English Learners Realization of the Inter-changeability of Multi-words and Single-word Verbs

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إدراك متعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية للتبادلية بين الأفعال متعددة الكلمات والأفعال ذات الكلمة الواحدة

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Abstract

This paper focuses on a particular class of verbs known as multi-word verbs, group verb or verb combinations. Language experts are quite interested in this category, which represents a large component of the English vocabulary. Multi-word verbs are thought to be more challenging to learn and remember than single-word verbs, especially when learning a foreign language. To this end, the primary objective of the current study is to ascertain whether Iraqi EFL students are able to recognize and replace multi word verbs with their equivalent single word verbs. 80 students in the English department of an Iraqi university were tested to gather the data that statistically treated.

Keywords: Multi-word verbs, Realization, Interchangeability, single word verbs.

Introduction

There is broad consensus among linguists that the tremendous production, richness, and adaptability of the English language are among its most notable characteristics. Multi-word verbs, also known as "verb combinations" or "group verbs" by certain writers, are among the crucial aspects that support such productivity and richness. The term "multi-word verb" will be used in this study to refer to "a unit which behaves to some extent semantically and syntactically as a single verb" (Quirk et al., 1985: 1150). A verb proper and one or more words—which could be prepositions, adverbial particles, or both—make up this unit. These verbs are recognized by that they convey a general meaning that is distinct from the specific meanings of each of its constituents.

All registers of the English language have been shown to use multi-word verbs, but overall, academic writing tends to use them less frequently than conversation (e.g., Siyanova & Schmitt, 2007; Biber et al.,1999). Today, the situation is completely different; as evidenced by the recent publication of new works, academic writing is increasingly integrating the usage of MWVs.

The ability to recognize and understand multi-word verbs is fundamental for all English language learners since they are an essential component of the language and are necessary for the accurate comprehension of texts. It may be possible to misread a text if they are not recognized as a unit with their own meaning (Blanco, 2021:153).

For EFL students, multi-word verbs can be challenging, in part because there are so many of them. According to Sinclair (2002), there are "...over 3,000 combinations of verbs with adverbs or prepositions [generating] over 5,500 different meanings" in everyday modern English. Due to the seemingly random way that the verb and particle are combined, multi-wordverbs can be difficult for learners to

understand. Learners frequently encounter a bewildering array of short, widespread verbs and high frequency prepositions, such as look after, find out, check in, put out, take off, take after, get on, run in, pass off,, etc (Brown, 2007: 82).

1. The Nature of Multi-word verbs

Multi-word expressions can be described as "lexical entities that consist of more than one 'word' and have some type of unitary semantic or pragmatic role " in general (Moon 2015: 120 as cited in Bauer 2019). Particularly, multi word verbs (MWVs) are combinations of an averb with one or more extra words, often known as phrasal verbs or prepositional verbs. They are known as multi-word verbs because they function somewhat like a single verb. The most typical forms of multi-word verbs have a verb followed by one or more particles, which are typically an adverb or preposition such after, in, on, off, and out (Brown, 2007: 82).

MWVs are typically defined as verb combinations that include a lexical verb, a particle or/and preposition, and are syntactically and semantically one unit with the verb (Biber et al., 1999; Quirk et al., 1985). In other words, semantically, the meanings of those combinations might not be derived from the specific meanings of the components for example, *look up to* = to admire/respect, *look up* = to find information in a reference material; *look at* =turn your eyes toward something.

In terms of syntax many of the multiword verb combinations can be substituted by lexical verbs with just one word in their place confirming their identity as a single unit. For instance, He *looked up to* his supervisor for his determination =He *respected* his supervisore for his determination).

MWVs are not always defined the same way. Indeed, as stated by Gardner and Davies (2007), "linguists and grammarians grapple with intricacies of MWVs meanings.". This discrepancy in definitions is due, in part, to the fact that some

linguists consider MWVs to be the combination of a verb and a preposition or an adverbial particle, while others only consider phrasal verbs to be verbs followed by an adverbial particle. But phrasal verbs have traditionally been believed to be made up of a verb and an adverbial particle (Darwin & Gray, 1999; Sawyer, 2000).

The semantic and syntactic properties of the three MWV subcategories can best be characterized in terms of how they differ from free combinations as well as from one another, according to Quirk et al. (1985) and Biber et al. (1999). (i.e. verbs followed by prepositional phrases or prepositions). This is primarily due to the difficulty in distinguishing between the subcategories in many instances. They should therefore be compared on a scale where "some verbs, or uses of verbs, are relatively free and others relatively fixed" rather than presuming that they are fundamentally different from one another (Biber at al., 1999:403). In this regard, one of the primary justifications of limiting the comparisons of multi-word verbs to comparisons with free combinations rather than comparisons with lexical verbs generally is because free combinations create "three binary contrasts, expressed in the formula: verb + direct object + adverb + preposition" with phrasal, prepositional, and phrasal-prepositional verbs. Free combinations differ from multi-word verb formulations in terms of meaning but are structurally "symmetrical" to them, thus comparisons and analyses of their differences are pertinent and focused (Zareva, 2016:85).

The details of each subcategory of multi-word verb combinations will be briefly discussed in the sections that follow, both in respect to one another and to free combinations, in an effort to illustrate the contrasts and some of the more nuanced differences between them.

2. Multi-word verbs categories

In the literature, a wide range of multi-word verb varieties have been discussed. Multiple linguists have made an effort to classify multiword verbs, which has led to a variety of classifications (Özen, 2021: 193). Despite the fact that these classifications treated MWVs in different ways, they all agree that there are three main subcategories of MWVs that consist of idiomatic units and behave like single verbs.

2.1 Phrasal verbs (PhV)

Phrasal verbs, in the words of Claridge (2000:67), are "relatively unified combinations of a verb and a particle, best represented as an adverb, but not as a preposition." The MWV that have the form Verb(V) + Adverbial Particle(aP) are referred to as Phrasal Verbs (PhV) (Biber et al., 1999: 403) Each of these adverbial particles (for example, out, in, up, and down) has a fundamental spatial or contextual meaning. In terms of semantics, V + aP pairings form a "single semantic unit," which means that the combination's meaning cannot typically be inferred from either of the two elements separately (Duková et al., 2009: 51). For instance, the phrasal verb "make up" consists of the verb "make" and the adverbial particle "up," which together have the meanings "invent," "reconcile," "constitute," and "compensate." This single semantic MWV unit can be identified by the frequent presence of a single lexical word synonym. For the purpose of express a separate, coherent with the verb's meaning, the word "up" in this instance is stripped of its literal spatial connotation. That is not to suggest that a phrasal verb's constituent parts must be stripped of their literal meaning in order for it to be recognized as such. For example, in the phrasal verbs, "*go out*" (= leave),"*sit down*" (=sit) and "*come in*" (=enter), both elements maintain their original meanings, and the

meaning of the entire verbal combination is literal. As a result, phrasal verbs can display various levels of compositionality, or the degree to which "the meaning of a complex utterance is totally controlled by its structure and the meanings of its constituents" (Szabo, 2020).

Phrasal verbs can be both transitive and intransitive in terms of syntax (for example, *come on*, *break down*, *carry out*, *take out*, etc.) They are commonly employed in various contexts (Biber et al., 1999). In contrast to free combinations, which permit such insertions between the preposition and the verb, for example

(1) He went straight in.

The intransitive ones are typically verbs of activity (Biber, Conrad, & Leech, 2002: 128), and it is frequently impossible to enclose an intensifying adverb between a particle and a lexical verb e.g.,

(2) *What's going straight on there?

When used in the transitive phrasal verb pattern, the adverbial particle may come before or after the noun phrase (NP), as in the question:

(3) Did you *pick up* the kids from school?

Even so, not all phrasal verbs permit this particle movement. Unfortunately, there isn't just one way to tell the difference between phrasal verbs and free combinations, especially when a combination can signify both idiomatic and non-idiomatic meaning. In these cases, the adverbial intensifier insertion test, which assesses whether it is possible to insert an intensifying adverb between the verb and the particle, will choose the non-idiomatic free combination whereas the phrasal verb will not allow, for example:

(4) Linda brought the kids right *up.*

(5) *As a single mother, Linda brought right up her kids alone.

2.2 Prepositional verbs (PV)

Prepositional verbs (PrV), another category of multi-word verbs, are described as "a lexical verb followed by a preposition with which it is semantically and/or syntactically connected" e.g. *Look at these pictures* (Quirk et. al., 1985: 1155 and Biber et al., 1999: 413-14). Both components work together to make a single sentence, just like phrasal verbs do. Examples of how the verb proper and the preposition are cohesive include the stranded position of the preposition when the sentence is switched to the passive voice and the capacity to combine a prepositional verb with another verb such that they share the same direct object. (Claridge, 2000:70).

For example:

(6) You can *rely on* her. / She can be *relied on*. / You can trust and *rely on* her.

(7) He *looks after* patients. / Patients are *looked after*. / He helps *and look after* patients.

Prepositional verbs are verbs that are followed by prepositions, and the order is frequently not entirely idiomatic (e.g., *think about*, *talk to*, *deal with*). In other words, there is a fairly firm relationship between the verb and the preposition, and both words in the combination may retain their literal meaning to differing degrees. There are two distinct categories of prepositional verbs:

Type I: verb + preposition + (NP), where the NP is regarded as the preposition's complement (object) e.g:

(8) They *asked about* that earlier.

Type II structures: verb + object + prepositional phrase (PP) in which the preposition is "chosen by reason of the verb, rather than by an independent semantic decision," e.g:

(9) Her critics *accused* her *of* negligence.

(Quirk et al., 1985: 1159)

In these combinations, a preposition is placed after a verb in its plainly prepositional sense, such as *come across, look at talk about, refer to, believe in*, etc. This category of verbs is known as "fused" or "nonseparable phrasal verbs" according to McArthur (1989:42), because "the preposition has, as it were, been "taken" from its own phrase and "fused" with the verb in a new, unique idiomatic relationship": e.g:

(10) [*She came*] [*across the street*] vs. [*He came across*] [*an old friend*]

The preposition's immediate object is the noun phrase that follows it (Quirk et al 1985: 1155). Consequently, all prepositional verbs are regarded as transitive. It is impossible to separate the parts of prepositional verbs. This implies that we are unable to position the direct object in between the two components (Özen, 2021:220). Prepositions that are part of prepositional verbs also share a word with adverbial particles. For instance, "on" functions as both a preposition in the prepositional verb "*rely on*" and an adverbial particle in the phrasal verb "*hold on*." Similarly, the multi-word verb "*turn on*" can signify different things depending on whether it is employed as a prepositional verb or a phrasal verb e.g:

(11) *Turn on* your television   or

(12) She *turned on* her accomplice.

This can occasionally result in ambiguity. For instance,

(13) She *turned on* her supporters.

as highlighted by Quirk et al. (1985:1157), may imply "She excited them," in which case "*turned on*" would be a phrasal verb, or "She attacked them," if "*turned on*" is deemed a prepositional verb.

It is worth mention that prepositional verbs and phrasal verbs are sometimes difficult to differentiate from one another because of the previously mentioned homonymy between adverbial particles and prepositions. It should be noted that the term "phrasal verb" has frequently been used to refer to a variety of MWVs types, including prepositional and phrasal prepositional verbs (Blanco, 2021:160-161).

2.3. Phrasal prepositional verbs (PhPV)

Phrasal prepositional verbs are the third kind of multi-word verbs. These verbs "contain, in addition to the verb, both an adverb and a preposition as particles," as their name suggests (Quirk et al., 1985: 1160). The verb proper, the adverbial particle, and the preposition, which are always present in that order, are three component that work together to form a syntactic and semantic unit that has its own meaning.. For example

(14) She don't have to *take* it *out on* you

Or

(15) He was really *looking forward to* his study abroad program.

The possibility of a phrasal-prepositional composition being paraphrased with a single verb is a clue that they are idiomatic e.g.

(16) He promised to *look in on* (= to visit) her and see if she's feeling any better.

The prepositional and phrasal prepositional verbs, two of the three subcategories of multi-word verbs discussed above, have received significantly less attention in the research literature than phrasal verbs, despite the fact that prepositional verbs are much more common in natural language than phrasal verbs. Prepositional verbs have a higher level of semantic transparency than phrasal verbs, and it is thought that this higher level of semantic transparency makes it easier to distinguish them from context (Zareva,2016:86).

Phrasal prepositional verbs collection of multi-word verbs is referred to by Claridge (2000) as the "offspring" of prepositional verbs and phrasal verbs. Although the two types above are rather prevalent in English, phrasal-prepositional verbs are relatively uncommon and are typically used for physical tasks, according to Biber et al. (1999: 424).

In relation to the syntactic features of phrasal-prepositional verbs, since they invariably terminate in prepositions and are consequently followed by a direct object,are transitive. In Claridge's (2000) classification of transitive lexical units. When the object of a phrasal-prepositional verb appears after the preposition, it can only do so there. For example

(17) They all *looked up to* him   versus

(18) *They all *looked* him *up to*

or

(19) *They all *looked up* him *to*.

In some cases, the direct object is positioned before the particle, as in a suntencse suh as:

(20)They *filled* her *in on* the latest developments.

And in some circumstances, where the direct object is a noun or a brief noun phrase, it can come after the particle, for example.

(21) They *filled in* their friends *on the latest developments*

However, some PhPVs can accept both a a prepositional object and a direct object after the verb(Cowie & Mackin 1993: lvi).

The Semantics of Multi-word verbs

Concerning the semantic identity of the MWVs (Brown, 2007:83). divide the meanings of MWVs into three groups, the first of which is the **literal MWVs**. This category comprises of MWVs whose meanings are entirely apparent and fully

compositional. *Sit down, stand up, put out*, *throw away, hand in and pass through* are a few instances of real MWVs. These verbs are not particularly challenging learners to understand and produce. The **Semi-literal MWVs** make up the second group. Semi-literal MWVs have a meaning that is neither entirely idiomatic nor entirely obvious. With these verbs, the verb's meaning is maintained, but the particle adds its own unique meaning. For example, the verbs *carry on, fight on,* and *sail on,* have the same basic meaning as the particle *on*, which is "continuing with something." The verbs in this category consequently have "consistent aspectual meaning" that is contributed by certain particles (Celce-Murciaetal., 1999:452). **Non-literal MWVs** comprise the third group. To put it simply, a non-literal MWV's meaning is not the sum of its two (or three) parts. As in the following example:

(22.) They have *run out of* money.

 Nobody is going outside or running. Further complicating matters is the fact that the seeming antonym *run in* has one wholly unrelated meaning, i.e., "to be arrested by the police" (Side,1990:86).

The fact that multi-word verbs can have literal, semi-literal, or non-literal meanings presents a significant barrier for learners. Additionally, some MWVs include various meanings, such as.

(23) Henry *got on* the train.

(24) Tom and Jerry don't *get on* very well.   and

(25) Let Me *get on* with my job!

As is the case in this instance, there is frequently no obvious relationship between the numerous meanings, so students must master each distinct meaning as a unique entity. However, there are situations when a MWV's basic meaning and its additional meanings are obviously related. This is thus because some metaphors that have a connection to a the verb literal or basic meaning provide the basis for some other interpretations. For instance,

(26) They *blew up* thirty balloons for the party.

(27) The terrorists *blew up* the schools.

(28) The boss *blew up* when she arrived 40 minutes late form the meeting. Students can therefore benefit from being aware of the possibility of a connection between its basic and metaphorical senses when seeking to determine the meanings of a non-literal MWV. Additionally, students can attempt using their understanding of the root verb as well as the context to figure out the meanings of certain MWVs since they have non-literal meaning only (Brown, 2007:96).

4. Methodology

4.1 Participants

The current study included eighty fourth-year Iraqi English majors enrolled in the University of Misan's College of Education for the academic year 2021–2022

4.2 The Test

To ascertain if participants are aware of the interchangeability of multi-word verbs and single-word verbs, the researcher created a multiple choice question test. The test consists of thirty items divided into two question. Each question inchude fifteen items.In both question Points 1-5 concern the PHRASAL PREPOSITIONAL VERBS. Points 6-10 deal with PHRASAL VERBS. And finally, points 11-15 pertain to PREPOSITIONAL VERBS. The first question include a number of sentences each sentence contain a MWV the participants were asked to choose the correct replacment among the four single word verbs that have been included in the options while the second question asks for the reverse.

The test was given to an expert jury to be evaluated for the test items' suitability for the intended purpose in order to guarantee the test's face and content validity. In order to interpret the test, add, remove, or modify the things, the jury was requested. Given that none of the test items that were included were removed, the jury members agreed that they were appropriate.

4.3 Data Analysis

In an endeavor to accomplish the study's goal of establishing whether the students can interchange MWVs with their equivalent SWVs, several descriptive metrics, including mean, standard deviation, and variance were used, along with the Chi-square test. Tavakoli (2013: 59) states that the Chi-square test compares actual or observed frequencies with expected frequencies in a sample of data to see if the two frequencies differ statistically. Additionally, it is used to look into the relationships between the variables, which gives the researcher knowledge about how the variables could affect one another (Paltridge & Phakiti, 2015:155). As a result, it may be concluded that Chi-square is the most appropriate data analysis tool for the current study because it seeks to determine wether Iraqi EFL learners are able substitute MWVs with their equavilent SWVs.

5. Results and Discussion

In an effort to assess students' realization of the interchangeability between MWVs and their equivalent of SWVs, the following outcome was revealed by the statistical analysis of the test data of the students, as shown in the tables below:

Table (1) Descriptive Measures

Descriptive Statistics				
MWVs	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Age	80	22.6250	2.42025	5.858
PhPV 1	80	2.8000	2.49759	6.238
PhV 1	80	5.2500	2.81722	7.937
PV 1	80	2.4000	2.25916	5.104
PhPV 2	80	2.7250	2.25565	5.088
PhV 2	80	3.3500	2.08126	4.332
PV 2	80	3.6250	2.38335	5.680
PhPV(1+2)	80	5.5250	3.47496	12.075
PhV(1+2)	80	8.6000	3.79740	14.420
PV(1+2)	80	6.0250	3.43465	11.797
Valid N (listwise)	80			
1=refers Question1		2=refers to		Question2

Table (1) displays the descriptive statistics for the students' responses, including mean, standard deviation, and variance, as well as the mean age of the participants. A brief examination of the mean values of the three types of MWVs reveals that Iraqi EFL learners demonstrated acceptable performance in interchange MWVs with SWVs and vise versa. This may be due to the options that included within the test which help them to select one verb among the group and encourage the discrimination rather than production. Although their level of performance in interchange for the three types of MWVs still different since the mean value is not even. The data analysis shows that the students greatest challeng manifested in the type of Phrasal Verbs with standard deviation equells to (3.79) followed by the Phrasal prepositional verbs(3.47) while the prepositiona verbs seems to be less difficult with statndard deviation estimated with(3.43).This can be due to the existence of the preposition in both of these two types which increase their compositional transpeancy of the meaning unlike the phrasal vebs which may be semantically less tansperant.

Table (2) Chi-Square Tests of the learners' sex

| Chi-Square Tests (Sex)			
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square (PhPV)	13.421a	8	0.098
Pearson Chi-Square (PhV)	10.767a	10	0.376
Pearson Chi-Square (PV)	12.005a	8	0.151
N of Valid Cases	80		

The Chi-square test of the relationship between participant scores and gender is shown in table (2). By comparing the results of the standard test with the P-value, we can see that there is no correlation between learners' sex and their ability to interchange the MWVs with SWVs verbs that have the same meaning. (P-value > α =0.05).
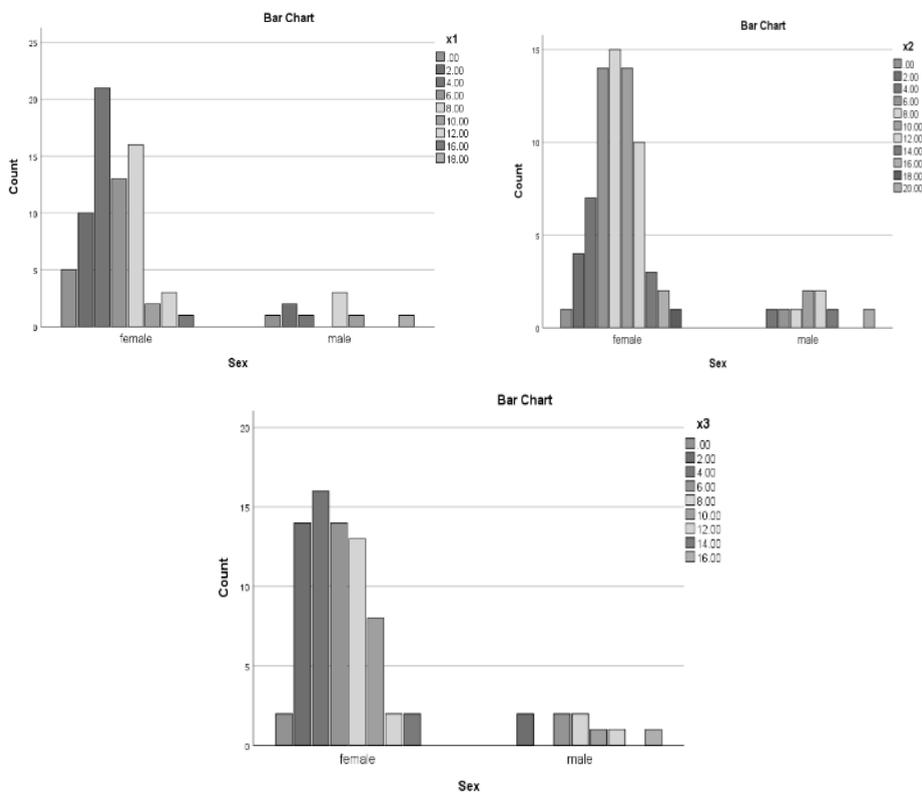
Table (3) Chi-Square Tests of the learners' age

Chi-Square Tests (Age)			
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square (PhPV)	33.023a	56	0.994
Pearson Chi-Square (PhV)	77.279a	70	0.258
Pearson Chi-Square(PV)	56.843a	56	0.443
N of Valid Cases	80		

Table (3) represents the chi-square value of the relationship between the test questions and the age of the students which indicate the existence of a relationship between the answers of the learners and their ages since the value of the chi-square test is higher than the chi-square table. As shown in the diagrams below the younger the learners were the more verbs that they can interchange correctly, this may be an indicator that connect the meaning between MWVs and their equivalent of single verbs is may be sometimes subjected to memorization.
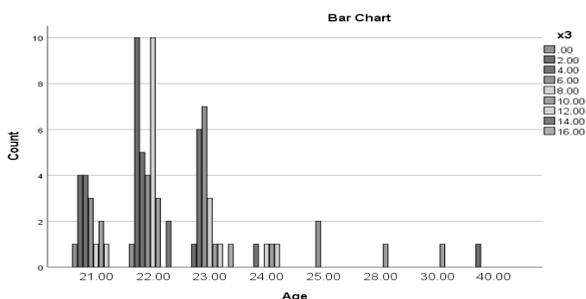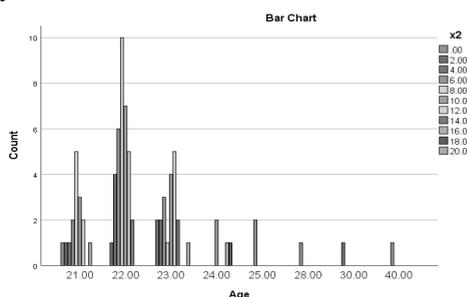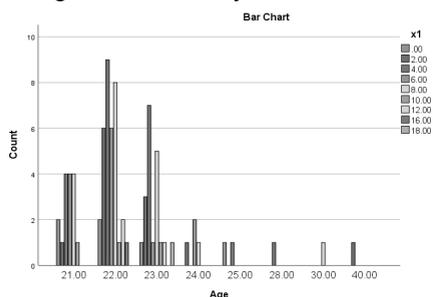
6. Coclusions

Based on the findings of the study, it shows that the Iraqi learners of English are able to interchange MWVs with their equivalents of SWVs even though their ability is not equal within the three types of MWVs. They found according to the statistical treatment of the test result the prepositional verbs and the phrasal prepositional verbs as easier to recognize and interchange rather than the phrasal verbs. Moreover the result showed that the younger learners are better than the older ones in recognize the equivalent meaning to substitute while the gender of the learners have nothing to do with their ability to recognize the meaning and substitute the verbs. Since this paper has focused only on the part of the recognition, any further research which focuses on the production of MWVs will enables better understanding of the ability and awareness of EFL in dealing with this important topic.

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Appendix (1)The Test

Q1/ Replace the underlined multi-word verbs with a single verb that carries the most similar meaning.

1. I look up to the hard-working executive.

   (a) search   (b) respect   (c) see   (d) need

2. I **look forward to** meeting you in person.

   (a) wait   (b) need   (c) anticipate   (d) search

3. I can only **put up with** so much misbehavior.

   (a) tolerate   (b) agree   (c) control   (d) change

4. The babysitter promised she would **look out for** the kids.

   (a) Watch   (b) visit   (c) see   (d) protect

5. Ms. Brown always **sits in for** Mr. Jones at the meeting.

   (a) represents   (b) quotes   (c) substitutes   (d) invites

6. Jack **goes over** his answers after each exam he takes.

   (a) reviews   (b) changes   (c) copies   (d) forgets

7. **Try out** this new vacuum cleaner on your carpet.

   (a) remove   (b) use   (c) test   (d) add

8. Walking on the shore, I **came across** a message in a bottle.

   (a) saw   (b) found   (c) imagined   (d) remembered

9. Steven **called off** the picnic after he got sick.

   (a) canceled   (b) postponed   (c) forgot   (d) schedule

10. We **set up** a club devoted to studying Shakespeare.

    (a) designed   (b) decorated   (c) organized   (d) donated

11. I just **came by** to say hello.

    (a) visit   (b) arrived   (c) travelled   (d) called

12. Never **break into** the meeting, or you'll be in a trouble !

    a) enter   (b) interrupt   (c) speak   (d) leave

13. The chief promised he'd **look into** the charges of bribery.

    (a) check   (b) remove   (c) investigate   (d) add

14. After hours of fighting, the boxer finally **gave in.**

    (a) conceded   (b) won   (c) lost   (d) left

15. The students were asked to **hand in** their homework

    (a) receive   (b) write   (c) draw   (d) submit

Q2/ Replace the underlined single verbs with the multi-word verbs that carries the most similar meaning.

1. Ken's just chatting to a friend. He'll **join** us in a minute.

    (a) catch up with (b) look down on (c) look out for (d)sit in for

2. All the groceries **cost** $50.00

    (a) went over to (b) looked over (c) added up to (d) put up with

3. He **likes** windsurfing.

    (a) comes across (b) fills in (c) hangs out with (d) goes in for

4. We have **suffered** a lot of criticism.

    (a) Kept up with (b) came in for (c) handed in to (d) looked down for

5. We **encounter** many difficulties.

    (a) run up against (b) get rid of (c) add up to (d) look out for

6. We need to **solve** the problem

    (a) fin out (b) sort out (c) figure out (d) come across

7. He **postponed** the meeting until he started feeling better.

    (a) kept up (b) looked over (c) turned down (d) put off

8. You should **consider** your decision again.

   (a) think over (b) fin out (c) drop in (d) stand by

9. Joe surprised us all by **refusing** the promotion.

   (a) throwing away (b) putting off (c) turning down (d) spliting up

10. Will we ever **discover** the meaning of life?

    (a) calm down (b) go over (c) pack (d) find out

11. My aunt Sally **visited** the museum on her way home.

    (a) gave in (b) dropped by (c) stood by (d) handed in

12. I saw them **ran over** the bridge.

    (a) operate (b) contest (c) repair (d) cross

13. He   **continued** the puzzle until it was done.

    (a) kept to (b) filled in (c) gave in (d) filled out

14. Could you **supervise** the employees while I make a phone call?

    (a) stand by (b) look into (c) look after (d) look over

15. She spends a long time **searching** for her ring.

    (a) keeping up (b) looking for (c) looking out for (d) looking after

إدراك متعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية للتبادلية
بين الأفعال متعددة الكلمات والأفعال ذات الكلمة الواحدة

المستخلص

تركز هذه الورقة البحثية على فئة محددة من الأفعال المعروفة باسم الأفعال متعددة الكلمات أو أفعال المجموعة. تعتبر هذه الفئة جزءًا مهمًا من المعجم الإنجليزي وتتميز باهتمام كبيرة بين اللغويين. يُعتقد أن الأفعال متعددة الكلمات أكثر صعوبة في التعلم والتذكر من الأفعال المكونة من كلمة واحدة ، خاصة عند تعلم لغة أجنبية. ولهذه الغاية ، فإن الهدف الأساسي من الدراسة الحالية هو التأكد مما إذا كان الطلبة العراقيين من متعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية قادرين على التعرف على الافعال متعددة الكلمات واستبدالها بأفعال الكلمة الواحدة المكافئة. تم اختبار 80 طالبًا في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية بجامعة عراقية لجمع البيانات التي تم معالجتها احصائيا.

الكلمات المفتاحية: الأفعال متعددة الكلمات، الإدراك، التبادلية، الأفعال أحادية الكلمة.