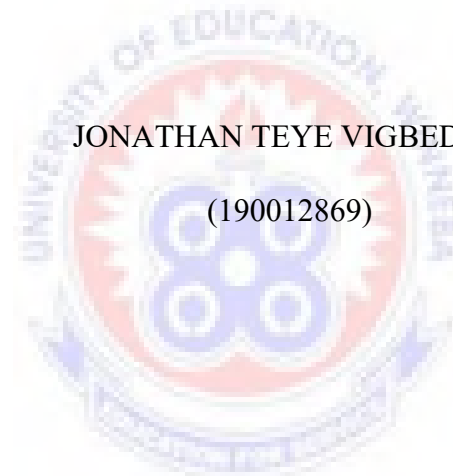


UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

THE SYNTAX AND SEMANTICS OF PHRASAL VERBS IN DANGME



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MARCH, 2021

DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, JONATHAN TEYE VIGBEDOR, declare that this thesis, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified and duly acknowledged is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for another degree elsewhere.

SIGNATURE:.....

DATE:.....

SUPERVISORS' DECLARATION

I, hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of Thesis as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my beloved wife, Gladys Adinorkie Vigbedor, children and the entire family, especially my mother, Augustina Akuorkor Adjovu.



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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

1SG	First person singular
2PL	Second Person Plural
3SG	Third Person Singular
3PL	Third Person Plural
1SG.OBJ	First Person Singular Object
2SG.OBJ	Second Person Plural Object
ADV	Adverb
CONJ	Conjunction
CMT	Conceptual Metaphor Theory
DEF	Definite Article
PROG	Progressive
AUX	Auxiliary
FUT	Future
HAB	Habitual
NP	Noun Phrase
OBJ	Object
PAST	Past Tense
PERF	Perfective
VOP	Verb Object Particle
POSS	Possessive
VPO	Verb Particle Order
VP	Verb Phrase

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FIGURE

Fig 1: The Ga-Dangme Language Family

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the syntax and semantics of Dangme phrasal verbs. It emphasized on the diverse manifestations of the phrasal verb in respect of its transitivity. This study also, from the Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT) view-point, perceived and discussed the meanings of the phrasal verbs, their idiomaticity and polysemy as well. Data for the study were collected from both primary and secondary sources. The Conceptual Metaphor Theory was used to analyse the data. This purely descriptive and qualitative research objectively revealed two main outcomes: first, the Dangme phrasal verb as a single semantic unit that expresses idiomatic meaning comprises two parts: the verbal element and the post-verbal element. Secondly, Dangme phrasal verbs express both fundamental/literal and metaphorical/figurative meanings, and are usually not polysemous owing to their high idiomaticity. These findings hold significant implications for the Conceptual Metaphor Theory, teaching methods, language documentation and further syntactic and semantics research on Dangme phrasal verbs.



CHAPTER ONE

THE GENERAL OVERVIEW OF THE THESIS

1.0 Introduction

This thesis presents an account of the syntax and semantics of phrasal verbs in Dangme. Phrasal verb is a kind of multiword expression, which contains more than one token of word but the whole unit exhibits syntactic and semantic features. Biber, et al (1999: 58-59) define phrasal verbs as “multi-word units consisting of a verb followed by an adverbial particle that have core spatial or locative meanings are commonly used with extended meanings.” Courtney (1990) explains this grammatical phenomenon as combinations of a verb and an adverb, or a verb and preposition (or verb with both adverb and preposition).

This thesis focuses on describing the phrasal verb in Dangme, concentrating on their syntactic and semantic properties. Syntactically, it investigates the type of phrasal verbs and composition of phrasal verbs. It also examines how the structure relates to transitivity. Semantically, it examines the semantic properties of Dangme phrasal verbs and their functions. This study is important because it will fill the gap on the lack of literature on the phenomenon of phrasal verbs not only in Dangme but also in other Ghanaian languages in general.

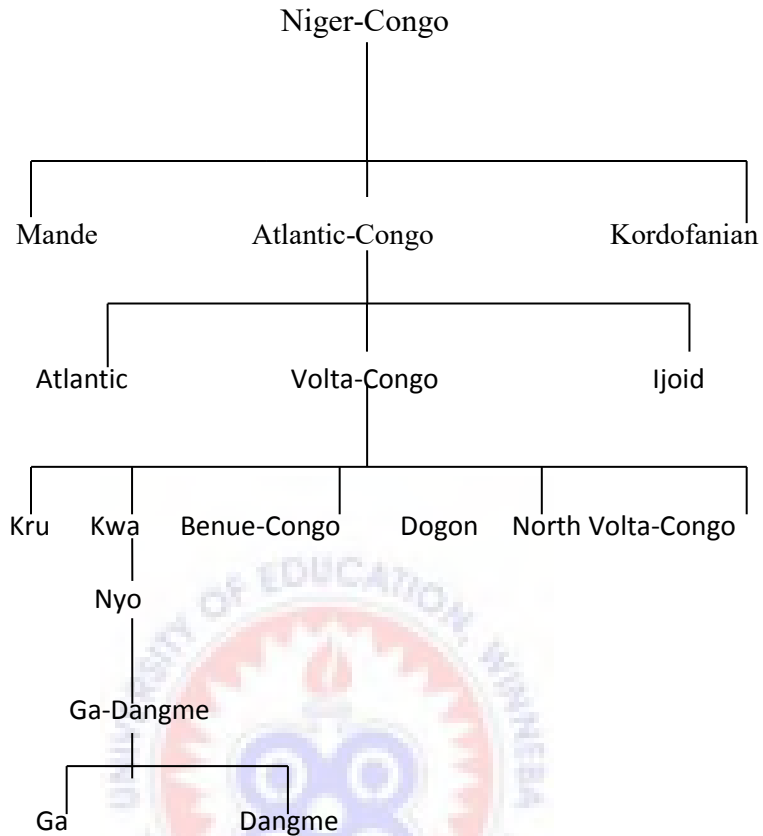
The rest of the chapter is organized as follows: section 1.2 and 1.3 present the background of the language and the study respectively. 1.4 presents the statement of the problem presented. Section 1.5 outlines the purpose of the study. Objective of the study is

presented in section 1.6, whereas the research questions are presented in 1.7. The significant of the study is also outlined as 1.8. 1.9 and 1.10 sections focus on the limitation and delimitation of the study respectively. 1.11 presents the organization of the thesis.

1.1 Background of the language and people of Dangme

Hall (2001), states that all Ghanaian languages along with most sub-Saharan ones, are classified in the Congo-Kordofanian phylum. This is subdivided into eleven families and all Ghanaian languages can be classified under only three of these: namely Gur, Kwa and Mande. Duthie (1996) places the Kwa languages under the Volta-Congo language group which also falls under the bigger Niger-Congo language family. According to the sub-classification of the Kwa, Dangme and its very close relative, Ga, form a family that belongs to the Nyo group (Bendor-Samuel, 1989, p.21). The ethnologue of the languages of the world confirms that Dangme belongs to the Nyo group and this is illustrated in figure (1).

Fig 1: The Ga-Dangme Language Family:



Source: Ethnologue: Languages of the World, 2013

The people who speak the Dangme language are referred to as the Dangme li (the Dangme people). Verily, it is not certain where they migrated from due to the various schools of thought. One ancient Adangme tradition says that the forefathers who were originally known as the La li (the La people) came from Same in Ile-Ife at Nigeria, a land far to the north-east of the Gold Coast, lying between two rivers, the Efa and the Kpola. Now, the Hausa people call the River Niger, that great river after which Nigeria is named, the Kwora (Puplampu, 1953). According to him, another tradition asserts that the original

home of our people was a place in north-eastern Dahomey, and yet another that it was in Benin.

Dangme is an indigenous language spoken by about 502,816 people in Ghana, (Ghana Statistical Service, 2012, on the 2010 Population and Housing Census). It is spoken in two Regions of Ghana; the Eastern Region and in the south-eastern parts of the Greater Accra Region. Apronti (1971) and Dakubu (1987) identified two main dialects of Dangme namely: the coastal dialects and the inland dialects. The coastal dialects constitute Ada, Ningo, Gbugblaa (Prampram), and Kpone whereas the inland dialects include Se (Shai), Osudoku and Krobo (Yilo and Many).

Again, Caesar (2012; 2016) citing (Dakubu 1966; Sprigge 1969 cited in Ameka and Dakubu 2008:215), state that there are several small communities east of the Volta Region that trace their origins to Dangmeland; most of these have shifted to Ewe as the language of daily life, but others have not. Patches of speakers are also found in Afegame Wenguam in the Volta Region and in Togoland: Nyetoe and Gatsi who have been mentioned by Westermann and Bryan (1952). The Dangme language also shares close resemblance with Ga, the language spoken by the Ga people who reside in and around the Greater Accra Region.

Nevertheless, (Dakubu 1988) observes that they may be similar when it comes to some basic vocabularies but reflects striking differences in phonology, grammar and lexicon. Dangme is one of the major languages used by the media for both entertainment and

news broadcasting in Ghana. It is also one of the eleven Ghanaian languages used for instruction in schools at the lower primary level and taught as a subject at the upper primary, Junior High Schools, Senior High schools, Colleges of Education and at the university levels of education in the country. It is also used in Adult Education programmes. The language has had a long history of academic study compared to many other West African languages. Today, there are many published works in Dangme.

1.2 Background to the study

Phrasal verbs have gained considerable attention widely from scholars such as Bolinger (1971), Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman (1999), Jackendoff (2010), Olson (2013), Kamarudin (2013) to mention but few have researched on English phrasal verbs; Cheon (2000) and Kweon (2007) researched on it in Korea; Raffaelli & Sojat (2010) researched in some Croatian languages and Aldahesh (2017) researched in Arabic. According to Thim (2012); Walkova (2013); Aldahesh (2017), phrasal verbs were discovered and studied in the eighteenth century. Iacobini (2009) and Thim (2012) explain further that the origin of phrasal verbs can be traced back to at least Proto-Germanic and Indo-European languages. This development has been most notable in American English; “Samuel Johnson was considered the first to describe phrasal verbs in 1755, referring to them as a “composition,” (McArthur 1992: 775).

Phrasal verbs are a widely accepted phenomenon in languages such as English, Dutch and German (Jackendoff, 2010). They are verbs that are made up of a main verb and followed by particle, usually preposition in English. Most phrasal verbs are two or three

words and can be quite challenging to learners as they can be literal or figurative in meaning (Buaer, 2007). Only a limited number of languages possess phrasal verbs (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999). Newmeyer (2005, p. 113) affirms the stands taken by Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman by saying; “.... such constructions are less common in other language families and can therefore be considered typologically unusual.” Thim argues with this notion and further cites examples of phrasal verbs from Danish, Dutch, Norwegian Nynorsk and Swedish, as well as from Afrikaans, Faroese, Icelandic and Yiddish to support the claim that phrasal verb is certainly not an isolated language-specific phenomenon.

Sekyi-Baidoo (2006) accordingly conducted a research on this phenomenon and established the existence of phrasal verb in the Akan language. Katunar et al. (2010) has also observed that phrasal verbs can be found in the Croatian language, although there are just a few. Laryea (2015) in her submission attested to the fact that phrasal verbs exist in the Ga language. The submissions above by previous researchers refuted the assertion made earlier by Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman. Nevertheless, if their claim could even be, there is the need for researches to be carried out in other remaining languages of which Dangme is not an exception in this regard. It is to this effect that this research seeks to find out how phrasal verbs are composed of and function in the Dangme language.

1.3 Statement of the problem

The fact that a variety of studies have been carried on the syntax and semantics of verbs and phrasal verbs in a lot of languages cannot be underestimated. Some scholars from whom phrasal verbs have received considerable amount of research attention, among others are; Bolinger (1971), Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman (1999), Jackendoff (2002), Olson (2013), Kamarudin (2013) have studied English phrasal verbs, from different perspectives. Katunar, Srebacic, Raffaelli, Sojat (2010) have also described phrasal verbs in Croatian language and (Sekyi-Baidoo (2006, 2008) and Laryea (2015) has also investigated the syntax and semantics of phrasal verbs in Akan and Ga) respectively and Ibrahim (2020) in Nzema through the framework of Conceptual Metaphor Theory. Although there have been tremendous effort by many Dangme scholars in the study of the language on various aspects, however, to the best of my knowledge, not much studies have been done particularly, on the syntax and semantics of phrasal verbs in Dangme and therefore requires an in-depth study on the phenomenon in order to fill in the gab in the literature.

The focus of this current study for that matter is to identify and find out some syntactic and semantic features of the Dangme phrasal verb as a multi verb phenomenon in Dangme. The study covers the fundamental constituents of the Dangme phrasal verbs in the syntactic perspective. Semantically, the study emphasizes on the meaning of phrasal verbs and also how idiomaticity is expressed in Dangme phrasal verbs through the spectacle of Conceptual Metaphor Theory. This phenomenon is scarcely studied in

Ghanaian linguistics therefore, it will serve as a guide for further studies in other Ghanaian languages.

1.4 Purpose of the study

The main purpose of the study is to investigate the syntax and semantics of the Dangme phrasal verbs. Even though widely studied in other languages, the phenomenon is to a large extent dispense with in Dangme, making it an important field of investigation.

1.5 Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study are to:

1. identify the types of syntactic elements that form Dangme phrasal verbs.
2. discuss the syntactic and semantic features of Dangme phrasal verbs.
3. find out how idiomaticity is expressed in Dangme phrasal verbs.

1.6 Research questions

The following questions guided the research:

1. What are the syntactic constituents of Dangme phrasal verbs?
2. What are some syntactic and semantic features of Dangme phrasal verbs?
3. How is idiomaticity expressed in Dangme phrasal verbs?

1.7 Significance of the study

Laryea (2015) is of the view that, “there is an apparent dearth of information on the phenomenon of phrasal verbs in Ga. Preliminary studies on the phenomenon have not

shown that they do exist in the language. Some people are even of the opinion that the phenomenon does not exist in the language and that is why there is lack of information on it in Ga grammar books.” The researcher will share in the assertion made by Laryea (2015) above since Ga and Dangme are sister languages from the same root and also, suffer same sickness. This study will, hence attempt to establish the fact that the Dangme language is among those languages in which phrasal verbs exist.

Additionally, inadequate literature on the syntax and semantics of Dangme has been antiquated worrying situation for both teachers and learners of Dangme. Whereas teachers moil to source items to enable them explain certain semantic issues to their learners, learners on the other side of the coin slog getting materials to abet their stands when it comes to phenomena in Dangme semantics. The best and most commonly used alternative to the studying of Dangme semantics is reliance on English literatures to gain understanding of the L1.

To partially resolve this short coming but not to eliminate it in entirety, the findings of the research will be of use to translators and teachers. It will again double up as a reference material for learners at all levels. The study result will be of a benefit also to other researchers in linguistics in a form of document.

Finally, the findings will serve as a new data to either confirm or reject older findings. This will serve as a motivation and trigger others to investigate into languages where the

phenomenon is not yet studied. It will again trigger the study of other phenomenon in languages less studied among the Ghanaian languages.

1.8 Limitations of the study

Unlike the English and other sister languages like Akan, Ewe, Ga, etc. which are well furnished with materials for the studies of phrasal verbs, Dangme cannot rock shoulder with them. Researchers who undergo the studies in phrasal verbs need to go through the strain of collecting verbs and adposition combinations and sorting out those that present themselves as phrasal verbs in the language before continuing to his or her intended aim for those compiled list of phrasal verbs, furthermore, as tonal as the Dangme language is, it will do the researcher good than evil to tone mark all word so far as tones play a key role in bringing about meaning variations between words that may have the same form. The fact that the collection, description and tone marking of these data can prove difficult at times and that they are challenges that can delay the intended research cannot be disparaged. This challenge nevertheless, can be addressed by enlisting the services of trained research assistants to help with the process.

1.9 Delimitations of the study

This study is limited to Dangme phrasal verbs. Two textbooks and two literary texts were selected for the data collection. The two textbooks are for primary six and JHS one. The researcher's reason for chosen those textbooks will be that, they contain short stories and varied topic which will be of help in the data collection for the study. Among the two literary text that were considered one was drama and the other prose. The basis for the

selection of these literary texts rest on two factors; the dates of publication and the writers of the said books. Regarding the dates, which is between 1960 and 1990, there is evidence of originality in the correct usage and application of the verb and adposition combinations in sentences. The various authors are prolific writers and well versed in the language as well. The drama book that will be consulted is “Kokɔ sika” written by Narteh, L. A (1992). The other book that will be used is „Ajesiwɔ“ written by Dosoo (1977). Additionally, the textbooks consulted are „Nilemi blɔ ekpa” and Dangme Ngmami Bɔ (1990)” by Bureau of Ghana languages 1972 and 1990 respectively.

1.10 Organization of the Thesis

The research is presented in five chapters. The first chapter introduces the study by providing general background knowledge that serves as a kingpin for the study. This chapter takes into consideration, the general introduction to the study, highlighting on thematic aspects such as the background to the study, Dangme and its speakers, statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, objectives of the study, the research questions. The chapter also touches on the significance of the study, limitation, delimitation and concludes with the organization of the research.

The second chapter covers the review of related literature. In this chapter, the phenomena discussed include the concept of phrasal verbs, the syntax and semantic features of phrasal verbs and also, the idiomaticity expression of phrasal verbs.

The third chapter deals with the methodology adopted for the study. Its constituents are the method of data collection, data transcription and the method of data analysis.

Chapter four provides the discussion on results of the data collected. The data collection procedure were grouped under various categories. Phrasal verbs that have the same verbal elements formed one group and those that have same adposition elements were also placed in another group. Again, the phrasal verbs that have different forms but the same meaning formed a separate group. These groupings foster the discussions on the semantic features of the phrasal verbs. The conceptual metaphor theory will be used in the discussion of the meaning of phrasal verb.

Chapter five forms the concluding chapter. It involves the summary of the entire work, implication of the study, the conclusions and recommendation for future research.



CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews related literature that contributes to the conceptualization of the major research questions underlying the study, and also discusses the theoretical framework that helps to put the study in an appropriate perspective. The chapter is divided into three parts. The first part discusses phrasal verbs in general, bringing out their major syntactic and semantic features. Part two reviews related previous studies on phrasal verbs in English, Akan, Ga and Nzema noting that the Dangme literature is quite silent on the theory. These realistic studies are reviewed with the aim of demonstrating how the present study is similar to and/or different from previous research. This implies, relevant issues presented in the literature which will position the present study within the proper perspective are considered in the review. The final part of this chapter is on the theoretical orientations underlying the study.

2.1 Phrasal Verb

A good number of definitions and explanations were assigned to the term “phrasal verb” by scholars in the linguistic literature. More particularly, on the grammatical status of the constituents in its construction: whether the lexical verb is conveyed by a preposition, a particle and/or an adverb. Kennedy (1920) referred to the *phrasal verb* as verb adverb combination. Other tags utilized in the literature for the concept include: compound verb, two-word verb, separable verb, discontinuous verb, Verb-particle construction, verb-particle combination, particle verbs, among others (Fraser, 1974; Dehé, 2002). A phrasal

verb is a combination of two or three elements (a lexical verb with a preposition, a lexical verb with an adverb, or a lexical verb with an adverb and a preposition), that act as a single unit of meaning in the sense that its meaning cannot be inferred from the total sum of the meanings of its separate elements (Courtney 1990, Biber et al. 1990, Seidl 1991, Moon 1997, Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999, Rudzka-Ostyn 2003, Uhlirova 2013, Ghailan 2015, Aldahesh 2017). A number of researchers are of the view that the post-verbal particle is neither preposition nor adverb as proposed by the above authors but they are rather homophonous with them. For example, McArthur (1992), Jackendoff (2010), Thim (2012) describe phrasal verb as a verb paired with a particle that is homophonous with a preposition or an adverb particle. Thus, phrasal verbs constitute two components: a verb and a particle, which is homonymous with an adverb or a preposition, but differ syntactically and semantically. They maintain that the particles are distinctive category: that is, they are different from adverbs and prepositions.

Cappelle (2005), Thim (2006), Elenbaas (2007) and Olson (2013) further state that the post verbal particle is semantically fused to the verb, and the meaning of the verb and its particle may be significantly different from the verb when it does not have a particle attached to it. Another school of thought considers phrasal verb as combination of verb and a preposition construction that functions as a single lexical and semantic unit (Quirk, et al 1985, Side 1990, Darwin & Gray 1999). Mitchell (1958) cited in Laryea (2015) opines that it is better to abandon the word class approach. Instead, he suggested that phrasal verbs should be treated as a type of verb formed by two words in which the particle forms one grammatical piece with the verbal component. In this study,

notwithstanding, the term will be used with recourse to phrasal verb. This is due to the fact that, it is the commonest designation and the predominant one employed in most books (Bolinger, 1971; Palmer, 1988; Liao & Fukuya, 2004; Sekyi-Baidoo, 2006). Generally speaking, phrasal verbs refer to a combination of two lexical elements; a verb and a particle (Bolinger, 1971; Sroka, 1972; Fraser, 1974; Lindner, 1983; Thim, 2006). Sekyi-Baidoo (2006, p.154) defines a phrasal verb as an idiom that is “...basically a verb and adposition element combinations which bear a single semantic significance which is different from the meaning of ordinary verb and adposition (preposition / post position) combination in which the meaning is to some extent the aggregate of the meaning constituent words.”

Essentially, this study will draw on the definition proposed by Sekyi-Baidoo (2006), albeit with a slight modification. He defines a phrasal verb as “...verb and adposition element combinations which bear a single semantic significance which is different from the meaning of ordinary verb and adposition combination” (p. 154). His intimation on the nature of the particle overlaps with Bolinger (1971), Sroka (1981), Dixon (1982), on the use of preposition as the particle element. Still and all, his definition is quite distinct owing to the fact that he does not make mention of adverbs. Besides, Sekyi-Baidoo makes mention of postpositions under the amorphous term of adposition. He sees the particle as a distinct category from the adposition. He notes that “...sometimes, the adposition element does not admit a complementation of the object unlike in the ordinary verb adposition compound in which there is necessarily an object complementation. In such instance, position element is referred to as a particle” (p. 154).

Deducing from Sekyi-Baidoo's view on the nature of the particle in the phrasal verb, we notice that to him when the second element of the phrasal verb admits a complementation, then it is likely to be an adposition, and when it does not, it is likely to be a particle. Sekyi-Baidoo's description and explanation of the phrasal verb will be appropriate for the current study because the definition captures what pertains in Ghanaian languages as far as the phrasal verb is concerned. In Ghanaian languages, especially Dangme, adverbs modify verbs and cannot combine with verbs to create new meanings. Also, verbs can only combine with postpositions and not prepositions to create new meanings.

In this study, however, Sekyi-Baidoo's position that the second element becomes an adposition or a particle based on complementation will not be adopted in defining the phrasal verb. Instead, the adposition element will be considered as a particle because, according to Yutaka (2013) the term "particle" was introduced by Jespersen (1927) as one part of speech including adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections" also in the literature (as already pointed out above), some scholars consider the particle in phrasal verbs as an adverb or a preposition. Therefore, in this study, the particle will be considered as a postposition element.

Having done with the general description of phrasal verb and establishment of its working definition for this current study, the next focus is yet on literatures in respect to the syntax and semantics characteristics of the phrasal verbs from English and some Ghanaian languages.

2.1.1 Tests for phrasal verbs

A number of syntactic tests have been proposed in the literature. Fraser (1965, 1970, 1976) was one of the foremost scholars to distinguished between the syntactic behaviour of verb-adverb combinations and phrasal verbs proper, though many of his tests have been later contested by several scholars such as Bolinger (1971); Declerck (1976) and Lindner, 1983 (Rodriguez, 2013). The proposed syntactic tests are especially useful to distinguish phrasal verbs from other combinations of a verb and an adverb or a preposition. Others seem to be more useful to check the degree of cohesion between the verb and the particle in a phrasal combination, particularly in those of the intransitive type, given that the majority of the tests are designed for transitive phrasal verbs. This section provides an account of few of these tests, together with a discussion of the pros and cons of using them as distinctive of the category at hand.

2.1.2 Particle Placement

Particle placement is one of the most frequently cited test in the literature. Works mostly quoted among others are (Heaton, 1965, p. 55; Bolinger, 1971, p.10-11; Fraser, 1974, p. 2; Hiltunen, 1983, p. 18; Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1153; Brinton, 1988, p. 164; Palmer, 1988, p. 219; Biber et al., 1999, p. 404; Claridge, 2000, p. 52; Hampe, 2002, p. 16-17; Gries, 2003, p. 1; Cappelle, 2005, p. 78). In transitive phrasal verbs, the particle can be placed either before the NP object (Verb Particle Object order), hereafter (VPO order) or after it (Verb Object Particle order), hereafter (VOP order), as seen in (1a and 1b respectively). According to Rodriguez (2013) these tests help to distinguish phrasal verb particles from

prepositions, such as *on* in (2), which must precede an NP, and from adverbs, which normally follow NP as seen in (3).

- (1) a. She turned *on* the light.
b. She turned the light *on*.
- (2) a. She *called on* her friends.
b. She *called* her friends *on*.
- (3) a. She left the house *early*.
b. She left *early* the house.

Conversely, when the direct object of a phrasal verb is a pronoun, the adverbial particle must follow it (Bolinger, 1971; Fraser, 1976; Hiltunen, 1983; Palmer, 1988; Hampe, 2002; Cappelle, 2005) as shown in (4), whereas pronouns must necessarily follow prepositions, as shown in example (5).

- (4) a. She *turned it on*.
b. She *turned on* it.
- (5) a. She *called on* them.
b. She *called* them *on*.

Several reasons have been given in the literature to account for this difference. Some scholars have pointed out that it is stress that determines the position of the object: when the object is stressed, it must have end position, whereas if it is weakly-stressed (as pronouns usually are), it must appear in midposition (Kruisinga and Erades, 1953; Fraser, 1976; Brinton, 1988; Gries, 2003). Nevertheless, pronominal objects can sometimes be placed at the end of the clause when some kind of contrastive stress is intended (Erades, 1961; Bolinger, 1971; Fraser, 1976; Claridge, 2000).

Another frequently adduced reason for the difference in particle placement is the length and/or complexity of the object (Erades, 1961; Fraser, 1976; Brinton, 1988; Gries, 2003). The length of a constituent is usually defined in terms of the number of words and/or syllables it has, whereas its complexity mostly depends on the type of syntactic dependents it takes (Gries, 2003; Cappelle, 2005). Although it has been argued by Gries (2003) that, the effect of length and complexity must be analysed separately, what is true is that both can be said to contribute to the weight of constituent (Cappelle, 2005). Thus, following the, “principle of end-weight” (Quirk, et al, 1985, p. 1361), long objects are normally placed after the particle, whereas short ones (such as pronouns) typically occur before it. This criterion would well account for the fact that usually long or heavy nominal objects (e.g. Certainly Ferguson has not *given up* the ghost of trying to land the Championship), as well as participial clauses (e.g. Jude had *given up* trying to make contact), tend to cause the particle to precede them. However, long or complex objects can also occur between the verb and the particle (e.g. I wish you“d take that ridiculous hat of yours off) (Rodriguez, 2013, p. 70-71).

According to Erades (1961), although stress and length are important factors, what actually seems to condition the position of the object is its news value. Consequently, pronouns, which refer to a previously mentioned entity, as well as empty nouns such as things, matter, business, stuff, subject (Bolinger, 1971; Gries, 2003), tend to appear before the particle, whereas other NPs show variability to whether the referent in them is familiar or not.

Although Bolinger agrees with Erades in the relevance of news value, he insists on the fact that accent must not be dismissed as a determining factor. Many of Bolinger's observations about particle placement are related to Halliday's (1967, 1985) ideas about the information structure of the clause, which, like Bolinger's are based "on the interplay between stress and end-focus" (Gries, 2003, p. 25). According to Halliday (1967), the unmarked word order of the English clause is first given and then new information, the latter receiving focus (stress, phonological prominence). This phenomenon is commonly known as "the principle of end focus" (Downing and Locke, 1992, p. 244) and phrasal verbs are a particularly suitable way to respond to its requirements: one of the main properties of phrasal verbs is precisely that the division into two words permits different stress possibilities (Bolinger, 1971; Fraser, 1976), which allows "the important semantic feature" to be put "in the normal position for the nuclear accent" (Bolinger, 1971, p. 49), that is, the final position. Thus, taking Halliday's (1985, p. 185) example, if in a sentence like (6) below, we want to emphasize the fact that the meeting was cancelled (not summoned), we can only do it by means of stress, given that placing the verb in clause-final position would be ungrammatical.

(6) They *cancelled* the meeting.

However, an ordering like that in (6), with the focus in non-final position, goes against the principle of end-focus and constitutes a marked sentence carrying "additional overtones of contrast, contradiction or unexpectedness" (Halliday, 1985, p. 185). By contrast, if a phrasal verb is used for the same purpose, the division of the verb into two

different elements allows the particle to be placed in final position, so that at least one part of the compound is allowed the unmarked position in the clause as illustrated in (7).

(7) They called the meeting *off*.

This explanation can also account for the fact that pronouns are usually placed before the particle, the unmarked position for pronouns. Therefore, the placement of the particle before or after the object seems to depend on external factors (news value, weight of object, stress), rather than on the nature of the combinations. Some other scholars, by contrast, have argued that there is a tendency for idiomatic phrasal verbs to appear with the particle preceding the object (Gries, 2003). Thus, Biber et al. (1999) find that phrasal verbs with an idiomatic sense do not usually allow the object to interrupt the sequence, whereas objects are more easily inserted between the verb and the particle when the combination has a literal meaning. Similarly, Palmer states that “with transitive phrasal verbs there is a greater likelihood of the particle preceding the noun phrase if idiomatic, and following it, if not” (1988, p. 228), and he quotes the examples *put up a fight* and *find out the truth* as idiomatic forms that do not permit separation at all. According to Quirk et al. (1985), the object tends to follow the particle in fixed expressions of the type *give up hope*, “where there is a strong idiomatic bond (frequently matching a change from literal to metaphorical) between the phrasal verb and the object” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1155) and where the reversed word order is not possible or, at least, sounds awkward. Notice, however, that the same phrasal verb with a different object NP does allow order alternation (e.g. *give up alcohol/give alcohol up*).

According to Gries (2003), the criterion of idiomaticity cannot be considered as definite for two main reasons. First, some idiomatic phrasal verbs allow both syntactic orderings (e.g. She made up her face/She made her face up); and second, it is not always easy to determine whether the meaning of a phrasal verb is totally idiomatic or literal. What seems true, however, is that there are a number of fixed or set (generally idiomatic) constructions with phrasal verbs which do not admit word order alternation or to put it in Erades' words, "where the word-order is traditional and apparently immutable" (Erades, 1961, p. 57).

In his comprehensive analysis of particle placement, Gries (2003) has tested the majority of the variables traditionally said to influence particle distribution both individually (mono-factorial analysis) and in connection to one another (multivariate analysis). Gries establishes the so-called "Processing Hypothesis", according to which the choice of the word order by speakers depends on the processing effort required. This processing effort is said to be determined by the interrelation of four main factors: phonological, morphosyntactic, semantic and informational structure. In the light of his analysis, Gries comes to the conclusion that, when much processing effort is required, the preference is for the VPO order, whereas the VOP order is favoured when little processing effort is necessary. Not only does he find out that all of the variables included in his Processing Hypothesis contribute to determine one or another distribution, but also that some of the variables are interrelated. Therefore, from the discussion one observes that particle placement is better accounted for in terms of the combined influence of a number of variables, rather than by appealing to individual features such as the length of the direct object or the idiomaticity of the verb particle.

This section has provided a very broad view of the particle placement test, together with some of the drawbacks of its application as a defining test for phrasal verbs. By way of conclusion, it seems necessary to remark that, although it is true that the majority of phrasal verbs in English admit both the VPO and the VOP distribution, the particle placement test cannot be used as an absolute criterion for the characterization of these constructions. This is because the choice between the VPO and the VOP orders depends on a complex network of factors, rather than on the intrinsic characteristics of the combinations themselves. This test will not be considered in the current study because from all indications it seems not to be an absolute criterion for distinguishing between phrasal verbs and other verb combinations. Moreover, the test has been refined in a different test; therefore the polished test would be preferred in the current study instead of it.

2.1.3 The Definite NP Test

According to Bolinger (1971), the definite noun phrase test is also a test type for the syntactic characterization of phrasal verbs. It is a modification of the particle placement test and it is the most reliable test to identify phrasal verbs. According to him, the part of the particle placement test according to which the particle may follow the direct object is of no use, because any adverb (not only phrasal verb particles) may occupy such a position. Claridge (2000, p. 53) also uses this test because it “sorts out both pure adverbs and pure prepositions, and it emphasizes the unitary nature of verb + particle.”

The new proposed test by Bolinger (1971) emphasizes the ability of the particle to “precede a simple definite noun phrase (a proper name or *the* plus a common noun) without taking it as its object”. It must be noticed that Bolinger refers here to the object of the particle, not to the object of the phrasal verb. According to Rodriguez (2013) this important distinction is based on the division established by some scholars between transitive and intransitive prepositions. As noted by Denison (1981), the label „transitive preposition“ corresponds to what we traditionally know as a preposition, that is, the head of a prepositional phrase. Its designation as transitive stems from its obligatory collocation with a following complement: a preposition cannot appear on its own, but must be the head of a prepositional phrase. The term “intransitive preposition”, in turn, refers to what is traditionally known as an adverb. To Denison, the distinction between the two types is, however, difficult in practice because most adverbs are identical in form to prepositions. Taking this into account, according to Rodriguez (2013, p. 77), Bolinger’s test may be reformulated by stating that “if the particle of a verb particle combination can precede a definite NP, it will be a phrasal verb particle and not a preposition.” In other words, the test implies that any verb particle combination will be a phrasal verb whenever such a combination may be followed by a simple definite NP, as in Bolinger’s example in (8) below:

(8) They *pushed in* the door

As clear as it seems, though, such a test does not differentiate between phrasal verb particles and prepositions, because the ordering verb + particle + object NP is also kept when the NP is the complement of a preposition, as shown in Rodriguez (2013, p. 78) as example (9) below, where *in* functions as a preposition.

(9) *How do you find it living in the flats compared with anywhere else you've lived?*

However, according to Bolinger, the distinction between prepositions and particles can be made by replacing the NP by a pronoun: if the pronoun precedes the particle, then it will be an adverbial particle, as demonstrated in (10a and 10b), whereas if it follows the particle, it will be a preposition, as shown in example (11a and 11b) below.

(10) a. They pushed it *in*.

b. They pushed *in* it.

(11) a. How do you find it *living in* them compared with anywhere else you've lived?

b. How do you find it *living* them compared with anywhere else you've lived?

Therefore, as afore stated, the test turns out useful to distinguish between phrasal verb particles and prepositions.

Bolinger's NP test seems to work for transitive phrasal verbs, the only apparent drawback being its limited usefulness with highly idiomatic combinations and with combinations which do not permit the particle to precede the object (Palmer, 1988). In any other respects, however, the test seems to be valid for the identification of transitive phrasal verbs in English, but the researcher wonders whether it will work for the Dangme phrasal verbs that will be identified. This is because the nature of the particles that form the English phrasal verbs are likely to be different from the ones that would form that of the Dangme phrasal verbs, nevertheless, the test will be considered in the present study.

2.1.4 Transformation into an action nominal

Another test for phrasal verb proposed by Fraser (1976), Bolinger (1971) and Claridge (2000) is the ability of phrasal verb to be nominalized; this implies that true phrasal verbs can be transformed into an action nominal, whereas adpositional phrase cannot. According to Bolinger (1971; 8), it is only transitive phrasal verbs that can transform into nominal given the example 12.

12. *He looked up the information. → His looking up of the information.*

The difference between the particle in a phrasal verb construction and the particle in a free combination is that in action nominalization of phrasal verbs the particle cannot follow the direct object. This is illustrated in (9) below

13. a. His throwing of the ball up was stupid. (throw up „send up in the air“, free combination of verb and adverb)
b. His throwing of his dinner up was stupid. (throw up „vomif“, phrasal verb) (Fraser 1976: 3).

Darwin and Gray (1999:72) also argue that, “some transitive combinations that most people would consider phrasal verbs do not form acceptable action nominal.” They illustrate using the following example in 14:

14. a. I came across an old photograph.
b. The coming across of an old photograph.
(Darwin and Gray 1999: 72)

Bolinger therefore concludes that the possibility of occurrence or non-occurrence of such nominalizations is apparently determined by the nature of the actions involved, rather than by the structure of the phrases. Fraser (1976) then further refines the action nominalization test and adds that the test can be used to separate idiomatic from literal

phrasal verbs. Rodriguez (2013) argues that, the action nominalization test proposed by Fraser (1974, 1976) works neither for the distinction of phrasal verb from prepositional verbs, nor for separating idiomatic from literal meanings of phrasal.

Though Rodriguez (2013) disagrees with Fraser's notion in (9a &b), from Fraser (1976), the difference between the particle in a phrasal verb construction and the adverb in a free combination is that in action nominalization of phrasal verbs, the particle can follow the direct object when it is used literally, but cannot when it is metaphorically used. Declerck (1976) and Lindner (1983) discuss the problematic nature of this test establishing that there is much disagreement among native speakers as to the acceptability of this type of transformations. For some speakers, a transformation such as *His bringing the dinner in* is completely acceptable, whereas others consider it inappropriate. Though there are setbacks to this criterion, it will be considered in the present research to discover the effectiveness of this assertion.

2.1.5 Listing Test

Bolinger (1971) suggests yet another test as listing. However, he points out that this method has two shortcomings. Firstly, phrasal verbs are very productive with respect to lexical innovation in English. Therefore, the list could not be exhaustive, as new phrasal verbs would be continually added to it. The second problem is that "it would vary according to dialect" (p. 17). Therefore, the British and the Americans, for instance, may find many of each other's phrasal verbs odd (Darwin and Gray, 1999).

That is, Bolinger (1971) suggested that the most practical one would be to list the particles, as they are a relatively closed class of words. This means phrasal verbs should be grouped together according to the particle rather than the verb because “the particle is integral to the meaning of the phrasal verb and in some cases carries more weight of meaning than the verb” (Side, 1990, p. 146). However, this suggestion is criticized by Darwin and Gray (1999) who argue that the listing is not a test because “some words can appear to be particles and at the same time belong to other parts of speech” (p.75).

The researcher shares in Darwin and Gray’s interpretation that listing cannot be a test. It neither helps to differentiate between phrasal verbs and other verb combinations nor checks the degree of cohesion between the verb and the particle in a phrasal combination. It would rather be useful in grouping phrasal verbs before doing any kind of analysis on them. Therefore this listing would rather be employed in the data analysis section of the current study, but not as one of the tests that will be used to identify the phrasal verbs.

In terms of the syntactic characteristics of phrasal verbs, this section provided a description of the most relevant tests that have been used to characterize these combinations and distinguish them from related constructions. The only tests which have proved satisfactory to identify phrasal verbs in English are the definite NP test and the test according to which an adverb phrase cannot be inserted between the verb and the particle. These are supported by the test of particle placement with object pronouns, which must be, nevertheless, applied carefully, given that it may be influenced by a number of factors, such as stress, length and/or weight of the object and the idiomaticity of the compound. In turn, a number of tests seem to be useful to ascertain the degree of

cohesion or unity between the verb and the particle. Finally, the listing test was rejected as reliable tests for various reasons. Of the different syntactic tests proposed in the literature for the identification of phrasal verbs and discussed above, only the definite NP test, the nominalization test would be considered together with Sekyi-Baidoo's (2006) and Katunar et al's (2010) methods of identifying a phrasal verb which will be elaborated in chapter four since they do not fall under the proposed syntactic tests. In addition, the listing will not be seen as an identification method in this study, rather it will be reliable for grouping phrasal verbs. The next section discusses the syntactic features of phrasal verbs.

2.2 Syntactic Issues of Phrasal Verbs

The major phenomena on the syntax of phrasal verbs have centered on the syntactic elements that compose phrasal verbs, the types of phrasal verbs in respect of transitivity and separability, and the syntactic tests that can be used to ascertain whether a certain combination of words could be judged a phrasal verb or not. Given that the syntactic constituents of the phrasal verb have been touched on in the previous paragraphs, the focus of this section will be on the other issues made mention of above.

2.2.1 Constituents of phrasal verbs

Traditional grammarians (Courtney 1990, Biber et al 1990, Seidl 1991, Shovel 1992, Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999, Moon 1997, Rudzka-O styn, 2003, Uhlířová 2013, Ghailan 2015, Aldahesh 2017) consider the structures of phrasal verbs as made up

of verb followed by a particle mostly described as prepositions (such as *with, across, from, for, into, etc*), or some combination of two. This is illustrated in the table 1 below:

Table 1: Structural elements of phrasal verbs in English

Lexical verb	Particles	
	Adverb	Prepositions
put	up	-
come	-	across
look	down	-
go/get	away	with
talk	-	into
come	up	against/with

Structure of phrasal verb presented in English idioms: Exercises on phrasal verbs.

With respect to the verb, Rudzka-Ostyn (2003) and McArthur (1992) proposed that verb of motion is normally used in phrasal verb construction. For instance, Rudzka-Ostyn (2003:2) states:

Apart from a few static verbs such as be, sit, hold, almost all verbs used with particles are verbs of motion. The motion can be physical and can be performed, for example, with one's hands and legs (wipe, drag, break, throw, walk, run, jump, climb) or abstract (think, sell, buy, refer).

Thus, in order to understand a phrasal verb, one has to understand the meaning of the verb (the action it denotes) to be able to relate it to the meaning of the construction. The

concrete action makes it easier to create a mental picture, which serves as a link to understanding the meaning of the phrasal verb. When the meaning of the verb is known even if the meaning of the particle is spatial, the phrasal verb will be generally easy to understand as in:

- 15.a. Do you know there is petrol *leaking out* of your tank? „*coming, flowing out*“
- b. *Wipe* the dirt *off* your face. „*remove, „take away*“
- c. He *ran up* a heavy bill. „*accumulated.*“
(Rudzka-Ostyn 2003: 2)

The verbs *leak, wipe and run*, which refer to a physical action like *to pour, to erase and to move at a fast pace* respectively are what give clues to the understanding of the phrasal verbs in the sentences as in; *to come, to remove and to accumulate* since the particles are spatial.

2.2.2 Syntactic Types of Phrasal verbs

An important tenet that needs to be shed light on with respect to phrasal verbs is the concept of transitivity (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik, 1985). Transitivity is not being used here in the wide sense of the general system of participant relationships in a clause, rather, it is being used here in the traditional sense. It simply means the number of objects a verb needs in a given instance (Huddleston and Pullum, 2005; Crystal, 2009). Cobuild (1990, pp. 137-138) for instance, makes this distinction:

If an action or event involves only one person or thing, you mention only the performer of the action (the subject) and the action (the verb)... Clauses of this kind are called intransitive verb... If the action or event involves another person or thing which the action affects, relates to, or produces, you put a noun group referring to them after the verb group. This is called the object of the verb or clause... Clauses which have direct objects are called transitive clauses, and the verbs which occur in

transitive clauses are called transitive verbs...a small number of transitive verbs also allow you to mention who benefits from an action or receives something as a result... verbs which can take an indirect object, as well as a direct object are called ditransitive verbs.

It can be inferred from Cobuild's otherness above that transitivity can be categorized into three types: intransitive, transitive and ditransitive. Talking about the traditional sense of transitivity, Sekyi-Baidoo's (2006), study discloses that the Akan phrasal verb has three forms as far as transitivity is concerned: intransitive, monotransitive and ditransitive phrasal verbs; noting that no complex transitive form has yet been identified. He grouped the intransitive phrasal verbs into the copulative, active and the ergative. According to him the copulative ones only describe the subject and cannot be used in the imperatives while the active intransitive phrasal verbs can be realized in the imperative. With the ergative, he intimated that the actual object features syntactically as a subject; and the action involved is presented as a state, or being, or described as the subject. In terms of the monotransitive phrasal verbs – whether reciprocal or reflexive – the study identifies two types: those that take nouns as objects and those that take verbs as objects.

The study showed that the transitive phrasal verbs with nouns as object usually have the structure: Verb + NP + adposition where the NP is a noun or nominal while those with verbs as objects have the structure: Verb + adposition + object (verbal). And with regard to ditransitive phrasal verbs, Sekyi-Baidoo states that they can be realized in two clause structures in Akan: first, in clauses where the direct object is neither associated with the verb stem nor the position element but the two as a whole constitute a single semantic unit as a ditransitive verb. Second, the ditransitive phrasal verb may be realized in

clauses where a position element (a preposition) is used to introduce the indirect object such that the preposition and the indirect object constitute a prepositional phrase.

On the point of transitivity, linguists classify English phrasal verbs into two: intransitive phrasal verbs and transitive phrasal verbs (Heaton, 1965; Fraser, 1976; Lindner, 1983; Sangoor, 2012; Kamarudin, 2013). Sangoor (2012) made an assertion that some phrasal verbs are both transitive and intransitive. Grigore et al. (1998) as cited in Olteanu (2012, p. 23) confirmed this assertion by stating that “one and the same phrasal verb may be both transitive and intransitive (e.g. Please *wake me up* at 6 in the morning/I usually *wake up* at 6 in the morning).” According to Kamarudin (2013), the transitive phrasal verbs are always followed by a direct object, which can be a noun phrase (e.g. She picked up *the phone*) or a clause (e.g. My sister found out *that her husband had been planning a surprise party for her*), while on the other hand, the intransitive phrasal verbs do not and cannot take objects (e.g. The price of petrol will *go up*/ The flight will *take off*).

In addition to the transitivity of phrasal verbs is, “separability” or “the inability of the particle to be moved to a position after the noun phrase”. Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1156) is another important notion with respect to phrasal verbs, which is closely related to the opinion of transitivity discussed above. In this regard, most transitive phrasal verbs are separable and they allow particle movement either before or after the object noun. However, if the object is a pronoun, the particle usually comes after the pronouns (Heaton, 1965; Kamarudin, 2013). Erades (1975) submits that, “objects denoting ideas

that have news value, irrespective of whether they are nouns or pronouns, long or short, have end-position; those that have no such value come between the verb and adverb” (p. 189). His notion of “news value” dictates that the particle will only precede the object (noun or pronoun) when the object introduces a new idea into the discourse, whereas the object can precede the particle if the pronoun or noun is not a new topic either to the discourse or to the speaker and hearer.

On intransitive phrasal verbs, Heaton (1965) declares that normally, the particle in intransitive phrasal verbs cannot be separated from its verb and that they always stay together. Stageberg (1965, p. 225) seems to share the same idea as Heaton when he affirms that “the verb and the adverbial particle are inseparable in the intransitive phrasal verbs.” The lexical verb and the particle are always adjacent. Thus, in intransitive phrasal verb *take off*, the verb, “*take* cannot be separated from the particle, *off*” as in, “The flight will *take off* in ten minutes”. The next sub-section reviews specific researches on phrasal verbs in Ghanaian languages.

2.2.3 Syntax of Ga phrasal verbs

I scrutinize the syntax of Ga phrasal verb as Laryea’s (2015) discussed in this section. Laryea (2015) analyses Ga phrasal verb based on transitivity. She classifies the types of phrasal verbs into three: intransitive, transitive and finally, the combination of both intransitive and transitive.

2.2.3.1 Intransitive phrasal verbs in Ga

According to Laryea (2015), there are a number of intransitive phrasal verbs in Ga.

These phrasal verbs are copulative, ergative and active phrasal verbs. These verbs do not carry or take any object. Operationally, she identifies that the intransitive phrasal verbs in Ga are realized as Subject + Verb + Particle (Adjunct). Under the Ga intransitive phrasal verbs, Laryea identifies three features. First, the phrasal verbs have fixed expressions, where the unit meaning is different from the meaning of the individual words. Furthermore, the particles in all the intransitive phrasal verbs are not movable with the exception of few ergative verbs. Also, she affirms that intransitive phrasal verbs are inseparable in Ga.

2.2.3.2 Transitive phrasal verbs in Ga

Laryea (2015) ascertains that the Ga transitive phrasal verbs can be mono-transitive, where they take on a single object as a verbal complement or ditransitive, when the verbs take two objects. She therefore identifies mono-transitive structure as Subject + Verb + Object + Particle. She further states that transitive phrasal verbs in Ga can sometimes take clauses as their objects. Another observed feature by her is that whenever the object is a noun and it is animate, it can be replaced by a pronoun and vice versa. Nevertheless, nouns do not replace some pronouns in Ga. Although these pronouns make anaphoric references to their subject referents, they cannot be replaced by the actual nouns in the construction. These pronouns according to Laryea (2015) are normally referred to as anaphors. An object always separates the verbs and the particle. The only instance where the object came after the particle is when the object is a clause.

Di-transitive phrasal verbs in Ga also exhibit this three-argument relationship, just as Sekyi-Baidoo (2006) establishes in Akan. According to Laryea (2015), the clause structure in Ga is realized as Subject+ Verb + NP (OI) + NP (OD) + Particle.

With reference to the above discussion, it can be apprehended clearly that both English, Akan and Ga phrasal verbs have separable transitive and inseparable intransitive phrasal verbs. The study posits that this can also be the case for the Dangme phrasal verbs which are yet to be uncovered and reviewed. The presence of both transitive and intransitive phrasal verbs in Dangme is a possibility and it is also possible that only one transitivity type can be found in the language.

2.2.3.3 Types of verb in Nzema

Ibrahim (2020) discusses the phrasal verb in Nzema where she identified its structures. She explains that the constituent structure of the Nzema phrasal verb include verbs that are intransitive, transitive, ditransitive and those verbs that have varying expressions of arguments.

2.2.3.4 Intransitive phrasal verbs in Nzema

Ibrahim (2020) states that some Nzema verbs strictly require a single argument in their construction, which is the subject. These intransitive phrasal verbs according to her examples in Nzema include those in (16).

16. a. *Abɛle ne ɛ-fifi.*
Maize DEF PERF-germinate
„The maize has germinated.“

- b. *Konwo* *ne ε-bolo.*
Banana DEF PERF-ripe
„The banana has ripened.“

2.2.3.5 Transitive phrasal verbs in Nzema

Ibrahim (2020) observes that phrasal verbs in Nzema under the transitive structure require two arguments. The arguments revolved around subject and object of the phrase. According to her, verbs such as *bo* „beat,“ *ka* „bite,“ *pε* „cut,“ *kye* „catch,“ *dua* „to plant“ are accepted as transitive in Nzema.

2.2.3.6 Ditransitive phrasal verbs in Nzema

According to Ibrahim (2020), ditransitive phrasal verbs in Nzema were grouped into under three structures. These are the subject, the direct and the indirect object. She gave as examples as in (17).

17. a. *Mieza* *hyε-le.*
Mieza gift-PST
Mieza gifted me a bag.“
- b. *Me-kile* *bε.*
1SG-teach.HAB 3SG.OBJ song
„I teach them music.“

2.2.3.7 Those that are both transitive and intransitive

Based on her observation, Ibrahim suggests that verbs which are both transitive and intransitive do not have any strict number of arguments required. There is no contradicting the point that Sekyi-Baidoo (2006), Laryea (2015) and Ibrahim (2020) study reviewed above is utterly essential to the present study, especially on the concept of transitivity. Therefore, since the present study, as Sekyi-Baidoo, Laryea and Ibrahim

focus on a Kwa (Niger-Congo) languages of which the Dangme forms a constituent, it should be remarkable to find out the extent to which their findings are confirmed or disclaimed by the present study in Dangme.

2.3 The Sematic Features of Phrasal Verbs

This section contains some description and discussion of the semantics involved in both the verbs and the particles in phrasal verbs. The other issues centered on the semantic types of phrasal verbs, the polysemous nature and the idiomaticity of phrasal verbs.

2.3.1 The Semantics of the Verbs and Particles

Verbal Element: In principle, any kind of lexical verb can function as the verbal element in a phrasal combination. However, certain tendencies have been observed. The verbs are most commonly native, that is, of Germanic origin (Martin, 1990; Thim, 2006). It has also been observed that although polysyllabic verbs can be found occasionally in certain phrasal combinations, many of the root verbs are monosyllabic, and are frequently verbs of movement and action (Bolinger, 1971; Dixon, 1982). One root verb can underlie a range of phrasal verbs, for example, *get* underlies *get away*, *get back*, *get out*, *get off*, *get on*, *get in*, and *get up*, etc. Therefore, though the set of verbs to form English phrasal verbs is in principle, not limited, certain tendencies can be observed. Verbs that form phrasal verbs in Dangme might also show certain tendencies and this information would enlighten the researcher in this regard.

The Semantics of the Particles: The meaning of the individual particles in phrasal verbs is an issue which requires closer inspection, because of their central status in the compound. The semantic changes caused by the addition of a particle to a verb are probably what make phrasal verbs such an idiosyncratic feature of the English language, so close to idioms and phraseological units (Rodriguez, 2013). Most scholars seem to agree that the particles occurring in phrasal verbs were used in previous stages to denote location or direction and they eventually come to express other metaphorical meanings (e.g. Bolinger, 1971; Rodriguez, 2013). In general terms, four different types of particles can be distinguished namely: literal, aspectual and or aktionsart, metaphorical and idiomatic. It is important to notice, still, that “one and the same particle may have more than one meaning, and the meaning it carries depends on the verb it combines with ,(Elenbaas, 2007).

Considering the literature on the semantics of the two constituents of the phrasal verb is very essential to the current study. This is because the above discussion brings different types of particles that form the phrasal verbs. This information gives the researcher an insight into what to look for when dealing with the constituents of the Dangme phrasal verbs.

2.3.2 Semantic Types of Phrasal Verbs

Traditionally, phrasal verbs have been classified within three different semantic categories, namely: *literal*, whose meanings can be predicted from the meanings of the parts; *semi-idiomatic or partially idiomatic*, mostly used to refer to combinations

containing as aspectual/aktionsart particle, and *non-compositional or idiomatic*, whose meanings cannot be deduced from those of the individual members of the compound. In the literature, different scholars have different names from the three semantic types of phrasal verbs. Spasov (1966, p. 48) calls them “*non-idiomatic, semi-idiomatic and idiomatic*”. (Bolinger, 1971, p.114) calls them „*first-level stereotype, second-level metaphor and second-level stereotype*”; while Fraser (1976, p.56) on the other hand names them „*literal, systematic and figurative*”. But in the discussion, the traditional names will be mentioned.

Literal phrasal verbs have elements that appear to retain much of their meaning. Using examples from Quirk et al. (1985, p. 432), the meanings of *sit* and *down* in *sit down* can be easily retrieved by combining the meaning of each of the elements (*sit* + *down*). Thus, the meaning of literal combinations can be deduced from their individual components.

There are several reasons to include non-idiomatic combinations within the category of phrasal verbs (Hampe, 2002), the most salient one probably being the fact that idiomaticity is a matter of degree and that it is, therefore, not easy to establish a clear cut dividing line between what is actually a phrasal verb and what a free combination is (Palmer, 1988). Moreover, as intimated by Gries (2008, p.6), “semantic unity is not incompatible with non-compositionality.” In other words, a given verb particle combination may form a semantic unit even if the meaning of the parts is transparent.

Considering the above, the researcher shares in the view of the scholars who agree that there is a category of literal phrasal verbs, but since this study is a preliminary one that

investigates existence of phrasal verbs in Dangme, the focus will be on only one semantic type of phrasal verb, the idiomatic phrasal verbs. Later studies will be devoted to the literal type. The label „*semi-idiomatic, second-level metaphor or systematic*, has traditionally been employed to refer to those combinations containing aspectual/aktionsart particles (Rodriguez, 2013). Downing and Locke (2006) claim that in these combinations, the lexical verb keeps its literal or metaphorical meaning, while the particle is used as an aspectual marker of various kinds.

Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) also intimated that semi-idiomatic phrasal verbs can be subdivide into “semantic classes depending on the semantic contribution of the particle (p. 432). Their subdivisions include: *inceptive, continuative, iterative* and *completive*. The third semantic type of phrasal verb is the idiomatic phrasal verb. *Idiomatic, second-level stereotype* or *non-compositional* are those whose meanings cannot be deduced from their individual components in isolation. According to Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999), idiomatic phrasal verbs are the easiest to identify, as they are phrasal verbs that have idiomatic meanings in which the meaning of the whole verb is not related to the meaning of the part of the verb. Information obtained in the literature on the semantic types of the phrasal verbs is very crucial to the current study. It would help in the identification of the semantic types of phrasal verbs that exist in Dangme.

2.3.3 The semantics of Akan adposition elements (particles)

Just as scholars have investigated the semantics of English particle and discovered that it has literal, aspectual and metaphorical meaning, Sekyi-Baidoo (2008) has also investigated the semantics of particles in Akan. In his work, he lists three particles thus; *ase* „under“, *so* „on“ and *mu* „inside“ as the most recurring particles in Akan phrasal verbs construction. He states categorically that this is not a rule but a loose generalization. He explains that *ase*, an adverbial particle denoting place, location or position, which has the basic interpretation as „at the bottom of“ or „at the hint part of“ as the inferred meanings in phrasal verb. He further points out that *ase* does not make a separate independent contribution to the phrasal verb but add a varying degree of metaphorical transfer to the meaning of the phrasal verb.

He illustrates this with the phrasal verb *fi ase* „to come from the bottom“, this depicts an instance in which some action occurs at „the bottom“ of a phenomenon. In ordinary latitudinal growth, the bottom is associated with the beginning, as in *fi ase* „to come from the bottom“ means „to begin an activity.“ He further explains that *ase* is emotively associated with the „core“ the „crust“ or „where the real or the basic thing is.“ This sense is evident in such phrasal verbs as *te ase* literally „to hear the bottom“ or „to hear the under part“. Thus, *te ase* means to „hear“ or „know“ not just the topic or focus, but the foundations of that information, and this precisely is what constitutes „understanding.“ Similarly, *kyeré ase* means to show the depths or foundations of an issue or phenomenon; and to do so is actually „to explain.“ (Sekyi-Baidoo, 2008: 9). The above illustrations

indicate that the Akan adverbial particle *ase* provides a metaphorical conception which enables the understanding of idiomatic meanings that underpin the phrasal verbs.

Concerning *mu* and *so*, „inside“ and „up“ respectively, he explains that these two particles exhibit semantic contrast. The use of *so* does not mean „up“ or „on top of“ which is its non-idiomatic sense. It is rather associated with incompleteness, continuation, or lack of intensity. His examples include *toa so* „to continue,“ *bɔ so* „to mention,“ and *sā so* „to move in a file“ as against „to finish“, „to tell,“ and „to stop“ respectively. He further explains that we get the idea of incompleteness and the need for continuity, especially, when we compare the meaning of the phrasal verbs to the ideas with which they are juxtaposed. Certainly, „making mention of something“ is not as exhaustive as „telling it“. Similarly, whereas „moving in a file“ suggests the incompleteness of movement, „stopping“ stands for the completion of movement.

On the other hand, „*mu*“ is sometimes associated with intensity or completeness. The action or description denoted by the phrasal verb depicts the idea of most intense form of an endeavour. As evident in the following phrasal verbs: *ka mu* „scream“ and *bɔ mu* „tell exhaustively“ as against „speaking“ and „just mentioning“ (Sekyi-Baidoo, 2008: 9-10).

From the above discussion, we see that the Akan particle denotes directional, completeness and metaphorical meaning to the component meaning of the phrasal verbs. Although Sekyi-Baidoo does not categorize these particles like English scholars have done, similar sense can be drawn from Sekyi-Baidoo's (2008) discussion; thus when the particle denotes a locational or directional meaning then it can be said to be literal, when

it denotes completeness or incompleteness of an activity then it is indicating an aspectual notion. Finally, when the meaning deviates from its constituent thus no more referring to spatial meaning then it is metaphorical. Having found the semantics of Akan particles, we now turn to find what pertains in Ga.

2.3.4 Semantics of Ga particles

According to Laryea (2015), unlike English and Akan, Ga has no literal or aspectual or aktionsart particles in the language, rather all the particles are metaphorical and idiomatic. In addition, in terms of productivity, the most common particle is *mli* „in,“ as it combines with as many as thirty (30) root verbs to form phrasal verbs. Laryea establishes that Ga has nine particles, but only four out of the nine have metaphorical meanings; thus *shishi* 'to start', *mli* 'inside', *nɔ* 'on' and *sɛɛ* 'back or behind'. Some of her illustrations include *shishi* which has the literal meaning „to start“ is emotively associated with the „core“ the „crust“ or „where the real or the basic thing is“, Just as *ase* in Akan in Sekyi-Baidoo (2008). This sense is evident in such phrasal verbs as *nu shishi* literally „to hear the bottom“ or „to hear the under part“. Thus, *nu shishi* means to hear or know not just the topic or focus, but the crust of that information, and this precisely is what constitutes understanding. Similarly, *tɛɛ shishi* means to show the depths or core of an issue or phenomenon; and to do so is actually „to explain.“

Mli has the basic meanings „in, or within, or inside“, or „the inner part of“ which can sometimes be inferred from the phrasal verbs, the particle is usually used idiomatically, so it is difficult getting other extended meanings. One of the ideas of the particle *mli* is

that it expresses an idea of „joining or getting involved in an activity or event and sometimes becoming the center of that activity or event“. This was evident in phrasal verbs such as *damɔ mli* literally, „stand in or within.“ literally shows a person standing inside something, either a basin, water, or any physical thing that one can stand in. Thus, it shows a movement from the outside of an enclosed space or container to the inside of it. This literal meaning of *mli* has been extended to an abstract situation where a person outside the performance of an activity or event moves in to join the activity. In this instance, he/she does not only get involved in the activity but becomes the center around which the activity revolves. This is captured in the meanings of *damɔ mli* „to represent, intercede and guarantee (Laryea 2015:111-112).

2.3.5 Semantics of Nzema particles

Like other researchers, Ibrahim (2020) has also studied the semantics of the Nzema particles. She resolved in her study that adpositions in the phrasal verb constructions have a close association with the meaning of phrasal verbs in Nzema. According to her, some adposition present completeness and incompleteness notion to the phrasal verb but not in every condition. A particle such as *zo* „on or on top of“ is normally associated with incompleteness or continuation. *Toa zo* „to continue after a break“, *da zo* „to persist“ and *sɔ zo* „to continue“ respectively imply that an activity, which had begun needs to be completed, therefore demands a continuation or suggests further prosecution of action. In terms of completeness, she further illustrates that when phrasal verbs associated themselves with the use of *nu* „in or inside of“ as in *ba nu* which indicates that „their plan manifested in its fullness as expected“, *tia nu and pe nu* „to stop with immediate effect“

respectively, it print a picture that the performer is through with the action and therefore is completed.

Considering the discussion on the semantics of particles from the above languages, English, Akan and Nzema particles seems to exhibit almost the same semantic features. Ga shares just one common feature with the two languages thus metaphorical nature of the particles. This discussion is of much help to this study. In that, it serves as a guide to the researcher to investigate and found any relation between these languages and Dangme on the semantics of the particles in phrasal verbs construction.

2.3.6 Polysemous and homonymous nature of phrasal verbs

In an attempt to discuss polysemy, scholars have always differentiated it from homonym as both are considered the two types of lexical ambiguity (Kroeger, 2018 & Lyons, 1979). Both cases involve an ambiguous word form; the difference being that homonymy refers to the relation between different lexical items, which have unrelated meanings but exhibit some identical linguistic properties (phonological and graphic). Moreover, the semantic relationship between the two senses is similar to what is between any two words selected at random (Cruse, 2000; Ravin & Leacock, 2000; Kroeger 2018). Polysemy is one single lexical item, which has different related senses. These senses are invariable applications of the main sense of a word in different conditions and contexts (Lyons, 19; Ravin & Leacock. 2000; Cruse 2000; Thakur, 2007; Sekyi-Baidoo, 2002).

Linguists hint on the polysemous nature of phrasal verbs in their works but do not expatiate much on it (Celce-Murica & Laresn-Freeman, 1999, Wild, 2010, Aldukhayel, 2014, Lu 2015, Consigny 2015). Consigny (2015:2) only notes that, a phrasal verb is considered “polysemous if it is possible to define different meanings using different synonyms and/or paraphrases for those meanings.” Wild (2010) cited in Laryea (2015) establishes that phrasal verbs represent two kinds of polysemy: the polysemy of individual phrasal verb form (e.g the many meanings of take up in to start something new, to use time and to accept an offer) and the polysemy of the verbs which produces phrasal verbs (the meanings of take up can be seen as contributing to the polysemy of take, as well as deriving from it). Sekyi-Baidoo (2008) and Laryea (2015) in Akan and Ga respectively, give much attention to the polysemy of phrasal verbs in their work.

Sekyi-Baidoo (2008: 12) explains, “phrasal verbs are considered polysemous when they relate one another physically and semantically, and when they collectively differ from the aggregate meaning of the constituent. He further explains that though the degree of relativity between them produces their polysemy, their collective deviation from their constituent meaning is what makes them phrasal verbs, hence idioms. Just as Lyon (1979) intimates the distinction between polysemy and homonym as relatedness vs unrelatedness, in an attempt to differentiate them in terms of phrasal verbs, Sekyi-Baidoo (2008) makes similar assertion establishing that phrasal verbs that relate to one another are polysemous whilst those that share only a formal realization but no semantic relationship are regarded homonymous. In his work, he further explains that in spite of the need for some deviation in the establishment of phrasal verbs, there is also the need

for some recognizable degree of relativity between the meanings of the verb or adposition element as used in the phrasal verb. This, he argues some exists in non-idiomatic usage for phrasal verbs for it to be regarded as polysemous.

Sekyi-Baidoo (2008) exemplifies polysemy by using the Akan word *gyina so* „to stand on an object.“ The phrasal verb *gyina so* which expresses the following notion: „to be on top, to persist“, „using something to serve as the basics for an action“ and „to be importune.“ All the meanings are associated with the original, non-idiomatic meaning of „to stand“ arising from the image of one keeping an upright posture and all derived associations, which has been applied to different contextual environments. „To be on top“ presents the picture in which one stands and therefore shows a greater height than others show, and therefore can be regarded as superior or in top form. Also, the meaning „to persist“, denotes „standing“ which involves maintaining an erect, upright posture in spite of the difficulty associated with it.

Finally, the meaning „to be importune“ also denotes image of using the active posture of standing and its continuity to influence the activity of others. It could be seen from the above illustration that the meanings of the phrasal verb *gyina so* relate to one another since they are all associated with the original, non-idiomatic meaning „to stand“ this therefore indicates their polysemous relation. In an attempt to explain the polysemous feature of phrasal verbs in Nzema, Ibrahim (2020) use as an example the word *dwu aze* „to get down“. The phrasal verb *dwu aze* has the idiomatic interpretation as „to dethrone,“ „to deliver a baby,“ or „to arrive.“ All these meanings are associated with the non-

idiomatic meaning „to get down“ giving an imagery of someone or an object in a topmost position touching the ground. It expresses the idea of change of position or state.

The meaning of *dwu aze*, „to dethrone“ in the first place, is motivated by the fact that Nzema symbolizes kingship with throne. Therefore, to dethrone presents the image of someone who was seated on a throne and having no connection with the ground, has now been descended from the throne (above) onto the ground: indicating a change of position from top position to a lower position (ground). This paints a picture of a change in social status. The second meaning „to deliver a baby“, also presents an idea of someone who has been carried in the stomach and has now descended on the ground (earth).

Again, the meaning „to arrive“, portrays a situation in which someone or something, which has been relocated or presented, resulting in a change of place. When someone returns from a journey, there is the idea that he/she used some kind of transport either a car, canoe or anything else and getting home requires the person to descend from the object of transport on the ground: capturing the image of change of position or getting onto the ground just as it is with „being dethroned.“ Therefore, we can trace the various idiomatic meanings and the literal interpretation from the phrasal verb.

Concerning homonymous phrasal verbs, Sekyi-Baidoo (2008) explains that they are identical in their phonology, both in their verb stem and their adposition elements. Homonymous phrasal verbs, like all other phrasal verbs, may also exhibit different degrees of opacity or transparency as far as the relationship between the meaning of the

compound and the constituents are concerned. Where there is semantic relativity, it means the semantic dissimilarity between the transparent phrasal verbs in a homonymous relationship is not because of any arbitrary or idiomatic meaning imposed on any of the compounds. Rather, it means that the two or more phrasal verbs in the homonymy are related to different verbs that are themselves homonymous. In such instances, the phrasal verbs inherit the homonymy of their constituent. Cases in point are *bɔ adze* „to begin“ *bɔ adze* „to come to an end.“ In the example, the two semi-transparent phrasal verbs are related to *bɔ* „to create, to make“ and *bɔ* „to fall, or to hit strongly“ respectively. Similarly, the meanings as of the constituents of the different semantic manifestations of *bɔ* show that they are connected to different verbs, which happen to be homonymous (Sekyi-Baidoo, 2008: 17).

Another interesting observation by Sekyi-Baidoo (2008) is that, the polysemic phrasal verbs do lose their polysemy because of their continual application to different circumstances, which eventually results in homonym. He further illustrates this assertion using the phrasal verb *tia so* „literally „step on“ which means „to speed off“ and „to squander“ or „consume something unlawfully,“ which are in homonymous relation. The primary meaning of this phrasal verb *tia so* is associated with a driver stepping on the accelerator pad to increase the speed. The idea began exhibiting idiomatic features when the expression was used in cases to mean „to eat faster or to run away“ which does not involve any vehicle or pressing, rendering non-transparent. As time goes on, the word gained its polysemic meaning when *tia so* came to mean „to run away/ escape“ exploiting the idea of speeding and its result which is creating of distance. Departing from the

original idea of speeding, to escape gradually employed in the sense „to consume something illegal or to squander“ tracing from the idea of escaping and its cause. These meanings now deviate totally from the original, non-idiomatic meaning of pressing the accelerator rendering the various meanings homonymous. The above illustrations have established that there exist polysemous and homonymous phrasal verbs in Akan. This was relevant to the current study because using it as a reference point the researcher was able to find out that there are polysemous phrasal verbs in Dangme.

2.3.7 Phrasal verbs and Idiomaticity

Idiomaticity is an issue frequently discussed with respect to phrasal verbs (Kamarudin, 2013). Various terms have been used in discussing the issue of idiomaticity, such as „literal“, „transparent“, „non-literal“, „figurative“, „Opaque“ and „idiomatic“, to name some commonly used terms but a few. The term „literal“ is usually, equivalent to „transparent“, whereas „non-literal“, is equivalent to „figurative“ and „idiomatic“.

Both „literal“ and „transparent“ are frequently used in opposition to „figurative and idiomatic“ (Liao & Fukuya, 2004). Similarly, in this study, the term literal phrasal verbs will be used to refer to phrasal verbs which are non-idiomatic and transparent in meaning, while non-literal phrasal verbs refer to those that are idiomatic and non-transparent.

According to Sekyi-Baidoo (2002), “idiomaticity may be seen as the level of deviation between the surface meaning of an utterance and the actual meaning or intention it is supposed to convey.” Sekyi-Baidoo (2006) noted that idiomaticity considerations are not restricted to only phrasal verbs. Balint (1969) and Palmer (1988) both recognize that even

ordinary words can be said to be idiomatic or non-idiomatic. With phrasal verbs, however, idiomaticity is basically on the basis of the fact that the meaning of the phrasal verb as a single semantic unit is different from the meaning of the combination of verb item and adposition element as syntactic unit composed of independent semantic entities which have separate, independent meanings in or outside the combination which are factored into the meaning of the resulting phrase (Sekyi-Baidoo, 2006).

Similarly, in this study, the focus will be on the idiomatic phrasal verbs. Therefore, Sekyi-Baidoo's discussion on idiomaticity of the Akan phrasal verbs will be of optimum relevance when it comes to the discussion on the idiomaticity of the Dangme phrasal verbs.

2.4 Theoretical Framework

This section presents a review of the theoretical frameworks adopted for this study. This theory is the Conceptual Metaphor Theory.

2.4.1 Conceptual Metaphor Theory

The theory that the work situated in is the Conceptual Metaphor Theory (hereafter, CMT), sometimes called Cognitive Metaphor Theory. It was developed by researchers within the field of cognitive linguistics. This theory was proposed by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) and underlies the fact that "our ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature and it plays a central role in defining our everyday realities." They argued that few or even no abstract notions can be

talked about without metaphor: there is no direct way of perceiving them and we can only grasp their meaning by the filter of directly experienced concrete notions (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980 p.3).

Ponterotto (2014) accepts this fact and explains further that human conceptualization is based on analogical processes, which use more readily accessible experiential knowledge to understand, represent and express complex abstract concept. These connections are achieved by generally mappings across conceptual domains. Moreover, these general principles, which take the form of conceptual mappings, apply to our ordinary everyday language.

Lakoff & Johnson (1980: 5) describe metaphor in cognitive linguistics, as “understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another.” We act according to the way we conceive things (Imre 2010). This also confirms Kövecses (2005) assertion that, metaphor is based on similarity, that based on cross-domain correlations in our experience, which give rise to the perceived similarities between the two domains within the metaphor. The general theory of metaphor is given by characterizing such crossdomain mappings. Moreover, in the process, everyday abstract concepts like time, states, change, causation, and purpose turn out to be metaphorical. Therefore, the center of metaphor is not in language at all, but in the way, we conceptualize one mental domain in terms of another. For instance, a complex emotional experience like love is often represented through a simpler, physical experience like journey. Lakoff and Johnson’s (1980: 140) example of conceptual metaphor love is a journey; even though love and

journey are two different things, “the essence of metaphor is in understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another.” As in the case of love is journey above, the mental picture of people in relationship is conceptualized to be similar to travelers. Thus, various expressions and concepts commonly related to journey are used when discussing love, for example, „we’re stuck“ and „We’re driving in the fast lane on the freeway of love.“ (Lakoff, 1993)

To understand conceptual metaphors, the most important thing is being able to apprehend the concept of mapping. Mapping is the most fundamental notion of CMT. According to Grady (2007: 190) “It refers to a systematic correspondence between closely linked ideas”, According to Lakoff (1993), mapping is conventional and is a fixed part of our conceptual system; this is systematic correspondences, which exists between the constituent elements of the source and target domain. By this, mapping gives rise to two main types of conceptual domains: the source domain and the target domain. Croft & Cruse (2004: 195), define the source domain as “the domain supporting the literal meaning of the expression” and the target domain as “the domain the sentence is actually about.” For example, in the expression, “We have used up all our ideas.” Idea is the target domain because it expressed an abstract notion in the sentence. Correspondingly, „resource“ is the source domain because it is the literal word employed in describing an abstract object. Since resources are used up physically.

Source domains, according to (Ponterotto, 2014: Imre, 2010: Forcevilla, 2002, Kövecses, 2002: Coft & Cruse, 2004: Lakoff, 1993: Lakoff & Johnson, 1980), are typically concrete

and physical concepts while target domains are usually abstract. Moreover, the source domain serves as a background for structuring and understanding the target domain. Considering „ideas and resources,“ resources are physical and concrete. Thus, we can touch them. Whereas ideas are abstract concepts, that cannot be seen and touched. Consider the following pairs of examples in (16).

16. a. The dog dug up an old bone. We dug up some interesting facts.
- b. Two planes were shot down. Each proposal was shot down.

(Laryea, 2015:65)

In each pair, the first phrasal verb the literal meaning refers to a physical action, while the second is metaphorical and describes an action that is similar in some way to the first. For example, when someone digs up information, they discover it, and the process seems similar to the way in which dogs find bones that have been buried in the ground. Therefore, the first scenario serves as background to understanding of the phrasal verb.

This framework is appropriate for the study because, the meanings of phrasal verbs also go easily from the concrete to the abstract and metaphors serve as a link between them. This assumption is shared by cognitive scholars such as Lakoff & Johnson, (1980) and Lindner, (1981). According to them, foreign learners often do not recognize the metaphor underlying the abstract meanings as a result they find many phrasal verbs difficult to understand. The above discussion has shown that the „conceptual metaphor“ framework helps us to understand many idiomatic expressions; this is because it is our general knowledge of the work that is embodied in our conceptual system and that provides motivation for the idiomatic meanings and we always rely on this knowledge in order to

understand meaning of most idiomatic expressions. Aside the idiomatic expressions, the Conceptual Metaphor Theory also brought to light in this study that, Dangme phrasal verbs have additional interpretations. Metaphor certainly triggers the meaning of most Dangme phrasal verbs. That is, understanding the kind of metaphor used facilitates their interpretations as well as their retention. Therefore, the theory chosen for the current study is appropriate.

2.5 Interim Summary

This chapter presents the review of literature on some literature considered relevant to the current work. It outlines the theoretical framework within which the thesis is cast. The headings reviewed include; definition of phrasal verb, tests for identifying phrasal verbs, syntax of phrasal verb, semantics of phrasal verb and the theoretical frameworks of the study. The third chapter discussed the methodology adopted for the study. Its constituents include the method of data collection, data transcription and the method of data analysis.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

Every form of systematic research, has different number of procedures obtainable for gaining data to enhance understanding and interpretation of the related phenomena. This chapter specifically reveals the strategies that were employed in collecting the data for the study. It discusses the place and instrument used to collect the data for the analysis. It discussed the research design, sampled population, characteristics of the research personnel, the sampling technique, sources of data, data collection tools and procedures, and data analysis procedure.

3.1 Research approach

The research approach adopted for this study on Dangme phrasal verbs is a purely qualitative type of approach. Owu-Ewie (2012, p.3) postulates that, qualitative research ordinarily involves detailed verbal descriptions of characteristics, cases, and settings by using interviews, observations and documents as the data collecting procedures. This kind of research is thus, non-numerical in nature. With this approach, I was able to search and determine indigenous speakers of Dangme insights and traditional proficiencies, which aided in assigning meanings to the phrasal verbs. This facilitated an adequate description of the structure and constituents that make up the Dangme phrasal verbs. The local radio station from which the recording was made is Radio Ada. The researcher chooses this with an explanation that unlike other stations, this station broadcast majority

of their programmes including news, in Dangme. Programmes recorded comprise news bulletins, educative programmes and plays that were aired.

The secondary data comprises published and unpublished documents. The published works constitute Dangme textbooks from Bureau of Ghana Languages: *Nilemi blɔ̄ ekpa* (1973), *Dangme Ngmami Bɔ̄* (1990) and literary texts: *Ajesiwɔ̄* (Dosoo, 1977), *Kɔ̄kɔ̄ Sika* (Narteh, 1992) whereas thesis and dissertations present the unpublished works. The primary and secondary sources mentioned above were employed since they constitute very reliable sources where valuable and inherent illustrations as well as information on the very best use of language were received.

3.2 Sampled Population

This study was centered on the Dangme people. Dangme has seven dialects; Ada, Nugo, Gbugblaa, Osudoku, Sɛ/Shai, Manya and Yilo Krobo constitute the dialects of Dangme, however, this research sampled its population from four communities in two different districts within the environs of Ada and Klo (Krobo). A district capital and a community were chosen from each environ; Ada-Foah, thus the district capital of Ada East, and Somanya, the district capital of Upper Manya district. Foahnguah and Dawatrim were respectively chosen communities within the districts. Dialectal differences, their occupation, and easy accessibility to respondents were the researcher's motive for the selection of the aforementioned communities. The Ada communities were selected to represent the coastline dialects and the Klo communities were selected to represent the inland dialects.

3.3 Participants

Eight indigenous speakers within the ages 40-70 were selected for the study. Their various occupations included teaching, trading, farming and fishing. Among the eight participants, six were males and two were females. The choice of both female and male research participants was to deal with possible variations that may arise because of difference in language caused by sex in the study. Among them were one retired tutor and one tutor from Ada College of Education at Ada-Foah, one trader and one fisherman at Foahnguah. One farmer was consulted at Somanya. At Dawatrim, one teacher, one farmer and one trader were consulted for the data. All the selected people were indigenous Dangme speakers who use phrasal verbs in their day to day activities. Among the interviewees from Ada College of Education, were a retired tutor and a tutor in active service. As an indigenous speaker of Dangme, coupled with over twenty years teaching experience in the language, the teacher from Dawatrim have the requisite level of proficiency for the study. Likewise, the other selected participants were fit to be used for the study.

3.4 Sampling technique

The purposive sampling technique was employed to select participants for this research. It is a strategy in which particular settings, persons or events are selected deliberately in order to provide important information that cannot be obtained from other choices (Maxwell, 1996). It is where the researcher includes cases or participants in the sample because they believe that they warrant inclusion. The choice for Somanya and Dawatrim from the Upper Manya district and Ada-Foah and Foahnguah from the Ada East district

were made because the data necessary for the study can be accessed from the above settings, hence their selection.

3.5 Sources of data

Two main sources were consulted for the data used in this study. These are the primary and secondary sources. The primary data include recordings of electronic media programmes (local radio and television stations): Obonu FM, Obonu TV, and Radio Ada. The researcher chose these three media stations with an explanation that unlike other stations, they broadcast majority of their programmes including news, in Dangme. Programmes that were recorded comprise news bulletins, educative programmes and plays that were shown or aired. News bulletins were the programmes broadcast from Radio Ada and Obonu FM respectively. The news is aired on everyday of the week at 6:00 to 6:30 am on Radio Ada and at 6:30 to 7:00 am on Obonu FM. The researcher listened to the news for one month from May, 2020 to June, 2020.

Among the educative programmes broadcast were *Dangme nɔ yami* (Monday, 11: 00-12:00 pm), *We mi Kpakpa* (Wednesday, 10:00-11:00 am) and *Yo Ngɔɔ* (Thursday, 2:00-3:00 pm). These programmes were meant to educate the public on issues bordering acceptable living. During the programmes, varied topics are discussed and people who are considered to be experts in a particular topic of discussion are invited to educate the public. The researcher watch and listened to the programmes for one month from March, 2020 to April, 2020.

The secondary data constitute published and unpublished documents. The published works consist of Dangme textbooks (Nilemi Blɔ Ekpa and Dangme Ngmami Bɔ) and Dangme literary texts (Ajesiwɔ, and Kɔkɔ Sika) whereas pamphlets on the local languages such as Manye Ba, Atonokosi, Dangme Kusumi Komɛ, etc. formed the unpublished works. These primary and secondary data were considered because they are rich sources that provided illustrations and information on the usage of phrasal verbs in a particular context. Bauer (2007, p. 100) states that, “literary texts are generally seen as being texts of great inherent value, illustrating the very best use of language.” Thus, she endorses the need for the usage of a literary text in data collection. Data were also collected from overheard speeches from people at Kasseh market, interviews, conversation with people around, and the researcher’s sensitivity to generate some of the data for the analysis.

3.6 Data collection tools and procedure

Open-ended observations, interviews, documents are the most regularly used data collection procedures in qualitative research which is basically interpretive (Creswell, 2003). It implies that the researcher makes interpretation of the data collected. For this current study, interviews, observation, documents and recording were selected as tools for the data collection. The subsequent paragraph deliberates how data were collected using the aforementioned approaches.

3.6.1 Interview

According to Cannell and Kahn (1968) cited in Cohen, et al (2007, p. 351), interview is “a two-person conversation initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining research-relevant information, and focused by him on content specified by research objectives of systematic description, prediction, or explanation”. Where the interviewer has the freedom to frame questions as they come to mind around the issue being studied, -Interview is said to be flexible and inflexible, when the interviewer has strictly stick to the questions prepared for the interview earlier (Kumar 2005). This implies that an interview could either be structured or unstructured. In order for the researcher to have ample freedom in terms of the wording and a way to explain his questions to the interviewees, the unstructured (inflexible) interview was employed in this study.

One-on-one interview, a form of unstructured interview where the researcher asks questions and records answers from only one participant in the study at a time, (Creswell 2008) was employed. Therefore, the interviews were carried out through a selection of three experienced speakers of the language. One of the interviewee was a teacher at Klo Agogo Senior High School and the other two were tutors at Ada College of Education. These people were consulted in order to give information on the meaning of the compiled verb and adposition combinations and to provide additional verb and adposition combinations which have not been included in the list.

3.6.2 Observation

Shermer (2002), posits that observation is the active acquisition of information from a primary source. According to Owu-Ewie (2012:46), observation is the primary source of collecting data on non-verbal behaviour. It involves getting to the field, participant, organization, etc. to collect data based on their behaviour. It is often referred to as field work because it takes place in the field.

Working with Owu-Ewie and Shermer's explanation, I collected some data from Christ Delight Church, Foahnguah and Nene Ackwer I's (chief of Totimekope) palace during the settlement of disputes. Although I am a member of the royal family and always listen to cases brought before the chief. I also stay by the executive council of the Christ Delight Church when cases are settled. In the chief's palace, I usually sat by the elders as a member of the royal family and listen to the narration of the cases brought before the elders. Again, Dangme is used for church service and then translated into other languages such as English, Ewe or Twi for the understanding of non-native speakers. The use of a pen and paper to record phrasal verbs assisted me to get about thirty (30) words. I observed libation text offered to the ancestors by the priest of Vigbedor family during a marriage ceremony on 19th May, 2020, to ask for blessing. I used a pen and paper to write down some words that will be helpful to this study in the observation sessions.

3.6.3 Data from Recorded Programmes

Obonu FM, Obonu TV and Radio Ada were among the most popular radio and television stations located in the Greater Accra Region. Unlike many radio stations that

have associate radio stations throughout most of the regions in Ghana, Obonu FM and Radio Ada do not have partner stations as such. This radio stations and television station broadcast some of their programs in Dangme and this was the motive behind their selection. Programmes that Obonu TV broadcast in Dangme involved *Adult Education in* and *Showcase in Dangme*. The Dangme Adult Education and Showcase are usually displayed every Wednesday, from 5 o'clock to 5: 30 p.m. and 4 o'clock to 5 o'clock p.m. respectively. As the name depicts, the Adult Education programme is intended to educate the public on issues of life wealthy to live. During this programme varied topics are discussed and experts in the subject of discussion were been invited to educate the public. Like the Adult Education programme, the showcase programme is also a kind of entertaining programme. It creates the room for drama troupes to display their shows. The researcher watched the programmes for two months on every Wednesday (April and May, 2020) and recorded them. The average time span for the Adult Education programme was 30 minutes and that of the showcase was one hour. Four recordings each were made from both programmes. The grand total recordings for both programmes offered about 40 verb and adposition combinations.

News bulletins was one of the recorded programmes from Obonu TV. The news is shown every day from Monday to Friday at 4 o'clock to 4: 30 p.m. The researcher watched the news for a month (April, 2020) and recorded each. The total recording yielded 40 verb and adposition combinations. The programme that was the main focus of the researcher from the Obonu FM programme line-up was a sermon which was normally aired every Sunday, from 4: 30 to 5: 00 am. After the preaching, listeners are

given the opportunity to phone-in and express their views on the sermon. The phone-in session last only fifteen minutes. Therefore, the duration of the preaching together with the phone-in session is 45 minutes. The researcher listened to the programme for not less than two months (April to June, 2020). The programme offered 30 verb and adposition combinations. In sum, the total number of verb and adposition combinations obtained from the recorded programmes was 90.

3.6.4 Data from selected Dangme literature

Two textbooks: *Nilemi Blɔ Ekpa* and *Dangme Ngmami Bɔ* and two literary texts: *Ajesiwɔ* and *Kɔkɔ Sika* were selected from which several phrasal verbs were gathered for the data collection. The two textbooks are for primary five and six. The textbooks were chosen from the primary school because they contain short stories and various topics which I considered to be useful in the data collection for the present study. Among the two literary texts that were considered, one of the books was drama texts and the other one prose. The drama book consulted was *Kɔkɔ Sika* written by Narteh (1992). The prose book that was consulted is *Ajesiwɔ* written by Dosoo (1977). In addition, the textbooks consulted were *Nilemi blɔ 6* (1973) and *Dangme Ngmami Bɔ* (1990) both written by Bureau of Ghana Languages. A greater percentage of the data that has been used for the analysis come from the Dangme textbooks, literary books and pamphlets. The books were very simple to read and understand. They provided contexts in which the verbs and adposition constructions were used, therefore aiding in the analysis of the phrasal verbs.

The procedure employed in collecting data from these selected documents was that the researcher read the books and as he was reading, sentences that contained verb and adposition constructions were underlined with a pencil. Hereafter, these underlined sentences were piled up and the verb and adposition combinations in each sentence were written beside the sentence. What the researcher observed was that the same verb and adposition combinations kept repeated in the majority of the books; therefore, in compiling them only one entry was given for such combinations.

3.6.5 Data based on Native speaker intuition

As a native speaker of Dangme, I depended on my intuition to collect some of the data for the study. Although I am a native speaker, I cross-checked the data with other colleagues who are speakers of the language as well as from some Dangme books to confirm their validity before using them.

3.7 Procedure for Data Analysis

There are varied methods for analyzing data so as to acquire responses for research questions. The researcher separated the ordinary verb and adposition combinations from those that are phrasal verbs as the foremost step. For the present study, the data analysis was manually done and it was also descriptive.

A phrasal verb has an idiomatic meaning that deviates from the meaning of the combination of a verb item and adposition element (Sekyi-Baidoo 2006). The above method of identifying a phrasal verb was employed in the separation of ordinary verb

and adposition combinations from those that are phrasal verbs. Verb and adposition combinations such as *da se* „stand back/behind“, *po se* „cut back/behind“, *fia se* „play back“, *pi se* „push back“, were classified into one group since they represent idiomatic meanings that deviate from the separate meanings of the phrasal verbs. On the other hand, combinations like *hwɔ si* „to sleep“, *gbee se* „move back“, *tso he* „to peel“, with just literal meaning, as another group. With these two grouping those with idiomatic meanings were considered phrasal verbs. Those that do not have idiomatic meaning were not considered as phrasal verbs but rather ordinary verb and adposition combinations. Among the ones listed above, the ones that were considered as phrasal verbs in the language were *da se* „stand back“ (to witness for), *po se* „cut back“ (to investigate), *fia se* „play back“ (to add to), *pi se* „push back“ (to support). This is because apart from their literal meaning as we have seen above, they also have idiomatic meanings. Thus, the fundamental distinction between the ordinary verb and adposition compound and the phrasal verb is the issue of clarity. Therefore, a combination of verb and adposition element can be described as a phrasal verb and the other as not, because that which is describe as a phrasal verb exhibits a basic meaning which deviates from the meaning which will ordinarily build up to the compound if the meaning of its constituents is to be taken into account.

The criteria that Katunar, et al (2010), also make mention of are the semantic agreement of the verb and particle construction as well as the distributional properties which sanction the replacement of any of its parts by any other lexical unit. After looking at the idiomatic criterion described above, the other two criteria given by Katunar et al (2010)

were also applied in order to arrive at the constructions that really qualify to be Dangme phrasal verbs.

The next step was the grouping of the various phrasal verbs recognized. In doing this, the phrasal verbs that have the same verbal element were put in one group and those that have the same adposition element also came under one group. Also, phrasal verb and adposition combinations that have different forms but the same meaning formed yet another group. These groupings are to ease discussions on the phrasal verbs. The final stage was the discussion of the various phrasal verbs identified by focusing on their syntactic and semantic features.

3.8 Interim Summary

This chapter defined the methodology for the study and the qualitative research approach employed. It discussed the number of research consultants, sampling techniques and their roles, the data collection tools and procedure, data interpretation and finally, data analysis procedures. Chapter four captures the discussions on the identified phrasal verbs.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS OF DANGME PHRASAL VERBS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis and discussions of the data on the syntactic and semantics characteristics of Dangme phrasal verbs. The chapter discusses in section 4.1 the syntax of the types of Dangme phrasal verbs in terms of transitivity. The semantics of the main characteristics of the verbal elements and the particles which constitute the Dangme phrasal verbs are discussed in section 4.2. In section 4.3, the implications of the identified Dangme phrasal verbs are examined using the Conceptual Metaphor Theory. Section 4.4 focuses on the idiomaticity and the polysemous nature of the Dangme phrasal verbs. The interim concluding section is presented in 4.5.

4.1 The verbal system of Dangme

This section provides a brief overview of those characteristics of the verb in Dangme that are of interest for this study of phrasal verbs. Dangme has a verbal system where every verb phrase contains one main verb (Dakubu 1987, p.56). For example:

17. Wisiyo ye blodo.
 Wisiyo eat. PERF bread
 „Wisiyo has eaten bread.“

As Dakubu (1987, p.60) opine that in Dangme verb system, tense is of secondary importance. It is perfectly possible in the language to indicate whether an event took place in the past, is taking place in the present or will happen in the future, for instance by using adverbial expression of time like *piɔ* „now/present“, *mwɔnɛ ɔ* „today“, *hwɔɔ*

„tomorrow“. Nevertheless, in the structure of the VP itself, it is not relatively an issue of tense or time sequence that are relevant so much as relation of the kind commonly refer to as aspectual. For example:

18. Agude je tade ɔ.
 Agude remove shirt DET
 „Agude has removed the shirt“.

The main verb co-occurs with verbal features of aspect, polarity and mood. The primary modal contrast in Dangme is between real action, event or state and non-real action, event or state. According to Dakubu (2008), aspect is made up of the perfective and imperfective. The perfective aspect expresses the idea of an action taking place during a period of time which is regarded as complete. The imperfective aspect is in two folds: the progressive and the habitual. The progressive has two functions. It indicates that the action of the verb is ongoing or habitual, while the habitual aspect indicates only habitual action, event or state expressed by the verb. *ngɛ...e* or *hii...e* is a discontinuous auxiliary verb which combines with the independent verb to mark the progressive aspect in Dangme. Complements of transitive verbs are preposed before the verb while the *-e* is suffixed to the verb to express the progressive in Dangme. The illustrations in (19a, b, c and 19d) provide further explanation:

19. a. Kojo *ngɛ* do-*e*.
 Kojo be.at: dance-PROG
 „Kojo is dancing.“
- b Kojo *hii* bɛɛ-*e*.
 Kojo be.at: sweep-HAB
 „Kojo has been sweeping.“

- c. Kojo *ngɛ* blɛfo kpe-*e*
Kojo be.at corn chew-PROG
„Kojo is chewing corn.“
- d. Kojo *hii* fufui gbe-*e*.
Kojo be.at: fufu pound-HAB
„Kojo has been pounding fufu.“

Examples (19a & 19c) express that the act of dancing and chewing respectively are ongoing. At the same time, example (19a) can also imply „*Kojo* is into dancing“ while (19b) can mean „*Kojo* is into sweeping“. These interpretations involve the use of the progressive aspect to express a habitual state of affairs. Examples (19c & 19d) are however have their noun objects occurring in between the verb group (S Aux OV). The habitual is marked on the verb by a suffix. The suffix has an allomorph which involves a vowel of a verb stem. For example:

20. a. E du-ɔ.
3SG bath-HAB
„He/She baths.“
- b. E la-*a*.
3SG sing-HAB
„He/She sings.“

4.2 Syntactic classification of Dangme phrasal verbs

The syntactic classification of Dangme phrasal verbs is emphasized under this section of the study. As discussed earlier in chapter two, languages such as English, Akan, Ga and Nzema classified their phrasal verbs based on transitivity (Sekyi-Baidoo, 2006; Laryea 2015). English has two types: intransitive and transitive phrasal verbs whilst Akan, Ga and Nzema has three: transitive, intransitive and a type of phrasal verb that merges both transitive and intransitive.

It became evident through the data gathered that the Dangme phrasal verb like that of Akan, Nzema and Ga also comes in three major forms: transitive, intransitive, di-transitive and a combination of transitive and intransitive constructions. It again indicates that the adposition element is separated from the lexical verb in some circumstances. The various types of phrasal verbs identified in Dangme were discussed under this section.

4.2.1 Transitive Phrasal verbs

Narh (2011) opines that transitive verbs cannot give a complete understanding. That is, this kind of verb when added to a subject can not form a complete sentence; unless an object is add before an understanding can be arrived at. Thus, transitive verb is dependent and for it to become independent, it must accept one or more objects: a noun, phrase or pronoun that refers to the person or thing that is affected by the action of the verb.

Example (21) provides more insight to the above claim:

21. a. Zangmayo ɔ gbla sane ɔ mi.
 Lady DEF PST-pull case DEF inside
 „The lady prolonged the case.“
- b. Nyumu ɔ po munyu ɔ sisi.
 Man DEF PST-cut issue DEF under
 „The man has ended the issue.“

The phrasal verbs *gbla mi* (to prolong) and *po sisi* „to end“ in examples (21a and b) respectively carries a single object. Therefore, both illustrations are mono-transitive phrasal verbs in Dangme. The objects in the immediate examples are both noun phrases and they were followed by their corresponding particles. The object in example (30a) is *sane* ɔ „the case“ and that of (21b) is *munyu* ɔ „the issue“. The particle in example (21a) that is preceded by the noun phrase *Zangmayo* ɔ „the lady“ *mi* „inside“ and that of (21b)

which was preceded by the noun phrase *Nyumu* ɔ „the man“ *sisi* „under“. Sometimes, Dangme transitive phrasal verbs can accept clauses as their objects. Few of such transitive phrasal verbs realized in the data include: „*da mi, kplɛɛ nɔ, fia se,...*“ Examples (22a, b and c) buttress this:

22. a. A da mi kaa a maa wo hiɔ ɔ
 3PL PST-stand inside that 3PL FUT pay debt DEF
 „They intervene to pay the debt.“
- b. E kplɛɛ nɔ kaa a ya sukuu
 3SG PST-agree on that 3PL go school
 „He has agreed that they should attend school.“
- c. A kɛ fia se kaa a maa ye nguɔ
 3PL AUX PST-hit back that 3PL AUX FUT victory
 „They added up that they will be victorious.“

Phrasal verbs that accept clauses as their objects as observed in example (31) above always have their objects placed after the particle in Dangme. They usually go with clauses, no matter the construction. Anything other than the clause will render it non-phrasal verb. Example (23) below supports this point:

23. Osɔfo ɔ bɛɛ sɔlemi tsu ɔ mi
 Pastor PST-sweep church room DEF inside
 „The pastor swept the chapel.“

It is also observed that transitive phrasal verbs can be realized by pronouns. That is an object which is an animate noun can be replaced by a pronoun and vice versa. However, there are some object pronouns which cannot be replaced by nouns. Example (24) illustrates this assertion:

24. a. Nyumu ɔ sɛ e tsu ɔ mi
 Man DEF PST-enter 3SG POSS DEF inside
 „The man entered his room.“
- b. Huɔɔ ɔ bɔle e se bɔɔ
 Security DEF PST-stretch 3SG POSS back little
 „The security slept a little.“
- c. . Asafo ɔ fi a nya otsi kake
 Congregation DEF PST-tie 3PL POSS-nya one week
 „The congregation fasted for a week.“
- d. Fɔɔ ɔ nyɛ bi ɔ nɔ
 Parent DEF PST-press child DEF on
 „The parent forced the child.“
- e. Zangmayo ɔ po tsopatse ɔ nya
 Lady DEF PST-cut ritualist DEF mouth
 „The Lady reported the ritualist.“

Examples (24a, b and c) above indicate that all the transitive phrasal verbs *sɛ mi* „to enter“, *bɔle se* „to sleep/rest“, and *fi nya* „to fast“ take as their object the pronouns „ɛ“ and „a“. These particular pronouns are used due to the fact that the noun occupied the subject position. It implies that whenever a subject noun changes its position, it affects its object as well. Taking as an example the statement, *Osɔfo kɛ asafo ɔ ye a be mi* „Pastor and the congregation enjoyed“, one can realize in the statement that the pronoun „a“ was used instead of „ɛ“. This is so because the subject noun is plural and it must take a plural pronoun. In a nutshell, the kind of noun occupying the subject position determines the kind of pronoun that the phrasal verb should take as its object. The construction in example (24d) is said to be ungrammatical because, per the explanation given to examples (24a, b and c), the phrasal verb requires an object that will make an anaphoric reference to its subject for the meaning to be complete. The only object which can fit in

here is a subject pronoun and not a subject noun. Again, when a different noun is used as an object, the meaning changes as shown in example (24e). It paints the picture that the subject's action is not affecting him or herself rather another person. Thus, the subject and the object are non-referential.

Dangme transitive phrasal verbs has another type of pronoun aside those discussed above that can be used as the object. This type of pronoun is referred to as the reflexive pronoun. Sekyi-Baidoo (2006) proposes that reflexive phrasal verbs (i.e transitive phrasal verbs that take reflexive pronouns) are transitive verbs in which the subject and the object are referentially identical. This means that the subject did the action to itself. Objects that these type of verbs take are reflexives such as *ye he* „myself“, *o he* „yourself“, *e he* „him/herself“, *wa he* „ourselves“, *nye he* „yourselves“ and *a he* „themselves“. These reflexive phrasal verbs are usually used with reflexive pronouns as objects, and they cannot change their objects without changing the meaning they carry. Let's consider the following constructions:

25. a. Zangmayo ɔ pue e he mi.
 Lady DEF PST-spoil 3SG REF PRON inside
 „The Lady felt unusual.“
- b. Zangmayo ɔ ye be ɔ no.
 Lady DEF PSTeat time DEF on
 „The Lady obeyed the time.“
- c. Ghana hye e he no nge covid muawa a he.
 Ghana PST-look 3SG REF PRON on at covid virus DEF surface
 „Ghana was on guard against the covid virus.“

- d. Wedetse ɔ se kpata a mi.
 Cat DEF PST-enter kitchen DEF inside
 „The entered the kitchen.“

Comparing the constructions in (25a and b), one can observe that in (25a), the meaning of the phrasal verb is „to feel unusual“ because the object is reflexive, but as the reflexive object was replaced in example (25b) by a non-reflexive object, *be ɔ* „the time“, it has changed the meaning to mean „to obey“ which is also a transitive verb. However, it must be noticed that the replacement of a reflexive object by a non-reflexive object does not always result in another phrasal verb. It becomes a non-phrasal verb as shown in example (25d). Taking into account the discussion made on the transitive phrasal verbs in Dangme, it is evident that almost all the the verbs and the particles are usually separated by an object. Under no circumstance did the object follow the particle. The object comes after the particle only if it was a clause.

4.2.2 Intransitive phrasal verbs

Intransitive verbs are verbs which can make a complete sense without the help of an object (Narh, 2011 p.15). These verbs do not carry an object for it to make sense. The intransitive phrasal verbs are structured as (Subject+Verb+Particle) in Dangme. Let us observe the constructions in example (26):

26. a. Jabaku gbla si.
 Jabaku PST-pull down
 „Jabaku delayed.“
- b. Jabaku gbla lohwe ɔ si.
 Jabaku PST-pull animal DEF down
 „Jabaku pulled the animal.“

- c. Amuzu fi nya hiε.
 Amuzu PST-tie mouth yesterday
 „Amuzu fasted yesterday.“

In examples (26a and c), the phrasal verbs *gbla si* „to delay“ and *fi nya* „to fast“ are both intransitive phrasal verbs. This is because both verbs do not carry any object but then, they made complete sense. As illustrated above in example (26b), since it take an object, the sentence is no more phrasal verb but rather, ordinary verb and adposition combination. It can be observed in examples (26) above that, Dangme intransitive phrasal verbs are mostly inseparable; thus, they cannot be separated by an object or an adverb. If they do, they either will become ungrammatical, meaningless or will no longer be phrasal verbs. Different types of intransitive verbs can be found in the Dangme language. For this particular study, three types were discussed: copulative, ergative and active phrasal verbs. The copulative phrasal verbs are those that describe their subjects only. Examples of such verbs in Dangme include *fua no* „to agree“, *da si* „to get pregnant“, *ba mi* „to manifest“, *gbe nya* „to complete“ as in (27).

27. a. Weku ɔ fua no.
 Family DEF PST-hage on
 „The family agreed.“
- b. Ajo da si hlami etε.
 Ajo PST-stand down three months
 „Ajo carried three month pregnancy.“
- c. Nlami ɔ ba mi niine.
 Dream DEF PST-come inside truly
 „The dream has truly come to pass.“

- d. Tsumalo ɔ gbe nya kulaa.
 Mason DEF PERF-finish mouth all
 „The mason has fully completed.“

The subject in example (27a) is *weku* ɔ „the family“ and the phrasal verb is *fua no* „to agree“ it can be observed that the phrasal verb describes the subject as people who come to an agreement on an issue. In a like manner, the phrasal verb *da si* „lit. to stand“ in example (27b) describes Ajo as been pregnant, (27c) is giving us information about the extent to which the dream functioned and (27d) is describing the level where the mason reach with the work. Ergative intransitive phrasal verbs are those whose subjects originate as objects (Crystal, 2009). Thus the noun (i.e object) in the sentence rather functions syntactically as the subject here. This is illustrated in example (28) below:

28. a. i. Otimi ɔ sa si.
 Kenkey DEF PST-pull down
 „The kenkey didn“t sell fast.“
- ii. Otimi jualo ɔ sa otimi ɔ si.
 Kenkey seller DEF PST-pull kenkey DEF down
 „The kenkey seller caused the kenkey not to be sold fast.“
- b). i. Kaselo ɔ kpɛ se.
 Student DEF PST-sow back
 „The student delayed.“
- ii. Kaseli ɔmɛ kpɛ tsɔɔlo ɔ se.
 Student DEF PST-sow teacher DEF back
 „The students delayed the teacher.“

- c) i. Ya a se po.
Crying DEF back PST-cut
„The crying stopped.“
- ii. Dede po ya a se.
Dede PST-cut crying DEF backdown
„Dede stopped the crying.“
- d) i. Nyu ɔ mi jɔ.
Water DEF inside PST-cool
„The water was chilled.“
- ii. Fliiji ɔ jɔ nyu ɔ mi.
Fridge DEF PST-cool water DEF inside
„The fridge made the water chilled.“

In example (28), all the constructions labeled (i) were all the ergative constructions while those tagged (ii) were their matching non-ergative constructions. In considering example (28a. i), one can see clearly that *otimi* ɔ „the kenkey“ which functions as the subject of the ergative construction now features as an object of the non-ergative construction in example (28a. ii) as it moved from the subject position to object position. Another observation was that, in some of the ergative constructions, the particle precedes the verb. The next type of phrasal verb is the active phrasal verb. Here, the phrasal verbs that describe the subject's action are considered. Let us see example (29) below:

29. a. bu si (lit. turn down) to complete
b. mia mi (lit. tight inside) to dress elegantly
c. ye nya (lit. eat mouth) to bagain
d. po hɛ (lit. cut surface) to look round
e. mu si (lit. drow down) to dodge
f. pue nɔ (lit. pour on) to set off

g. pue si (lit. pour down) to shed/disgrace

Based on the discussion made so far on the Dangme intransitive verbs in this study, the following observations were made: the meaning of the individual words which come together to form the phrasal verb is far different from that of the phrasal verb as a unit. Whenever a different verb is added to the same particle or a different particle combine with the same verb, the supposed or original meaning will not be realised. Either a different meaning altogether will be realized or the construction will result in a non-phrasal verb.

Also, in exception of some of the ergative phrasal verbs, the particles in almost all the intransitive phrasal verbs are immovable. In those type of ergative phrasal verbs, we have seen that some of the verb particles came before the verbal element instead of them coming after the verb.

Finally, we realized that the verbs and the particles in all the recognized forms of the intransitive verbs are inseparable.

4.2.3 Di-transitive phrasal verbs in Dangme

We have so far discussed mono-transitive phrasal verbs, which is transitive phrasal verbs which constitute two arguments only: a subject and direct object. This phrasal verbs take one object. In addition to mono-transitive phrasal verbs, there are other phrasal verbs that take two objects in Dangme. This phrasal verb type is referred to as di-transitive phrasal verb. Di-transitive verbs in general exhibit a three-person relationship between the

subject, a direct object whose involvement makes the action of the verb possible and an indirect object who receives or benefits from the action. This is illustrated in examples (30a & b) below:

30. A tsɔɔ wɔ zugba a nya.
 3PL PST-show 3PL land DEF mouth
 „They showed us the land boundary.“

It is observed in the example (30) that the phrasal verb *tsɔɔ nya* „to show boundary“ has *a* „they“ as subject, *zugba* „land“ as the direct object and *wɔ* „us“ as the indirect object. Also in the above, it can be realized that the two objects that the phrasal verb *tsɔɔ nya* takes which are *wɔ* „us“ and *zugba a* „the land“ precede the particle. Neither do the particle come before the direct object nor the indirect object or better still, the adposition element in any way. The particle always comes after the two objects. Another example is given in (31) below:

31. Nate ye Ghana ma a nɔ.
 Nate PST-eat Ghana country DEF on
 „Nate ruled over the country Ghana.“

4.2.4 Phrasal verbs that are used both transitively and intransitively

Notwithstanding the three major syntactic types of transitivity, which involves transitive, intransitive and di-transitive phrasal verbs discussed above, there exists another type which can be used both transitively and intransitively at a go. This is possible depending on the context in which it is supposed to be used. Examples (32) below illustrate this argument:

32. a. i. Sɔgbɔjɔ gbee mi lingmi Hɔgba.
 Sɔgbɔjɔ PST-dress inside last Sunday
 „Sɔgbɔjɔ dressed neatly last Sunday.“

- ii. Sɔgbɔjɔ gbee tso mi lingmi Hɔgba.
 Sɔgbɔjɔ PST-beat tree inside last Sunday
 „Sɔgbɔjɔ pounded fufu last Sunday.“
- b. i. Buɛki kple si hiɛ.
 Buɛki PST-drop down yesterday
 „Buɛki delivered yesterday“.
- ii. Ma a kple matse ɔ si hiɛ.
 Community DEF PST-drop chief DEF down yesterday
 „The community dethroned the chief yesterday“.
- c. i. Mele ɔ sa si hiɛ.
 Ship DEF PST-scratch down yesterday
 „The ship was docked yesterday“.
- ii. Obolo sa niye ni ɔ si hiɛ.
 Obolo PST-grind food DEF down yesterday
 „Obolo ate all the food yesterday“.

It is clearly portrayed that the phrasal verbs in examples (32a. i „gbee mi“, b. i „kple si“ and c. i „sa si“) are intransitively used but those found in examples (32a. ii, b. ii and c. ii) are been used transitively. This boils down to the fact that the same phrasal verb can be used as transitive and intransitive as well. The point of interest in this phenomenon is that the meaning of the phrasal verb used transitively is unique from the one used intransitively and vice versa – it does not remain the same. For instance, when the phrasal verb *gbee mi* „lit. kill inside“ in (32a. i) was intransitively used, it mean „to dress well“ whilst in example (32a. ii) it was transitively used, the meaning changed into „to pound“. In a nutshell, the discussions above shown that transitivity of a phrasal verb refers to the capability of the verb to carry or not an object so as to complete the meaning of the action denoted by the verb. It is also evident in this study that among the transitive phrasal

verbs, the type of object a particular phrasal verb carries determines the meaning to be associated with.

4.3 The semantics of the Dangme Phrasal Verbs

Having given an account of the syntactic issues of phrasal verbs in Dangme, the semantic analysis of the Dangme phrasal verbs is delve into in this section of the study. The fundamental meaning as well as the metaphorical meaning of the particles are provided. The meaning of the phrasal verbs is also be presented in line with the corresponding metaphor that underlies the meaning of these phrasal verbs. Moreso, this section provides the idiomaticity and the polysemous nature of the phrasal verbs.

4.3.1 Fundamental and metaphorical meaning of the particles

In defining phrasal verbs, particles are of a vital need. If a particular verb carries a particular particle, usually, a special meaning of the phrasal verb is formed. For this reason, the meaning of the individual particles in phrasal verbs with regard to its literalness and figurativeness is an issue which requires closer study because of their central status in the compound. The section looks at the fundamental and metaphorical meanings of four particles.

Let's consider the particle *sisi*. This particle contains the fundamental meanings: „under“, „below“, „bottom“ and „underneath“. These are inferred meanings, that is, they can easily be taken from the meaning of the phrasal verbs as a whole. This implies that, unlike as it is in a verb and adposition combination, the particle „sisi“ does not make a

separate individual contribution to the meaning of the phrasal verb. Let us consider the sentences in examples (33).

33. a. *je sisi* „to begin“
b. *po sisi* „to stop“
c. *nu sisi* „to understand“
d. *to sisi* „to set up“
e. *tsɔɔ sisi* „to explain“
f. *wo sisi* „to take an appetizer“
g. *fia sisi* „to lay“
h. *nyɛɛ sisi* „to undermine“
i. *hiɔ sisi* „to search into“

Looking at the above examples, it is obvious that the postposition understanding of *sisi* indicates a location or place or position. This understanding was reached due to the meaning of the phrasal verb in different levels of metaphorical transfer. For example:

- *wo sisi* „lit. put under“ (to take an appetizer)
- *hiɔ sisi* „lit. discover the bottom“ (to search into/ get to the bottom of)
-

Speak about a situation in which something is done at „the very bottom“ of an issue. The metaphorical meaning of the particle „bottom“ therefore is said to be seen both in *wo sisi* and *hiɔ sisi*. Because they both point at the bottom or the beginning of an action. Relatively, *sisi* is impressively connected with the primary position of the action. This is clear in phrasal verbs such as *po sisi* „lit. to cut the under or the bottom part“. That is, *po sisi* means not to merely „cut“ any aspect of the issue but the „core“ of it in order not to generate anymore. In the same vein, *nu sisi* means „to hear“ the bottom of the matter. It is these meanings of the phrasal verbs that bring about understanding. The particle *sisi* also in the phrasal verb *tsua sisi* literally „to dig under“ paints a picture of interfering with the „crust/root“ of a phenomenon. *Tsua sisi* reflects idea or condition in which one person digs under another person in literal terms. Digging under someone will definitely grant

you the opportunity to discover all that the person is made up of, his foundation and secret which is supposed not to be seen or known as such. In doing this the secret discovered can be used negatively against the person who's under is dug. Thus the idea of undermining someone is presented in the phrasal verb.

Secondly, the particle *nya* is presented. The primary meaning of *nya* is „edge“, or „mouth“, or „the entrance of“ which can at times be inferred from the phrasal verbs. It is observed that this particle is used more often than not idiomatically. Metaphorically, the particle *nya* reflects an idea of „being at the edge or the entrance“ of an event so as to conclude it. This was evident in such phrasal verbs as *da nya* „lit. stand mouth“, *po nya* „cut mouth“, *fi nya* „tie mouth“, and *hiɔ nya* „avoid mouth“. *Da nya*, literally indicates a person standing at the entrance of something. Thus it shows the movement from somewhere to the edge or entrance of a place. The literal meaning has been abstractly perceived as a situation whereby a person outside an issue moves in to take up the front role or responsibility. In this phenomenon, he/she is to be hold responsible instead. This is contained in the meaning of *da nya* „to carry another person's burden, to lead“.

Another meaning of *nya* has to do with the notion of impeding the continuation of a process. Literally, *po nya* for instance reflects the idea of someone „cutting“ the mouth of another fellow. In this sense, he/she is caused to be weak, silent and not able to continue talking as a result of the pain from the cut. This literal meaning is extended to an abstract sense where a person is reported on an issue in order to stop his/her continuation of that action or activity, etc. Similarly, the phrasal verbs *fi nya* and *hiɔ nya* which mean „to fast“

and „to avoid talking with“ respectively also denote the idea of stopping an activity from going on. Let us consider the illustrations in example (34):

34. a. i. Tsaatse da hiɔ ɔ nya.
 Father PST stand debt DEF mouth.
 „Father took up the debt.“
- ii. Osɔfo ɔ da asafo ɔ nya.
 Pastor DEF PST lead congregation DEF mouth.
 „The pastor led the congregation.“
- b. Biyo ɔ po e nyɛ ɔ nya.
 Girl DEF PST cut POSS mother DEF mouth.
 „The girl reported her mother.“
- c. E fi e miklii nya.
 2SG PST tie POSS stomach mouth.
 „He fasted.“
- d. Yo ɔ hiɔ nyumu ɔ nya.
 Woman DEF PST avoid man DEF mouth.
 „The woman avoid the man.“

The third particle to look at is *se*. *Se* has the fundamental interpretations „behind“ and „back“. These are also inferred meanings, that is, they can easily be taken from the meaning of the phrasal verbs as a whole. This implies that, the particle „se“ does not make a separate individual contribution to the meaning of the phrasal verb. Let us consider the sentences in examples (35).

35. a. *yo se* „to come to the realization or to discover“
- b. *po se* „to investigate“
- c. *kpale se* „to return/retract“
- d. *kpɛ se* „to delay or be late“
- e. *da se* „to support“
- f. *nyɛɛ se* „to follow up/pursue“

- g. *fi se* „to support“
- h. *pi/pia se* „to support“

In considering example (35), it is obvious that the postposition understanding of *se* shows varied metaphorical meanings. For example, in (35a) the phrasal verb *yo se* „lit. see back“ reflects a situation where a person by passes something unnoticed and has turned back to give it a critical look. This in abstract situation can mean that one has been through certain happenings without necessarily taking note of the causes but now discovered the root causes of such occurrences. This situation captures the notion of understanding or discovery of meaning.

Se also expresses the idea of investigation. This sense is evident in example (35b), the phrasal verb *po se* literally „cut back“. *Po se*, for instance, shows a situation in which something or someone was cut from the back so that before he becomes of himself, you are done with him. Metaphorically, this can be extended to the event whereby there is a situation and the core of the situation is secretly researched into. This scenario depicts the act of investigation.

Looking at the phrasal verb *kpale se* „lit. return back“ in example (35c), it is clear that the particle *se* represents the idea of „returning to a former location“. This is used to show the going back of a body to its initial location.

Again, *se* is related to „lateness or delayance“. *Se* which primarily means „behind“ is not only seen as one item or person at the back of the other. It can also be seen in terms of

time, where one is behind time. This idea is portrayed in example (35d) in the phrasal verb *kpe se* literally „to sow back“. *Kpe se*, for example talks about a condition in which a time has been scheduled for an activity but someone come after the scheduled time.

Another meaning of *se* has to do with the notion of „support“. This idea is evident in examples (35e, f, g and h) in such phrasal verbs as *da se* „lit. stand behind“, *nyee se* „lit. walk behind“, *fi se* „lit. suffer behind“ and *pi se* „lit. push behind“. Literally, *da se* for instance reflects the idea of someone who positioned himself behind another fellow. In this sense, it can be that either he/she is in a queue or he is there to offer an assistance. This literal meaning is extended to an abstract sense where a person offers help through sayings and actions, and this is what institute the „act of exhibiting support“. Likewise, the phrasal verbs *nyee se*, *fi se* and *pi se* which also carry the meaning „to support“ show a person supporting the action of another person through words and actions. Let us consider the illustrations in example (36) to seal the discussions on the particle „se“:

36. a. *Jokuε ɔ yo sane ɔ se.*
 Child DEF PST see case DEF back.
 „The child understood the issue.“
- b. *Weku ɔ po matse ɔ gbenɔ ɔ se.*
 Family DEF PST cut chief DEF death back.
 „The family investigated the death of the chief.“
- c. *Nako kpale e se ke ba se kakene no.*
 Nako PST return back AUX come chair one on.
 „Nako returned to class one.“
- d. *Kaselo ɔ kpe se ke ya sukuu.*
 Student DEF PST sow back AUX go school.
 „The student was late to school.“

- e. Tsaatɛ da yohɔyo ɔ se.
 Father PST stand pregnant woman DEF behind.
 „Father supported the pregnant woman.“
- f. Asafo ɔ nyɛɛ osofo ɔ munyu se.
 Church DEF PST-walk pastor DEF word behind.
 „The church followed up on the pastor“s issue.“
- g. Bajo fi Kuanyɛ se.
 Bajo PST suffer Kuanyɛ behind.
 „Bajo supported Kuanyɛ.“
- h. E pi Angmor se kɛ hwu ta.
 2SG PST push Angmor behind to fan battle.
 „He supported Angmor in the battle.“

The fourth particle to look at is *nɔ*. *Nɔ* has the fundamental interpretations „on“ and „on top of“. These meanings can sometimes be realized from the meaning of the phrasal verbs as a whole. It denotes two objects being very close to each other. This explanation is related to the meaning of some phrasal verbs in diverse degrees of metaphorical transfer. Five metaphorical meanings were identified under this using the data at hand. Let us consider the illustrations in examples (37) below;

37. a. *yi nɔ* (lit. to fill on) „to attack“
 b. *ti nɔ* (lit. to sieve on) „to meet suddenly“
 c. *ye nɔ* (lit. to eat on) „to rule“
 d. *hyɛ nɔ* (lit. to look on) „to supervise“
 e. *nyɛ nɔ* (lit. to press on) „to exert pressure or force“
 f. *naa nɔ* (lit. to step on) „to exert pressure“
 g. *hi nɔ* (lit. to sit on) „to put pressure“
 h. *tsa nɔ* (lit. to tie on) „to continue“

Looking at the phrasal verb *yi nɔ* in example (37a), it shows a situation in which a person was contacted without prior information or arrangement and with a bad intention. For

instance, *Fɔli ba yi tsɔɔlɔ ɔ nɔ kɛ gbe* „Parents attacked the teacher with beatens.“ By this form of contact, a sort of force is apply on the person being contacted. This situation metaphorically extend the idea of the phrasal verb „*yi nɔ*“ to mean „to attack“. In the same vein, the prasal verb *ti nɔ* in example (37b) shows the idea of „attack“. In example (37c and d) respectively, the phrasal verbs *ye nɔ* „to rule“ and *hyɛ nɔ* „to supervise“ both reflect the notion of „control“. Let us consider the following constructions:

38. a. George ye Liberia nɔ be bɔɔ.
 George PST eat Liberia on time little.
 „George ruled Liberia for some time.“
- b. Janet hyɛ sɔfɔmi ɔ nɔ jeha nɛ ɔ.
 Janet PST-look voting DEF on year this.
 „Janet supervised the election this year.“

It is evident in example (38a) that George and Liberia constitute the objects in contact. George is the one in control of affairs. Therefore, the Liberians who are under his control cannot do anything without consulting him. Also in example (38b), Janet is the one in charge of the election. The officials cannot do anything without consulting Janet, their supervisor. Here, it is evident that the phrasal verbs *ye nɔ* and *hyɛ nɔ* depict the notion of „control“.

Another expression of *nɔ* has to do with the notion of „exerting pressure on a body“. This is the condition in which two bodies are in contact and the body above puts its weight on the one under it thereby caution exertion. These sense is seen in examples (37e, f and g) in the phrasal verbs *nyɛ nɔ* „lit. to press on“, *naa nɔ* „lit. to step on“ and *hi nɔ* „lit. to sit on“. The above scenario which discussed exertion as in example (37f) can also be captured metaphorically as someone putting his weight on another not physically but, in

words, gestures among others to force the other person to do something. Finally in example (37h), the notion of „continuation of an action“ was established in the phrasal verb *tsa no* literally „tie on“ (metaphorically „to continue“).

So far, it is established through the examples given in (37) that, when the meaning of a particle is not literal but extended metaphorically to abstract and invisible domains, it usually creates a special meaning of a phrasal verb. Also, it became clear that the metaphorical meanings deduced from the fundamental interpretations were related to the general sense of the phrasal verb as a whole.

4.4 Metaphorical meaning of the phrasal verbs

Most phrasal verbs are metaphorical in sense. Therefore, in order to easily understand and recall the meanings possessed by these phrasal verbs, one needs to have a better level of understanding of the metaphors they carry. Rudzka-Ostyn (2003, p.7) opines that metaphorical understanding allows us to “conceive, characterize and express high-level abstract reality”. Thus the meaning of invisible concepts hidden in the phrasal verbs are best tapped through metaphorical understanding. This section of the study presents an account on the metaphorical meaning of some Dangme phrasal verbs.

To begin with the discussion on this section, let us take a look at *kpa mi* „to spread wide“ but as a phrasal verb mean „to stretch“. This phrasal verb has a metaphor serving as a link between the literal meaning and the idiomatic meaning. When a person spreads

something wide, it implies that the person uses his energy to do the stretching. Similarly, when a person stretches something, it means that person puts in much effort and energy.

The next phrasal verb to begin the discussion is *pue nɔ*. Let us consider the example below;

39. a. Nyu pue blefo ɔ nɔ.
Water PST pour maize DEF on.
„Water poured on the maize.“

b. Otu pue blo hiami ɔ nɔ.
Otu PST pour way uprooting on.
„Otu began the journey.“

In example (39a), the phrasal verb *pue nɔ* is literally applied. This is because it is a physical action in which there is relocation of water from an unknown destination unto the maize. In (39b), there is a metaphorical description of a similar action in a way as (a) because in travelling, Otu made a movement onto the road just as in (39a).

Also, we will consider the phrasal verb *wo nɔ* „to remind“, literally „to lift on“. Let us consider an event where a child finds himself among a crowd of people and he wishes to watch an activity in front, he needs to be lift up to see what is going on since he is not tall enough. In this connection, a persons mind can be metaphorically be lifted to remember what is happening around him which he seems to have forgetton or not realised. It is in this sense that *wo nɔ* captured the idea „to give a reminder“. Example (40) further supports this explanation:

40. Maku wo tsaatse tue no.
 Maku PST lift father ear on.
 „Maku reminded father.“

Another phrasal verb to be considered is *nyεε mi*. Let us look at the example below:

41. a. Dlεεva a nyεε Kofi aboo o mi.
 Driver DEF PST walk Kofi garden DEF inside.
 „The driver walked in Kofi’s garden.“
- b. Dlεεva a nyεε Kofi sane o mi.
 Driver DEF PST walk Kofi case DEF inside.
 „The driver interceded on Kofi’s case.“

The sentence in example (41a) has a literal meaning and refers to a physical activity whereas one in (41b) is metaphorical and refers to a similar activity but not concrete. One can physically walk in a garden but cannot physically see a case to walk in it. Therefore, this act of walking is metaphorically compared to a circumstance whereby a person outside a case come in to intercede just as the action of walking in another person’s garden.

Last but not the least phrasal verb to be considered is *kple si*. Let us look at the constructions in example (42a and b) below:

42. a. A kple jokue o si nge tso o no.
 3PL PST drop child DEF down from tree DEF on.
 „They dropped the child down from the tree.“
- b. A kple matse o si nge se o no.
 3PL PST drop chief DEF down from seat DEF on.
 „They distooled the chief.“

In example (42a), *kple si* is used literally. It refers to a physical action whereby a child is made to make a movement by climbing down or descend from a tree. The (42b) is metaphorical and describes an action that is similar in a way to the (42a). In the act of

destoolment, a person is brought down from a higher height (the stool) where he can see and act beyond the ordinary to the ordinary (the ground) where all persons act equally.

Aside the above discussions, it was evident base on the data for the study that quite a number of phrasal verbs do not have metaphorical meanings. They lack connection between their literal and idiomatic meanings. They are thus, purely idiomatic and have no metaphorical understanding. Few of such phrasal verbs were *gba mi* (lit. split in/inside), *je mi* (lit. remove inside), *da si* (lit. stand down). Taking as an example the phrasal verb *gba mi*, its literal meaning „to split in“ has no business doing with its idiomatic meaning which is „to succeed“. No element among the constituents of the phrasal verb provides a clue as to what the phrasal verb is. The discussion so far shows that the meaning of phrasal verbs are abstract. These abstract meanings of the phrasal verbs possibly come to light by means of metaphorical understanding. It is observed that whilst most of the phrasal verbs possessed metaphorical meaning, a few others do not.

4.5 The idiomaticity of the Dangme phrasal verb

A verb and adposition combination are not a phrasal verb construction until their meaning is said to have differed from the literal meaning resulting in a completely unique meaning. Sekyi-Baidoo (2008) intimates that phrasal verb“s idiomaticity refers to the relationship between the phrasal verb as a single semantic unit and the surface meaning that could be derived from it as a combination of verb and adposition item. This section looks at these meanings which are independent semantic units. Talking from Sekyi-Baidoo“s view point, we can intimate as well that, by idiomaticity, the meaning of the prasal verb as a single unit is far different from that of the combination of verb item and

adposition element as a syntactic unit composed of independent semantic entities each of which have a separate, non-dependent meanings outside the combination as a whole.

Palmer (1988:227) establishes that idiomaticity is a matter of degree. With this, he establishes two types of idioms: total and partial. This distinction remains the bedrock of this discussion on idiomaticity. The data collected for the study on Dangme phrasal verbs made it evident that the meaning of the phrasal verb totally deviates from the literal meaning, resulting in an idiomatic meaning. This is due to the fact that there is no connection between the aggregate meaning of the constituents and the meaning of the phrasal verbs which are regarded as a semantic single unit. They, that is, have a high degree of deviation. Thus, idiomaticity is all about a deviation from the surface meaning. Where none of the elements offers an indication as to what will be the meaning of the phrasal verb, such phrasal verbs are considered total idioms. A comparison between the two sets of meaning on the table below establish such deviation.

Table 2: Dangme phrasal verbs that are total idioms

Phrasal Verbs	Meaning as Constituent Element	Meaning as Phrasal Verb/idiomatic
bu tue	to hear ear	to listen
bu no	to cover on	to hide
bli no	to open on	to disclose/reveal
da si	to stand down	to get pregnant
fa he	to command surface	to protect
gba mi	to split in	to succeed

gba nya	to tear mouth	to disturb
gbe nya	to end mouth	to end
gbee mi	to fall inside	to dress gorgeously
hwɔ nɔ	to sleep on	to dodge
lɔ he	to lick surface	to pamper
kpe mi	to chew inside	to keep serious
nyɛ si	to press on	to loss
kpla mi	to hang inside	to deal with

Considering the above table, it is clear that the idiomatic meaning of the phrasal verbs completely deviate from that of the meanings as constituent element or the non-idiomatic meanings. For example, *lɔ he* literally means „to lick surface“. It means „to pamper“ as a phrasal verb or idiomatically. Ideally, there is no relationship between the total meaning of the constituent element and the meaning of the phrasal verb.

Others deviate but there is transparency between the constituents and the idiomatic meanings they denote. That is, with these kinds of idiomatic phrasal verbs, there exist some level of transparency, given a bit of trace from the constituent meaning. Phrasal verbs under this category are known as partial idioms. Some Dangme phrasal verbs can be described as partial idioms because, one of the constituents at least offers a clue as to what the meaning of the phrasal verb will be. Let us consider the examples in the table below:

Table 3: Phrasal verbs that are partial idioms

Phrasal Verbs	Meaning as Constituent Element	Meaning as Phrasal Verb/idiomatic
ba mi	to come in	to manifest
ba nɔ	to come on	to be proud
hyɛ nɔ	to see on	to cater for or to supervise
laa nɔ	to cover/hide on	to cover/hide
mia mi	to tight in	to tighten
naa nɔ	to step on	to give a hint
na nya	to see mouth	to understand
po mi	to cut in	to cancel
sɛ mi	to enter inside	to investigate
tɛsɛ nɔ	to tie on	to continue
wo nɔ	to lift on	to raise
ye nɔ	to eat on	to obey

The meaning relation in table (2) above clearly depicted that there is transparency between the non-idiomatic and the idiomatic meaning. Evidently, this transparency is observed to be associated with the verb stem which becomes the fulcrum for the meaning of the compound as a whole. With the adposition also given the semantic deviation or the idiomaticity. Let us consider the example *sɛ mi* „*enter inside*“ idiomatically means „to investigate“ the notion of entering or getting into something is established. This notion is related to the verb item *sɛ* „enter“: The addition of the adposition element *mi* „inside“ is what present a profound meaning which deviates from just „enter“ that is „investigate.“

The discussions above so far have created the separation between phrasal verbs that are total idioms and phrasal verbs that are partial idioms. A good number of the phrasal verbs were found to be total idioms whereas a few found as partial idioms. It was observed that in the phrasal verbs that are partial idioms, the transparency was related to the verbal element with the particle giving out the deviation in meaning. That is, it is always the verbal element that provides a signal as to what the meaning of the phrasal verb is.

4.5.2 Polysemy in the Dangme Phrasal verbs

Polysemy is the different related senses contained in a phrase or word. According to Sekyi-Baidoo (2006) phrasal verbs are considered polysemous when they relate one another physically and semantically, and when they collectively differ from the meaning derived from the aggregate meaning of their constituent words. Although the need for some deviation from the literal meaning in the establishment of phrasal verbs is what makes them idioms, there is also the need for a degree of relativity or transparency, between the meanings of the verb and the particle. This relativity between them is what produces their polysemy. In the situation whereby a high degree of idiomaticity exist between phrasal verbs and the meanings of their constituent elements, a polysemous relationship cannot hold between them. This section provides an account of the analysis made on Dangme polysemic phrasal verbs.

The phrasal verb *hyɛ nɔ* has the following idiomatic interpretations: „to follow a step or copy“, „to cater for,“ or „to supervise.“ These different meanings are all associated with the original, non-idiomatic meaning „to look on“ which portrays a picture of someone

searching or fixing the eye on an object in a topmost position of another thing. It expresses the idea of responsibility.

43. a. Tɛɛko hyɛ Ajo dodoe nɔ kɛ do.
 Tɛɛko PST look Ajo PROG-dance on AUX dance.
 „Tɛɛko emulated Ajo“’s wau of dancing.“
- b. Tɛɛko hyɛ bimwɔyɔ ɔ nɔ.
 Tɛɛko PST look baby DEF on.
 „Tɛɛko catered for the baby.“
- c. Tɛɛko hyɛ ni tsumi ɔ nɔ.
 Tɛɛko PST look work DEF on.
 „Tɛɛko supervised the work.“
- d. Tɛɛko hyɛ weto ni ɔ nɔ.
 Tɛɛko PST look inheritance DEF on.
 „Tɛɛko secured the inheritance.“

The first idiomatic meaning of *hyɛ ... nɔ*, „to follow a full step or copy“ in (43a), presents the image of two persons who were doing same thing but one of them emulated the fellow’s ways of doing things such as: work, style, behavior. Similarly, the phrasal verb in (43b) meaning „to cater for“, also paints a picture of someone who has been responsibility for providing the needs of another person.

Additionally, the meaning „to supervise“ as used in (43c) also depicts the image of someone who ensures that, something or an activity has been done correctly or that another person behaves correctly. Again, the meaning „to secure“ as used in (43d) captures the image of something been entrusted into the hands of someone in order for that thing to be kept safe and reliable and unlikely to be lost, harm or fail.

The discussion in example (43) has analyzed the polysemic uses of *hyɛ na* and it is clearly shown that prediction is the major focus in the realization of polysemy. We have realized that some amount of transparency between the various ideas of the phrasal verb and its original sense should be maintained. The polysemous relationship discussed will not exist when there is lack of such transparency between the meanings of the verb and the particle as used in the phrasal verb and as exists in non-idiomatic usage for phrasal verbs.

4.6 Interim summary

This chapter analyzed the semantics of phrasal verbs in Dangme in the Conceptual Metaphor Theory. It is realized that the Dangme phrasal verbs express literal, metaphorical, idiomatic and polysemic meanings. The data have shown that the metaphoric idea of postposition in phrasal verb alone in some cases provide meaning to the entire phrasal verb. Two kinds of idiomatic meanings of the Dangme phrasal verb were recognized; total and partial. The total has no degree of transparency between the literal meaning and the idiomatic one, but the partial idioms have a degree of transparency between the literal meaning and the idioms they express.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATION

5.0 Introduction

This concluding chapter offers a summary of the outcomes in section 5.1, presents the implications of the study in section 5.2, provides the conclusion in section 5.3, and section 5.4 makes recommendations for further studies.

5.1 Summary of Research

This study specifically identified and explored the syntax and semantics of Dangme phrasal verbs. The research sought to investigate whether phrasal verb exist also in Dangme as in the sister languages such as Ga, Akan, Nzema among others. According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980, p.3), our way of thinking and understanding of concepts is purely metaphorical. Consequently, the Conceptual Metaphor Theory was adopted in the analysis of meanings apportioned to the phrasal verbs for this work. Primarily, the researcher formulated the following three research questions to guide this study:

- What are the syntactic constituents of the Dangme phrasal verbs?
- What are some syntactic and semantic features of Dangme phrasal verbs?
- How is idiomaticity expressed in Dangme phrasal verbs?

These questions were tackled in the previous discussions in chapter four. With such questions in mind, the researcher adopted a descriptive approach to scrutinize and demonstrate how Dangme phrasal verbs manifest in discourse.

Sekyi-Baidoo (2006, 2008), Laryea (2015) and Ibrahim's (2020) assumption on Akan, Ga and Nzema phrasal verbs respectively shed light on the phrasal verbs in Dangme. In the subsequent paragraphs, it present the summary of the various chapters.

Chapter one served as the general introduction to the research. It presented the background of the people and the study, the statement of the problem and examined the purpose of the work. It also spelt out the main objectives of the studies, which were guided by the research questions. The research design, significance of the study, limitations and delimitations were provided for in this chapter. The final section defined how the study was organized.

In chapter two, related literature was reviewed. The first section presented an overview of definitions of phrasal verbs. This was followed by a review on some proposed tests for phrasal verbs by scholars. The chapter further provided a review on the syntactic properties of phrasal verbs in English, Akan, Nzema and Ga. The semantic characteristics of the phrasal verbs which included the metaphorical, polysemic and idiomatic meanings, were also reviewed. The last sections of the chapter provided an overview on the Conceptual metaphor theory to guide the analysis.

The focus of chapter three is on the methodology used for this research. It discussed the sources of data and the techniques used in data collection. The primary data for this study were generated from recordings, spontaneous speeches, through face-to-face discussions with consultants and native speaker's introspection. Others were collected from Dangme

books. The instruments used in the data collection process were also discussed. It finally focused on the data interpretation and analysis procedures.

Chapter four provided the syntactic analysis of the work. The chapter established the syntactic characteristics of the verb and the post verbal elements that form the constituent elements of the phrasal verb. The discussion on the structure and types of phrasal verb under the principles of transitivity followed it. The semantic analysis was also discussed in this chapter. It begun with the semantic features of the verb and post verbal elements of the phrasal verbs.

The data were analyzed using the Conceptual Metaphor Theory, which confirmed the semantic relations of phrasal verbs in Dangme such as idiomatic, polysemic and metaphorical meaning. In addition, the ideas of Sekyi-Baidoo (2002, 2006), Laryea (2015) and Ibrahim (2020) on Akan, Ga and Nzema phrasal verbs informed the analysis. These ideas together helped the researcher to shed light on the Dangme phrasal verbs and to bring some useful insights to bear on them.

5.2 Summary of findings

This subsection presents the major findings of the research with specific reference to the research questions. The analysis on the phrasal verbs in Dangme showed that, phrasal verbs constitute a single semantic unit that expresses idiomatic meaning. As a result, the Dangme phrasal verbs can be distinguished from other verbal compounds in the language such as serial verbs, inherent complement verbs, verb and noun compounds and also,

non-idiomatic verb and adposition combinations. Phrasal verbs in Dangme entails two different parts. These are the verbal element and the post-verbal element. The verbal element is mostly a lexical verb and can either be native or adopted whereas the post-verbal element is always a postposition.

Furthermore, the data reveals that not all verbs and adposition element are considered phrasal verbs in Dangme. Syntactically, the adposition need to form a unit with the verb making complementation optional. Semantically, their constituent meanings must deviate from literal meanings of the individual components.

With reference to the data, the Dangme phrasal verbs are of three syntactic types, namely intransitive, mono transitive and di-transitive. Nevertheless, there are yet another few, which can be used transitively and intransitively at the same time. This can therefore, be termed as transitive-intransitive phrasal verbs. The data further established that the intransitive phrasal verbs have a single argument, which is the subject. They do not accept objects, and their verbal and post-verbal elements that constituted the phrasal verb is inseparable.

It was evident from the study that the transitive phrasal verbs have two broad categories; mono and di-transitivity. Unlike the intransitive phrasal verbs in Dangme, the mono transitive phrasal verb has two arguments. It takes on a subject and a single object, mostly a nominal or an entire clause. The object, invariably, occurs between the verbal and post-verbal element, thereby separating the elements from each other. The Dangme

mono transitive phrasal verb again showed two forms, the reflexive and reciprocal phrasal verbs. Some phrasal verbs can be used both transitively and intransitively. The ditransitive phrasal verbs on the other hand, accepts two objects. So, this phrasal verbs portray a three-person relationship between the subject, the direct object and the indirect object. These two objects usually precede the post-verbal element, however, they follow the main verbal element.

Semantically, by employing the Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT), it was brought to light that notwithstanding their literal interpretations, the Dangme phrasal verbs have additional meanings. The study revealed that metaphor certainly triggers the meaning of most Dangme phrasal verbs. Thus, understanding the metaphors they use, enhances their interpretations and retention as well. Yet, it was further detected that not all meanings of phrasal verbs have a link with their underlining interpretation.

Other meanings such as idiomatic and polysemy were discovered. Total and partial meanings were unearthed as kinds of the idiomatic meanings of the Dangme phrasal verbs. The total has no trace of transparency between the literal meaning and the idiomatic one, whereas the partial idioms have a degree of transparency between the literal meaning and the idioms they convey. The study also confirmed that a single phrasal verb can have two or more meanings and all these meanings are metaphorically linked with each other resulting in a polysemic relation.

5.3 Conclusions

This thesis evaluated the constituent elements that form the phrasal verb in the grammar of Dangme. In the process, it was established that the Dangme phrasal verb has two compositional elements. These are a verb and a postposition as in other Ghanaian languages such as Akan, Nzema and Ga. It was further demonstrated that phrasal verbs can be intransitive, transitive, ditransitive and sometimes transitive-intransitive. The data revealed through the use of Conceptual Metaphor Theory that Dangme phrasal verbs have semantic properties such as the expression of literal, metaphorical, idiomatic and polysemic meaning.

5.4 Recommendation

This study concentrated mainly on phrasal verbs in Dangme by investigating their syntactic and semantic features using the Conceptual Metaphor Theory. Although the work attempted an thorough discussion of the topic, not all areas could be covered. I therefore, suggested such areas as desirable for research in the future.

I recommend a detailed study into the similarities and differences between the syntactic and semantic characteristics of the phrasal verbs of the Ghanaian languages.

Secondly, an empirical study focusing on specific data of phrasal verb such as the structural account of the Dangme phrasal verb should be rewarding and present much interesting findings.

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APPENDIX A

List of Dangme Phrasal Verbs and their interpretations

Phrasal verb	Literal meaning	Interpretation/usage
<i>ba mi</i>	come in/inside	„to manifest, to be angry, to intervene“
<i>ba nɔ</i>	come on	„to be in fashion, to be arrogant, to come off“
<i>ba si</i>	come down	„to reduce (price/quantity/weight), to humble, to humiliate, to bend down“
<i>bu nɔ</i>	cover on	„to cover, to hide, to follow up“
<i>bu si</i>	nurse down	„to sleep, to lie face down“
<i>bu tue</i>	nurse edge	„to listen, to obey, to expect“
<i>da he</i>	stand surface	„to stand beside, to be sweet, to be suitable for“
<i>da mi</i>	stand in/inside	„to intercede, to represent, to guarantee“
<i>da nɔ</i>	stand on	„to step on, to capitalize, to control“
<i>da se</i>	stand back	„to support, to be behind“
<i>da si</i>	stand down	„to stand, to stop, to conceive“
<i>da nya</i>	stand mouth	„to accept responsibility of, to lead“
<i>ma nya</i>	close mouth	„to be silent, to die“
<i>bɛ mi</i>	to sweep inside	„to empty“
<i>bu he</i>	to respect surface	„to secure/protect“
<i>bu nya</i>	respect mouth	„to calculate/count“
<i>fa he</i>	to half surface	„to defend“
<i>fi nɔ</i>	to suffer on	„to accept“
<i>fi nya</i>	to tie mouth	„to fast“

<i>fua nɔ</i>	to hug on	„to agree“
<i>gu se</i>	to pass back	„to cheat on“
<i>fi si</i>	to suffer down	„to endure“
<i>fi se</i>	to suffer back	„to support“
<i>gba mi</i>	to split	„to separate/ so succeed“
<i>gbla mi</i>	to pull inside	„to prolong“
<i>gbe nya</i>	to kill mouth	„to finish/get fed up“
<i>gbee si</i>	to fall down	„to cause down fall“
<i>ha si</i>	to scramble down	„to spread/ impatient“
<i>hi nya</i>	to sit mouth	„to quarrel“
<i>he si</i>	to buy down	„to become popular“
<i>he ye</i>	to buy eat	„to believe“
<i>hye mi</i>	to look inside	„to judge“
<i>hiɔ sisi</i>	to find under	„to search for root cause“
<i>hye nɔ</i>	to see on	„to supervise /cater for“
<i>je mi</i>	to leave in	„to die/ dodge“
<i>je sisi</i>	to leave under	„to begin“
<i>je se</i>	to leave back	„to stop supporting“
<i>je nya</i>	to remove mouth	„to respond/reply“
<i>hye hɛmi</i>	to look face inside	„to insult/discriminate /expect“
<i>kpa si</i>	to stop down	„to observe/realise“
<i>kpe se</i>	to sow back	„to be late“
<i>kple si</i>	to climb down	„to deliver/ to arrive“

<i>kplɛɛ nɔ</i>	to respond on	„to agree“
<i>ma nya</i>	to close mouth	„to keep silent/die“
<i>mu si</i>	to draw down	„to dodge“
<i>mia mi</i>	to tight inside	„to intensify“
<i>muɔ nya</i>	to hole mouth	„to conclude“
<i>na nya</i>	to see mouth	„to understand“
<i>nu sisi</i>	to hear under	„to understand“
<i>nyɛ nɔ</i>	to press on	„to coarse /hide“
<i>nga mi</i>	to bush in	„to squeeze“
<i>ngmɛ nɔ</i>	to pour on	„to add extra“
<i>po sisi</i>	to cut under	„to end“
<i>po nya</i>	to cut mouth	„to report/help“
<i>po se</i>	to cut back	„to stop/investigate“
<i>po hɛ</i>	to cut surface	„to look around“
<i>pue nɔ</i>	to pour on	„to add up/set off“
<i>pue si</i>	to pour down	„to be in abundant“
<i>sa si</i>	to pull down	„to delay/not sell fast“
<i>sa si</i>	to grind down	„to get finish/dock“
<i>se mi</i>	to enter inside	„to investigate/get into“
<i>te si</i>	to get down	„to wake up“
<i>to sisi</i>	to arrange under	„to set up“
<i>tsɔ nya</i>	to send mouth	„to add up“
<i>tsɔɔ nya</i>	to teach mouth	„to explain/tell the price“

<i>wo sisi</i>	to wear under	„to get sack/drink alcohol“
<i>wo si</i>	to wear down	„to promise/warn“
<i>ye nɔ</i>	to eat on	„to fulfill/obey/rule /overcome“
<i>ye nya</i>	to eat mouth	„to bargain“



APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW GUIDE

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

GA-DANGME DEPARTMENT

The researcher is a Ghanaian Language student (Dangme). The questions for the interview form part of his research on the topic „The Syntax and Semantics of Dangme Phrasal verbs“. He would be grateful if you would answer the questions below. All responses will be held confidentially.

1. The name of the consultant.
2. The consultant's age.
3. Where the consultant comes from.
4. The dialect of the consultant
5. Educational background and occupation
6. Consultant familiarity with phrasal verbs
7. What it means if he/she is familiar with it.
8. If not researcher will explain situation for the consultant.
9. Researcher will proceed to main questions on phrasal verbs. Below will be few of the questions that will be asked:
 - a. If you meet an expression like *fi nya* „tie mouth“ what meanings can you associate with it?
 - b. Aside these expressions discussed, is there any such expressions that you have in mind which has not been mentioned?

APPENDIX C

List of informants and their contributions

Name	Sex	Age 'as 2020'	of Town	Occupation	Dialect	Contribution
Reubben Abortsi	Male	53	Ada-Foah	Tutor	Ada	Authenticity/ grammaticality check
Elias Numo Teye	Male	62	Ada-Foah	Tutor	Ada	Authenticity/ grammaticality check
Janet Alimo	Female	70	Ada-Foah	Trader	Ada	Authenticity check
Ransford Sottie	Male	46	Ada-Foah	Fisherman	Ada	Authenticity check
Frank Zuta	Male	47	Somanya	Farmer	Se/Shai	Authenticity check
Daniel Angmor	Male	47	Dawatrim	Teacher	Krobo	Authenticity/ grammatical check
Emmanuel Jabatey	Male	54	Dawatrim	Farmer	Krobo	Authenticity check
Eva Tetteh	Female	48	Dawatrim	Trader	Krobo	Authenticity check

