Cognitive Theories of Meaning Construction in Verb Particles in English

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Abstract—**Cognitive linguistics argues that meaning construction involves a speaker's interpretation or conceptualization of an experience for the purpose of linguistic communication. This interpretation is not a simple one-to-one correspondence between words and their meanings, but rather a complex process that takes into account various cognitive mechanisms or abilities such as metaphor, metonymy, schematization, categorization, polysemy, and others. Each of these operations contributes in some way to meaning construction. The aim of this study is to examine verb particles with various cognitive mechanisms that are mentioned above. We can gain a deeper understanding of how verb particles are used to communicate our experiences and ideas. The data is taken from books, journals, and articles. The study concludes that cognitive abilities and mechanisms play a vital role in constructing meaning with the use of verb particles in our daily activities. This is largely influenced by our experiences and encyclopedic background.**

Keywords: brain, Cognitive theory, verb particle, encyclopaedic view, experiential view.

1. Introduction

Cognitive linguistics emphasizes the importance of meaning and word meanings (semantics) in language, as well as the construction of meaning as a mental phenomenon.

2. Verb Particles

Verb particles are one of the types of multi-word expressions (MWEs). Verb particles are the combination of a verb and a particle.

Usually, grammarians refer to particles as prepositions or adverbs. The function of the particles in phrasal verbs differs from the function of adverbs and ordinary prepositions, such as, up, on, in, around, down, etc., we attach particles to the basic verbs which change the meaning of the verbs and / or create distinct meanings (idiomatic). The verb 'to drop', for example, means 'to fall', but once you add a particle, like 'drop in, 'drop out, the meaning changes into 'to make a short visit' (Cambridge phrasal verbs dictionary, 2006, p.90-91) 'to stop doing something' respectively.

McCarthy and O'Dell (2007) indicate that "particles are small words which you already know as a preposition or adverb" (p.6) they introduced particles as preposition or adverb. Linder (1981), and Tyler and Evans (2003) stated that particles are linguistic item their meanings are based on two principles; first, their meanings depend on their prototypical use of spatial and temporal meaning as adverb. Second principle is that their meanings are traced back to the interrelated sense which in turn is the result of conceptual metaphor and based on experience.

3. CLASSIFICATIONS OF VERB PARTICLE CONSTRUCTION

3.1 Syntactic Classification of Verb Particles

Syntactically, verb particles constructions are classified as: transitive, intransitive and complex. Syntactically, verb particle constructions consist of a verb and a particle (preposition, adverb or both).

1) Transitive that can be followed by an object (noun or pronoun); transitive phrasal verbs can be

separable by placing a direct object between the verb and the particle (Sujatna, 2020, p. 42; Baldwin, T., & Villavicencio, A. 2002, p.1; Swan, 2009, 591). Example:

1-I helped Anne to fill in the form.

2-Bethany finished off her thesis.

3-He looked the word up in the dictionary.

4-I put my books away in my suitcase.

Villavicencio (2003) (Thomas, 2013, p. 1) specified that particle can be separated from the verb by a noun or a pronoun. If the verb particle consists of a verb plus a preposition and the preposition are intransitive the verb particle construction will be either transitive or intransitive. If the preposition particle is transitive the verb particle construction will be transitive and it needs a noun phrase or verbal complement to complete the sentence. Example:

5- He backed up the team.

6- He backed the team up.

Some phrasal verbs are transitive but still cannot place a word between the verb and the particle, they are inseparable. Example:

7- I'm looking for John.

8- Someone must look after my grandmother.

When the object can be replaced by a pronoun, is cannot be placed between the verb and the object. Inseparable transitive verb particles: when the verb has two particles, example:

9- I'm looking forward to my holiday.

10- He has run out of gasoline.

Also the particle follows the unstressed personal pronoun. Dehé et al. (2002); Thomas, 2013, p.2) indicated that unstressed or weak pronoun always occurs between the verb and the particle. Example:

11- He put it on the shelves.

2) Intransitive verb particles, the verb particles do not need a noun phrase or a pronoun to complete the sentence. The verb and the particle do not separate that's to say verb doesn't take any object, also known as inseparable (Swan, 2009, 591). Example:

12- That color really stands out.

13- a) The plane took off at 5.a.m.

*b) *the plane took 5.a.m. off.*

3) Complex: it consists of a verb followed by noun, a particle and the second object. Example:

14- He painted the room up red.

15- The painted the barn up red.

3.2 Semantic Classification of Verb Particles

Semantically, verb particle construction classifies into compositional, idiomatic, and aspectual (Dehé et al. 2002).

1) Compositional verb particle construction: the meaning of both of the verb and the particle are literal. Example:

16- James carries the suitcase up.

It also has the directional meaning, as in:

17- James carries the suitcase up.

2) Aspectual verb particle construction: the particle adds an aspectual meaning to the verb. Dehé et al. 2002, aspectual particles are a mix of semi-productive and productive combinations. Aspectual intransitive such as: go ahead, carry on, and hang on. And Aspectual transitive such as: standoff, keep on. Example:

18- She cleaned up the mess.

19- She bought up the last of the firework.

The meaning of the particle depends on the meaning of the verb with particular reference to telicity and duration (Iacobini and Masini, 2005, p.160). Example:

20- John ate up the cake.

21- John gave in to the enemy.

3) Idiomatic verb particle construction: the meaning of the verb particle combination cannot be predict neither from the meaning of the particle nor from the meaning of the verb) (Luo, 2019, p. 6). Example:

22- John will turn down the job.

23- You should not put such tasks off.

4. COGNITIVE THEORIES

There are many cognitive theories that focus on how we understand language and create meaning. Some focus on how verb particles construct meaning as well. Here are a few.

4.1. Image Schema

An image schema is a habitual, active pattern of our perceptual interactions and motor packages that gives unity and configuration to our experience (Johnson, 1987). Image sachem derives and encapsulates from a wider temporal and spatial experience or larger set of ideas. These encapsulating experiences are regarded as the basis of reasoning the world and organizing knowledge. People learn and develop their skills result of taking part in everyday activities and being exposed to various events. The nature and power of meaningful thought and reason kept it alive.

It is common for words that have an image schema with a path to also have the corresponding image schema with a focus on the end of the point of the path (Lakoff, 1987). As shown in the following examples and the following figures 1 and 2.

24- She broke the eggs into the bowl.
25- The sun broke through the clouds.
26- Fly over the Atlantic,
27- The lamp hanging over the table,
28- Put your hands over your face,
29- Come over here,
30- There is water all over the floor,
31- The party is over, do it over again. (Lakoff, 1987:440)

These demonstrate different senses of the same word (Lakoff, 1987; Taylor, 2001).

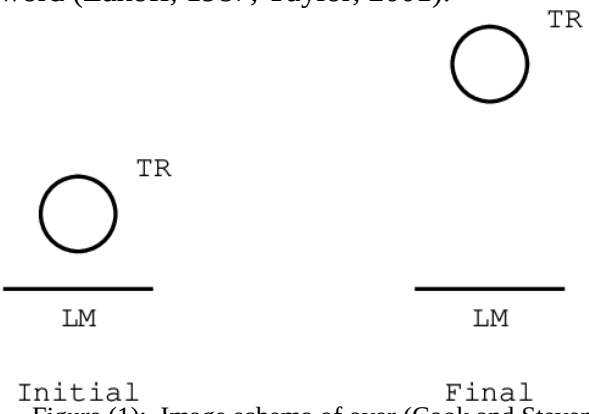

Figure (1): Image schema of over (Cook and Stevenson, 2006).

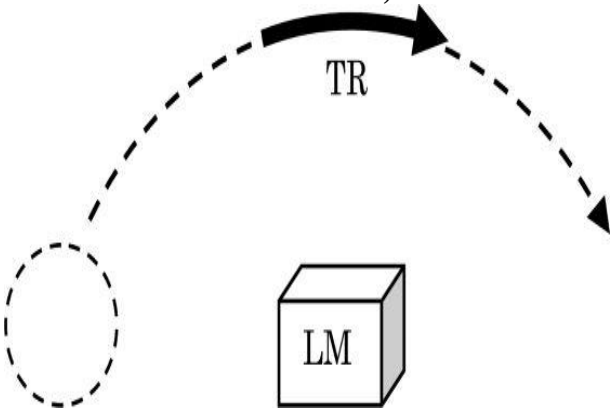

Figure (2) image schema of over (Cambridge University Press: 18 February 2019)

In Cognitive linguistics, image schema has a vital role, as Lakoff (1987) remarks that grammar is meaningful, that the lexical elements lie on a continuum of meaning from specific to schematic, and that all linguistic structures are instantiated as parts of idealized cognitive models (ICM). Lakoff (1987:440) states that "image-schema transformations play a central role in forming radial categories of senses". Image schema is part of creating different senses and meaning of grammatical units from the very center to the boundary of the edge of the category.

According to Langacker (1999) all grammatical units are meaningful and image schema and their transformations glue all complex semantic networks together which depends on the cognitive abilities

Concerning the number of image schemas, Oakley (2010) states, it is not possible to agree on a definitive number of image schemata. Oakley (2010) states "At present, I see no widespread agreement on these matters, especially regarding the exact number of image schemas" (p. 229).

Johnson (1987) assumed that image schemas are the building blocks of idiomatic verb particles and that more attention should be paid to particles to show image schemas of the particles. He gives 'up' as an example of our everyday bodily experience and the image schema that involves it. As if we add more liquid to a container the level goes up, 'up' and 'more' are correlated in our experience that has a vertical schema besides the metaphorical meaning of the particle 'up'.

4.2. Categorization: Semantic Pole of Linguistic Units

Categorization is another approach in cognitive linguistics, developed by Rosch. Categorization has two approaches 'classical' and 'prototype'. The traditional view (or classical approach) accounts that semantic category membership includes indispensable and sufficient features. In the Classical view of categorization an object should possess all conditions to be included in the category, but lacking any feature excludes it from the category. Thus this view of discrete two absolute groups of category membership is that any entity that has only two possibilities is either in the category or it is not in the category (Rosch, 1978, p. 81).

She proposed the Prototype theory in (1978) and she is one of the founders of cognitive semantics. She elaborates prototype of categorization as a representativeness phenomenon; how good an example an entity is of its category. She finds that the meaning of some words such as birds, toys, and vehicles are well taken around good examples; people agree that a robin is a better member of a bird than a penguin (p. 14). See Figure. 3.

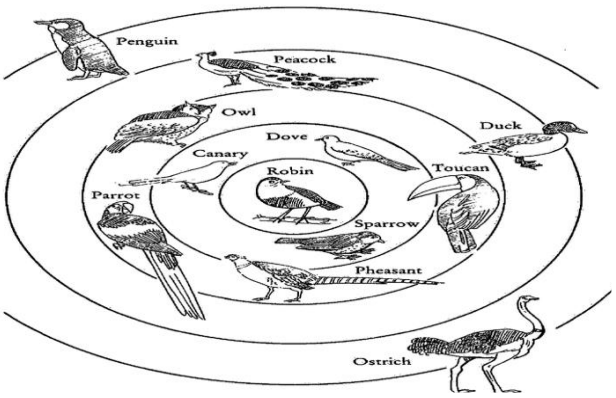

Figure (3): Birdness rankings (Becker, 2019, p. 7)

According to Taylor (2001), categorization isn't only limited to basic objects and concepts that exist in the world around us, it also includes parts of speech such as a certain item being a noun, verb, adjective, and syntactic associations as well. For example, a particular constituent is a modifier or adjunct, the subject of a clause, or whatever constituency; a particular string of words is a syntactic constituent. Furthermore, categorization applies to affixes, phrases, and clitics.

Furthermore, he proposes two criteria to categorize lexical categories; semantic and formal criteria. Semantically, lexical categories example 'arrival' and 'cup' are merely good nouns, because both are passed the syntactic test of nounhood and display the full variety of formal properties typical of the noun category also these two criterions applicable to all other lexical items that can pass the syntactic test of its part of speech. Example: 'Arrival' and 'cup' both can have these syntactic tests:

a. They pluralize: arrivals, cups.

b. They take the full range of determines.

c. They can be modified by an adjective; a late arrival. I bought an antique cup.

d. They can head a subject noun phrase; the arrival of technology changed the world.

Though there are words that do not pass these tests because they do not exhibit the full range of formal properties but still they can be categorized in their category based on semantic criteria, for instance, 'grocery' cannot be pluralized and does not take numeral quantifiers but still a noun (ibid).

Lakoff (1987) introduced the concept of radial categories to lexical categories, which highlights the extensive polysomic senses associated with lexical items. He argued that lexical polysemy conveys various senses in the way the conceptual system is structured. According to him, "less central subcategories are understood as variants of more central categories" (p. 91), subcategories that are less central are understood as variants of more central categories, and the meanings of lexes spread out from a shared or common center to the part farthest away from the center of the category. Lakoff also proposed radial categories as an approach to reduce the arbitrariness between meaning and form. He stated that radial categories of senses within the lexicon serve the function of greatly reducing the arbitrariness of correspondences between form and meaning. For example:

32- The picture is over the sofa [above]

33- The clouds are over the sun [covering]

34- She has a strange power over me [control]. (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980:15)

The control sense of 'over' is derived metaphorically from power is up to the more prototypical spatial meaning of 'over' (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, p.15).

4.3. Polysemy

The number of meanings of a word is not fixed. Polysemy words have the same basic and central sense. When a word has more than two related meanings, it is polysemy. In polysemy, a new sense emerges when a word is used in a new context. The result of meaning extension is called "radial category" The application of the notions to cognitive lexical semantics has been proposed by Lakoff (1987) as he explains that the existence of several meanings of a single word spread out from the common center of the word (p.91).

Mahpeykar and Tyler (2014) claim that the Cognitive Linguistics (CL) analysis confirms evidence for the compositional nature and non-arbitrary features of the semantics of phrasal verbs. Accordingly, it can be demonstrated that the meaning of verb particles can be explained systematically if the regularity and reciprocal polysemy networks of the verb and particle are considered.

Particle verbs are polysemy entities. The various senses of particles emerge from the prototypical sense. Evans and Green (2006) describe polysemy as a phenomenon where lexical entities have two or more overlapping meanings.

According to Thim (2012), the polysomic range of verb particle combinations ranges from purely transparent to highly frozen or idiomatic. Besides, Taylor and Evans propose the rational word

meaning model; it is a systematic model that deals with particle polysomic existence. Due to the idiomatic polysemous nature of verb particle construction, communication may account for various interpretations of the particle systematically. For example: pick up. The followings are some interpretations of the verb particle 'pick up' (Oxford University Press, 2023).

- to get better, stronger, etc.; to improve; *The wind is picking up now.*
- to start again; to continue*; Let's pick up where we left off yesterday.*
- to answer a phone: *The phone rang and rang and nobody picked up.*
- to go somewhere in your car and collect somebody who is waiting for you; *I'll pick you up at ten.*
- to arrest somebody; *He was picked up by police and taken to the station for questioning.*
- to make somebody feel better; *Try this—it will pick you up.*
- to take hold of somebody/something and lift them/it up;

She went over to the crying child and picked her up.

- to get information or a skill by chance rather than by making a deliberate effort;

Here's a tip I picked up from my mother.

- to identify or recognize something ; *Scientists can now pick up early signs of the disease.*

The above examples are a variety of related meanings connected with a single linguistic unit 'pick up'. Linguists contend that polysemy should follow the speaker's mental representation. This is because the hearer has a mental lexicon and this lexicon is conceptually connected to various senses. According to Tyler and Evans (2003), the polysomic network meets the diversity of various senses, and their approach to polysemy is extended to particle semantic networks as well.

Further, Tyler and Evans (2003) propose an explicit model; the Principled Polysemy Model. This model uses the polysomic nature of particle verbs. They argue that preposition meanings are closely associated with our embodied experience and the spatial sense that is conceptualized through conceptual metaphors of the physical world surrounding us. The meanings of some particles like 'over' and 'up' are polysemy. Their related meaning is stored in the mental lexicon and interpretations arise from context.

4.4. Conceptual Metaphor

Conceptual metaphor proposed by George Lakoff. Metaphor is a major conceptual system that language uses to structure conceptual content through cognitive operations based on our bodily experience. Lakoff and Johnson (1980:36) define metaphor as "principally a way of conceiving one thing in terms of another". One entity is understood through another entity. It is not just a matter of rhetoric or poetic device but part of our daily activity as we think and communicate.

Conceptual metaphor is "persistent in everyday life, not merely in language but also thought and action" (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980:3). They also grasp that "our ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature". Conceptual metaphor is a cognitive mechanism that is found in our daily activities. This is where one domain is partially projected or mapped onto another domain. This is to create a new concept and understand the second domain so-called target domain in terms of the first domain so-called source domain. In sum, conceptual metaphor is the way one domain is partially structured, performed, and understood in terms of another concept. For example:

35- She is boiling with anger.

In the above example, the conceptual metaphor is ANGER IS HEAT. According to cognitive linguists, metaphor influences and occupies the way we express knowledge and ourselves through language.

However, metaphorical expressions are not present merely in language, but in our thoughts and understanding, so our conceptual system has a metaphorical nature as a cognitive operation.

36- He is at the peak of health.

37- She blew up at me.

38- Jim is just blowing off steam.

39- Let me stew over that for a while. (Lakoff, 1987: 462)

Accordingly, the expressions mentioned above only make sense through the conceptual metaphors Health and Life UP: LOVE IS A JOURNEY, ANGER IS A HEATED FLUID IN A CONTAINER, and IDEAS ARE FOOD. Their meanings are motivated by these conceptual metaphors. In the above examples, conceptual metaphors are expressed in verb particles. Verb particles can be expressed through conceptual metaphors.

4.5. Metonymy

Barcelona and Valenzuela (2011:13) define metonymy as a "cognitive mechanism whereby one experiential domain is partially understood in terms of another experiential domain included in the same common experiential domain". 'There is only one domain but the shift involves different parts of the source domain'. And both domains share the same common domain. The source domain and the target domain are not from different areas. There is a relation between domains; one entity projects another entity related to it.

One entity in the target domain is highlighted that is one part from a whole and it is activated mentally, i.e. a small part is employed to refer to the same entity or the whole reference (source domain). It will emphasize one aspect. Lakoff and Johnson (1980:36) state that in metonymy "one entity is being used to refer to another". The referential aspect is used in metonymy to say one entity stands for another; the result understands part of the whole, one aspect will be highlighted to point to the whole as:

40- There are some new faces in the classroom today.

The metonymy of this sentence is ‘ new face’ refers to a newcomer, Someone who is a newcomer in the classroom or a person who has transferred to a class recently, and a person whom you have not seen before.

Conceptual metonymy motivates us to extend the meaning of verb particles conceptually. The meaning of the verb particle stems from the continuum schema; entering the Trajector into the landmark (Milošević and Vesić Pavlović, 2019) as:

41- I turned the key in the door and crept in. (Milošević and Vesić Pavlović, 2019, p.*6)*

4.6. Mental Space

Mental space is a constructed cognitive theory proposed by Gilles Fauconnier. Mental space and conceptual blending theory are two cognitive semantic theories that deal with meaning construction (Evans, 2010a). Meaning construction occurs when mental spaces are created and established. According to Fauconnier, there is basic space (so-called reality space) that represents the knowledge of the reality of the world around us. And there is also space that portrays an image suitable only for the space itself. However, this image may or may not be the true and real image of the space reality. There is a mapping or interaction between these two spaces through particular entities depicting space builders. These can be adverbs, prepositions, prepositional phrases and etc.

Mental space will integrate two concepts. Then these two concepts will be blended and expanded through cognitive processes and create an integrated concept that gives new meaning. This concept's meaning is different from the integrated concepts' meanings. There are four spaces involved in conceptual integration; two input spaces, a blended space, and a generic space (Fauconnier and Turner 2002). Furthermore, Langacker (2013: 52) defines blending space as “The blended space is formed from the other two by merging connected elements into distinct and hybrid entities retaining some, but not all, of their properties”.

Blending has proven to be a powerful tool for creativity in linguistics and explains word-formation processes and focuses more on interpreting creative structures (Handl and Schmid, 2011). Blending theory (integration theory) is the extension of mental space theory; Barcelona and Valenzuela (2011) describe that blending theory appears to explain conceptual metaphors and metonyms more precisely.

There are four spaces; two input spaces, a blended space, and a generic space (li et al., 2020). The result of mapping between the two input spaces produces a blended space. The generic space holds the common features of the two input spaces. Thus, hypothetical situations such as conceptual metaphors and metonyms are easily created (Imre, 2012). Put another way, the operation in the two input spaces provides relations between the elements and composes them together. As a result, a blended space will be built where additional meanings that share between the elements in the two input spaces will be gathered (generic space). See Figure. 4.

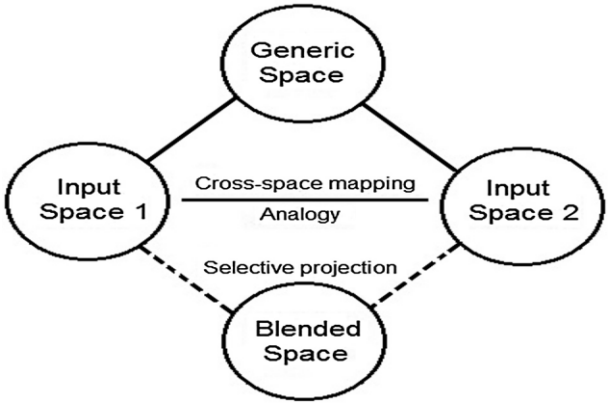

Figure (4): the four spaces of blending (Neuhaus. et al., 2016:47)

In addition to that, blending is considered as a general cognitive operation for all cognitive mechanisms such as mental space, conceptual metaphor, conceptual metonymy (analogy) framing, and conceptual categorization. …etc. (Fauconnier and Turner, 2002). Metaphor is one source of blending, for instance, the source domain is an input space, the target domain is the second input space, and the connection between the source domain and the target domain is blended space where mapping (where additional meanings that association between the domains pass on it) (Langacker, 2013).

5. Meaning Construction

There are many theories of meaning construction, the following section deals with meaning construction in general and then meaning construction according to cognitive approach.

5.1. Meaning Construction in general

Constructing meaning is one of the most debatable areas in linguistic theory. Structuralism associates the meaning and value of elements in a language with other elements. An entity makes sense when it is associated with another element, otherwise, entities cannot mean by themselves. In addition, the words should be viewed as part of a larger system or structure. We can only understand a concept (i.e., construct meaning) within a certain associated system (or structure). For example, a word that is a linguistic sign representing an entity or object can get mean we should examine the words meaning and oppositeness with other certain conventional signs. The meaning is not in language but interrelated to a larger system in this relation to establish the meaning. For example, "hot" is meaningless unless there is "cold" (Ritonga, 2020). As humans use concepts related to evident structure to make complex meanings (Al-Qtaibi, 2019), cognitive linguistics utilizes context to organize source domains properly. Construction Grammar is a linguistic approach that believes "meanings can be associated with any unit of language" (McMillion, 2006:143). According to them, construction grammar studies the way words are linked with specific and categorized sounds and meanings, for example: gun and knife are both weapons. And "regards all the constructions of a language as of equal importance" (Berglund, 2009: 4).

5.2. Meaning from a Cognitive Linguistic Perspective

Langacker (1987) claims that "meaning is what language is about" (p. 12). In the realm of linguistics, the concept of meaning is fundamental to our understanding of language. It is through meaning that we are able to communicate with one another, express our thoughts and ideas, and convey information. In fact, we might even say that meaning is what language is all about. Taylor, 2014) argue but what exactly do we mean by "meaning"? At its most basic level, meaning refers to the relationship between words and the things they represent. This relationship is not arbitrary, but rather is based on a complex set of rules and conventions that are shared by members of a particular linguistic community. Through the study of semantics, we can begin to unravel the intricacies of this relationship, and gain a deeper understanding of how meaning is constructed and communicated through language (p. 8).

Two systems are used in the construction of meaning; the concept system and the linguistic system. The first system is the concept system, which involves non-cognitive knowledge. In the theory of cognitive models, non-cognitive knowledge is demonstrated. Cognitive models include subjective and perceptual experiences. They reflect how lexical concepts contribute to meaning creation. The second system is the linguistic system, which includes symbolic units, semantic and phonological poles. This linguistic model helps cognitive models be activated to construct meaning (Evans, 2010a, 2010b).

Evans (2010a) says meaning creation arises from the integration of a lexical concept as a 'composition'. This process involves two structural processes: a) selection and b) fusion of lexical concepts. The selection of a lexical concept includes the most appropriate lexical concept associated with

each form of utterance; the selection is guided by the utterance and the extra-linguistic context.

Meaning creation occurs when we choose suitable lexical concepts and these concepts are suitable for a particular context. Then the process of fusion corresponds to lexical concept selection. It occurs among these lexical concepts. In turn, fusion involves two sequenced processes: integration and interpretation. In the process of integration, more lexical units will be built, motivated by linguistic knowledge (lexical concepts). Evans calls these larger units 'lexical conceptual units' that are then transformed into meaning. At this stage, the whole lexical unit carries linguistic information that stimulates how these lexical concepts are understood together. Another way to say it is that each lexical concept combines with the adjacent lexical concept, creating an expanded lexical entity. These more complex lexical entities can be interpreted. In the interpretation process the model profile (or semantic potential)) of each lexical entity in the larger unit should be kept with the larger unit. The result demonstrates that each lexical concept used in different contexts has a distinct activation for its semantic potential. This applies to every utterance and the resulting concept is meaningful and unique.

According to cognitive linguists meaning construction is usually involved with mental space, Fauconnier and Turner (2002:102) define mental spaces as "small conceptual packets constructed as we think and talk, for purposes of local understanding and action". So mental spaces are tiny rational packages built when we think and communicate.

Lemmens (2015) indicates that for meaning-making, the brain/ mind is an organ that involves many cognitive operations. He describes the mind as an organ or as a device of operating cognitive activities that perform many cognitive processes that are used for making sense and meaning in language. He believes that the same operations are needed for meaning creation in language and linguists try to describe and explain these operations. Furthermore, he argues that the brain is the center of thought, conceptualization, and meaning creation through activating and performing many mental processes (p.1).

The traditional view of categorization is based on essential features. That's to say, to categorize entities in the world, they must share certain features "by necessary sufficient features". Nevertheless, cognitive linguists oppose this stance, and they suggest that categorizing entities and events should have an internal composition constructed around a prototype. This alternative view to the traditional view of categorization is so-called "prototype categorization". Cognitive linguists extended this notion to 'linguistic categories' which include verbs, nouns, phrases, clauses, modifiers, sentences. etc. (Lakoff, 1987). Metonymic thought includes figure-ground alignment, mental space, conceptual integration, knowledge organization, image schema, mental space, and conceptual metaphor directly or indirectly (Johnson, 1987).

And the motivation for these operations or mechanisms is experience. The elementary experience is considered universal, such as being in the dark, being in a container, and walking a long path, are regarded as a universal experiences. Universal experience leads to image schema; it is an abstract conceptualization of experience (Lakoff, 1987; Johnson, 1987; Cook and Stevenson, 2006).

Additionally, these experiences provide meaning either directly or indirectly in the form of one of the mechanisms, such as Metaphor. This is seen as the most significant chapter and a dramatic change in cognitive linguistics. Accordingly: Happy is up, and More is up.

In the traditional view, metaphors are motivated by similarities between elements, but cognitive linguists raise another motivation, experience. Cognitive linguists believe the human experience is universal. However, the metaphors have the same content and interpretation, but we express them in different ways. This means that people interpret a metaphor in terms of other experiences, rather than having a specific meaning in and of itself. This allows for more creative interpretations and greater understanding. Ultimately, it allows greater meaning to be drawn from simple words (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, p.30).

The cognitive approach to language is that all linguistic units, ranging from morphology to lexical semantics to syntactic constructions, are meaningful. Thus, meaning is not separate from the grammatical rules of language but is at the heart of grammar (Langacker (1987:12). As Evans (2010a) claims that meaning is the property of usage-based

forms rather than the word itself. And according to them, meaning is conceptualized in context (contextualization); words do not have meanings by themselves unless they are utilized in a context. There are certain mechanisms for adopting meaning to linguistic conventions via cognitive abilities.

CONCLUSION

By examining a large set of cognitive abilities and mechanisms on the meaning construction of verb particles in English. Our research has led us to conclude:

1- Particles contribute to the meaning construction with cognitive abilities and mechanisms such as image schema, metaphor, polysemy, etc. However, it is important to note that the unification of semantics and syntax is required to fully contribute to the meaning construction of verb particles.

2- Furthermore, encyclopaedic and experiential views play a crucial role in the meaning construction with verb particles in English. Both the speaker and the hearer must possess a wide range of encyclopaedic and experiential backgrounds on the particle verbs in order to fully comprehend their meanings. This highlights the importance of cognitive abilities and experiences in meaning construction.

3- It has found that various factors help in the meaning construction of verb particles, including image schema of the particles and categorization of the particles. It is clear that human beings heavily rely on meaning construction in their daily lives, and understanding the cognitive processes involved in this construction is crucial for further research in this field.

4- Finally, Experience and humans' categorization of entities and events to make meaning are two parallel ways to provide meaning to our world. Experience determines by conceptual systems. And categorization is a basic cognitive activity reflected in all human activities, including language. And linguistic categories involve all levels of linguistic structure, ranging from phonemes to morphemes and grammatical patterns.

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