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COGNITIVE LINGUISTICS

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Аннотация

“Когнитив лингвистика” ўқув қўлланмаси тўққиз бобдан иборат бўлиб, уларда когнитив лингвистиканинг фундаментал муаммолари, фаннинг шаклланиш ва ривожланиши тарихи, ушбу фанда мавжуд илмий қарашлар ва ёндашувлар, когнитив лингвистикасининг асосий тушунчалари ва ундаги йўналишлар, лисоний бирликларнинг когнитив жиҳатини лингвистик таҳлил этиш методлари каби масалалар ўз аксини топган. Ўқув қўлланманинг ҳар бир боби назарий материал ва унинг амалиётда қўлланишини намоён этувчи лисоний бирликларнинг амалий таҳлил методлари ва уларнинг намуналари, назорат саволлари, тавсия этилувчи адабиётлар рўйхати билан таъминланган. Ўқув қўлланманинг илова қисмида когнитив лингвистикасининг асосий тушунчаларини изоҳлаб берувчи глоссарий берилган.

Аннотация

Учебное пособие «Когнитивная лингвистика» состоит из девяти глав, посвященных рассмотрению широкого спектра вопросов, включающих фундаментальные проблемы когнитивной лингвистики, её основные направления, понятия и проблемы, существующие взгляды, подходы и концепции, методы лингвистического анализа языковых единиц с позиций когнитивной лингвистики. Каждая глава учебного пособия снабжена теоретическим и практическим материалом, наглядно иллюстрирующим методы анализа языковых единиц и имплементацию теоретического материала, вопросами для обсуждения, списком рекомендуемой литературы. В приложении представлен глоссарий основных терминов по когнитивной лингвистике.

Annotation

The course-book “Cognitive Linguistics” consists of nine chapters which contain the discussion of some fundamental problems of Cognitive Linguistics: the main notions and trends of Cognitive Linguistics, its history and evolution, different approaches, views and conceptions, methods of conceptual analysis of linguistic units. Each chapter includes the theoretical part, highlighting the main assumptions of Cognitive Linguistics, practical material aimed at mastering theoretical knowledge, questions for discussion and the list of the recommended literature. Appended to the course-book is the glossary containing the description of some notions and terms in a compact and comprehensible manner.

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CHAPTER I. SCIENTIFIC PARADIGM AS A SYSTEM OF SCIENTIFIC KNOWLEDGE

1.1. THE NOTION OF A SCIENTIFIC PARADIGM

The term “paradigm” is one of the essential notions in modern linguistics. However, very few people actually understand what a paradigm is, how it functions, or where the theory came from. This entry is an attempt to explain the concept of a paradigm.

The word paradigm (pærədaɪm) comes from Greek "παράδειγμα" (paradeigma), “pattern, example, sample” and "παραδείκνυμι" (paradeiknumi), “exhibit, represent, expose”. The Oxford English Dictionary Online defines a paradigm as “a pattern, example, or model” (www.en.oxforddictionaries.com). Later, there appeared additional senses in the definition of this term, for example, Ferdinand de Saussure used “paradigm” to refer to a class of similar elements. Nowadays, the term has come to refer to a thought pattern in any scientific discipline. Accordingly, the Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary defines it as “a philosophical and theoretical framework of a scientific school or discipline within which theories, laws, and generalizations and the experiments performed in support of them are formulated; broadly: a philosophical or theoretical framework of any kind” (www.merriam-webster.com).

The term “paradigm” in its contemporary meaning as “universally recognized scientific achievements that, for a time, provide model problems and solutions for a community of researchers” was used firstly by historian of science Thomas Kuhn in his book “The Structure of Scientific Revolutions” (Kuhn, 1970, 1996). In his work, T. Kuhn paid attention to the fact that the history of science is not a linear process; it is characterized by “paradigm shifts” that determine the choice of scientific problems and methods of its solution for a definite period of time. In other words, a paradigm sets the standard of the way in which scientists 'do' science.

According to Kuhn’s theory there are several cycles in the development of science: 1) the predominance of a scientific theory according to which all researches are done, discoveries are made and explained; 2) a scientific crisis: at this stage the existing theory comes to a deadlock, being unable to explain many phenomena. As a result, alternative theories, new approaches and methods are searched for. At this stage different irreconcilable theories coexist and compete with each other; 3) the emergence of a new scientific paradigm.

It should be noted that not always are new theories successful; but in case they are, there are large scale changes in the scientific worldview. Being accepted by the majority of scholars, new scientific ideas make basis for a new paradigm. As Kuhn noticed in “The Structure of Scientific Revolutions” “Successive transition from one paradigm to another via revolution is the usual developmental pattern of mature science” (Kuhn, 1970, p. 12).

One of the important assumptions of Kuhn's theory is that paradigms radically differ. They are incompatible and irreconcilable because each new paradigm requires fundamental modifications and ideas. Another aspect of Kuhn’s original

thesis, supported by some other scholars (Dogan, 2001; Ohman, 2004) is the irrelevance of paradigms to the social and humanitarian sciences. These scholars consider the notion of a paradigm to be relevant only to the natural sciences whereas the social and humanitarian sciences are polytheoretical, polysemic and characterized by the absence of one common paradigm. The social and the humanitarian sciences, as many scholars claim (Handa, 1986), are oriented to the study of very complex phenomena, such as a human-being, language, society, culture, etc., which cannot be explained within one framework and require multiple approaches. In other words, different paradigms, methodological and conceptual frameworks coexist within one discipline because in contrast to the natural sciences, the humanitarian sciences are characterized by a multiparadigmatical character.

A paradigm in the humanities, particularly in linguistics, may combine the features of several scientific trends, correlating with each other, so that the results obtained in one paradigm can be utilized and developed in other paradigms. Accordingly, Makarov M. notices that the paradigm shift in linguistics doesn't necessarily suppose the radical change; It is realized in the transformation of scientific methods, linguistic views, new priorities and perspectives. Berezin V. regards linguistics as a poliparadigmatic science. This status of linguistics can be backed by the philosophic theory of synergy, characterized by a non-linear interpretation of the world, variability, alternative ways and rates of evolution. These arguments reject the above-mentioned assumptions of Kuhn's theory and prove the polyparadigmatic status of linguistics.

Nevertheless, the notion of the "paradigm shift" is relevant to linguistics. It has become apparent that linguistics in the course of its development is characterized by the change of certain paradigms which either coexist for some time or replace one another. There is a diversity of opinions among the scholars as far as the name and number of paradigms are concerned.

1.2. THE PARADIGM SHIFTS THROUGHOUT THE HISTORY OF LINGUISTICS

According to Karaulov Yu.N., throughout the history of linguistics there have been distinguished historical, psychological, structural and social paradigms (Караулов, 1987). Postovalova V.I. differentiates semiological, anthropological and theoanthropocosmic (transcendental) paradigms (Постовалова, 1999). Stepanov Yu. S. writes about three major paradigms: semantic, pragmatic, and syntactic (Степанов, 1985). Susov I. points out four major linguistic paradigms: comparative, structural, generative, functional. Kubryakova E.S. argues for traditional, generative, cognitive and communicative paradigms (Кубрякова, 1999). But most researchers claim that there are three types of paradigms: 1) comparative-historical; 2) structural; 3) anthropocentric. All other paradigms represent a certain linguistic trend referring to one of the three (Маслова, 2008). In this respect, Yu. N. Karaulov's social and psychological, V.V. Shakhovskiy's emotive, V.I. Postovalova's theoanthropocentric, E.S. Kubryakova's cognitive, communicative paradigms can be included into the

anthropocentric paradigm. Any paradigm, as V.A. Maslova asserts, is characterized by the following features: 1) a paradigm should be common for all the social, humanitarian, natural sciences. For example, structuralism was accepted and developed in history, biology, physics, linguistics, etc.; 2) a paradigm is a set of scientific frameworks within which model problems and their solutions are secured. Only the above-mentioned three paradigms seem to be appropriate to these criteria (Маслова, 2008, 2009).

Let's in brief highlight the main assumptions and achievements of each paradigm.

The comparative-historical paradigm came into existence in the XIX century. The emergence of this paradigm is bound to the discovery of Sanscrit, an ancient language of India. In 1816 German linguist Frans Bopp compared the verbal systems of Sanscrit, Greek, Latin and several Indo-European languages and proved their genetic relatedness, as well as Rasmus Rask (1818) discovered the genetic relatedness between Germanic, Slavonic languages and Greek, Latin. Later Jacob Grimm established the sound correspondences between the consonants of Germanic and other Indo-European languages, and that became known as "Grimm's law". August Schleicher introduced the theory of genealogical tree-diagrams. He also made the first attempt to reconstruct the Indo-European proto-language by applying the comparative method. An alternative model was created by Johannes Shmidth, who proposed that the boundaries between the descendants of proto-languages were constantly shifting. His model became known as the "wave model" of genetic relationships. August Wilhelm Shlegel divided the world's languages into the following types: 1) isolating languages, such as Chinese, in which words do not change (don't take affixes); 2) agglutinative languages, such as Turkish, in which words contain a number of affixes, each of which has a single grammatical function; 3) inflectional languages (Latin), in which words can take affixes expressing several grammatical functions. This typology was refined by Wilhelm von Humboldt, who added the fourth type to Shlegel's classification: 4) incorporating languages, such as Eskimo, in which the distinction between a clause and a word is blurred. It should be mentioned, that these classifications, and findings remain valid for present-day linguistics.

So, the comparative-historical paradigm, the aim of which was to establish the genetic relationships of the world languages, dominated throughout the XIX century. The findings of this paradigm consist in: the establishment of relatedness of the Indo-European languages, the construction of language families and reconstruction of proto-languages, the morphological and genealogical classifications of languages, etc. But the main achievement of this paradigm is working out a comparative-historical method of studying languages. It is this method that gave incentive to the development of linguistics as an independent science.

The origins of the next paradigm, called "structuralism" is attributed to the work by Ferdinand de Saussure presented in the posthumous publication "Course of General Linguistics". The structural analysis was focused not on the use of language (*parole*/speech), but rather on the structural system of language (*langue*). Language was regarded as a static system of interconnected units. In other words,

structural linguistics is considered to be “a system of signs” composed of the signified (an abstract idea or concept) and the signifier (means of expressing the signified). The structural approach is focused on the synchronical rather than diachronical relationships of linguistic units. A language system was looked upon as an integrity of elements, entering into various combinations with each other. Different levels of language were differentiated and studied separately. So, structuralism set out to model language in purely linguistic terms, as an independent science not connected with other disciplines. Linguistic patterns were explained by appeals to internal structural properties specific to a language.

In brief, the main assumptions of structuralism are: 1) language is a system of structural sets, all units of which are interconnected by syntagmatic and paradigmatic links; 2) language is a system of signs that correlate with other systems of signs in the domain of semiotics; 3) there is a strict differentiation between language (*langue*) and speech (*parole*); 4) language is studied synchronically, rather than diachronically; 5) attention is focused on the static rather than dynamic aspects of the language.

Saussure's ideas had a great influence on linguistics and determined the emergence of the Prague, Moscow, Copenhagen linguistic schools. Suffice it to mention the names of such prominent linguists as R. Jakobson, N. Trubetskoy, L. Hjelmslev, L. Bloomfield, O. Jespersen, A. Peshkovskiy, Boaden de Courtene, etc.

It should be stressed that structural linguistics played a very important role in the development of linguistic theory. It raised and discussed the problems of crucial importance such as the systematic structure of language, the correlation of form and content in the language, paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations of linguistic units, the level structure of the language, etc. (Алефиренко, 2005). All these issues remain topical for present day linguistics as well.

However, the structural model of language, as has been mentioned, was not able to answer the questions related to the global problems of “language and human mind”, “language and culture”, language and society”.

1.3. THE ANTHROPOCENTRIC PARADIGM AND ITS STATUS IN MODERN LINGUISTICS

At the end of the XXth century the structural paradigm was replaced by a new anthropocentric paradigm. It has been proved that the structural model of language is not sufficient to account for language use. The anthropocentric paradigm concentrates its attention on the user of the language, his linguistic competence, knowledge structures reflected and fixed in the language.

The anthropocentric paradigm gives a man the status of being “the measure of all things” and focuses on studying the “human factor” in the language. The human is considered the centre of the Universe and language, because he is the only bearer of universal and nationally-specific values. Accordingly, Yu.S. Stepanov claims that linguistics is a science about “language in the human and the human in language” (Степанов, 1985, p.15). From the perspectives of this paradigm a human

being is not just a bearer of a language, but rather of a certain conceptual system according to which he understands the language, cognizes and conceptualizes the world information.

Although the anthropocentric paradigm as a general framework emerged not long ago, its central assumptions are not new. The ideas of this science are traced back to the fundamental works by famous linguists (W. Humboldt, E. Sapir, B. Worf, E. Benvenist, A.A. Potebnya) and well-known philosophers (L. Wittgenstein, P. Florenskiy, A. Losev, M. Heidegger, H. Hadamer). In their works they always emphasized the idea that language is a major instrument of representing, storing and transferring culture, knowledge, and information about the world around.

In this respect, Humboldt's remark "Man lives in the world about him principally, indeed exclusively, as language presents it to him" is of great interest (Humboldt, 1999). Edward Sapir and Benjamin Lee Whorf took up this idea and expanded on it. They brought attention to the relationship between language, thought, and culture. As E. Sapir asserted "Human beings do not live in the objective world alone, nor alone in the world of social activity as ordinarily understood, but are very much at the mercy of the particular language which has become the medium of expression in their society. It is quite an illusion to imagine that one adjusts to reality essentially without the use of language and that language is merely an incidental means of solving specific problems of communication or reflection: The fact of the matter is that the 'real world' is to a large extent unconsciously built up on the language habits of the group...Even comparatively simple acts of perception are very much more at the mercy of the social patterns called words than we might suppose...We see and hear and otherwise experience very largely as we do because the language habits of our community predispose certain choices of interpretation" (Sapir, 1929).

The anthropocentric approach differs from other approaches to the study of language. Firstly, it presupposes the field of an interdisciplinary study. Language is a unique human capacity therefore it should be studied in complex interrelationships of human oriented disciplines such as psycholinguistics, communicative linguistics, linguopragmatics, sociolinguistics, linguoculturology, etc. All these disciplines are united under the aegis of the anthropocentric paradigm. Secondly, proceeding from the fact that a language user is a member of a certain linguistic community and attempts to achieve a certain interactional goal, language should be studied in complex relationships of linguistic and non-linguistic factors. Such non-linguistic factors as communicative and pragmatic intentions, social environment, philosophical and religious views, cultural and historical background influence, determine and specify the use of language. Thirdly, the study of language is grounded in language use, i.e. the knowledge of language is the knowledge of how to use it. It means that anthropocentric linguistics gives priority to a functional rather than structural approach to language.

So, the main assumptions of the anthropocentric paradigm are 1) anthropocentric linguistics is concerned with the study of the "human factor" in language; 2) language is considered a main tool of communication and cognition; 3) language is a means of storing and transmitting information and different knowledge

structures which are externalized in linguistic expressions; 4) anthropocentric linguistics is an interdisciplinary science; 5) language studies involve both linguistic and extralinguistic factors; 6) the knowledge of language is derived from and grounded in language use.

Currently, many linguistic researches are done within the framework of the anthropocentric paradigm. The change of the paradigm caused the shift in linguistic views, methods of investigations and the emergence of new interdisciplinary linguistic trends (psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, cognitive linguistics, linguoculturology, gender linguistics). The most prominent scholars working in the domain of anthropocentric linguistics are G. Lacoff, M. Johnson, E.S.Kubryakova, N.N. Boldirev, Yu. S.Stepanov, V.N.Teliya, V.A. Maslova, etc.

Let's briefly highlight some of the above-mentioned disciplines:

Psycholinguistics concentrates on studying psychological and neurobiological factors which make it possible to acquire, use, comprehend, produce and understand language. It attempts to explain what cognitive processes enable humans to compose sentences and speech, understand words, utterances, sentences, texts, etc.

Sociolinguistics is concerned with the relationships between language and society. It studies language varieties of different social groups in terms of ethnicity, social status, educational level, age, religion, etc. Special attention is paid to the study of dialects and sociolects.

Ethnolinguistics focuses on the relationships between language and ethnic culture, mostly in the historical retrospective. It studies how linguistic units reflect the way different ethnic groups perceive the world. The object of ethnolinguistics are folk texts (songs, jokes, fables, etc.), religious and mythological rituals. Its aim is the reconstruction of ethnic culture and vision of the world embodied in linguistic units.

Cognitive linguistics studies the relationships between language and mind, language and socio-psychological experience. In cognitive linguistics language is regarded as: a) a cognitive mechanism that encodes and transforms a great amount of information; b) an integral part of cognition that represents different types of knowledge structures; c) a mental phenomenon that provides access to the conceptual system of the human; d) a tool of processing, storing and transferring information. It focuses on investigation of the processes of conceptualization, categorization and perception of the world information, knowledge structures and their verbal representations.

Linguoculturology faces the problem of correlations between language and culture. Attention is focused on the cultural information embodied in linguistic units. It also studies verbalization of both universal and culture specific concepts that represent the conceptual and national world pictures.

Gender linguistics deals with the gender differentiation reflected in the language. Linguistic units are investigated from the point of view of their gender potential, i.e. how they represent socio-cultural characteristics, social norms, varieties of speech related to the masculine and feminine stereotypes.

QUESTIONS AND TASKS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What is the origin and evolution of the notion “paradigm”?
2. What are the main features of a paradigm?
3. What does “the paradigm shift” mean?
4. Discuss the types of paradigms in linguistics
5. Characterize the comparative-historical paradigm: its evolution, the world languages classification, the main findings and commitments.
6. Discuss the structural paradigm, its main assumptions and achievements
7. Formulate the notion of the anthropocentric paradigm
8. What disciplines constitute the anthropocentric paradigm?
9. What features and assumptions specify the status of the anthropocentric paradigm in modern linguistics?

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CHAPTER II. COGNITIVE LINGUISTICS: THEORETICAL AND METHODOLOGICAL PROBLEMS

2.1. HISTORICAL EVOLUTION OF COGNITIVE LINGUISTICS

Cognitive science is an interdisciplinary science emerged at the interface of psychology, anthropology, linguistics, sociology, computer science, neuroscience, philosophy. The sphere of concern of cognitive science includes the study of the mind, the functions of cognition and systems that represent, process, and transform information; as well as the problems connected with perception, memory, attention, reasoning, language and emotion.

The cognitive sciences begun as an intellectual movement in the 1950s are often referred to as the cognitive revolution. The emergence of the cognitive science is traced back to the early cybernetics in the 1930-1940s, the theory of computation and the digital computer developed in the 1940-1950s which tried to understand the organizing principles of the mind. W. McCulloch and W. Pitts developed the first variants of what are now known as artificial neural networks, models of computation inspired by the structure of biological neural networks. The first work illustrating cognitive experiments is J.C. Licklider's experiments which used computer memory as models of human cognition (Hafner, Lyon, 1996).

The term "cognitive science" was coined by Christopher Longuet-Higgins in "Comments on the Lighthill Report and the Sutherland Reply" (1973), concerning Artificial Intelligence research (Longuet-Higgins, 1973). The founding meeting of the Cognitive Science Society was held at the University of California in 1979, which resulted in the acknowledgement of cognitive science as an internationally visible enterprise (UCSD Cognitive Science, 2015).

Cognitive Linguistics is a branch of cognitive sciences concerned with the study of relationships between linguistic choices and mental processes, human experience and its results – knowledge. Cognitive Linguistics regards language as a cognitive mechanism of organizing, representing, processing, storing and transmitting knowledge layers.

The most influential linguists working in the domain of Cognitive Linguistics are Ch. Fillmore, G. Lakoff, R. Langacker, L. Talmy, E.S. Kubryakova, N.N. Boldirev, V.Z. Demyjankov. Though these scholars represent different schools and approaches within Cognitive Linguistics the most important assumptions shared by all of them are that 1) meaning is central to language and that is why it should be a primary focus of any linguistic study; 2) linguistic units serve as a means of expressing meaning and hence they are closely link with the semantic structures they express.

It should be stressed that though Cognitive Linguistics is a relatively new science, its ideas were laid in the works by many famous Russian and foreign scientists. Suffice it to mention the names of W. Humboldt and his well-known statement "Language is ... the outer appearance of the spirit of a people; the language is their spirit and the spirit of their language" (Humboldt, 1999), A.A. Potebnya and his conception of lexical meaning, B. de Courtene and his prediction

that linguistics will be combined with other sciences – psychology, anthropology, sociology, etc., L. Hjelmslev considering the problem of “language and mind”, E. Sapir and B. Whorf and their theory of linguistic relativity, I.I. Meschanchikov and his assumptions of notional categories, R. Jakobson and his ideas about the links of linguistics with other sciences and finally N. Chomsky who advanced the conception of language as a mental phenomenon.

The first pioneer works to mark the beginning of cognitive linguistics were G. Lakoff’s revolutionary book “Metaphors We Live By” (1980) and “Women, Fire and Dangerous Things” (1987). Almost at the same time, R. Langacker published the first volume of “Foundations of Cognitive Grammar” (1987). Another work which left noticeable traces in cognitive linguistics was the collection “Topics in Cognitive Linguistics” published in 1988. This substantial volume is still considered to be influential and contains a number of papers by R. Langacker, L. Talmy and other well known linguists (TCL, 1988).

The first conference on Cognitive Linguistics was held in Duisburg, Germany in 1989. At that conference, a new organization, the International Cognitive Linguistic Association (ICLA) was founded and the journal Cognitive Linguistics as well as a new book series, Cognitive Linguistics Research (CLR), were published. This conference made a good starting point for the development of Cognitive Linguistics. In 1990 the first journal of Cognitive Linguistics and the first CLR volume, a collection of articles by Ronald Langacker, brought together under the title “Concept, Image and Symbol” were published.

In the 2000s regional and language-topical Cognitive Linguistics Associations, affiliated to ICLA, began to emerge in Spain, Finland, Poland, Russia, Germany, Korea, France, Japan, North America, the U.K., Sweden, China and Belgium. A review journal, the Annual Review of Cognitive Linguistics started its publications in 2003 and continues increasing its reputation in Linguistics.

So, Cognitive Linguistics came to existence in 1970-80s and since that time a lot of researches have been done by Ch. Fillmore, G. Lakoff, R. Langacker, L. Talmy and Russian scholars E.S. Kubryakova, N.N. Boldirev, V.Z. Demjankov, V.I. Karasik, D.U. Ashurova, Sh. Safarov and others.

Ch. Fillmore's ideas about categorization of lexical and syntactical meanings using scene schematization has developed into Frame Semantics (Fillmore, 1988). G. Lakoff’s works on the role of metaphor and metonymy in conceptualization and categorization has evolved into Conceptual Metaphor Theory (Lakoff 1981,1987). R. Langacker's ideas about cognitive nature of syntactical constructions firstly caused the emergence of the theory of Space Grammar and then Cognitive Grammar (Langacker 1987). L. Talmy had published a number of influential papers on linguistic imaging systems and the cognitive nature of grammar (Talmy 1985, 1988). G. Fauconnier’s investigations of dynamic meaning construction gave birth to the theory of Mental Spaces which later turned into the theory of Conceptual Blending (Fauconnier, Turner, 1988).

So, the ideas of Cognitive Linguistics originated in foreign language studies. In Russia, the cognitive paradigm emerged much later, however the commitments of Russian scholars in the development of this science are of great importance. The

notions of Cognitive Linguistics were rooted in the theory of onomasiology and nomination developed by E.S. Kubryakova and her school, in the theory of conceptual world picture, the human factors in language and linguistic creativity (Серебрянников, 1988). E.S. Kubryakova published several influential papers summarizing the main assumptions and problems of Cognitive Linguistics. Moreover, she worked out the cognitive grounding of word-formation. At present the Russian school of cognitive linguists is represented by E.S. Kubryakova, N.N. Boldirev, M.V. Nikitin, N.F. Alefirenko, Yu. S. Stepanov, R.M. Frumkina, Z.D. Popova, I.A. Sternin and others.

Since that time cognitive linguistics has been increasingly developing and penetrating into other areas of linguistics – phonology, word-formation, syntax, etc. that is the reason why some scholars hold the view that cognitive linguistics embraces all linguistic levels. In this respect, in A. Abduazizov's opinion it can be subdivided into cognitive phonetics and phonology, cognitive word-information, grammar, lexicology, stylistics (Абдуазизов, 2007). This statement seems to be quite true from the theoretical point of view. However, to demonstrate its value in practice not only theoretical suppositions but also a solid amount of empirical linguistic data should be provided.

In Uzbekistan this science has also become popular with the scholars. It should be noted that in foreign linguistics the accent is made on cognitive grammar and cognitive mechanisms of categorization, whereas in the CIS countries, Uzbekistan including, the linguists focus on cognitive semantics. In this respect, cognitive semantics and cognitive stylistics have come to the fore in Uzbekistan (Сафаров, 2006; Ashurova, 2005; 2012; 2016; Расулова, 2005; Юсупов, 2011; Джусупов, 2011).

A lot of researches in Uzbekistan are devoted to the problems of Cognitive Linguistics (Таджибаева, 2006; Панжиева, 2004; Джусупов, 2006; Галиева, 2010; Дусабаева, 2009; Салиева, 2010) which provide a new insight into stylistic phenomena, f.e. the notion of stylistic device. Traditionally stylistic devices were looked upon as linguistic mechanisms based on the interaction of different types of lexical meanings. From the position of cognitive stylistics, a stylistic device is treated as a cognitive mechanism, a means of conceptualization and representation of knowledge structures, an essential component of the conceptual world picture. Moreover, stylistic devices are regarded as cultural models conveying information about the universal and nationally specific cultural values.

Moreover, D.U. Ashurova worked out the cognitive approach to text interpretation. From this point of view, text interpretation is a purposeful cognitive activity aimed to disclose deep conceptual contents of the text. In this respect such stylistic categories as imagery, emotiveness, implicitness, modality and intertextuality are regarded as the main cognitive categories of the text. Much attention is given to the role of stylistic units in transmitting conceptual information and representation of the conceptual world picture (Ashurova, 2012; 2013; 2016).

The most complete account of the key problems of cognitive linguistics is found in Sh. Safarov's monograph "Когнитив тилшунослик". The book highlights the main notions and assumptions of cognitive linguistics such as the notion of

concept and its types, the processes of conceptualization and categorization, frame semantics, prototype theory, etc. Much attention is attached to the key notion of concept which is viewed as an image, emerging in the human mind and transforming into a mental structure (model) in the form of a gestalt, frame, scenario, script, schema.

No less important are the researches dealing with the problems of cultural concepts and conceptsheres (Галиева, 2010; Агзамова, 2012). Cultural concept is a culture specific and nationally oriented unit, a multifold mental structure consisting of the notional, image-bearing and evaluative layers, and characterized by emotional, expressive components and associative links (Ashurova, Galieva, 2013). The major advantages of the research in this area of study lie in the fact that a) it demonstrates methods of cognitive modelling providing a solid grounding for studying concepts; b) it reveals national specifics of concepts in different linguocultures on the basis of cross-cultural analysis.

In conclusion, cognitive linguistics continues fostering its development as a worldwide discipline, and enhancing its links with other disciplines such as Psychology, Anthropology, Sociology, and of course Cognitive Science.

2.2. THEORETICAL PRINCIPLES OF COGNITIVE LINGUISTICS

It is common knowledge that the status of any linguistic trend is determined by its subject, aims, theoretical basis, principles, assumptions and methods of analysis.

The subject matter of Cognitive Linguistics is the study of cognitive functions of the language and its units, their conceptual structures and deep semantics. The aim of Cognitive Linguistics is to study relationships between language and mental structures and linguistic representation of knowledge structures.

The area of study in Cognitive Linguistics covers a wide range of problem issues concerning the relationships between language and thought, the linguistic relevance to the processes of cognition. Most significant are the following problems:

- conceptual theory of meaning;
- the notion of concept and its types;
- the problems of conceptualization and categorization;
- knowledge structures and their types;
- frame semantics;
- prototype theory;
- the cognitive account of grammatical categories;
- conceptual metaphor theory.

The basic principles of Cognitive Linguistics are as follows:

- the acknowledgement of the two functions – communicative and cognitive – as the main functions of language. As E.S. Kubryakova points out, that any linguistic phenomena can be adequately described and explained only at the cross-road of cognition and communication

- a fundamental principle of Cognitive Linguistics is the principle of anthropocentrism. It means that a priority role in the process of language functioning is assigned to the human, his knowledge, experience and all kinds of cognitive activity. In other words, language is studied in its multiple relations to the linguistic personality, his mind, intellect, knowledge;
- one of the essential principles of the cognitive paradigm is its interdisciplinary character, and this means that cognitive linguists drew on the results of psychology, sociology, philosophy, culture. The principle of interdisciplinarity is bound to the principle of synergy. The synergetic approach to language develops the integral conception of language built on the deep isomorphism of Language and Man, Man and Society, Language and Society, Language – Man – Culture;
- another principle consists in the fact that Cognitive Linguistics is aimed to explain linguistic phenomena (Фрумкина, 1999). As A.E. Kibrik rather wittily remarks linguistics has worked its way up from “What linguistics” (structural linguistics), “How linguistics” (functional linguistics), “Why linguistics”(cognitive linguistics). The explanatory function of cognitive linguistics is laid down in the processes of conceptualization and categorization of the information conveyed by linguistic units;
- blurring boundaries between “inner” and “outer” linguistics, synchronism and diachronism, semantics and grammar.

D. Geeraerts (2006, p.1-28) outlines four characteristics of how Cognitive Linguistics deals with meaning the study of which is considered to be the main problem of the discipline:

1) Linguistic meaning is perspectival, i.e. meaning is not just an objective reflection of the outside world, it is the way of shaping the world. D. Geeraerts exemplifies it with spatial perspectives which linguistically are construed in different ways. For example, in the situation when someone is in the back garden and wants to say the place where he left some object, he can use the sentences “It’s behind the house” or “It’s in front of the house” which seems to be contradictory, except that they embody different perspectives. In the first expression, the perspective is determined by the way he looks (the object is situated in the direction of gaze, but the house blocks the view, so the object is behind the house). In the second expression, the point of view is that a house has a canonical direction, the side a house is facing is regarded as front. So, both sentences have the same meaning but are constructed from different perspectives;

2) Linguistic meaning is dynamic and flexible, i.e. meanings change, they are not fixed and stable. The language units as well as their meanings reflect all the changes of the world, so people adapt semantic categories to transformations of the surrounding world;

3) Linguistic meaning is encyclopedic and non-autonomous, i.e. the meaning we construct in and through language is not a separate and independent module of the mind, but it reflects our overall experience as human-beings. Linguistic meaning is interconnected with other forms of

knowledge of the world and it involves knowledge of the world that is integrated with our cognitive capacities. In this sense, meanings also reveal and reflect cultural, social, historical experiences of the representatives of a certain nation. D. Geeraerts exemplifies it with the category of “birds”; the typical, most familiar birds in one culture are not familiar to other cultures and that will certainly affect the knowledge people associate with the category of “bird”. The same concerns other categories;

4) Linguistic meaning is based on usage and experience, i.e. it is experience grounded. In this respect, cognitive linguistics is a usage-based model of grammar; the experience of language is an experience of actual language use, not words given in a dictionary or sentence patterns in structural grammar. So, in a usage-based model the knowledge of language experientially based on actual speech is more essential than the knowledge of structures (Geeraerts, 2006, p.1-28).

2.3. METHODOLOGICAL BASIS OF COGNITIVE LINGUISTICS

As it has already been mentioned, the most influential linguists working on the problems of Cognitive Linguistics are Charles Fillmore, George Lakoff, Ronald Langacker, Ray Jackendoff, Eleanor Rosch and Leonard Talmy. Each of these linguists developed their own approach to language description and linguistic theory, centered on a particular set of phenomena and concerns.

The methodological foundation of Cognitive Linguistics consists in:

- Frame semantics developed by Ch. Fillmore (1982) who introduced the notion of “frame” to the analysis of linguistic semantics. Frame is a hierarchical structure of linguistic data representing a stereotype situation. It is a unit of knowledge structures organized around some notion or situation and verbalized by means of interrelated linguistic units. Frame semantics according to N.N. Boldirev (2004) can explain the relations between words and their corresponding concepts, and reveal new implicit senses

- Conceptual semantics based on the hypothesis that the information obtained in the process of visual, auditory, tactile, etc., perception forms a certain conceptual system in the individual’s mind, his conceptual world picture (Jackendoff, 1983). The conceptual system is considered in terms of mental representations, which reflect non-linguistic human cognition, on the one hand, and its linguistic, verbal presentation – on the other

- Prototype semantics developed by E. Rosch (1975), concentrates attention on the process of categorization. Categorization is understood as a mental process of taxonomic activity, regulated presentation of various phenomena classified according to their essential, categorizing characteristics. Categorization is based on the theory of prototypes regarded as the best samples of a certain category reflecting its entity and properties in full measure

- Theory of relevance vs. salience as one of the principles of presenting information consists in the assumption that in any concrete case of communication the most essential, relevant information is somehow marked out and outlined (Sperber, Wilson, 1989). The principle of relevance is bound up with the principle of foregrounding regarded as a cognitive procedure of selecting linguistic expressions and attracting attention to the most significant information. It also bears reference to the theory of “gestalt” as a cognitive structure presupposing a perceptual differentiation of “figure and ground”. In other words in the process of perception some parts of information are more conspicuous, they are put forward and stand out against the background information

- The theory of cognitive modeling and cognitive (conceptual) metaphor regarded as models of understanding, conceptualization and categorization of the coming in information. G. Lakoff suggests four types of cognitive models: propositional, schematic, metaphorical and metonymical. Such an approach accounts for a great interest to metaphor as a mechanism of thinking and understanding based on the principle of analogy which is considered one of the main principles of cognition

- The theory of mental space (Fauconnier, 1994), conceptual domains (Langacker, 1987, 1991) postulating that the meaning of a linguistic unit can be specified in complex cognitive construals of interrelated concepts. In other words, linguistic meanings can be characterized only within a cognitive context which in its turn evokes appropriate to the situation knowledge about the world.

The survey of the linguistic literature enables us to outline the following basic problems of Cognitive Linguistics:

1. Knowledge structures and their verbalization. This problem deals with such issues as: types of knowledge structures, mechanism of their linguistic representations, correlations between language and knowledge structures and many others;

2. The notion of concept and its verbalization. This issue concerns with the structure of the concept and the methods of its analysis; types of concepts and their associativity; the notion of “conceptosphere”.

3. The problems of conceptualization as one of the main processes of the human cognitive activity dealing with composing knowledge structures on the basis of text data and background information. The problem of categorization aimed to segmentate and systemize the objects grouping them into larger general classes. There are various ways of categorization according to: a) a set of generic features; b) a proximity to a prototype; c) due to “family resemblance” (Wittgenstein, 2);

4. The cognitive-discourse approach to the analysis of the linguistic data. This approach presupposes the study of the cognitive groundings of linguistic expressions. In other words, linguistic units are studied in the cluster of their lexical, grammatical, pragmatic and cognitive characteristics;

5. The study of the text within the cognitive paradigm. The main principle of this approach is to ascertain conceptual structuring of the text. According to E.S. Kubryakova, language has two functions. Consequently, an adequate explanation of language phenomena including texts can be achieved only at the cross-road of cognition and communication (2004, c.11). The major themes of this problem are: various types of textual information, the principles of presenting the old and new information, the principle of iconicity, the principle of relevance vs. salience including foregrounding, figure-ground theory;

6. Methods of cognitive modeling. The main method of Cognitive Linguistics is conceptual analysis aimed to specify cognitive grounds for each linguistic unit, its conceptual structure consisting of a cluster of conceptual features and their hierarchy. In contrast to semantic analysis done within the limits of syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations of linguistic units, conceptual analysis requires a much wider cognitive context, including not only linguistic but also non-linguistic knowledge about the world. In other words, cognitive context extends beyond language and addresses non-linguistic human cognition. It means that linguistic units presented in their semantic and syntactical correlations, are looked upon as mental representations and cognitive processing. Conceptual analysis covers multiple ways of conceptualizing information including both traditional (definitional analysis, componential analysis, etymological analysis, contextual analysis) and new methods (frame analysis, prototype analysis, cognitive mapping, method of parameterization, cognitive metaphorical analysis).

Cognitive Linguistics has been developing in different ways and directions, the main of which are cognitive semantics, cognitive grammar, cognitive word-formation and cognitive stylistics. These trends will be discussed in somewhat more detail further in the subsequent sections.

In conclusion, it should be stressed that Cognitive Linguistics despite a variety of approaches, views and trends presents a united system of scientific theories, theoretical and methodological principles, and makes a great contribution to the theory of language.

QUESTIONS AND TASKS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What is Cognitive Linguistics, its subject matter and aims?
2. What ideas lie at the roots of Cognitive Linguistics?
3. Discuss the theoretical foundations of Cognitive Linguistics
4. Name the pioneer figures of Cognitive Linguistics
5. What are the basic principles of Cognitive Linguistics?
6. Highlight the major problems and themes of Cognitive Linguistics

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CHAPTER III. THE MAIN TRENDS OF COGNITIVE LINGUISTICS

Cognitive Linguistics has been developing in many directions. The main trends are Cognitive Semantics, Cognitive Grammar and Cognitive Stylistics.

3.1. COGNITIVE SEMANTICS

Cognitive Semantics deals with the conceptual theory of meaning which presupposes the multilevel interpretation of both linguistic and non-linguistic (encyclopedic) knowledge (Болдырев, 2004). It means that meanings correlate with certain cognitive contexts, knowledge structures, which represent these meanings and secure their understanding. In other words, meaning is a manifestation of conceptual structures, and Cognitive Semantics focuses on how language encodes and reflects conceptual structures (Evans, Green, 2006).

So, Cognitive Semantics aims to interpret linguistic meaning on the basis of knowledge structures and evaluations represented by linguistic units. This idea can be illustrated by interpreting the conceptual structure of the word “book”. The dictionary meaning of this word is “a number of printed sheets of paper, fastened together in a cover” (CCELD). This meaning serves as “a point of access” to a vast conceptual domain, which includes knowledge in various fields: a) science – books in history, politics, economy, etc.; b) literature – novels, poems, collections of stories, etc.; c) personal experience – a favorite book, a book as a present; d) typography – edition, copyright, patent, design, etc.

Meaning in its cognitive sense is characterized by a number of features: it is encyclopedic, it depends on the cognitive contexts, it is usage-based (Evans, Green, 2006). The encyclopedic nature of meaning gives access to vast resources of knowledge relating to a particular concept or conceptual domain. The notion of “concept” is the key notion of Cognitive Linguistics, as “a quantum of knowledge”, a unit of the conceptual system of language. The notion of concept, its structure and types will be discussed further (ch.IV). Here it should be stressed that there are different approaches, views and definitions of this notion. As for conceptual domains, they are defined as “cognitive entities, mental experiences, representational spaces, conceptual complexes (Langacker, 1987) of various complexity and organization”.

The meaning of a particular linguistic unit cannot be understood independently of the cognitive context it is associated with. Cognitive contexts are known under various names: cognitive domains (Langacker, 1987), mental spaces (Fauconnier, 1994), frames (Fillmore, 1982). Despite some differences, all these terms convey the idea that knowledge is not a sum of separate facts, but a complex hierarchical system, a cognitive model of presenting information. The most acknowledged is the theory of frames. This theory, developed by Ch. Fillmore (1982), proposes that a frame is a schematization of experience, a knowledge structure which relates the elements and entities to a particular scene from human experience. Frames represent a complex knowledge structure which allows to understand the meaning. For example, the frame of the word “Fishing” includes a

range of event sequences: 1) preparation for fishing (fish-net, fishing rods, lines, hooks, etc.); 2) place (sea, river, fish-pond, etc.); 3) the process of fishing (hobby, business, sport, biting, catch, bait, *business of catching fish*, etc.); 4) the concomitant events (*talks, discussions, funny stories, yarns, jokes, etc.*); 5) evaluations associated with the process of fishing (*excitement, joy, delight, disappointment, etc.*).

It is acknowledged that the meaning of linguistic units depends on how language is actually used. Language use presupposes not only linguistic knowledge (paradigmatic, syntagmatic and contextual links), but also interactional and goal-directed aspects, and background knowledge.

So, Cognitive Semantics is primarily concerned with the conceptual nature of linguistic meanings, their relationships to conceptual structures, that reflect human knowledge and experience.

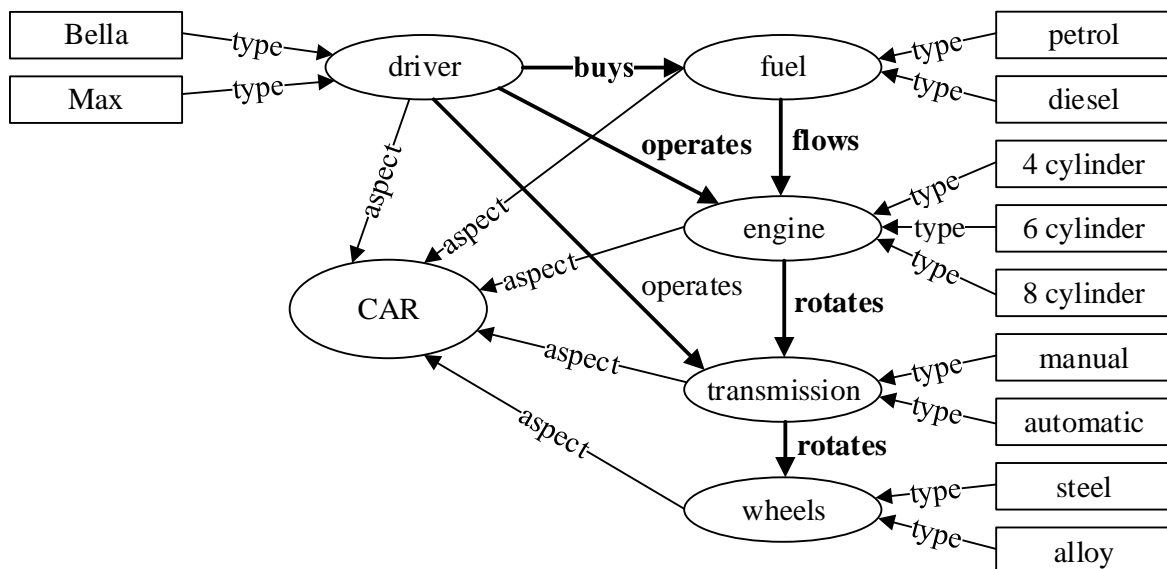
3.1.1. FRAME SEMANTICS

The theory of Frame Semantics elaborated by Ch. Fillmore (1982) presents one of the most influential theories of Cognitive Linguistics. According to Ch. Fillmore frame is a schematization of experience, a knowledge structure which relates the elements and entities associated with a particular scene from human experience. In other words, frames represent a complex knowledge structure including a group of related words and concepts. For example, THEATRE is not simply a cultural institution; it is associated with a number of concepts such as: ACTORS, SPECTATORS, PERFORMANCE, STAGE, SUCCESS, APPLAUSE, etc.

Scholars distinguish different types of frames that reflect various knowledge structures about the world:

- frame-structures for denoting notions and objects: (*loan, pledge, promissory*);
- frame-roles (*manager, teacher, judge, client, cashier, student, engineer*);
- frames-scenario (*bankruptcy, imprisonment, meeting, birthday, conference*);
- frame-situations (*accident, wedding, shopping*).

Frames represent a complex knowledge structure that allows us to understand the meaning; they provide background information against which linguistic units can be understood and used. To illustrate it V. Evans and M. Green provide an example of the frame CAR:



Fillmore Ch. views frames as models of understanding. He argues that meaning cannot be understood independently of the frame with which it is associated. Frames are the basic mode of knowledge representation, but they are continually modified according to ongoing human experience. Thus, the above given frame can be complemented by other very important for modern cars elements such as DESIGN, MODEL, COLOUR, SIZE, PRICE, etc.

Frame is a hierarchical structure of linguistic data. It consists of two levels: the upper level and the lower level. The upper level is the name of the frame; the lower level consists of terminals (slots and subslots), conveying concrete information about the situation in question. All terminals constituting the frame, are not independent; they are closely interconnected and interrelated another. Each terminal indicates the conditions and circumstances of a certain situation; it is characterized by the range of features and attributes. Some of these features are explicit, others – are implicit. In the process of frame analysis implicit components are supposed to be decoded and interpreted. From these perspectives, it is expedient to say that frames generate new senses. Besides, frame is not a settled, stable structure; it is liable to changes together with the changes of the conceptual world picture. For example, the frame of the concept WOMAN at present has considerably changed compared to that of the previous centuries. The modern frame includes such new terminals as BUSINESS WOMAN, EMANCIPATION, FEMINISM. The analysis of this frame and its components as well as associative links makes it possible to infer new conceptual features ascribed to a modern woman: *strong, resolute, equal in rights, independent, confident, efficient, free-thinking, self-sufficient, self-supporting, energetic, active, busy, skillful, professional, resolved, insistent, steady, staunch, strong-willed, unfearing, tenacious, purposeful, serious, feministic, androgynous, manlike.*

Frame Semantics theory can be applied not only to lexical units, but also to grammatical categories and forms (Evans, Green, 2006). For instance, the distinction between active and passive constructions is that they provide different frames. As V. Evans and M. Green note the active construction takes the perspective of the

AGENT in a sentence, the passive takes the perspective of the PATIENT. For example:

George built the house.

The house was built by George.

In the first sentence the focal participant is *George*, he is the *agent* of the action. *The house* is the secondary participant; it is the *patient* of the action. In the second sentence the situation is reserved, and the *agent* is the secondary participant, and the *patient* is the focal participant. So, the difference between active and passive constructions can be formulated in terms of conceptual asymmetry characterized by the shift of “figure-ground” organization. The notion of “figure-ground” is widely used in Cognitive Linguistics. It characterizes the process of perception and cognitive processing of the most relevant and significant information. It means that some components of the frame are put forward and become a salient part (most relevant) of the frame. Other components represent the ground relative to which the figure is understood. The difference between the active and the passive lies in the interchange of “figure-ground” positions. The “ground” position of the active becomes the “figure” of the passive and the “figure” position of the active is replaced by the “ground” of the passive.

In summing up, the following conclusions can be made:

- frame is a schematisation of experience, a complex knowledge structure represented at the conceptual level and encoded in language;
- meanings can only be understood with respect to frames;
- the theory of Frame Semantics is relevant to the meanings of words, word combinations, grammatical categories and forms.

3.2. COGNITIVE GRAMMAR

Cognitive Grammar is the theoretical framework which deals with grammatical categories, units, and constructions in their relationships to the processes of the world perception and cognition. It means that Cognitive Grammar places a great emphasis on the cognitive mechanisms that underlie grammar. In other words, Cognitive Grammar deals with the overall organization of grammar that focuses on meaning (Evans, Green, 2006).

So, the key assumption of Cognitive Grammar lies in the fact that grammar is viewed as a meaningful system, that grammatical units are inherently meaningful, that there are close links between grammar and lexicon, and that gives rise to the idea of a lexicon-grammar continuum. It means that grammar does not constitute an autonomous level, and that sound, meaning and grammar are inextricably linked. It follows from these assumptions that the term “Cognitive Grammar appears to be very close to the terms “Cognitive Linguistics” and “Cognitive Semantics”, and on the whole is used to refer to language theory. It is important to note that the term “grammar” in Cognitive Linguistics is not used in its narrow sense; it doesn’t refer to syntactical and morphological knowledge. The term “grammar” is used in the broad sense, where it refers to the language system as a whole, incorporating sound, meaning and morphology and syntax”. Nevertheless, it is to be stressed that

Cognitive Grammar is characterized by its own specific features and its own subject and object of investigation inasmuch as it deals with grammatical subsystems: grammatical meanings, grammatical categories and functions. But a central place in Cognitive Grammar belongs to a complex composite symbolic structure – constructions which entail constraints upon how the units of grammar can be combined within complex constructions.

As the theoretical framework Cognitive Grammar is mainly based on the theories of two scholars: R.W. Langacker and L. Talmy. There are some fundamental principles worked out by these scholars. According to R. Langacker, grammar is not built up out of grammatical rules and lexicon; it consists of “symbolic units”, that is a conventional pairing of form and meaning (1987). The fundamental unit of grammar is a symbolic unit the form of which cannot be studied independently of meaning. So, a central assumption of the cognitive approach to grammar is that knowledge of language (the mental grammar) is represented in the mind of the speaker as an inventory of symbolic units (Langacker, 1987, p. 73). In other words, Cognitive Grammar as R. Langacker argues, underpins the division of cognitive expressions into two major classes: nominal and relational predications. Nominal predications describe entities, relational predications describe relations between entities. R. Langacker divides the category of relational predication into two subcategories: temporal and atemporal relations. *Temporal relations are processes encoded by verbs.* The category of atemporal relations is a more disparate category and contains prepositions, adjectives, adverbs and non-finite verb forms (infinitives and participles). Temporal relations account for finite verb forms which are schematically characterized as PROCESS. Atemporal relations can be schematically characterized in terms of STATES. As for grammatical constructions Cognitive Grammar emphasizes not structure building, but the semantic relationships between the component parts of a complex structure.

Another fundamental principle of Cognitive Grammar is the usage-based thesis. It means that knowledge of language is first of all is how language is used. In other words, the language system is closely related to how language is actually used, and the language structure cannot be studied without taking into account the nature of language use. Language use involves interaction between speakers and listeners. It follows that interactional and goal-directed aspects of language use and context are of a central concern to Cognitive Grammar. The context of use interacts with the speaker’s intentions and plays a crucial role is how the utterance is interpreted by the listener.

Accepting the idea of a lexicon-grammar continuum some linguists underline the fact that there is a qualitative distinction between the lexical and grammatical subsystems (Talmy, 2000). Each of these subsystems provides a different kind of meaning. Grammatical units are characterized by the schematic meanings. Compared to lexicon grammatical meanings are more abstract and schematic. For example, nouns are schematically characterized as “THINGS”, verbs as “PROCESSES”. Grammatical constructions are also meaningful “...sentence-level constructions themselves carry meanings, independently of the words in the sentence

(Goldberg, 1995, p. 1)”. Cognitive Grammar emphasizes not structure building, but the semantic relationships between the component parts of a complex structure.

Having discussed the key principles of Cognitive Grammar, we have to outline the main areas of investigation in Cognitive Grammar:

- the peculiar features of grammatical meaning;
- word classes in terms of categorization;
- the conceptual grounding of grammatical categories and functions;
- the cognitive account of grammatical constructions;
- active and passive constructions in terms of figure-ground theory;
- cognitive case study (tense, mood, aspect);
- cognitive interpretation of deictic expressions, determiners, auxiliary verbs, modal verbs, etc.

3.3. COGNITIVE STYLISTICS

Cognitive stylistics is a relatively new and rapidly developing field of language study at the interface between linguistics, literary studies and cognitive science. E. Semino defined it as the way in which linguistic analysis is systematically based on theories that relate linguistic choices to cognitive structures and processes (Semino, Culpeper, 2002). According to P. Simpson cognitive stylistics makes the main emphasis on mental representation rather than on textual representation and is aimed to shift the focus away from models of text and composition towards models that make explicit the links between the human mind and the process of reading (Simpson, 2004).

It needs to be stressed from the beginning that there are close links between Cognitive Linguistics and Stylistics. It is accounted for by the fact that the main theoretical assumptions of these sciences have much in common:

- ✓ language is regarded as a means of communication and cognition;
- ✓ both cognitive linguistics and stylistics focus on the processes of conceptualization, categorization and interpretation of textual information;
- ✓ language is characterized by creative and imaginative capabilities;
- ✓ both disciplines are based on the methodological principles of anthropocentrism and interdisciplinarity;
- ✓ the main object of investigation in both sciences is text as a complex communicative-cognitive phenomenon;
- ✓ both sciences postulate the necessity to consider linguistic expressions in the relation to non-linguistic factors (knowledge about the world, sociocultural context, communicative and aesthetic intentions).

Cognitive stylistics embraces a wide range of questions, including:

- the problems of cognitive style;
- the problem of conceptualization and categorization of textual information;
- cognitive principles of presenting information in the text;
- cognitive grounding of stylistic devices;
- the theory of cognitive metaphor in different text types;

- implicative aspects of textual communication;
- “figure and ground” theory;
 - theory of conceptual blending.

Let us elaborate briefly on some of these problems.

Cognitive style is the author’s individual way of conveying and presenting information, the peculiarities of its arrangement in the text/discourse related to a specific choice of cognitive operations and their preferable usage in the process of text production (KCKT, 1996:80). Cognitive style is considered to be associated with the author’s personality, individual world picture, creative process of thinking and subjective modality.

In applying the principles and methods of cognitive linguistics to stylistics a special attention should be attached to the problem of stylistic devices. Traditionally stylistic devices have been studied from the point of view of their structural and semantic organization and stylistic functions. However, a satisfactory account of these phenomena can only be arrived at by means of a cognitive approach. In this sense stylistic devices are regarded as means of transmitting the conceptual information of the text, representing the conceptual world picture and knowledge structures (allusion, antonomasia, symbol, cognitive metaphor, cognitive metonymy, etc).

One of the most important notions in Cognitive Stylistics is the notion of information. Information is understood as knowledge represented and transferred by language forms in the process of communication (KCKT, 1996). Of great importance is differentiation of various types of information. I.R. Galperin distinguishes the following types of information: factual, conceptual and subtextual (Galperin, 1981). Besides, information can be subdivided into cognitive and contextual (Dijk, 1981). Cognitive information consists of knowledge, convictions, opinions, views, positions. This type of information is of a particular relevance to literary text interpretation. No less important for the cognitive approach to the text are the types of information which are called old (given, known) and new (unknown) (Prince, 1981). It should be noted that from the position of cognitive stylistics new information is not necessarily connected with new facts. More often information is conditioned by creative potential of language, a twofold use of the language medium, various kinds of occasional transformations of language means and deviations from the norm.

In conclusion, it should be stressed that though Cognitive Linguistics is characterized by a multitude of views, problems, and approaches, it represents now one of the most expanding linguistic disciplines within a unified theoretical framework and methodology.

QUESTIONS AND TASKS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What ideas of well-known scholars gave impetus to the development of Cognitive Linguistics?
2. What are the main principles of Cognitive Linguistics?
3. What does Cognitive Semantics deal with?

4. How do you explain the multilevel semantic structure of the word?
5. How is meaning understood in its cognitive sense?
6. What is a cognitive context?
7. What is Cognitive Grammar concerned with?
8. Speak on the key assumptions of Cognitive Grammar.
9. What are the main areas of investigation in Cognitive Grammar?
10. Comment on the theoretical assumptions of Cognitive Stylistics.
11. What are the main areas of investigation in Cognitive stylistics?
12. Define the notion of “frame”.
13. Give examples of a frame structure
14. Comment on the frame structure
15. How can Frame Semantics theory be applied to grammatical categories and forms?
16. What does cognitive stylistics study?

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CHAPTER IV. KNOWLEDGE STRUCTURES

4.1. THE NOTION OF KNOWLEDGE STRUCTURES AND ITS TYPES

The function of language intended to extract, store and transfer information necessitates the study of the ways and mechanisms of presenting knowledge in language. Knowledge and its representation are key issues of cognitive sciences in general, and cognitive linguistics in particular. From the point of view of cognitive linguistics knowledge is regarded as the result of cognition and categorization of the surrounding world, as an adequate reflection of reality in the human mind, as a product of processing verbal and non-verbal experience that forms “the image of the world”, on the basis of which one can make his own judgments and conclusions (Герасимов, Петров, 1988, с.14).

It should be mentioned that the notion of knowledge structures was first used by F. Bartlett, one of the forerunners of cognitive psychology. F. Bartlett claimed that humans have core knowledge in the form of unconscious mental structures and that this knowledge interacts with new incoming information and produce schemas (Bartlett, 1932). Later knowledge structures were reintroduced into modern cognitive science by M. Minsky (1975), who worked in the field of artificial intellect. He attempted to develop machines that showed human-like abilities and proposed that human knowledge is represented in memory in frames. Later, the notion of knowledge structures was widely used in Cognitive Linguistics.

Most cognitivists agree that knowledge in the human mind consists of mental representations constructed of concepts, analogies, images, relations between elements within a single mental space. It is acknowledged that knowledge is not an amorphous entity; it is structured to present certain blocks of information, and that conditioned the use of the term “knowledge structures”. It is worthy of note that this phenomenon is known under various names “depositories of knowledge”, “encyclopaedic knowledge”, “knowledge-base”, “background knowledge”, “formats of knowledge”, etc. Despite some terminological discrepancy, on the whole knowledge structures are understood as blocks of information containing a system of interrelated concepts.

Many researchers assert that linguistic units represent discrete conceptual entities, properties, activities and relations, which constitute the knowledge space of a particular subject field (Sager, 1998:261). The concepts are embedded in complex knowledge structures, and in the process of conceptualization “linguistic units serve as prompts for an array of conceptual operations and the recruitment of background knowledge” (Evans, 2006:160). It happens due to the fact that meaning, as R. Langacker claims, is a dynamic and mental process that involves conceptualization (mental experience) (Langacker, 1988:50).

One of the key issues in Cognitive Linguistics is the problem of knowledge structures classification. There are many approaches to this problem since scholars provide different classifications taking into account this or that aspect of knowledge

structures. Some scholars (Lakoff, 1987; Fillmore, 1988; Minsky, 1975; Болдырев, 2006; Кубрякова, 1992, 1994, 2004) study different ways of configuration of the conceptual system, i.e. revealing knowledge formats or models: frames, scripts, scenario, categories, etc. Others (Бабушкин, 1996; Болдырев, 2001; 2004; Карасик, 2002; Степанов, 2004) concentrate their attention on the linguistic means representing conceptual systems, i.e. concepts verbalizing national, ethnic, linguistic peculiarities. So, knowledge structures are based on the idea that people organize information into patterns that reflect the relationships between concepts and the features constituting them (Johnson-Laird, 1983).

As the survey of the theoretical literature proves the scholars differentiate various types of knowledge structures presented in opposition:

- **empirical** (derived from investigation, observation, experimentation, or experience) – **rationale/theoretical** (based on logical or mathematical assumptions);
- **a priori/explicit** (the knowledge that does not need experience) – **posteriori/tacit** (the knowledge derived from reasoning, experience and observation (inductive));
- **propositional/descriptive/declarative** – (knowing “what”; knowledge of smth., f.e. the construct of human body, a phone) – **non-propositional/procedural** (knowing “how”, f.e. how to drive, how to use a phone);
- **linguistic** (verbal) – **extralinguistic** (non-verbal);
- **collective** (knowledge shared by a definite community) – **individual** (personal qualitative and quantitative features of collective knowledge);
- **concrete** (facts, statistics, dates) – **abstract** (feelings, emotions, religious notions);
- **general** (encyclopedic) – **special** (f.e. professional area);
- **conceptual** (notions, ideas) – **factual** (f.e. the length of the river, the density of iron).

It should be mentioned that the scientists use different terms to identify a certain type of knowledge. For example, postriori knowledge has much in common with empirical and tacit knowledge while a priori can stand very close to declarative and rational knowledge.

According to N. Boldirev, there are the following types of knowledge:

- verbalized knowledge about the objects and phenomena of the surrounding world reflected in linguistic units and their meanings, i.e. concepts;
- knowledge of linguistic forms, their meanings and categories, reflecting the peculiarities of linguistic organization (lexical and grammatical categories, f.e. thematic classifications, synonymous rows, the category of time, etc.);
- knowledge of linguistic units and categories that have intralinguistic nature and serve as a means of interpretation and reinterpretation of the conceptual content of the language (Boldirev, 2004);

Another classification accepted in modern Cognitive Linguistics presupposes the division of knowledge structures into the following types:

- linguistic (lexicon, grammar, phonetics word-formation, etc.). Linguistic knowledge is the result of cognition and conceptualization of language system and structure, its main units and categories, principles and mechanisms of forming and transforming different senses via language;
- encyclopedic (knowledge about the world, history, politics, economies, nature, etc.). This type of knowledge presupposes general knowledge about geographical positions, history of the world, main events in politics and economics, etc.;
- communicative (knowledge of communicative aims and intentions, conditions and circumstances of communication, behavior norms and aims of different speech acts);
- cultural (knowledge about literature, art, cultural values, customs and traditions, religion, mythology and beliefs, etc.). (Герасимов, Петров, 1988).

It should be mentioned that all these types of knowledge are subdivided into two main groups: linguistic knowledge and non-linguistic or knowledge of the world presented in the human mind.

The problem of relationships between knowledge structures and their verbal explications is the main concern of cognitive linguistics (Болдырев, 2006). In this respect a crucial task is to define which elements of language are most relevant to knowledge representations. Knowledge structures can be analyzed via mental representations or mental models of knowledge and are generally called “idealized cognitive models” (ICM). ICM can be presented in the human mind in the forms of frames, schemas, scripts, scenario, gestalts, etc:

- frames – a schematisation of experience (a knowledge structure), which is represented at the conceptual level and held in a long-term memory and which relates elements and entities to a particular culturally embedded scene, situation or event from human experience. Frames include different sorts of knowledge including attributes, and relations between attributes (GCL, 2007, p.86);
- schema – a way of organizing knowledge; a cohesive, repeatable action sequence possessing component actions that are tightly interconnected and governed by a core meaning (Piaget); a set of linked mental representations of the world; a unit of knowledge, each relating to one aspect of the world, including objects, actions and abstract (i.e. theoretical) concepts. Cohen (1981), Kelley (1972), Weiner (1981, 1986), Markus (1977) identify the following types of schemata: 1) social schemas are about general social knowledge; 2) person schemas are about individuals; 3) idealized person schemas are called prototypes; 4) self-schemas are about oneself; the humans hold possible or projected selves; 5) role schemas are about proper behaviors in the given situations; 6) trait schemas about the innate people’s characteristics; 7) event schemas are about what happens in specific

situations; 8) object schemas are about inanimate things and how they work;

- scripts, scenario (a stereotyped dynamic sequence of events, episodes, facts, f.e. visit to the stadium, football match, examinations);
- gestalts (shape, form) – unconscious perceptual mechanisms to construct the wholes or gestalts out of incomplete perceptual inputs. It refers to the theories of visual perception developed by German psychologists that attempt to describe how people tend to organize visual elements into groups or unified wholes on the basis of certain principles such as proximity, similarity, symmetry, etc. For example, the principle of similarity states that elements similar to each other in shape, colour, shading or other qualities are grouped together and perceived as a whole;
- concept – the fundamental structured and organized unit of knowledge structure central to categorisation and conceptualization, Concepts can be encoded in a language-specific format known as lexical concept. Though concepts are relatively stable cognitive entities they are modified by ongoing episodic and recurrent experiences (GCL, 2007, p.86);

So, knowledge structures are structured and organized into cognitive patterns that can be imprinted in the human's memory. The terms such as schema, script, frame and mental model are used along with the term knowledge structures or idealized cognitive models. They are also called "units" of knowledge, or a set of mental representations of the world.

4.2. VERBALIZATION OF KNOWLEDGE STRUCTURES

Although a lot of linguistic examples have been provided in the works by V. Evans, M. Green, G. Lakoff and others the taxonomy of linguistic units most relevant to knowledge representations has not been worked out yet. Our observations have proved that most conspicuous in this respect is lexicon. For example, the word **Trip** contains a wide range of notions, events and associations based on human experience and background informational elements. It includes the following frames:

Trip – a journey in which a person goes somewhere usually for a short time;

1) **purpose:** *to have a rest, to go on business, for entertainment, to reach an agreement, to establish a relationship;*

2) **arrangement:** *packing the suitcase, choosing clothes, choosing the form of transportation, planning the dates;*

3) **participants:** *family members, friends, colleagues, partners;*

4) **place:** *abroad, historical cities, mountains, forest/wood, near the sea/river/lake;*

5) **types of transportation:** *a plane, a ship, a train, a car, a boat, a horse;*

6) **the emotional atmosphere:** *excitement, happiness, merriment, homesick;*

7) **activities:** *meetings, sightseeing, visits to theatres, cooking, sport games, fishing, singing, playing musical instruments, etc.;*

This example demonstrates how a simple word represents a very complex conceptual structure.

Even more important in terms of knowledge structures are derivative and compound words. A distinctive feature of these units is their complex, composite, componential structure. Consequently, derivative and compound words compared to simple words are more informative and semantically richer. Due to their composite character these units do not only nominate objects but also ascribe them some properties, characteristics, attitudes. Derivatives and compounds to some extent are similar to syntactical constructions; they fulfill both the function of identification of objects and the function of predication designating the features and properties of these objects. In other words, these units are characterized by propositional structure. In Cognitive Linguistics propositional structures are regarded as the main “formats” of knowledge. Hence, derivatives as cognitive signs present new knowledge on the basis of old knowledge provided by a word-formation model. In the process of word-formation syntactical constructions are compressed into a simple word, a derivative or a compound word. It does not mean, however, that from the semantic and cognitive point of view these units are less informative. On the contrary they acquire additional conceptual senses. Here is an example:

*I couldn't be a householder, a bread-winner, a home-at-sixer, a husband, a shopper-on-Saturdays, a guardian to four kids (Gillespie E., *The Best American Short Stories*, New York, 1974, p.18).*

This utterance is characterized by a high degree of informativity both of notional and emotional character. This is mainly achieved by a chain of compound words, characterized by the semantic compression and saturation of information. In the process of word-formation the compound words acquire additional senses which become apparent if we compare the compounds to the syntactical structures they are based on:

a house-holder – one who holds a house;

a bread-winner – one who has to win his bread;

a home-at-sixer – one who comes home at six;

a shopper-on-Saturdays – one who does shopping on Saturdays.

The comparison reveals the differences between the compounds and the corresponding syntactical structures both in the amount and the character of the information they contain. The compounds are characterized by more abstract and generalized meanings whilst the syntactical structures are more concrete and exact. Besides, in the process of word-formation new senses, in this case of emotive-evaluative character, are generated.

It can be easily proved by comparison of the words **man** and its derivative **manly**. The main meaning of the word **man** is “an adult male human being (CCELD); the word **manly** assumes much more meanings and connotations associated with men's behavior, character and appearance. This can be illustrated by the following example:

*By **manly** I mean all that is eager, hearty, fearless, modest, pure (OED).*

The suffix **-ly** added to the root morpheme **man** changes the conceptual structure of the derivative ascribing to it a lot of new conceptual senses.

So, it follows that from the cognitive point of view derivatives and compounds are a) more informative compared to simple words; b) generate new conceptual senses in the process of word-formation; c) present new information on the basis of the old one provided by a word-formation model; d) serve as signals of conceptual information, as a means of the conceptual world picture representation.

The next group of linguistic units most relevant to knowledge representations includes phraseological units. It has long been acknowledged that phraseology of any language reflects people's culture, history, national mentality and life style (Маслова, 2007). Therefore phraseological units by their very nature are intended to convey knowledge structures related to all spheres of life. From this position phraseological units can be subdivided into specific groups representing religious, mythological, literary, historical knowledge structures.

Religious knowledge structures: *a forbidden fruit, the brand of Cain, the golden calf, serve God and Mammon, Sodom and Gomorrah, Jude's kiss, old as Methuselah, the apple of Sodom, the Last Supper, Solomon's wisdom, a good Samaritan.*

Each of these phraseological units activates religious knowledge structures and a set of associations related to the biblical stories. For example, the phraseological unit *a forbidden fruit* activates in the mind of the reader the story of Adam and Eve who ate the fruit of the tree in the Garden of Eden and that was strictly prohibited by God. As a result, they were punished and forced to leave the Garden of Eden. Currently, this phraseological unit is used in the meaning of "a pleasure or enjoyment that is disapproved of or not allowed". Another phraseological unit *the massacre of innocents* refers to the biblical story describing the killing of Jewish male children at the age of two or less ordered by wicked king Herod, who wanted to make sure that Jesus wouldn't become king as it had been predicted by the priests. Now, this phraseological unit means "the cruel killing of a large number of innocent people, especially those who cannot defend themselves".

Mythological knowledge structures: *Pandora's box, Achilles' heel, a Trojan horse, Cassandra's warning, the riddle of the Sphinx, in the arms of Morpheus, rise like Phoenix from the ashes, between Scylla and Charybdis, Promethean fire, Penelope's web, the thread of Ariadne.*

All these phraseological units represent certain myths – legends about gods and heroes, stories and fables about superhuman beings taken by the preliterate society for a true account. From the cognitive view these units are regarded as cognitive models awaking in the mind of the reader a certain myth. For instance, the phraseological unit *Pandora's box* refers to the story about the first woman on the Earth who because of her curiosity opened a box where all miseries, evils and diseases were kept. As a result all of them flew out to afflict the mankind. The phraseological unit *Achilles' heel* – from the mythological legend about Greek hero Achilles, who according to the legend was a son of a goddess. She wanted to protect her son dropping him into the sacred waters of the heaven river. As a result, his body became invulnerable except his heel by which she held him. During the battle

Achilles was killed by an arrow pointed at his heel, the only vulnerable place in his body. The modern meaning of this phraseological unit is “a seemingly small but actually crucial weakness; a place of vulnerability, especially in a person’s character”.

Literary knowledge structures: *the last of the Mohicans, Billy bunter, Jekyll and Hide, Peter pan, John bull, a dark horse, a gentleman’s gentleman, cakes and ale, curled darlings, a dog in the manger, mad as march hare, grin like a Cheshire cat, a tangled web, A Paul Pry, John Barleycorn.*

Interpretation of these phraseological units requires good knowledge of fictional literature. For example, phraseological unit *the last of the Mohicans* means the last representative of the society, nation, group and originates from J.F. Cooper’s famous book under the same title. Another phraseological unit Billy Bunter – is the main character of children’s stories by Frank Richards about a British public school. Bunter is a fat, stupid boy who loves eating and always gets into trouble.

Historical knowledge structures: *cut the Gordian knot, Benefit of Clergy, read the Riot Act, cross the Rubicon, the wars of the Roses, a Dutch bargain, Hobson’s choice, the jolly Roger, black flag, Jack the Ripper.*

The above mentioned phraseological units activate in the human mind knowledge structures of historical origin. For example, *the wars of the Roses* – a name given to a series of civil wars in England during the reign of Henry VI, Edward IV and Richard III that had been lasting for 100 years. These wars were marked by a ferocity and brutality practically unknown in the history of England. Phraseological units *cross/pass the Rubicon* and *die is cast* are associated with the name of Julius Caesar when he crossed the river Rubicon and began the war against the Roman senate. Currently, these phraseological units are used in the meaning of “to make a decision or to take an action that cannot be later changed”.

Having discussed the potential of linguistic units to present knowledge structures we turn to the problem of the knowledge activation in the text. As our observations have indicated, stylistic devices play an important role in knowledge representations in the text. Illustrative in this respect are such stylistic devices as allusion, symbol, antonomasia. In fact, these stylistic devices are aimed to activate knowledge structures. The term “activation/activization” is a key term both for Cognitive Linguistics and Text Interpretation. “Activation” is understood as stimulation of certain parts of the brain in the process of speech activity under the influence of verbal signals, aimed to represent certain knowledge structures (KCKT, 1996). Proceeding from this notion, we can suppose that some linguistic units are used with a deliberate aim to activate knowledge structures relevant to the conceptual information of the text. The process of activating knowledge structures in the text can be described as follows: under the impact of some verbal signal a certain frame is activated. The frame, as is known, is a contour scheme, representing a complex knowledge structure, the elements and entities of which (slots) are associated with a particular culture embedded situation. It should be noted in passing that frames are considered to be the basic mode of knowledge representations (Evans, Green, 2006).

One of the most conspicuous means to activate knowledge structure in the literary text is allusion. According to I.R.Galperin, allusion is an “indirect reference,

by word or phrase, to historical, literary, mythological, biblical facts or to the facts of everyday life made in the course of speaking or writing. The use of allusion presupposes the background knowledge of the event, thing or person alluded to on the part of the reader or listener” (Гальперин, 1977).

In terms of Cognitive Linguistics the allusive process can be presented as a comparison or contrast of two referent domains, one of which is verbalized on the surface layer of the text, and the other – is supposed to be in the person’s mind. When used in the text, allusion establishes intertextual relationships between the precedent text and the recipient text by activating certain knowledge structures (background knowledge of the addressee).

As our observations prove one of the most frequently used types of allusion is an allusive anthroponym (the name of a well-known person). It is characterized by a complicated conceptual structure that stimulates ideas, associations and information, thus becoming a symbolical name. For example:

*He has a bit of a **Jekyll** and **Hide**, our Austin. I think Dorina is afraid of him* (Murdoch “An accidental man”).

Here the literary allusion expressed by proper names Jekyll and Hide are used. To understand the meaning of this allusion the reader is supposed to be familiar with a short story “The Strange Case of Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hide” by R.L. Stivenson. The hero of the story is of a dual character. Sometimes he appears to be a good-natured person (Dr. Jekyll), and sometimes he is an embodiment of evil (Mr. Hide). In this context the proper nouns “Jekyll and Hide” reveal the characteristic features of the personage and symbolize the concepts of “Goodness and Evil”.

In summing up the major points may be outlined:

- knowledge and its verbal representations are the key issues of Cognitive Linguistics;
- knowledge is structured in frames, scripts, gestalts, to present certain blocks of information;
- knowledge structures are verbalized by all linguistic means, among which words, derivatives, compounds, phraseological units are assigned a priority role;
- in the process of language use some linguistic units are used with a deliberate aim to activate knowledge structures most relevant to the conceptual information.

QUESTIONS AND TASKS

1. How is the term “knowledge” understood in Cognitive Linguistics?
2. What does the term “knowledge structures” mean?
3. What types of knowledge structures are differentiated?
4. What is the role of lexicon in knowledge representation?
5. What are the peculiar features of derivatives and compound words with regard to knowledge structures?
6. What types of knowledge structures are conveyed by phraseological units?
7. Describe the process of knowledge structures activation in the text?

8. What stylistic devices are aimed to activate knowledge structures?
9. Comment on the role of allusion in knowledge representation in the literary text?

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CHAPTER V. CONCEPT AS A BASIC NOTION OF COGNITIVE LINGUISTICS

5.1. THE NOTION OF CONCEPT

The notion of “concept” is considered to be one of the main notions of Cognitive Linguistics, Linguoculturology, Linguoconceptology and other linguistic disciplines of the anthropocentric paradigm. Yet, it remains one of the most controversial issues in Cognitive Linguistics. First and foremost, the question that causes a good deal of confusion for those involved in the field is the understanding of what *concept* really is. There exist many definitions presented in the works by foreign and Russian scientists such as M. Heidegger, G. Lakoff, G. Picht, G.V. Alefirenko, N.D. Arutyunova, S.A. Askoldov, A.P. Babushkin, G.I. Berestenev, E.S. Kubryakova, D.S. Likhachev, et al., who outline both differences and some common traits of this notion.

There are two approaches to the problem of concept: cognitive and cultural. As E.S. Kubryakova states, concept is an umbrella term for several scientific directions: first of all for cognitive psychology and cognitive linguistics dealing with thinking and cognition, storing and transferring information, as well as for cultural linguistics, which focuses on the relationships between language and culture (KCKT, 1996).

From the positions of cognitive linguistics “concept” is considered a complex mental unit, a means of representation of knowledge structures, a multifold cognitive structure, an operational unit of memory (Kubryakova E.S., Demyankov V.Z., Boldirev N.N., Alefirenko N.F., Sternin I.A.). Cognitive linguists argue that concept is a part of our general knowledge about the world, a unit of the conceptual system reflecting the human cognitive activity. According to Sh. Safarov concept is a means of systematizing knowledge in the form of frames, scripts, scenarios, *gestalts*.

From the perspectives of linguoculturology “concept” is defined as a basic unit of culture, its core; a mental, cultural and nationally specific unit characterized by an array of emotional, expressive and evaluative components; a constituent part of the national conceptsphere (Stepanov Yu.S., Arutyunova N.D., Karasik V.I., Slishkin G.G., Vorkachyov S.G., Pimenova M.V.).

Despite some differences in approaches, as V.I. Karasik points out, the “linguocultural and cognitive approaches to the notion of concept are not mutually exclusive: concept as a mental unit in the mind of the individual provides access to the conceptsphere of the society, while the cultural concept is a unit of the collective cultural experience; it becomes the cultural property of the individual (Karasik, 2004, p.135). So, concept is a complex mental entity, a component of the conceptual world picture conceptually relevant either to an individual linguistic personality or the whole linguocultural community.

One of the main problems concerning the notion of “concept” is the differentiation of the terms: concept, notion and meaning. It should be noted, that

this issue is the subject of frequent debate, and there are different approaches and views. Not going into details, we shall give some considerations worked out on the basis of the linguistic literature.

The term “concept” came into linguistic usage from logic, where it is regarded as a synonym of the term “notion”. In modern logic “concept” is defined as «an integral complex of the object’s qualities» (Арутюнова, 1998). In the dictionary “Логический Словарь-Справочник“ by N.I. Kondakov the word “concept” is not defined: the reference to the “notion” is given instead, that leads to a conclusion that in logic the terms “concept” and “notion” are identical in their meaning.

However, in linguistics, concepts in contrast to notions (a set of the most essential features of an object or phenomenon), are considered to be a more complex and “multi-dimensional semantic formation” (Karasik, 2004, p.71). In other words, the structure of a concept includes the components not found in notions. Moreover, most concepts are marked by the national-cultural specifics. Therefore not all notions can be regarded as concepts "but only the most complex and important ones, without which it is difficult to imagine the given culture" (Maslova, 2004, p.27).

As for the difference between the notions of “concept” and “meaning”, one of the most acknowledged views is that “the concept is much broader than the lexical meaning” (Аскольдов, 1997). M.V. Pimenova describes the relationship between meaning and concept as follows: “The components of the lexical meaning express only significant conceptual features, but not in a full measure... The structure of the concept is much more complicated and multifaceted than the lexical meaning of the word” (Пименова, 2004, p. 7). According to N.N. Boldyrev, “meaning is an attempt to give a general idea of the concept, to outline its boundaries, to represent just a part of its characteristics” (Болдырев, 2004, p.26). Z.D. Popova and I.A. Sternin underline the differences of the terms stating that they represent different sides of consciousness and thinking. According to them “meaning and concept are the products of different kinds of consciousness. Concept is a product of human’s cognitive consciousness, while meaning represents linguistic consciousness” (Попова, Стернин, 2007, p.92). The scholar claims that concept includes not only known to everybody meanings of the word, but also sociocultural information, encyclopedic knowledge of the object or phenomenon (Попова, Стернин, 2007, p.99-100).

Another distinctive feature of concept in contrast to “notion” and “meaning” is its interlevel verbalization. In other words, concept is externalized with the help of various linguistic means referring to different linguistic levels. It can be expressed by words, derivatives, phraseological units, proverbs, aphorisms and even texts. For example, the concept Happiness is represented by:

- **lexical units:** *happiness, contentment, pleasure, contentedness, satisfaction, cheerfulness, merriment, joy, joyfulness, joviality, jolliness, glee, gladness, delight, enjoyment, felicity;*
- **word-formation units:** *happily, unhappily, unhappy, unhappiness, hippy-happy, dollar-happy, slap-happy, battle-happy, gadget-happy, queue-happy, trigger-happy;*

- **phraseological units:** *the happy day, the happy event, happy place, not be a happy camper, as happy as a clam, as happy as a clam in butter sauce, as happy as a duck in Arizona, as happy as a pig in clover, as happy as a pig in muck, as happy as a sandboy, as happy as Larry, as happy as the day is long, a few fries short of a Happy Meal, a happy bunny, a happy hunting ground, as happy as a clam at high tide, fat and happy, happy as a lark, happy-go-lucky, many happy returns;*
- **proverbs and sayings:** *Happy is the country which has no history; call no man happy till he dies happy; Happy is the bride that the sun shines on; Happiness is not a horse, you cannot harness it; real happiness is found not in doing the things you like to do, but in liking the things you have to do; Happiness is a form of courage; Happiness multiplies as we divide it with others; The happiness in your pocket, don't spend it all; He who plants a garden plants happiness;*
- **quotations and aphorisms:** *Happiness is like a butterfly; the more you chase it, the more it will elude you, but if you turn your attention to other things, it will come and sit softly on your shoulder (Henry David Thoreau); Happiness comes when you believe in what you are doing, know what you are doing, and love what you are doing (Brian Tracy); The secret of happiness is to admire without desiring (Carl Sandburg); Happiness is a habit - cultivate it (Elbert Hubbard); Happiness cannot be traveled to, owned, earned, or worn. It is the spiritual experience of living every minute with love, grace and gratitude (Denis Waitley); Happiness is like manna; it is to be gathered in grains, and enjoyed every day. It will not keep; it cannot be accumulated; nor have we got to go out of ourselves or into remote places to gather it, since it has rained down from a Heaven, at our very door (Tryon Edwards).*
- **texts:** a fragment of the text or the entire text (f.e. “The Happy Man” by S. Maugham; “The Happy Prince” by O.Wilde);

5.2. THE STRUCTURE OF CONCEPT

Another problematic area in the concept theory is the concept structure. There are different views and approaches to this problem.

Yu. S. Stepanov outlines a “layered” structure of the concept distinguishing: a) the main layer (known to each representative of culture); b) the additional layer (historically relevant information), and c) the inner layer, known only to specialists (Степанов, 2004). Yu.S. Stepanov exemplifies this with the help of the concept “March 8th”. He says that this concept contains information “women’s day” (the generally known layer), “women’s rights protection day” (additional information) and “the day set up by Clara Zetkin” (the inner layer: etymological knowledge).

R.M. Frumkina distinguishes: a) the core (notional characteristics that identify a concept), and b) the periphery, (pragmatic, associative, connotative, figurative, expressive features of the concept (Фрумкина, 1996). For example, the core of the concept “Fire” includes such definitional characteristics as a) fire – is the tool of

warmness and light; 2) fire – is a dangerous and destructive natural force; 3) fire – is a tool of war and killing people (guns, explosions, bombs). The periphery of the concept Fire includes the following: 1) fire is a source of life and a tool of destruction (*better a little fire to warm us than a big one to burn us*); 2) fire is motivation, inspiration (*to light one's fire*); 3) fire expresses feelings and emotions (*to breathe a fire, to flame with anger, flame in the eyes*), etc.

Z.D. Popova and I.A. Sternin think that the structure of a concept is divided into a) image (cognitive and perceptive); b) informative field, indicating the minimum of main characteristics of a concept (definitions); в) interpretational field accumulating different features of a concept (associative, evaluative, encyclopedic, cultural, etc.) (Попова, Стернин, 2007, с.106-110).

Most researchers such as V.I. Karasik (2001, 2004), G. Slyshkin (2001), S.G. Vorkachyov (2004, 2007) and others assert that “concept” is composed of three constituents: 1) notional (factual information, i.e. the basic, essential and distinctive features of the concept); 2) image-bearing (metaphors, based on the principle of analogy); 3) evaluative (evaluation and the behavioral norms, axiological and cultural aspects of the concept).

The notional part of the concept includes the minimum of its main characteristics which are usually fixed in the dictionary definitions. In other words, the notional constituent presupposes the analysis of the definitions in different monolingual dictionaries. For example:

Time – 1) the thing that is measured as seconds, minutes, hours, days, years, etc.; 2) a particular minute or hour shown by a clock; 3) periods or a period designated for a given activity, duration; 4) the system of those sequential relations that any event has to any other, as past, present, or future; 5) the period or era now or previously present;

Tree – 1) **a**: a woody perennial plant having a single usually elongate main stem generally with few or no branches on its lower part; **b**: a shrub or herb of arborescent form rose trees a banana tree; 2) **a**: a diagram or graph that branches usually from a simple stem or vertex without forming loops or polygons a genealogical tree phylogenetic trees; **b**: a much-branched system of channels especially in an animal body the vascular tree; 3) a piece of wood (such as a post or pole) usually adapted to a particular use or forming part of a structure or implement

Family – 1) a basic social unit consisting of parents and their children, considered as a group, whether dwelling together or not: *the traditional family*; a social unit consisting of one or more adults together with the children they care for: *a single-parent family*; 2) the spouse and children of one person; 3) any group of persons closely related by blood, as parents, children, uncles, aunts, and cousins; 4) all those persons considered as descendants of a common progenitor; 5) a group of persons who form a household under one head, including parents, children, and servants (merriam-webster.com; dictionary.com).

The image-bearing constituent is represented by metaphorical linguistic expressions: idioms, word-formation units, proverbs, sayings, quotations, aphorisms and texts. For example, the image bearing constituent of the concept LOVE includes the following metaphors: *love is a flower* (*love is a rosebud; love is a flower which*

turns into fruit at marriage); love is a war (all is fair in love and war; all strategies are fair in love; love is like war, easy to start, hard to end, impossible to forget), etc.

The analysis of the evaluative component focuses on revealing people's attitude towards a concept (good/bad), its axiological significance and is done on the material of all linguistic means representing a concept. For example, the evaluative component of the concept LOVE includes: **love is powerful** (*love makes the world go round; where love is, there is faith; love is as strong as death; love conquers all*); **love is kind** (*love makes all hard hearts gentle, love makes all burdens light*); **love is not understandable** (*love is blind; love sees no faults; one cannot love and be wise*); etc.

Though different terms to denote the structure of a concept are used, they are to some extent similar in essence and consequently the following generalizations can be made. In the concept composition the majority of researches single out a definite notional nucleus (Yu. S. Stepanov – the main layer, R.M. Frumkina – the core, Z.D. Popova, I.A. Sternin – the informative field, V.I. Karasik, G. Slyshkin, S.G. Vorkachyov – the notional parts) and some additional constituents (Yu. S. Stepanov – the additional and inner layers, R.M. Frumkina – the periphery, Z.D. Popova, I.A. Sternin – the image and interpretational field, V.I. Karasik, G. Slyshkin, S.G. Vorkachyov – the image-bearing and evaluative constituents). All this allows us to conclude that there is a unanimity of views as far as the concept structure is concerned.

So, summarizing the linguistic data concerning the problem of “concept” and its definitions, we can make the following generalizations:

- concept is a multifold cognitive structure, an operational unit of memory;
 - concept is a basic unit of processing, keeping and conveying knowledge and a means of presenting knowledge structures about the surrounding world;
- concept is a social formation; a cultural and nationally specific unit; a fundamental notion of culture;
- concept is a multifold mental structure consisting of notional, image-bearing and evaluative constituents;
- concept is characterized by a string of emotional, expressive components and associative links;
 - concept is a minimal unit of human experience externalized by means of interlevel linguistic units.

5.3. TYPES OF CONCEPTS

The problem of concept typology/classification is one of the theoretical problems of Cognitive Linguistics. The survey of the theoretical literature has shown that mostly classifications are done within cognitive and cultural approaches.

Let's consider the existing classifications done from the cognitive point of view. One of the first classifications proposed by A.P. Babushkin (2006) was

elaborated **according to the form of expression and representation in vocabulary**. He distinguishes the following types:

- 1) lexical concepts, i.e. represented by lexical units/words (*book, wedding, family, home, motherland*);
- 2) phraseological concepts, i.e. phraseological units that represent one concept (*cap and gown, the golden calf, Achilles heel, guardian angel, a Trojan horse, the last of the Mohicans, a rose without a thorn*);
- 3) concrete concepts, denoting concrete objects (*bush, sand, stone, apple, dog, cup, prison, boy, woman*);
- 4) abstract concepts, denoting abstract notions (*nation, humanity, justice, the universe, piece, freedom*).

Within this classification the scholar also distinguishes the following subtypes of concepts:

- a) mental images (concrete visual images, f.e. fish → shark, animal → dog, plant → tree);
- b) schemas (less detailed images, f.e. “river as a blue ribbon”,) a structured network of schemas. Schemas are modelled as hierarchical structure in terms of a more abstract schema and more specific instances.
- c) frames (hierarchical organization of associations which relate elements and entities associated with a particular embedded scene, situation or event from the human experience – shopping, market, theatre, accident, wedding, fishing);
- d) insights (knowledge about specific functions of objects – drum, mobile, umbrella, piano, knife, oven, fridge, scissors, chair, book);
- e) scenario (a scheme of events; knowledge about events’ in dynamics, synopsis of development – fight, arrest, wedding, fire, driving, examination, game, trip);
- f) kaleidoscopic concepts (the accumulation of scenario and frames, related to emotions and feelings – fear, conscience, despair, disappointment, love) (Бабушкин, 1996, с.43-67; 54).

The next classification is suggested by N.N. Boldirev who distinguishes 9 types of concepts **according to specific knowledge formats**:

- 1) concrete perceptive image (concrete visual image – *the phone, the pen, the knife*);
- 2) mental image (generalized sensed image – *telephone, computer, furniture, flora*);
- 3) schema – a generalized (space and contour oriented) mental image of an object or phenomenon concerning its form, shape, contour, outline, skeleton – *house, human, tree, track*) – general shapes of a house, human’s skeleton; geometrical shapes of smth., contours of a tree, track, etc.);
- 4) notion – a general idea or understanding of an object and an integral complex of its qualities
- 5) prototype – “a relatively abstract mental representation that assembles the key attributes or features that best represent instances of a given category”

(animal → dog; *bird* → *robin, sparrow*; *fruit* → *apple, apricot*; *vegetables* → *potato, carrot*);

- 6) propositional structure – a model of a concrete experience in which there distinguished elements and their relationships (generalized model of relations reflected in a deep grammar);
- 7) frame – a schematisation of experience representing a typical stereotyped situation (*wedding, car accident, war, examination*);
- 8) scenario or script – a frame in dynamics which is represented as a sequence of episodes, stages (*visit to the theatre, game of football*);
- 9) *gestalts* – a conceptual structure, constructed out of incomplete perceptual components; and representing the whole image (Болдырев, 2004, с. 36-38).

Kubryakova E.S. considers that concept can be regarded as a generic term uniting concepts of different types and distinguishes 3 types of concepts: 1) images; 2) notions and 3) the assemblies of concepts: *gestalts*, schemas, diagrams, propositions, frames (Кубрякова, 2004, с.57, 319).

Z.D. Popova and I.A. Sternin suggest several classifications of concepts according to different criteria:

- according to the form of representation, concepts are divided into 1) verbalized (fixed) concepts (linguistically expressed concepts) and 2) non-verbalized (non-fixed in the language system) (2007:28)
- according to the degree of abstraction: 1) abstract; 2) concrete or artefacts
- according to the type of knowledge: 1) concept-images, 2) notions, 3) schemas; 4) frames; 5) scenario, 6) *gestalts*
- according to their reference to different communities: 1) universal (*water, sun, home, mother, life, death, evil, love*); 2) national, i.e. specific only to one nation (*gentleman, privacy* – English; *тоска, матрешка* – Russian, *махалла, зан* - Uzbek); 3) group concepts (*professional, gender, age*); 4) individual;
- according to the structure: 1) one level (*cup, plate, knife, chair, pen, pencil*); 2) multilevel, i.e. including several layers with different degrees of abstraction, reflecting the development of basic layers (*glamour, lady, fashion*); 3) segmental, basic sensual layer with different segments equal in abstraction (*tolerance, equality, freedom, faith*) (Кубрякова, 2004, с. 57, 117-120; Стернин, 2001, с.59-60).

A. Wierbizska distinguishes 1) concept-minimum – incomplete knowledge of the concept content; 2) concept-maximum – complete knowledge of the concept content and knowledge structures associated with it (Вежбицкая, 1997).

One of the researchers who contributed much to the development of concept typology is M.V. Pimenova who suggested several classifications:

- according to the origin: 1) original and 2) borrowed. Original concepts emerge in the national culture (original, English: *gentleman, privacy*; Uzbek – *mahalla, gap*), borrowed ones are brought to the conceptual

system of a certain nation from other national conceptospheres (*president, fantasy, glamour*);

- according to the development status: 1) developing – concepts that are widely used in the national conceptosphere and generate new meanings and interpretations under the influence of new socio-cultural conditions (*heart, thought, intelligence, emancipation*); b) trite/fixed – the conceptual structure of such concepts is fixed and is not liable to changes (*emperor, king, president*).
- according to the degree of topicality: 1) topical or key concepts – widely represented in the language system and verbalized by different linguistic units: lexical, phraseological, paremiological and texts (*soul, heart, beauty, love*); 2) secondary – those which are in the periphery of the conceptual system, they are usually less topical and frequent (*demonstration, negotiation*); 3) variable/periodic – are the concepts that periodically become topical (*faith, flu*).

Very interesting is the classification of concepts done according to three notional categories suggested by M.V. Pimenova and O.N. Kondrat'yeva (2011):

- I. Basic/main – key concepts of the conceptual system and world picture. This category includes a) cosmic concepts (*sun, moon, star*); b) social concepts (*freedom, labour*), c) psychological (spiritual) concepts (*God, faith, sin, virtue*);
- II. Descriptive concepts: 1) dimensional concepts (*shape, size, weight, deep*); 2) qualitative concepts reflecting quality (*warm - cool, whole - partial, hard - soft*); 3) quantitative concepts, reflecting quantity (*only, much/many, few*);
- III. Relative concepts (denoting relationships): 1) evaluative concepts (*good – bad, right – wrong, useful – useless, tasty – not tasty*); 2) positional concepts (*against, together, near, for, up-down*); 3) concepts of privacy (*mine – strange/alien, to give – to take, to have – to lose, to include – to exclude*).

So, there are a lot of approaches to the problem of concept typology. The scholars provide a number of classification based on different criteria. It should be stressed that concept typology is not a simple matter and any discussion of it is bound to reflect more than one angle of vision.

QUESTIONS AND TASKS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What is “concept” from the cognitive and cultural views?
2. Differentiate between the terms “concept”, “notion” and “meaning”.
3. What are the ways and means of concept verbalization?
4. Discuss the problem of concept structure
5. Comment on different views and approaches to the problem of concept structure
6. What are the main constituents of concept structure?
7. Comment on the peculiarities of the evaluative constituent of the concept
8. What types of images does the image field of the concept consists of?

9. What are the main properties of the concept?
10. What are the main criteria for concept typology?
11. What types of concepts are distinguished?
12. Comment on the peculiarities of concept classifications from the cognitive and cultural viewpoints

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CHAPTER VI. THE PROBLEM OF CONCEPTUALIZATION AND CATEGORIZATION

6.1. THE NOTION OF CONCEPTUALIZATION, CONCEPTUAL STRUCTURES AND CONCEPTUAL SYSTEMS

Cognitive Linguistics viz. Cognitive Semantics is primarily concerned with investigating the process of conceptualization and categorization. Conceptualization is the fundamental semantic phenomenon. In Langacker's words, semantics is conceptualization, which is aimed at semantic interpretations of linguistic units. It means that linguistic units reflect the nature and organization of the conceptual systems. The conceptual system is understood as regulated structural combination of concepts in the human mind. From this perspective language can be regarded as a tool for investigating the conceptual system.

The process of conceptualization is based on the assumption that meaning is encyclopedic in nature, it depends on encyclopedic knowledge. Encyclopedic knowledge, in its turn, is a structured system of knowledge, organized as a network. So, conceptualization is a dynamic mental process of concept formation, of human cognitive activity connected with composing knowledge structures on the basis of the linguistic data and encyclopedic information. A vivid example of the word "banana" is given by V. Evans and M. Green (1988). The word involves a complex network of knowledge concerning a) the shape, colour, smell, texture and taste of the fruit; b) whether we like or hate bananas; c) how and where bananas are grown and harvested; d) details relating to funny situations with banana skins, etc. Another example is "book". Cognitive interpretation of this word is aimed to uncover its conceptual structure. On the ground of human experiences and encyclopedic knowledge the following parameters of BOOK can be outlined:

- edition (place, year, publishing house);
- author;
- functional style and genre;
- design (size, format, colour, illustrations);
- quality and price;
- cover (hard/soft).

So, a complex conceptual structure of the analyzed word is constructed in the process of conceptualization and categorization of the information evoked from human experiences and encyclopedic knowledge.

The encyclopedic approach to meanings denotes that linguistic units are seen as relating to thoughts, ideas, world knowledge. It should be stressed that each act of conceptualization draws upon the strategies that relate to mechanisms of inferences, making conclusions, decoding implicit information. The notion of inference is considerably important for Cognitive Linguistics. It means interpreting implications and making conclusions drawn from the cognitive processing and conceptualization of the linguistic data. The cognitive interpretation of linguistic units makes it possible to get new information, exert additional conceptual senses

and draw some conclusions about the conceptual system. Inference is aimed at decoding implicit information, removing ambiguity and getting new information. In this view, indirect speech acts are understood only on the basis of the mechanisms of inference. For example, in the frame of a class-room the teacher's remark "The blackboard is dirty." has inferences of reproach such as "Why didn't you clean the blackboard?" and order "Clean the blackboard".

6.2. THE NOTION OF CATEGORIZATION

Conceptualization is closely connected with another cognitive process of structuring knowledge – categorization, which is acknowledged to be central to human cognition. Conceptualization is based on the human ability to identify entities as members of groups. Categorization is defined as a mental process of taxonomic activity, regulated presentation of various phenomena classified according to their essential, category characteristics.

Categorization rests on the human ability to identify entities as members of certain groups characterized by some similarities and differences. For example, the members of the category FURNITURE are beds, tables, sofa, chairs, cupboards, wardrobe, armchairs, etc. The category BIRD is presented by various types of birds such as sparrows, swallows, robins, rooks, pigeons, ravens, tomtits, etc. So, categorization accounts for the organization of concepts within the network of encyclopedic knowledge. It should be noted that the organization of concepts in its turn is reflected in the linguistic organization.

The problem of categorization has a long history. It emerged from the ancient Greek philosophy. Since the time of Aristotle the "classical theory" of categorization had been prevalent in linguistics up till the 1970ths. This theory holds that conceptual and linguistic categories have definitional structure. It means that a category member is supposed to fulfill a set of necessary and jointly sufficient conditions for category memberships (Evans, Green, 2006). In semantics these necessary and sufficient conditions are called primitives or componential features. For example, BACHELOR includes three componential features: "not married"; "male", "adult". Only the combination of these features defines the categorical status of the word. Each feature if taken separately, is not sufficient for the category. "Not married" can be both a man and a woman, "male" can be a husband, an uncle, a son. The theory of definitional structure of the meaning has gained wide acknowledgement of linguists.

However, from the cognitive standpoint the definitional approach has some drawbacks, because it is difficult in practice to define a set of conditions (features) sufficient for the category. For example, the most common feature for the category Bird "can fly", being typical for many types of birds is not peculiar to ostriches and penguins. Besides, according to the classical model of category structure all members of the category are equal. However, the fact is that some members of a category are more representative than others. It means that there are "the best" examples endowed with a set of necessary features. For example, the best features

of the category BIRD – *it can fly, lays eggs, has a beak, has two wings, two short legs, feathers, it is small and thin, chirps and sings, has a short tail and neck, moves on the ground by hopping*. These are the typical features of the bird. However, there are cases, when the bird is deprived of these features. For example, *the ostrich, it cannot fly, it is not small and thin, it has long legs, tail and neck, doesn't sing and chirp*.

The cognitive approach to the problem of categorization takes root in the theory of “family resemblance” by Z. Witgenstein (2001). According to this theory, the members of one category can be united into one group on the basis of only some similar features, other features being quite different. Z. Witgenstein drew an analogy with a family, the members of which seem to be alike either in one way or another: in appearance, character, habits, temperament, etc. The author provided an example of the category GAME, including board-games, card-games, ball-games, Olympic games and so on. It is difficult, if possible at all, to find something that is common to all members of the category. Some games are characterized by the feature of “competition” (foot-ball), others by “luck” (card games), still others by “amusement” (computer games). From this it follows that a category needs not have a set of features shared by all the members (Wigenstein, 2001).

6.3. PROTOTYPE THEORY

Further, the problem of categorization was viewed within the framework of prototype theory developed by Eleanor Rosch. This research has given a new insight into human categorization. E. Rosch (1975, 1978, 1999) suggests that categorization proceeds not by means of the necessary and sufficient conditions, as the classical theory proclaimed, but with reference to a prototype. The prototype is defined as “a relatively abstract mental representation that assembles the key attributes or features that best represent instances of a given category” (Rosch, 1978). In other words, the prototype is “a schematic representation of the most salient or central characteristics” associated with a member of the category in question. Not all members of a category have the same status within the category, some category members are better examples of the category than others. They are considered to be the most central or prototypical members of the category. The centrality of the category member depends on how many of the relevant set of features it possesses: the more features it possesses, the better an example of the category it will be. Categories are combined into the categorization system within which they are characterized by the relations of inclusiveness. For example:

vehicle – car – sports car
furniture – table – card-table
animal – dog – bulldog
fruit – apple – granny Smith
animal – bird – raven
peanut – tree – oak tree

So, categories are distinguished according to the level of inclusiveness. The category FRUIT is more inclusive than APPLE. Besides APPLE it includes other fruits: *plum, peach, pear*, etc. It is the most inclusive level. The category CARD-TABLE is the least inclusive level. From this viewpoint the following levels of inclusiveness are differentiated: superordinate (the most inclusive level), subordinate (the least inclusive level) and the basic level which is between the most inclusive and the least inclusive levels. In the above-given examples VEHICLE, FURNITURE, ANIMAL, FRUIT belong to the superordinate level, CAR, TABLE, DOG, APPLE, BIRD – the basic level, SALOON, CARD-TABLE, BULLDOG, GRANNY SMITH, RAVEN – to the subordinate level. The basic level has a special status and importance. It is characterized by a number of specific features. From the linguistic point of view, the basic level terms are monolexic: they are expressed by a single word, usually concrete nouns – *apple, tree, dog, car, table*, etc. The basic level terms occur more frequently in language use. In terms of perception the basic level categories are recognized more easily and rapidly because they easily form a mental image. For instance, it is easy to form a mental image of a “chair” or “table”, but difficult to form an image of “furniture”.

From the cognitive perspective the basic level categories represent the most informative and salient level of categorization. It is accounted for by the fact that the basic level categories share the largest number of attributes. For instance, the category HORSE is characterized by such attributes as: *can be ridden, neighs, has bones, breathes, has a mare, has a long tail*. From the point of view of language acquisition the basic level terms are among the first to be studied by children and foreign language learners.

The superordinate categories also have some specific features. Linguistically, terms of the superordinate categories are often uncountable nouns whereas the basic level terms are count nouns. To illustrate this assumption the following examples can be given:

Superordinate level	Basic Level
Furniture	Table, chair, bed, etc.
Vegetation	Tree, bush, grass, etc.
Cutlery	Spoon, fork, knife, etc.
Fruit	Apple, peach, pear, etc.
Footwear	Boots, shoes, sandals, etc.
Hardware	Tools, machines, computer disks, modems, etc.

The superordinate categories compared to the basic level categories have fewer defining attributes. They include only those attributes which distinguish one particular category from another.

The subordinate level categories have the following characteristics: they are less informative than the basic level terms inasmuch as they include almost all the attributes of the basic level terms. Besides, there are few distinctive attributes distinguishing one category from another. In other words, the lists of attributes

relevant to the terms of the basic level differ very little from those relevant to the subordinate level. Usually they are distinguished from the basic level by a single property. For example, CHAIR – ROCKING CHAIR. The terms of the subordinate level are often polymorphemic: *teaspoon, bread knife, card-table, dining room, coffee break, sports car, etc.*

The prototype approach to categorization requires that the list of attributes (features) for a particular category should be established. However, this appears to be one of the problems with prototype theory inasmuch as it is rather difficult to give the full range of attributes ascribed to a particular category. The following lists of attributes can be given as examples:

Tool – makes things, fixes things, metal;

Clothing – you wear it, keeps you warm

Chair – four legs, seat, holds people, you sit on it;

Horse – can be ridden, neighs, has bones, breathes, has a mane;

Bird – can fly, has two wings, breathes, beak, lays eggs, tails

It should be noted that to give the full range of attributes ascribed to a particular category is rather a difficult task. One way to achieve it was suggested by E. Rosch who used an experimental method. The examinees were given some items of the category of different levels to list all the attributes they could think of. It turned out that lower levels were assumed to have all the attributes listed for higher levels. A large number of attributes were listed at the basic level of categorization. Subordinate categories include the attributes of the basic level and just one or two more specific attributes. For example, “rocking chair” has all the attributes of “CHAIR” including the additional feature “a chair that is built on two curved pieces of wood so that you can move slowly backwards and forwards”. For the superordinate categories the examinees could provide only a minimal number of shared attributes.

Another way to establish the list of attributes, in our opinion, is lexicographical definitional analysis which can reveal the list of attributes peculiar to a particular category. It should be noted that the more frequently particular attributes are given in the definitions of the members of a particular category, the more representative and prototypical they are.

In summing up, the following conclusions can be made:

- conceptualization and categorization are the fundamental mental processes of human cognition and the key notions of the cognitive approach to language;
- conceptualization is a mental process of concept formation in the individual’s mind, one of the main processes of human cognitive activity connected with composing knowledge structures on the basis of linguistic data and encyclopedic information;
- categorization is a mental process of human taxonomic activity, regulated presentation of various phenomena classified according to their essential category features (attributes);
- the new cognitive approach to the problem of categorization is based on the theory of “family resemblance” and prototype theory. “Family resemblance” means that the members of one category are united into one group on the basis

of their “family resemblance”, i.e. on the basis of only some similar features, other features being quite different. According to prototype theory categorization is oriented to “the best example” – the prototype that assembles the key attributes that best represent the members of a particular category;

- there are different levels of categorization: superordinate, basic and subordinate, which are characterized by relations of inclusiveness.

QUESTIONS AND TASKS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Define the notion of conceptualization
2. Provide examples illustrating the process of conceptualization
3. Define the notion of categorization
4. What is the difference between the classical theory of categorization and the cognitive approach to it?
5. Discuss prototype theory and the theory of “family resemblance”
6. Speak on the levels of categorization and provide appropriate examples of the basic, superordinate and subordinate categories
7. What are specific features of each level of categorization?

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CHAPTER VII. CONCEPTUAL METAPHOR THEORY

7.1. METAPHOR IN THE LAKOFF'S TRADITION

Metaphor throughout all the stages of its development has been in the focus of the researchers' attention since ancient times up to now. Such great scholars as Aristotle, Russo, Gegel, Nitsche and then Cassirer and Jacobson dealt with this problem. Originally it was studied within the discipline known as rhetoric, which was first established in ancient Greece. Metaphor was looked upon as one of the major rhetorical devices based on implicit comparison. It was regarded as a decoration of speech which added some artistic value to it.

In linguistics, the study of metaphor was concentrated on its linguistic mechanism. In Stylistics metaphor is considered to be a trope, a stylistic feature of language; in lexicology it is regarded as a way of the semantic development and change of a word. I.R. Galperin defines metaphor as the power of realizing two lexical meanings simultaneously (Galperin, 1981). In other words, metaphor is based on interaction of the dictionary and contextual meanings; and it means transference of some quality from one object to another. I.V. Arnold regards metaphor as a trope used in the transferred meaning. Much attention is given to the structural and semantic types of metaphor (Arnold, 1974).

At present with the development of Cognitive Linguistics the interest to metaphor has intensively increased. A new approach to the problem of metaphor has been developing within Cognitive Linguistics. The problem of traditional interpretation of metaphor was replaced by a new insight into metaphor, to be more exact conceptual (cognitive) metaphor in the framework of Cognitive Semantics. Metaphor is regarded as a cognitive mechanism, a way of thinking and one of the fundamental processes of human cognition, a specific way of conceptualizing information based on the mental process of analogy and knowledge transfer from one conceptual field into another.

Conceptual Metaphor Theory was first proposed by G. Lacoff and M. Johnson in their revolutionary work "Metaphors We Live By" (1980) and since then has been developed and elaborated in a number of subsequent researches (Turner, 1991; Kövecses, 2000; Gibbs, 1994; Reddy, 1979). The basic principle of Conceptual Metaphor Theory is that metaphor is not simply a stylistic device: it is a way of thinking, a tool of cognition. According to some scholars the thought itself is fundamentally metaphorical in nature. Metaphor operates at the level of thinking as "our conceptual system is largely metaphorical, and our ordinary conceptual systems, in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature" (Lacoff, Johnson, 1980, p.3).

Metaphor is interpreted in terms of conceptual domains, image schemas and conceptual blending. According to R. Langacker "Domains are necessarily cognitive entities: mental experiences, representational spaces, concepts or conceptual complexes" (Langacker, 1987). Conceptual domains provide background information against which lexical concepts can be understood and used. As V.Evans and M. Green note, expressions like *hot*, *cold* and *warm* designate lexical concepts

in the domain of TEMPERATURE: without understanding the temperature system it is not possible to use these terms (Evans, Green, 2006). There are different conceptual domains: basic, image-schematic and abstract domains. Basic domains are directly tied to sensory experience, and are not understood in terms of other domains. For instance, such domains as SPACE, COLOUR, TEMPERATURE, PITCH, PAIN belong to basic conceptual domains. Image-schematic domains are imagistic in nature, they are analogue representations deriving from experience. The importance of image schemas is that they provide the concrete basis for conceptual metaphors. An abstract domain is one that presupposes other domains ranked lower on the complexity hierarchy.

An image-schematic domain in metaphor presupposes interaction of two domains: the target domain and the source domain. The target domain is the domain being described and the source domain is the domain in terms of which the target is described. According to G. Lakoff, the target-domain “Mind” is structured in terms of the source-domain “Machine”, the target-domain “Love” is structured in terms of the source-domain “Journey”, thus establishing conceptual metaphor “The Mind is Machine”, “Love is Journey”. Kövecses Z. claims that the most common source-domains for metaphorical mapping include domains relating to the Human, Body, Animals, Plants, Food and Forces. The most common target-domains include such conceptual categories as Emotion, Morality, Thought, Human Being Relationship and Time. Thus, the source domain tends to be more concrete whereas the target domains are abstract and diffuse (Kövecses, 2002). So, metaphor is a basic scheme by which people conceptualize their experience and their external world (Gibbs, 1994:21). The relationships between domains in metaphor results in a transfer of images and vocabulary from the source onto the target domain. For example, the domain VISION can be used metaphorically to characterize the domain of UNDERSTANDING:

I see what you mean

The truth is clear

He was blinded by love

There are two eyes in England: Oxford and Cambridge

Usually metaphors involve the use of a concrete source domain to discuss an abstract target. For example, importance is expressed in terms of size (a big idea, a small problem); theories are metaphorically presented as buildings: *This theory has no windows; Recent discoveries have shaken the theory to its foundation.*

Most important for Conceptual Metaphor Theory is the notion of Conceptual Blending. This problem will be discussed in detail further. Here, only the most general remarks should be made:

- conceptual blending is a basic cognitive operation which involves integration of conceptual domains resulting in a blend that gives rise to new conceptual structures;
- the conceptual blending approach can be applied to a wide range of linguistic phenomena: compound words, phraseological units, word combinations, stylistic devices;
- conceptual blending makes the basis of conceptual metaphor.

7.2. TYPES OF CONCEPTUAL METAPHOR

One of the crucial problems of Conceptual Metaphor Theory is Conceptual Metaphor typology. There are several classifications of the types of metaphor. G. Lakoff and M. Johnson distinguish four types:

- structural metaphor refers to the metaphorical and structural organization of one concept (often an abstract one) in terms of another (often a more concrete one). In this case, the source domains provide frameworks for the target domains (*Time is Money; Argument is War*)

ARGUMENT IS WAR

Your claims are indefensible

He attacked every weak point in my argument

His criticisms were right on target

I demolished his argument

I've never won an argument with him

You disagree? Okay, shoot!

If you use that strategy, he'll wipe you out

He shot down all of my arguments

TIME IS MONEY

You are wasting my time

This gadget will save you hours

I don't have the time to give you

How do you spend your time these days?

That flat tire cost me an hour

I've invested a lot of time in her

I don't have enough time to spare for that

You're running out of time

You need to budget your time

Put aside some time for ping pong

Is that worth your while?

Do you have much time left?

He is living on borrowed time

You don't use your time profitably

I lost a lot of time when I got sick

- orientational metaphor “organizes a whole system of concepts with respect to one another” and is concerned with spatial orientations: *up-down, in-out, front-back, on-off, deep-shallow, central-peripheral* (*Happy is Up, Sad is Down*);

HAPPY IS UP; SAD IS DOWN

I'm feeling up

That boosted my spirits

My spirits rose

You're in high spirits
Thinking about her always gives me a lift
I'm feeling down
He's really low these days
I fell into a depression
My spirits sank

HEALTH AND LIFE ARE UP; SICKNESS AND DEATH ARE DOWN

He's at the peak of health
Lazarus rose from the dead
He is in top shape
As to his health, he's way up there
He fell ill
He is sinking fast
He came down with the flu
His health is declining

● ontological metaphor relates to "ways of viewing events, activities, emotions, ideas, etc., as entities and substances". In other words, this is a type of metaphor in which something concrete is projected onto something abstract (*Inflation is an Entity; the Mind is an Entity*).

INFLATION IS ENTITY

Inflation is lowering our standard of living
If there's much more inflation, we'll never survive
We need to combat inflation
Inflation is backing us into a corner
Inflation is taking its toll at the checkout counter and the gas pump
Buying land is the best way of dealing with inflation
Inflation makes me sick

THE MIND IS AN ENTITY

A) mind is a mashine

We're still trying to grind out the solution to this equation
My mind just isn't operating today
Boy, the wheels are turning now!
I'm a little rusty today
We've been working on this problem all day and now we're running out of steam

b) mind is a fragile object

Her ego is very fragile
You have to handle him with care since his wife's death
He broke under cross-examination
She is easily crushed
The experience shattered him
I'm going to pieces
His mind snapped

● conduit metaphor refers to communication and operates whenever the addresser inserts his mental ideas, (feelings, thoughts, etc.) into words, phrases, sentences, etc. in his message to the addressee who then extracts them from these linguistic forms. Thus, language is viewed as a "conduit" conveying mental content between people (Reddy, 1979; Lakoff, Johnson 1980, p.10).

As Reddy M. asserts conduit metaphor includes the following metaphors: 1) ideas (or meanings) are objects; 2) linguistic expressions are containers of meanings; 3) communication are messages

It's hard to get an idea across to him

I gave you that idea

Your reasons came through to us

It's difficult to put my ideas into words

When you have a good idea, try to capture it immediately in words

Try to pack more thought into fewer words

You can't simply stuff ideas into a sentence any old way

The meaning is right there in the words

Don't force your meanings into the wrong words

His words carry little meaning

The introduction has a great deal of thought content

Your words seem hollow

The sentence is without meaning

The idea is buried in terribly dense paragraphs

In addition to this classification many researchers (M. Johnson, G. Lakoff, E.S. Kubryakova) single out another type of conceptual metaphor – container metaphor. The notion of “container” appears to be very significant for Conceptual Metaphor Theory since it reflects body-based experience, human-being relationships, orientation in time and space, etc. Container metaphor operates in the following way: one conceptual domain is supposed to be “in” another conceptual domain. As G. Lakoff and M. Johnson point out, container logic is also helpful for imagining logical schemas stemming from “inclusion”: e.g. Container A is inside Container B, and Entity C is inside Container A, then Entity C is inside Container B. Moreover, container logic is probably most important in grounding how people think of their own minds. For example “*He has a great idea in his mind*”. We imagine memories or some information being “stored” in our minds as if our mind was a separate “container” for each memory trace or idea.

It should be noted that G. Lacoff, M. Johnson and their collaborators concentrate attention on the metaphors which are in everyday use, on the so called “trite” or “usual” metaphors grounded in embodied experience. In other words, conceptual metaphors represent ordinary everyday ways of thinking and talking. They reflect the conventional means of the word perception. Here are some examples:

We are at a crossroad

He is a greedy pig

We'll have to go our separate ways

I don't think my car wants to start this morning

His life has been a rather strange journey

However, Cognitive Metaphor is widely used in different text types. Much research has been done in the fields of mass-media, science, terminology, children's speech, advertisement, sports, every day speech, etc. Cognitive Metaphor can be used in all spheres of life. It is a tool of description, explanation, understanding and interpretation.

Let's discuss cognitive metaphor in the mass-media texts. It should be noted that due to the frequency of usage there appeared a new term – conceptual political metaphor. Our analysis has shown that conceptual political metaphors fulfil various functions: to attract the reader's attention, to evaluate the described event, to provide additional, sometimes a very detailed image, to impose the author's vision of the situation, etc. As has already been mentioned, conceptual metaphor is of a prototype character; it is presented as a model imparting analogies and associations between different conceptual systems and structuring a range of more specific metaphors. One of the most abundantly used conceptual metaphors is ELECTION – BATTLE metaphor. This type of metaphor is exemplified in the following sentences:

1. Democratic participation in battleground states appears to have matched or surpassed that of 2008;
2. He (Obama) promised “the best is yet to come” and said the fierce battle with Romney had made him a better president vowing “I will return to White House more determined and inspired than ever”;
3. In the battle for Senate, Democrats won seats currently held by Republicans in Indiana and Massachusetts;
4. His goal was to minimize any losses, or possibly even gain ground, no matter Romney's fate;
5. President Barack Obama has been re-elected to a second term, defeating republican challenger Mitt Romney;
6. He is absolutely right – on both fronts;

In these examples, the target domain ELECTIONS is structured in terms of the source domain BATTLE, and this highlights some characteristics of elections as a process in which two people (or groups) compete in order to achieve the goal. The source domain BATTLE includes such concepts as fight, competition, opposition, victory, defeat, rivalry. The conceptual features of the concepts such as *antagonistic, aggressive, competing, combating, striving, resistant, opposing, defeated, beaten, successful/unsuccessful, confronting, victorious, winning, strategical, tactical* are projected onto the target domain to characterise the process of elections and their candidates.

Further observations of newspaper articles have shown that a great number of ELECTION metaphors can be grouped into a few types of conceptual metaphors based on the following image-schemas: ELECTIONS – BATTLE, ELECTIONS – SPORTS, ELECTIONS – HUNTING. It should be stressed that these types of conceptual metaphors interact with each other reflecting “deep” correspondences and forming a complex metaphor system.

Exceptionally significant is the use of conceptual metaphors in fiction. However, the problem of conceptual metaphor functioning in the literary text has

not received considerable attention within Conceptual Metaphor Theory. Therefore there is an imperative necessity to study conceptual literary metaphor which is presumably characterized by some specific features. Nevertheless it should be kept in mind that both usual and occasional (literary, individual) metaphors are based on the similar cognitive mechanism that involves expressing one idea in terms of another. This presupposes interaction of two conceptual domains: the source and the target. However, in contrast to “usual” (everyday) occasional metaphor it reflects non-conventional way of thinking, the author’s individual perception of the world. It becomes a constituent part of the author’s conceptual world picture. Proceeding from this assumption, we can draw a conclusion: conceptual literary metaphor must enter into correlation with the conceptual information of the whole text.

The cognitive mechanism of individual metaphor can be illustrated by the example taken from J. Galsworthy’s novel “The man of property” where the metaphorical projection “Bosinney - Buccaneer” is used. The source domain “BUCANNEER” contains a set of conceptual features associated with the notion of “piracy”, “a law-breaking person”, “theft”, “outlaw”. The lexicographic interpretation of these lexemes as well as the study of the contextual associations make it possible to infer the following conceptual features of the source domain: *dangerous, strange, unsafe, distrustful, disrespectful, disgraceful, wild, invading, dashing*. All these features are projected on the target domain BOSINNEY, thus establishing links between two seemingly unrelated entities. Indeed, there is nothing in common between Bosinney’s profession of an architect and that of a “buccaneer”. Yet, in the context of the novel the links between “Bosinney” and “buccaneer” become quite evident. The image of Bosinney is given in the perception of the Forsyte family; his appearance before the family is regarded as a threat to their property, and wealth. The metaphor “BUCCANEER” conveys an array of the Forsytes’ most negative emotions: resentment, antipathy, antagonism, enmity, hostility, fear, misgiving, hatred towards the person who dares danger. The interaction of the two domains providing the projection of one domain onto the other, at the same time engenders new conceptual senses, provided by the opposition “self – alien”. The following examples from the novel can serve as an illustration:

1. *The Forsytes were resentful of something, not individually, but as a family; this resentment expressed itself in an added perfection of rainment, an exuberance, and – the sniff. Danger – so indispensable in bringing out the fundamental quality of any society, group, or individual – was what the Forsytes scented; the premonition of danger put a burnish on their armour. For the first time as a family, they appeared to have an instinct of being in contact with some strange and unsafe thing;*

2. *At one time or another during the afternoon, all these faces, so dissimilar and so alike, had worn an expression of distrust, the object of which was undoubtedly the man whose acquaintance they were assembled to make;*

3. *“Very haughty!” he said, “the wild Buccaneer!”.*

And this mot, “The Buccaneer” was handed from mouth to mouth, till it become the favorite mode of alluding to Bosinney;

4. *These misgivings, and this disapproval and perfectly genuine distrust, did not prevent the Forsytes from gathering to old Jolyon's invitation;*

5. *Never had there been so full an assembly, for mysteriously united in spite of all their differences, they had taken arms against a common peril. Like cattle when a dog comes into the field, they stood head to head and shoulder to shoulder, prepared to run upon and trample the invader to death.*

From these examples it follows that the Forsytes as typical representatives of the English bourgeois society looked upon those belonging to a different class as absolutely alien, unsafe and dangerous people against whom they must fight and defend themselves. So, the metaphor "Buccaneer" embodies a deep conceptual sense; it reveals the phenomenon of "Forsytism" and conveys the author's vision of the existing social system of that time.

So, the peculiar feature of conceptual metaphor in the literary text, in our opinion, is its correlation with the conceptual information of the text and the author's individual world picture. Another example in support of this idea is the story by A. Coppard "The Cherry Tree". The story tells us about a poor English family – a widow and her children. The mother "toiled daily and dreadfully at a laundry", leaving her children to their own devices. However, they were very much attached to each other. The metaphorical expression "CHERRY TREE" is used throughout the text: in the title, in the fragments of the mother's recollections of her youth and her father's cherry orchard, at the end of the text, where the author narrates the story about the children's birthday present to their mother – an artificial cherry tree, a bush decorated with cherries. So, CHERRY TREE appears to be a central image of the story, which to a considerable extent influences the perception and interpretation of the story. Despite the cruelty of the social environment, the misfortunes and misery of the family's life, the story on the whole produces a very positive impression on the reader. And mostly it is due to the conceptual metaphor, based on the image-schema FAMILY – CHERRY TREE. The source domain CHERRY TREE has very positive connotations and associations with the beauty of the blossoming cherry tree and its tasty, soft, sweet fruit. The conceptual features of the source domain projected onto the target FAMILY become a powerful means of its characterization: a friendly, tender, home atmosphere, the mother's kindness and love to her children, the children's devotion to their mother. In other words, the family tree despite the hostility of the outside world keeps on growing and yielding good fruit – cherries, symbolizing the loving and devoted children.

The conclusions of this section may be summed up as follows:

- cognitive Linguistics has developed a new approach to the problem of metaphor and has introduced the notion of conceptual (cognitive) metaphor, regarded as a cognitive mechanism, one of the fundamental processes of human cognition, a specific way of conceptualizing information based on the mental process of analogy and knowledge transfer from one conceptual field into another;

- conceptual metaphor is interpreted in terms of conceptual domains, image schemas and conceptual blending. The interaction of the source and target domains within the image-schematic structure results in conceptual blending containing selected aspects of both domains and generating new conceptual senses;
- conceptual metaphor is widely employed in various fields of fiction, scientific texts, terminology, mass-media, advertisements, everyday speech, children's speech, etc.

7.3. CONCEPTUAL BLENDING

Conceptual blending, also known as Conceptual Integration, is regarded as a basic cognitive operation based on the human ability to infer information, to make conclusions, assessment and evaluations. In other words, Conceptual Blending is central to human thought and imagination, which play a crucial role in cognitive processes and creative aspects of human cognition. Blending theory is closely related to Mental Space Theory (Fauconnier, 1994) and conceptual Metaphor theory (Lacoff, Turner, 1989). The pioneers of Blending theory were G. Fauconnier and M. Turner, who developed this theory in order to account for the role of language in meaning construction, particularly its "creative aspect". The process of conceptual blending can be described as follows: the conceptual structures of two unrelated mental spaces (input spaces) linked by means of a generic space, on the basis of common elements are projected onto a new mental space (a blend), which generates a new emergent structure that distinguishes the blend from the inputs.

The theory of Conceptual Blending is a ground for cognitive interpretation of linguistic means. Especially relevant is it to cognitive interpretation of metaphorical meanings characterized by a complex conceptual structure. One of the crucial problems of Conceptual Blending Theory is the problem of linguistic manifestation of this theory. In other words, one of the main tasks is to outline the linguistic expressions involved in the process of conceptual blending. Although a lot of linguistic examples have been provided in the works by G. Fauconnier and M. Turner (2002), the taxonomy of linguistic units based on conceptual blending has not been defined yet. Our observations have shown that Conceptual Blending Theory can be applied to a wide range of linguistic phenomena: derivative and compound words, word combinations, phraseological units, neologisms and occasionalisms, stylistic devices.

The basic notions of conceptual Blending theory are: conceptual domain, integration network, mental space, emergence structure, input spaces, generic space, blend.

Conceptual domain is a body of knowledge that organizes related concepts. There are two domains involved in the process of blending: the source domain and the target domain. Source domains usually include concrete entities, relating to the human body, animals, plants, food, etc. Target domains tend to be more abstract, lacking physical characteristics; they include conceptual categories like emotions, morality, thought, human relationships, time, etc. In the process of blending two

domains – the source and target – are brought together and linked as the two input spaces by means of a generic space.

Generic space provides abstract information common to both input spaces. The importance of the generic space is that it can provide a concrete basis for analogy (comparison based on similarity) between the source and the target domains. It generalizes over what is common to input spaces and indicates correspondences between conceptual domains.

Conceptual integration network is an array of mental spaces in which the process of conceptual blending unfolds. The network consists of two or more input spaces containing information from cognitive domains. An integration network is a mechanism for modeling how emergent meanings might come about.

Emergence structure is new meanings appearing as a consequence of the integration of the two domains – the target and source domains. It is the meaning which is more than the sum of its component parts.

The blended space contains selected aspects of structure from each input spaces. The blended space takes elements from both inputs, but undergoes some changes and modifications providing additional “novel” meanings. It means that the blend contains new information that is not contained in either of the inputs.

The process of conceptual integration is a complex network which involves 4 mental spaces: two or more input spaces, a common generic space and a blended space. The two input spaces interact and interpenetrate into each other on the basis of a common (generic) domain. As a result a partial equivalence between two conceptual domains is achieved. However this equivalence is of a specific character. It may contain elements which are completely new, sometimes even contradictory and incomplete. So, the main principle of conceptual blending is that integration of structures gives rise to more than the sum of their parts. New conceptual senses are generated due to the interaction of two domains and the addressee’s thesaurus, knowledge, experience, views, cultural background, social status, etc.

To explain the mechanism of Blending Theory the following example was provided by V. Evans and M. Green:

The surgeon is a butcher

The target domain “SURGEON” is understood here in terms of the source domain “BUTCHER”. So, there are two input spaces relating to the concepts “SURGEON”, “BUTCHER”. Both concepts deal with people’s profession which presupposes some procedure of “cutting flesh”. The surgeon makes operations on live men, the butcher dismembers dead animals. Both professions require high skills, competence and knowledge. For example, butchery is recognized as a skilled profession; it presupposes good knowledge of the anatomy of animals, knowledge of different cuts of meat, bones and so on. On the whole, it has a positive assessment/evaluation. It has no negative associations, except, perhaps, for vegetarians. The integration of two domains is based on the common or partially common features, which form the generic space. The generic domain, as was said above, contains highly schematic information. In the analyzed example, it is the information about the agent, ungoer, instrument, work space, procedure, goal. The agent – in both domains is a man; ungoer – in both domains is flesh, but in the source

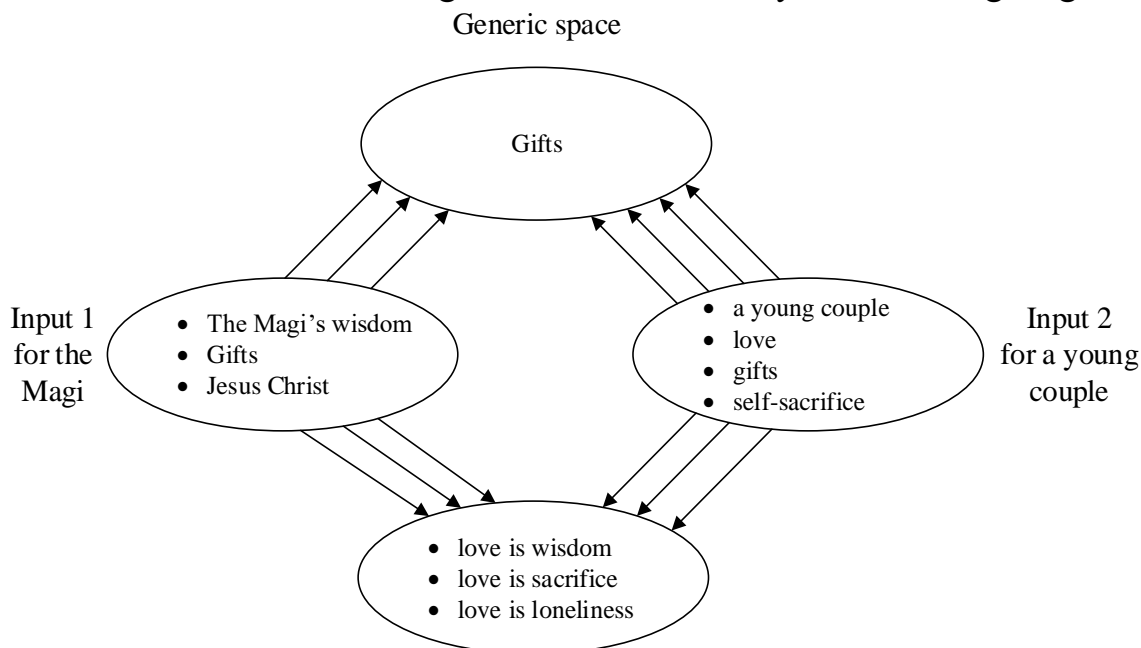
domain it is the flesh of a dead animal, in the target domain – a live person. Instruments are partially alike – “an object that you keep in hand and use to cut”. Procedures are also partially alike: the process of cutting flesh. The result of integration is the blend, which in this case generates new conceptual senses: a very negative evaluation of the surgeon, though this idea is not expressed in both input spaces. So, the blend characterizing a surgeon as a butcher, provides an additional emergence structure conditioning negative evaluation of the surgeon, his professional incompetence.

As it has already been mentioned, conceptual blending makes the basis for metaphorical expressions. Besides, many other stylistic devices undergo the process of conceptual blending. For example, allusion, antonomasia, simile, symbol, etc. Let's analyse allusion. In stylistics allusion is regarded as “an “indirect reference, by word or phrase, to historical, literary, mythological, biblical facts or to the facts of everyday life made in the course of speaking or writing (Galperin, 1981, p. 334). In terms of cognitive stylistics the allusive process is presented as a comparison or contrast of two referent situations, one of which is verbalized on the surface layer of the text, and the other – is supposed to be in the person's mind. In fact, allusion represents two conceptual domains: the one given in the precedent text, the other – in the recipient text. The interrelation of these domains leads to conceptual blending contributing to a new understanding of some aspects of the described phenomenon. In other words, the two domains are brought together and integrate into one on the basis of allusion, thus giving rise to new conceptual senses.

To confirm this assumption, we shall analyze the title of the story by O'Henry “The Gift of the Magi”. The story tells us about a poor couple who on the eve of Christmas presented each other with the gifts which eventually appeared to be quite useless. The girl sold her beautiful hair to buy her husband a chain for his watch; the latter in his turn sold his watch to present his wife with a splendid hair comb. Even though the presents were absolutely needless, in the context of the story they symbolize the heroes' love to each other.

As has been already mentioned, conceptual blending consists of two or more input domains (spaces), a generic space, and a blend. Inputs are mental spaces linked on the basis of some common elements, which in their turn form a generic space. A generic space presents a structure common to both inputs. In the analysed example, input 1 reflects the myth of the Bible. The Magi in the Bible are old wise men, noble pilgrims and astrologers, who followed stars and came from the East to Bethlehem to worship newly born Jesus Christ and gave him presents. In the input for Magi we have the information about the pilgrims, whose wisdom and Providence led them to the place where Jesus Christ was born. The second input contains the information about a young couple whose only wealth and virtue was their love to each other. The two inputs describe quite different irrelevant situations. The only common information is about the gifts: the most valuable things given to Jesus Christ by the Magi (input 1), and those the young people presented each other (Input 2). This information is reflected in the generic space establishing counterpart connectors between the two inputs. The inputs linked by means of the generic space and involved in conceptual integration give rise to a blended space. The blend selecting

and composing the elements from the inputs, undergoes some modifications, generating new conceptual senses. The process of conceptual blending in the allusive title “The Gift of the Magi” can be illustrated by the following diagram:



As is seen from the diagram the blend as a result of conceptual integration of the input spaces produces a new conceptual structure, which generates new conceptual senses in the concept “LOVE”: Love is wisdom; Love is self-sacrifice; Love is holiness.

To draw a conclusion, it should be once more stressed that:

- conceptual blending is a cognitive process of associating unrelated concepts and generating new conceptual senses;
- conceptual blending as a fundamental cognitive process is related to mental spaces theory and conceptual metaphor theory;
- the process of conceptual blending involves two or more input spaces, a generic space and a blend.

QUESTIONS AND TASKS FOR DISCUSSION

1. How was metaphor considered in ancient Rhetoric?
2. What aspects of metaphor are mainly studied in Stylistics?
3. What is the core of a new approach to the problem of metaphor?
4. What is conceptual (cognitive) metaphor?
5. How is conceptual metaphor theory interpreted in the Lacoff’s tradition?
6. What types of conceptual metaphor are distinguished?
7. Specify the usage of conceptual metaphor in different text types
8. What are the specific features of Conceptual Metaphor in the literary text?
9. What are the main conclusions of Conceptual Metaphor Theory?
10. How do you understand the notion of Conceptual blending?
11. What other theories is Conceptual Blending Theory related to?

12. Who are the pioneers of conceptual blending theory?
13. What are the basic notions of conceptual Blending theory?
14. Describe the process of conceptual Blending and the mental spaces involved in the process
15. Define the notions of input spaces, a generic and a blended space
16. What are the peculiar features of the blend?
17. How can Conceptual Blending be applied to conceptual metaphor analysis?

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CHAPTER XIII. COGNITIVE PRINCIPLES OF DISTRIBUTING INFORMATION

Cognitive principles are understood as cognitive conditions and cognitive constraints on the organization of information in the text/discourse, cognitive grounding of distributing information in consecutive order. There are several cognitive principles of distributing information in the text: the principle of iconicity, of distributing old and new information, the principle of relevance (salience) and foregrounding, the principle of linguistic economy/redundancy.

8.1. COGNITIVE PRINCIPLE OF ICONICITY

Iconicity is defined as relations of a certain similarity between the verbal sign and its denotate. The theory of iconicity takes roots in the problem of conventionality/motivation of verbal signs. It is not possible to change the logical order of event sequence as well as the succession of homogeneous sentences. Linguists distinguish three types of iconicity

1. **The principle of iconic sequencing.** It requires that events described in the text should correspond to those in reality. For instance, a consecutive order of sentences in the text on the whole is supposed to conform to a chronological order of events (KCKT, 1996). It concerns not only chronological, but also spatial, causative, socially conditioned regularities of the text organization reflecting the real events. Such linguistic phenomena as word order, sequence of tenses, consecutive sentence arrangement in the text are based on the principle of iconic sequence (He came, he saw, he conquered).

It should be noted that in the literary text this principle can be deliberately violated. As G.G. Molchanova points out such stylistic phenomena as retrospection, prospection, represented speech, stream of consciousness which violate the logical sequence of events and, accordingly the sequence of sentences in the text (Молчанова, 2007). The violation of traditional word order makes up the basis for such stylistic devices as inversion and chiasmus, which place the inverted elements into “the active zone”. This term, introduced by R. Langacker means activation of the most conceptually important subparts of meanings.

2. **Iconic proximity** means that “things that belong together tend to be put together, and things that do not belong together are put at a distance” (Dirven, Verspoor, 1998, p.10). This assumption can be illustrated by the following phrases: *A charming poor girl. A dignified rich old man. A successful strong young man. An attractive neat little house. A delicious tasty apple pie. Charming big black eyes.* In these examples it is clearly seen that the attributes denoting inherent features of the denotate are close to the noun position, they are preceded by the attributes describing objective characteristics and then come attributes expressing subjective emotional evaluation.

3. **Iconic principle of quantity** is based on the assumption that informativity depends on the amount of verbal signs. It can be formulated as “more form – more meaning; less form – less meaning” (Молчанова, 2007). This principle is connected with the problem of redundancy which is also regarded as one of the cognitive principles of presenting information in the text. The problem of redundancy will be discussed further. Here it is worth mentioning that many a linguistic phenomenon are based on the iconic principle of quantity: reduplication, all types of repetition, phonetic means (onomatopoeia, alliteration), paronymic attraction, periphrasis, parallel constructions.

The iconic principle of quantity can be used deliberately in the literary texts and speech acts. It fulfills several functions: a) to attract the reader’s/listener’s attention; b) to put more stress on the redundant element; c) to realize the principle of politeness; d) to exert emotional impact on the reader; e) to serve as a leit-motif of the literary text.

8.2. COGNITIVE PRINCIPLE OF RELEVANCE/SALIENCE

Another no less important cognitive principle of presenting information in the text is the principle of relevance (salience). According to this principle the most relevant and substantial information is somewhat made conspicuous at the verbal layer of the text. In conformity with G. Grice’s maxim of relevance (speak to the point) the choice of language forms depends on what is considered essential by the addresser. The principle of relevance is of crucial importance for textual communication because any text is built on the relationships of more or less salient information. In terms of Cognitive Linguistics textual information can be placed either in the position of foregrounding or backgrounding.

The notion of foregrounding is defined as a cognitive procedure of selecting the most essential relevant information. It stands out as a stimulus or “key” in the process of text perception and interpretation. The notion of foregrounding was first described in the works of Russian Formal School (Б.А. Ларин, Р. Якобсон) and the Prague Linguistic Circle (Б. Гавранек, Я. Мукаржовский) as a special device of constructing poetic texts. At present this notion is widely used in Cognitive Linguistics and Text Linguistics. Foregrounding is charged with many functions. Putting forward some fragments of the text, foregrounding, on the one hand, segmentates the text into more or less important parts, on the other – establishes hierarchy of these parts, thus promoting coherence and integrity of the text. Besides, foregrounding directs text interpretation, and activates frames, knowledge structures, intentions, attitudes, emotions.

There are different ways of foregrounding information in the text. I.V. Arnold (Arnold, 1974) discussing the linguistic mechanism of foregrounding in a fictional text, outlines the following types of foregrounding: convergence of stylistic devices, coupling, and defeated expectancy. Other linguists indicate strong positions of the text (the beginning and the end), contrast, the title, epigraph, graphical means (Ashurova, Galieva, 2016). At present, cognitive researches focus attention on the

psychological aspects of foregrounding. In terms of gestalt psychology this phenomenon is analysed within “figure-ground” theory. Figure – is the most salient information, the conspicuous part of the text, the focus of attention perceived against the ground. Ground – is the essential part of the conceptual domain necessary for understanding the figure.

The notion of foregrounding is of special relevance to the literary text. Putting forward some fragments of the text, foregrounding segments the text into more or less important parts, establishes hierarchy of these parts, directing text interpretation and activating knowledge structures. One of the ways of foregrounding, as has been mentioned, is “defeated expectancy”.

The term introduced by R. Jakobson (1987), means the emergence, occurrence of a completely unexpected, unpredictable elements on the linear verbal layer of the text. It happens due to the violation of logical, semantic, grammatical, stylistic, communicative links of linguistic units in language use. Generally, the sequence of linguistic units in the text proceeds with a certain degree of probability. It means that the occurrence of each subsequent unit is fully or partially predictable. Unpredictable elements entail the effect of unexpectedness and surprise, in other words, “defeated expectancy”. Defeated expectancy breaks the “automatism” of perception and creates the effect of emotional tension; it is materialized by means of many linguistic units, among them:

- lexical means: rare words, archaisms, borrowings, occasionalisms, words in an unusual syntactical function;
- stylistic means: zeugma, pun, oxymoron, irony, periphrasis, enumeration, parody, paradox, anti-climax;
- phraseological means: various transformations and changes of both lexical constituents and compositional structures.

Besides, defeated expectancy is realized at the level of the whole text and its plot. Many of O’Henry’s stories tend to exploit this device in the form of surprise endings. The story “October and June” tells us about the captain, who was in love with a lady; he proposed to her, but then received a letter of refusal. The reason for refusal was their age difference. While reading the story the reader can come to the conclusion that the captain was a man of a solid age. The text contains implicit indications of his old age: the sword which reminded of “*a long, long time... since old days of war’s alarms*”, “*... but he was strong and rugged, he had position and wealth*”. A surprise ending of the story which says that “the Captain was only nineteen and his sword had never been drawn except on the parade ground at Chattanooga, which was as near as he ever got to the Spanish-American War”, turns out to be quite unexpected and therefore put in the position of foregrounding.

8.3. COGNITIVE PRINCIPLE OF LINGUISTIC ECONOMY

Another cognitive principle of presenting information in the text is linguistic economy. The term introduced by A. Martinet (1955) denotes one of the basic laws of language, its tendency to economize on verbal signs. Linguistic economy is realized at every language level: morphological (shan't, isn't, don't); lexical (prof, lab, ad, USA, INO, CIS); syntactical (elliptical sentences, one member sentences).

Most relevant is the principle of linguistic economy in the oral type of speech characterized by various means of linguistic economy. Of morphological means the colloquial language commonly uses various contracted forms – *I'll*, *he'd*, *she's*, *don't*. At the lexical level, there are a lot of shortened words and expressions – *fridge* (refrigerator), *doc* (doctor), *comp* (computer), *ad* (advertisement), *morning* (good morning), *bye* (good-bye). As for syntactical level, it abounds in various forms of linguistic economy: elliptical sentences, one-member sentences, unfinished sentences. The tendency for linguistic economy in the colloquial language can be explained by the main communicative principles formulated by G. Grice: be brief, speak to the point, express yourself clearly, etc.

It should be noted that the principle of linguistic economy in different text types plays different roles. Particularly important is this principle for the newspaper texts. It is explained by the specific conditions of newspaper publications: the restriction of time and space. The principal function of newspaper articles, particularly brief news, is to inform the reader. Therefore it states facts without giving comments and detailed descriptions. But the main means of linguistic economy in the newspaper style is the use of abbreviations of various kinds: names of the countries and cities, political organizations, companies and firms, public and state bodies and figures: UK (United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland), NY (New York), UNO (United Nations Organization), BBC (British Broadcasting Company), P.M. (Prime Minister), M.P. (Member of Parliament).

Scientific texts, being very extensive on the whole, are also characterized by the use of shortened words: prof, doc, lab, fig. One peculiar feature characteristic of a scientific text is the use of "individual abbreviations". Surely, this type of abbreviations is supposed to be introduced and explained: SD (stylistic device), FS (functional style), OE (Old English), COD (Coincise Oxford Dictionary).

At the level of the text, viz. literary text there are stylistic devices based on the principle of linguistic economy. To such we refer: antonomasia, allusion, metaphor, metonymy. In other words, all stylistic devices which are built on the mechanism of conceptual integration are characterized by the brevity of form and depth of content. Thus, the use of a single allusive name can substitute many a page of extensive and detailed descriptions. For instance, the name Aladdin used in "Sister Carrie" by Th. Dreiser refers us to a tale from "Arabian Nights". The allusive name activates literary knowledge structures and draws a parallel between Aladdin who happened to find a magic lamp capable of granting wishes and Droue who accidentally discovered a talented actress in the ordinary girl.

The cause and effect of linguistic economy in the literary text are accounted for by such distinctive features of this text type as implicitness and ambiguity. It is implicitness that generates a vast array of associations in the text. Very often the words used in the literary text convey a great amount of implicit information. The decoding of this information is a priority task of text interpretation inasmuch as implicit information compared to explicit information is considered to be more conceptually important.

8.4. COGNITIVE PRINCIPLE OF LINGUISTIC REDUNDANCY

Opposed to linguistic economy is the cognitive principle of linguistic redundancy. The notion of redundancy borrowed from the theory of information is an inherent property of textual communication. When used deliberately, linguistic redundancy should not be regarded as an unnecessary surplus and language imperfection. In our opinion, it is one of indispensable conditions of human cognition. As Yu. Lotman noted, language protects itself against misunderstandings and distortions with the help of mechanisms of redundancy (Лотман, 1970, p.34). Therefore in many text types redundancy assumes very important functions.

Before we continue any further, it is expedient to discuss the ways redundancy is verbalized in language and discourse. Most common is the usage of various kinds of repetition. Repetition is widely employed in different types of communication including the oral everyday communication, on the one hand and literary communication – on the other. In everyday communication repetition is used for many pragmatic reasons: a) to attract the interlocutor's attention; b) when the speaker is under stress of strong emotion; c) to remove some hindrances of communication.

In literary communication repetition is always used deliberately. As mentioned earlier, it assumes various functions, in the scientific texts repetition is conditioned by the author's desire to be adequately and accurately understood. It should be noted that scientific texts widely employ another means of redundancy – periphrasis. Periphrasis, as is known, is the renaming of an object, which may be identified in different ways (Galperin, 1977). Here are some examples:

To understand how Nature relates to God, we use what we know about chamber maids and their relation to their masters or bosses. Once that relation is reasoned out in a matter of milli seconds, we then complete the analogy by seeing Nature as a servant of God. To phrase it another way, the Nature: God relation can only be understood once we have reasoned out the chambermaid: master relation and completed the cognitive pattern that we call analogy (Hamilton, 1984, p.10).

By a sign, generally speaking, we understood one material object capable of denoting another object or idea. The essential property of a sign is its relatively

conventional character. A sign does not possess the properties of the object. It denotes...

One of the essential features of a sign, as has been stated above, is its conventional, arbitrary character (Galperin, 1977, p.61).

There are some expressions, which can be regarded as signals of redundancy in the scientific texts: *in other words as already shown, as mentioned above, in short, to phrase it another way, as already observed, as mentioned earlier, as already discussed, be it repeated*. Very often scientific texts contain conclusions and summaries which give an important account of what have been discussed. Surely, these parts of the text are not devoid of some redundant expressions the use of which is reasoned out by the author's objectives to give grounded argumentations. So, redundancy in the scientific texts intends to clearly explain and substantiate the author's hypothesis. Therefore it can be regarded as a crucial means of scientific cognition.

In fiction, besides repetition, many other means of redundancy are used – periphrasis, alliteration, symbol, synonymous expressions. One of the main functions of redundant units is to produce an emotional impact on the reader. It is now common knowledge that emotiveness as a linguistic category constitutes a distinctive feature of a fictional text. The current researches in this field are connected with such names as A. Wierzbicka, I.R. Galperin, I.V. Arnold, V/I/ Shakhovskiy, V.I. Lakoff, A. Ortony, A. Collins, M. Gohnson and others (see Ashurova, 2012; Ashurova, Galieva, 2016). Let's consider the mechanism of emotional impact created by the redundant units in H.W. Longfellow's poem "The Rainy Day":

*The day is cold and dark and dreary
It rains and the wind is never weary
The wines still cling to the mouldering wall,
But at every gust the dead leaves fall,
And the day is cold and dark and dreary*

This text is interesting for analysis because it clearly demonstrated the role of redundant means in expressing emotions on the one hand, and in conceptualizing information – on the other. First of all the reader's attention is attracted by the abundant use of different types of repetition. Repetition, as is known can be presented at all the levels of language: phonetic, morphological, lexical, syntactical. Here we observe phonetic repetition (alliteration), lexical and syntactical repetition. Great is the role of alliteration – the repetition of the sound (d). This sound according to I.R. Galperin prompts some negative feelings. In this poem, the sound (d), repeated 20 times, conveys the feelings of gloom, depression, pessimism and unhappiness. As for lexical repetition, there are many repeated words – *day, cold, mouldering, fate, weary, rain, fall, life*, but the most conspicuous position occupies the word combination "dark and dreary" due to the fact that it is arranged in the form of framing. That means that the initial parts are repeated at the end as well. It is of interest to note that in this poem we observe two types of framing: framing used in each stanza and in the whole poem. Such compositional pattern foregrounds the repeated words *dark, dreary* – makes them

the key words of the poem. These key words once more emphasize the emotional atmosphere of depression, the more so, as they are attributed not only to the description of the rainy day, but also and mainly to the human life.

Another type of redundancy, widely used in fiction, is synonyms and synonymous expressions. Synonyms, as we know, are the words “kindred in meanings but distinct in morphemic composition, phonemic shape and usage” (Arnold, 1974, p.177). At first sight, synonyms being similar in meaning seem to be redundant elements, and, therefore, useless in communication. But this is a completely wrong view. Synonyms being identical in their denotational meanings, differ in additional connotations, shades of meaning, emotional components and stylistic colouring. They ensure the expression of various shades of thought, feelings and imagination. When used in the discourse, synonyms promote precision, clearness and richness of thought. In this respect, synonyms viewed from the angle of Cognitive Linguistics, are powerful means of cognition inasmuch as they ensure a comprehensive and thorough cognition of the object or event in question. Therefore, synonyms regarded as means of cognition play a significant role in the process of text interpretation and conceptualization. Particularly important are synonymous expressions used in the fictional texts. In S. Maugham’s story “The Lion’s Skin” there is a monologue:

“Oh, don’t be so damned gentlemanly with me, Bob. We’re a couple of bums and that’s all, there is to it. We could have some grand times together if you’d only have a little sense. You are a liar, a humbug and a cheat, but you seem to be very decent to your wife, and that’s something in your favour. She just dots upon you, doesn’t she? Funny, women are. She is a very nice woman, Bob”.

From the factual information of the story we learn that Robert, a poor young man of low origin dreamt of being a gentleman. So, he married a rich woman, concealed his past from everybody and successfully played the role of a gentleman. Once he met Fred Hardy, the man who knew his humble origin. The sentence “You are a liar, a humbug and a cheat” contains synonyms which express the speaker’s a) conviction that he knows Robert; b) negative emotional attitude to the liars; c) contempt, mockery and scorn. So, the synonyms clustered together within a sentence enrich both their denotative and connotative meanings.

Another example of synonymous redundancy can be found in the story “The Duel” by O’Henry. The purport of the story is the description of New York city and its influence on people. The image of the city is presented in two contrasting lines of conceptual features expressed by a string of synonyms. On the one hand, New York is described as a good, great, wonderful, basest, enchanting, city, on the other – it is bad, cruel, crude and fatal. The people who come to New York have to struggle, fight, to battle, and New York either conquers, subdues, captures you or thrills, pleases, enriches, enchants, elevates, nurtures you. So, the whole text abounds in synonyms the use of which is aimed to get a deeper insight into the concept of the city, to give rise to a new understanding of it, to reinforce the emotional tension of the description. Due to the synonymous expressions, a comprehensive, accurate and habitus characterization of the city is gained.

QUESTIONS AND TASKS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What are the cognitive principles of presenting information in the text?
2. What does the principle of iconicity mean?
3. What types of iconicity are distinguished?
4. Discuss the principle of relevance in the text
5. Define the notion of foregrounding
6. What ways of foregrounding do you know?
7. How is defeated expectancy realized in the text?
8. Discuss the principle of linguistic economy at the textual level
9. What stylistic devices are based on the principle of linguistic economy?
10. Characterize the notion of linguistic redundancy
11. Provide examples of redundancy in the literary text
12. What types of redundancy are differentiated?
13. What are the functions of redundancy in the literary text?

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CHAPTER XIX. METHODS OF CONCEPTUAL ANALYSIS

Each branch of linguistics is supposed to have its own subject, aims and methods of analysis. Only then it gets the status of an independent science. In cognitive linguistics the problem of methodology and methods of analysis attracts considerable attention of many scholars such as N.D. Arutyunova, E.S. Kubryakova, D.U. Ashurova, Yu. S. Stepanov, R.M. Frumkina, M.V. Pimenova, Z.D. Popova, IA . Sternin, V.I. Karasik, etc.

It is worth mentioning that along with traditional methods of analysis accepted in Cognitive Linguistics (etymological, definitional, componential, contextual and textual analyses), there have been developing new methods of conceptual analysis: cognitive mapping, frame analysis, cognitive metaphorical analysis.

9.1. METHOD OF COGNITIVE MAPPING

Conceptual analysis focuses on the interpretation of the meaning structures representing different features of the concept; identifying the frequency of its taxonomic characteristics; distinguishing its peculiar properties. The main aim of conceptual analysis is generalization of conceptual features of a concept and distinguishing conceptual structures, cognitive models and linguistic schemas.

One of the conceptual methods is the method of constructing a cognitive map or cognitive modelling proposed by E.S. Kubryakova. Cognitive map is constructed on the base of lexicographic definitions of a word representing a definite concept, its associative links and the most common contexts in which it is used. Lexicographic definitions are derived from monolingual, phraseological, etymological dictionaries, as well as dictionaries of synonyms and antonyms.

Associative links are identified with the help of associative dictionaries and thesauruses. As for different knowledge structures associated with a certain concept they can be derived from encyclopedic, mythological, historical, philosophical and cultural sources. It should be mentioned that one of the most important stages of conceptual modelling is reference to the most common contexts of the concept use. For this purpose paremiological units, in particular, proverbs, aphoristic texts, quotations, sayings are to be analyzed. The final stage of the proposed method is appealing to the various genres of the fictional text since the latter plays a crucial role in shaping the conceptual world picture.

Consequently, the method of cognitive mapping is aimed to reveal the cognitive essence of a word-concept, its deep semantics and the implicit layer. E.S. Kubryakova believes that «концептуальный анализ предусматривает поиск общих концептов, которые подведены под один знак и определяют бытие знака как когнитивной структуры, что обеспечивает знание о мире. Опираясь на дефиницию концепта, можно построить «когнитивную карту» слова, представляющую собой, во-первых, отражение наиболее употребительных контекстов слова, во-вторых, констатацию всех направлений, по которым идут преобразования семантики слова, и наконец, рекомендацию к более полному лексикографическому представлению значений слова» (Кубрякова, 1991, с.97).

The concept “Word” is one of the universal concepts represented in all societies and cultures, due to the fact that “Word” is an alienable part of languages; the only tool of verbal communication.

As it has been mentioned, the structure of the concept includes the following constituents: 1) notional (factual information, i.e. the basic, essential and distinctive features of the concept); 2) imagery (based on the principle of analogy); 3) evaluative (axiological and cultural significance). A detailed step-by-step procedure of cognitive mapping can be illustrated by the analysis of the concept “Word” (Галиева, 2010).

The first step of the analysis of any concept presupposes the analysis of the notional constituent, i.e. the dictionary meanings of the lexeme that represent the name of the concept, the meanings presented in phraseological units with the component “word”. As our analysis has shown, the dictionary meanings of the lexeme “Word” can be divided into two zones: linguistic, and philosophical.

The linguistic zone is represented by a number of meanings, which can be divided into five large groups:

1) a word is a group of sounds

- a speech sound or series of speech sounds that symbolize a meaning usu. without being divisible into smaller units capable of an independent use; a sound or a group of sounds that express a meaning and form an independent unit of the language (MWCD; LDCE; CODCE, OALD);

2) a word is a linguistic unit

- a single component part of human speech or language (OALD; CIDE); a single unit of language which has meaning and can be spoken or written (CIDE); the smallest unit of spoken language which has meaning and can stand alone (LDCE);

3) word is speech, language

- something that is said (MWCD), anything is said (OALD); speech, language (CODCE; OALD; CIDE); the act of speaking or of making verbal communication (MWCD), the spoken sign of conception of an idea, expressing an idea or ideas (CIDE);

4) word is text, idiom, expression, proverb

- the text of a vocal musical composition (MWCD); lyrics, book, text, libretto (CIDE); script, lines, lyrics, libretto (OALD); designation; locution; turn of phrase; idiom (RNMT); saying, proverb (MWCD); term; name; expression; (ODSA);

5) word – talk, conversation

- talk; discourse (MWCD); chat; discussion; consultation; exchange of views (RNMT); brief dialogue, parley, interview (OTDS); short speech or conversation (LDCE); a remark or statement (OALD); pronouncement; declaration (OTE); a favorable statement (MWCD); conversation, an expression, a phrase, clause, short utterance, comment; observation (LDCE; CIDE);

The philosophical-religious zone is represented by metonymical meanings of the lexeme “Word – Bible”, “Word – Jesus Christ” in which it acquires conceptual features related to religion (*sacred, inspired, perpetual, unearthy, transcendental, uncreated, spiritual, immortal, worshipped, eternal, beautiful, supreme, etc.*). These meanings are axiologically significant for all the Christian societies:

- Word – Gospel, the expressed or manifested mind and will of God (MWCD); The Bible and its teaching (OALD); The Word (theol) – the Gospel message; esp. the Scriptures as a revelation of God (CIDE);
- Word – the second person in the Trinity before his manifestation in time by the incarnation (CIDE; RNMT);

The analysis of phraseological units with the component “word” has shown that the notional constituent of the concept “Word” is represented not only by the meanings related to the linguistic zone, but also the informative and ethical zones.

The linguistic zone is presented by the meanings close to the dictionary meanings:

- **word is public speech:** *take the word; say a few words; to put into words; press the words; give the word;*
- **word is conversation:** *a word or two; have a word with smb; make words; without many words; a word or two; in other words; in many words; in a word; to get a word in edgeways; word for word;*

The informative zone of the concept “Word” includes the meanings that are associated with the notion of information. So, the “Word” is regarded as an entity that implies information:

1) message, news, information: *get/have word; leave word; word came; write word of; to send word; bring words.*

We *had word* this morning... that Mr. Dombey was doing well (Ch. Dickens, *Dombey and his Son*, ch. XXXII); A servant *brought word* that Major Pendennis had returned to the hotel... (W. Thackeray, *Pendennis*, vol.II).

2) advise, remark, prompt, recommendation: *a word in season, a word out of season; to pass one's word for smb; to give smb. one's good word; a word in smb's ear; to put words in smb's mouth.*

Don't *put words in my mouth*, mister, I do my own thinking (H. Fast, *Freedom Road*, ch. VII).

3) command, password: *get the word; pass the word; say/ speak the word; word of command; sharp's the word! words to be passed!*

I don't budge till I get the word from Mick (W. Thackeray, *Vanity Fair*, ch. XXXII); *The troops halted and formed; the word of command rung through the line...* (Ch. Dickens, *Pickwick Papers*, ch. IV).

Ethical zone which forms not only the notional but also evaluative components is represented by the following meanings:

- **word is promise:** *to keep one's word; to be as good as one's word; to break one's word; to be worse than one's word; to go back on one's word; to give one's word; to be true to one's word; to be better than one's words; to give a word of honour;*

- **word is quarrel:** *to have words with smb; to bandy words; a word and a blow, hard words.*

I am not going *to bandy words*. I require you to give up this friendship (J. Galsworthy, *To Let*, part II, ch. VI).

As it is seen from the examples, conceptual features included in the meaning “word is promise” are associated both with positive (*good, honorable, organized, obligatory, noble, assertive, honest, reliable*), and negative evaluation of the Word (*bad, dishonest, ignoble, unreliable, disorganized*). The conceptual features included in the meaning “word is quarrel” are associated mainly with negative notions (*hostile, quarrelsome, arguing, envious, intolerant, unfriendly, inimical, disobedient, polemical, scandalistic, etc.*).

So, the conceptual features that form the meanings “word is promise”, “word is quarrel” can be referred to both notional and evaluative constituents of the concept “Word”.

The analysis of other phraseological units with component “word” has shown that they are related to miscellaneous notions associated with positive characteristics of the person such as a) kindness (*to have a good word for everyone*); b) responsibility (*in word and deed*); c) directness (*not to mince one’s words*); d) boast (*big words; holiday words*); as well as negative characteristics: wordiness (*a man of many words*); wickedness (*not to have a good word for anyone*); mumbling (*to be unable to put two words together*). Wordlessness (*a man of few words*) can be evaluated positively or negatively depending on context.

So, the notional component of the concept “Word” verbalized by lexical and phraseological units includes the four zones: 1) linguistic, in which word is associated with any linguistic phenomenon (speech, conversation, sound, text, etc); 2) informative, i.e. word is understood as something that implies information (message, news, command); 3) ethical, in which “word” acquires evaluative components (promise, quarrel); 4) philosophical-religious (Bible, Jesus Christ).

The image-bearing and evaluative components of the concept “Word” are widely presented at the level of proverbs, aphorisms and fictional text. Here, it should be mentioned that image-bearing and evaluation constituents of the concept in most cases are closely interlinked. In other words, examples can be viewed both from the point of view of imagery and evaluation. It is conditioned by the fact that imagery and evaluation are usually interwoven especially in proverbs, aphorisms and fictional texts which reflect the national world picture of a certain culture (beliefs, customs, ethics and morality, behavioral norms, speech etiquette, etc.).

However, the most conspicuous linguistic units that verbalize the image-bearing constituent of a concept are fictional texts, especially aphoristic and poetic texts. Functioning in the text, the concept “Word” acquires a multitude of conceptual features constituting its complex multifarious structure. Thus, the concept Word forms several conceptual metaphors such as “**Word is Language**”, “**Word is Human**”, “**Word is Time**”, “**Word is Deed**”, “**Word is Wind**”, “**Word is Power**”. Let us consider some of them:

The conceptual metaphor “**Word – Power**” is presented by conceptual features which express both positive and negative evaluation of the concept, thus forming its evaluative constituent as well:

Word is a powerful tool

A word after a word after a word is power (Margaret Atwood); *Words are of course, the most powerful drug* used by mankind (R. Kipling); *A word carries far, very far, deals destruction through time as the bullets go flying through space* (J. Conrad); *Handle them carefully, for words have more power than atom bombs* (P.S.Hurd).

Word is an instrument of influencing and manipulating people

The basic tool for the manipulation of reality is the manipulation of words, if you can control the meaning of words you can control the people.....(Philip K. Dick); *As so the Word had breath and wrought//With human hands creed of creeds In loveliness of perfect deeds,//More strong than all poetic thought* (A.Tennyson)

Word is an entity of a dual character:

it can have either creative or destructive power

If the word has the potential to revive and make us free, it has also the power to blind, imprison, and destroy (R.Ellison); *Words are both better and worse than thoughts; they express them, and add to them; they give them power for good or evil; they start them on an endless flight, for instruction and comfort and blessing, or for injury and sorrow and ruin* (T. Edwards).

All books are either dreams or swords,

You can cut, or you can drug, with words (Amy Lowell);

Thanks to words, we have been able to rise above the brutes; and thanks to words, we have often sunk to the level of demons (Aldous Huxley);

Word is an entity that has a “physical power”, it can hurt people

A blow with a word strikes deeper than a blow with a sword (R. Burton); *You can stroke people with words* (F. Scott Fitzgerald);

O! many a shaft, at random sent,//Finds mark the archer little meant!

And many a word, at random spoken,

May soothe or wound a heart that's broken! (W. Scott);

The cognitive metaphor “**Word is Human**” is based on personification of the notion of “word” and represented in the followings:

Word is regarded as a human being who has positive or negative characteristics, words are associated with person’s emotional condition:

Words so innocent and powerless as they are, as standing in a dictionary, how potent for good and evil they become in the hands of one who knows how to combine them (N. Hawthorne); *Immodest words admit of no defense, for want of decency is want of sense* (W.Dillon); *Good words do more than hard speeches* (R. Leighton);

Gentle words, quiet words, are after all, the most powerful words. They are more convincing, more compelling, more prevailing (W. Gladden);

Words can be associated with the human's physical characteristics; it can be alive or dead, it can suffer or enjoy

Words are alive, cut them and they bleed (R.W.Emerson); Words are freeborn they have the same right to dance and sing as the dewdrops have to sparkle and the stars to shine (A. Coles);

A word is dead, when it is said, some say,

I say, it just begins to live that day (E. Dickenson);

Words strain //Crack and sometimes break, under the burden,
Under the tension, slip, slide, perish (T.S. Eliot);

It should be stressed that though the above mentioned examples form conceptual metaphor representing the image-bearing constituent of the concept, it at the same time expresses evaluation both positive and negative. The evaluative component of the concept "Word" is represented by a number of conceptual features that expresses both positive and negative evaluation. Let's analyse these features in detail:

Positive evaluation

- ***"Word" is a means of keeping humankind's history for the future generation***

Words when written crystallize the history, their very structure gives permanence to the unchangeable past (F. Bacon); Words are the only things that last forever (W. Hazlitt);

Colours fade, temples crumble, //Empires fall,
But wise words endure (E. Thorndike);

- ***"Word" is the most precious gift given to the mankind***

Words are all we have (S. Beckett); The word is the name of the divine world (N. Mailer);

I sometimes hold it half a sin//To put in words the grief I feel;

For words, like Nature, half reveal//And half conceal the Soul within (A.Tennyson);

- ***"Word" is the only tool of verbal presentation of people's thoughts***

Thoughts in the mind may come forth gold and dross,

When coined in words, we know it's real worth (Edward Young);

But words are things, and a small drop of ink,

Falling like dew, upon a thought, produces

That which makes thousands, perhaps millions, think (G.G. Byron);

- ***"Words" as indicators of the human's mind and***

intelligence

Words represent your intellect (P. Fripp); When we deal with words, we deal with mind (Ayne Rand); Words are wise men's counters, they do but reckon by them: but they are the money of fools (T.Hobbes); Words ought to be a little wild for they are the assault of thoughts on the unthinking (J.M. Keynes);

- **“Good word”s are valuable and have a positive influence on the people**

Kind words can be short and easy to speak, but their echoes are truly endless (Mother Theresa); Kind words are benedictions. They are not only instruments of power, but of benevolence and courtesy; blessing both to the speaker and hearer of them (F. Saunders); Fair words gladden so many a heart (H. W. Longfellow); Good words do more than hard speeches (R. Leighton).

Negative conceptual features

- **“Words” are often senseless**

I hate to see a parcel of big words without anything in them (W. Hazlitt); Oaths are but words, and words are but wind (S. Butler); Words and feathers the wind carries away (G. Herbert);

Heaps of huge words uphoarded hideously,

With horrid sound, though having little sense (Edmund Spenser);

Polonius: *What do you read, my Lord?*

Hamlet: *Words, words, words* (W. Shakespeare);

- **“Words” are considered unworthy if not supported by deeds:**

And yet, words are no deeds (W. Shakespeare); Words are but holy, as the deeds they cover (P. R. Shelley); Words may show a man's wit, but actions his meaning (B. Franklin); Words pay no debts, give her deeds (W. Shakespeare); We have too many high-sounding words and too few actions that correspond with them (A. Adams);

Throughout the world, if it were sought,

Fair words enough a man shall find,

They be good cheap; they cost right nought,

Their substance is but only wind (T. Wyatt).

- **“Words” without thoughts perish**

Words are like leaves; and where they most abound,

Much fruit of sense beneath is rarely found (Alexander Pope)

My words fly up, my thoughts remain below.

Words without thoughts never to heaven go (W. Shakespeare)

Words are like leaves; some wither every year,

And every year a younger race succeed (Wentworth Dillon)

- **“Word” has a destructive power**

...God preserve us from the destructive power of words! There are words which can separate hearts sooner than sharp swords. There are words whose sting can remain through a whole life! (M. Howitt); A word carries far-very far- deals destruction through a time as a bullet go flying through space (J. Conrad).

- **Bad words have a negative influence on the people**

A broken bone can heal, but the wound a word opens fester forever (J. West); Tart words make no friends, a spoonful of honey will catch more flies than a gallon of vinegar (B. Franklin); Ill deeds are doubled with an evil word (W. Shakespeare)

But from sharp words and wits men pluck no fruit

And gathering thorns they shake the tree at root (A. Swinburne);

- **Uttered word can never be changed or recalled:**

What you keep by you, you may change and mend;

But words once spoken can never be recalled (Wentworth Dillon)

Our words have wings,

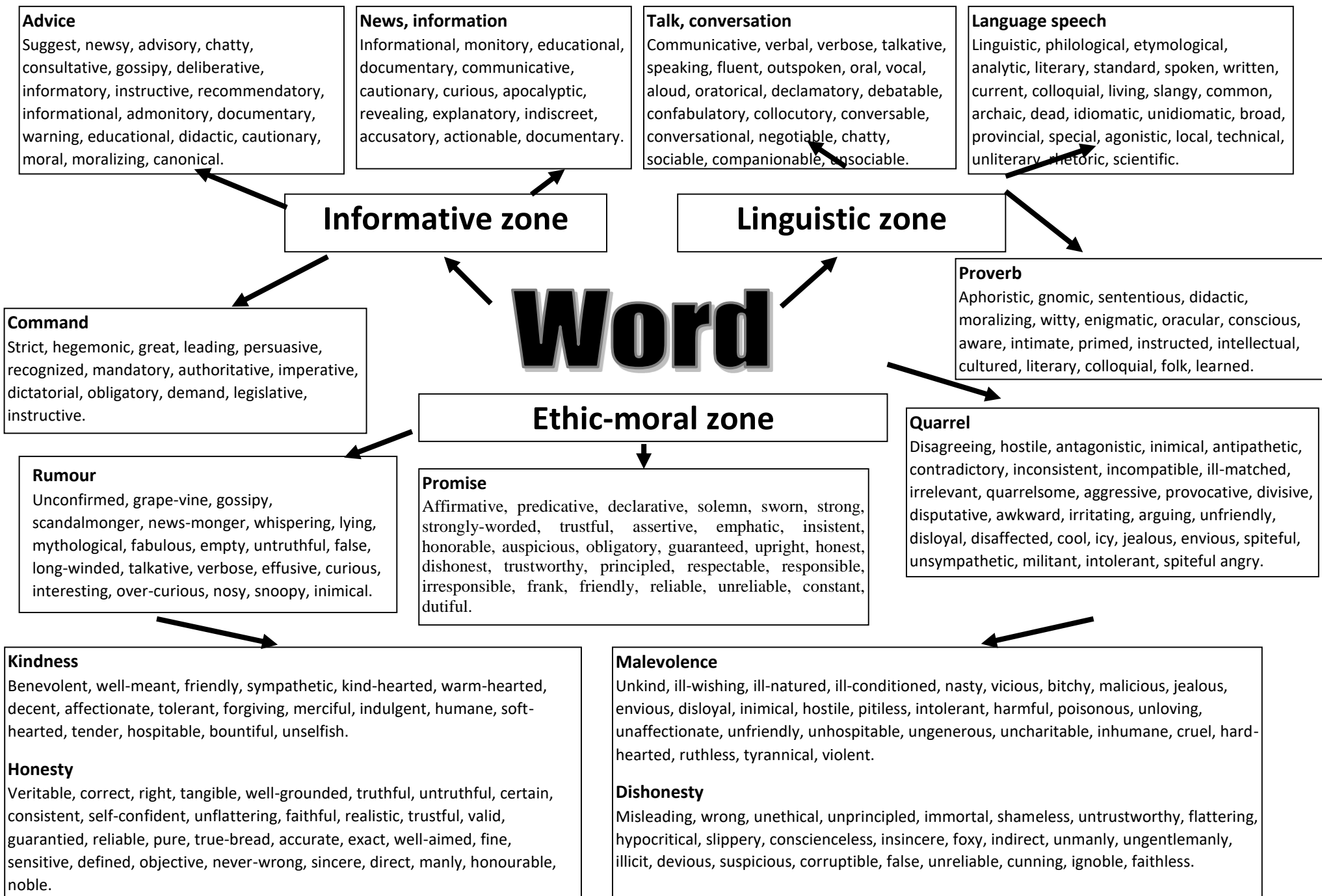
But fly not where we would (G. Eliot);

- **Words are changeable and hypocritical**

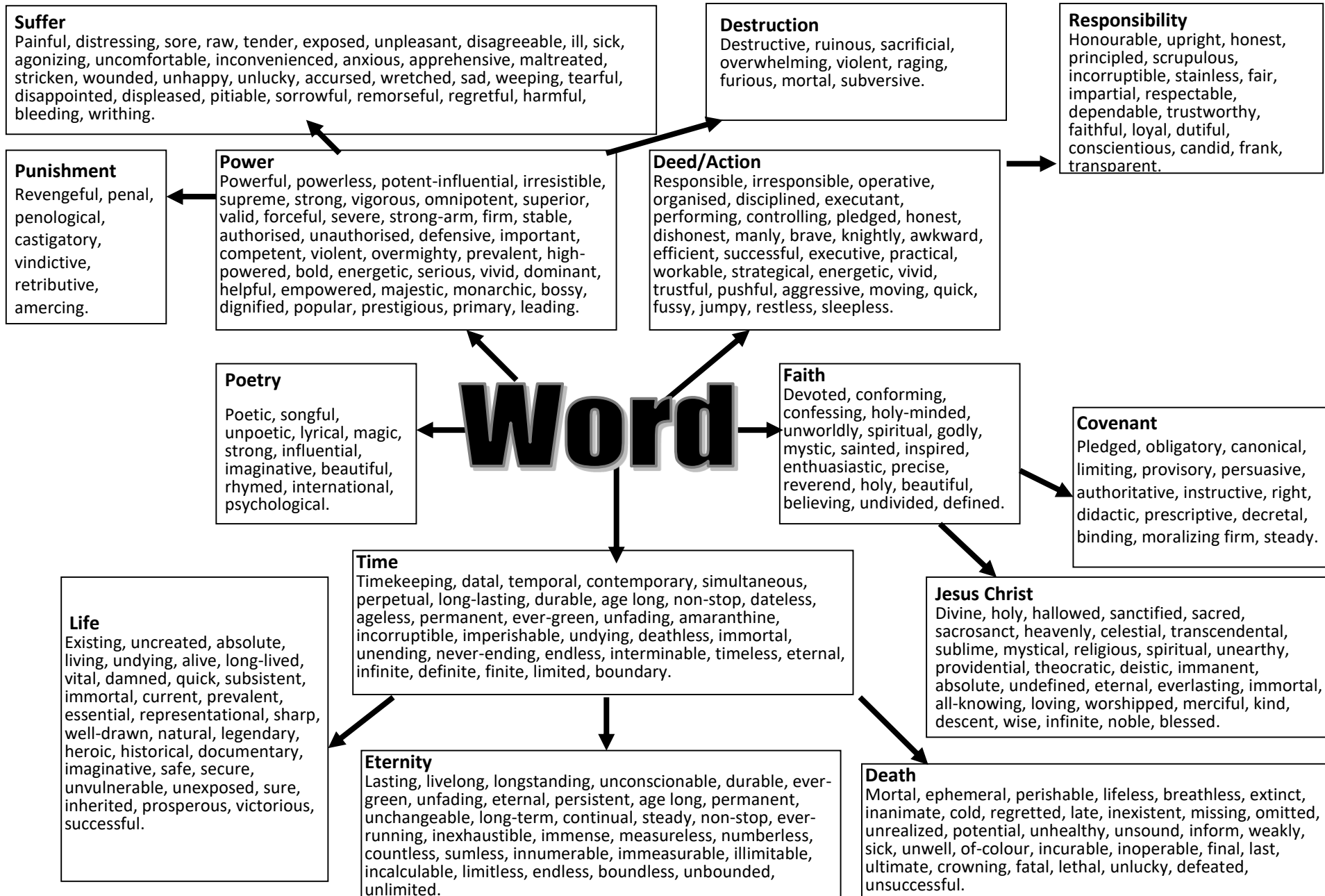
Words are chameleons, which reflect the colour of their environment (L. Hand); A word is not a crystal, transparent and unchanged; it is the skin of a living thought, and may vary greatly in colour and content according to the circumstances and the time in which it is used (O. W. Holmes);

So, the conceptual analysis of the concept “Word” shows that this concept is verbalized at the level of different linguistic units: from lexemes to texts, generating new conceptual senses, associations and connotations; its conceptual structure is presented by a great variety of conceptual features embracing linguistic, philosophical, religious, ethic zones, and expressing both positive and negative evaluation (see diagramms):

Cognitive map of Concept



Conceptosphere "Word"



9.2. FRAME ANALYSIS

As is known, frame is a schematization of experience, a knowledge structure which relates the elements and entities associated with a particular scene from human experience (GCL, p.86). In other words, frames represent a complex knowledge structure including a group of related words and concepts. As has already been mentioned in chapter 3.1.1., it consists of two levels: the upper level and the lower level. The upper level is the name of the frame; the lower level consists of terminals (slots and subslots), conveying concrete information about the situation in question.

Let's turn to the analysis of the frame structure of the concept "Wedding". As is known, wedding is the ceremony or celebration of a marriage, an anniversary of a marriage, the act or an instance of blending or joining. The analysis of verbal signals (lexical units, representing it) and associative links of the word "wedding" has shown that it is represented by the following linguistic units:

Linguistic units, verbalizing frame "wedding"

wedding-party, wedding-reception, wedding-breakfast, wedding-cake, wedding-feast, wedding-breakfast, wedding-reception, wedding-cake, wedding-dress, wedding-gown (подвенечное платье); wedding-garment (свадебная одежда); wedding-favour (бант или розетка шафера), wedding-ring, wedding-band, wedding bells, wedding march, a wedding present; wedding chapel, wedding service, wedding journey, the honeymoon; wedding vows, vow of chastity/celebrity/silence, wedding announcement, cutting the wedding cake, silver wedding, diamond wedding, golden wedding, the tin wedding, the wooden wedding, crystal wedding, china wedding, wedding bells, wedding march, hear the sound of wedding bells, wedding vows, vow of chastity, vow of celibacy, white wedding, shotgun wedding, penny wedding, shotgun wedding

Associative links of the lexeme "wedding":

marriage, match, union, alliance, matrimony, matrimony, wedlock, life together, wedlock, mismarriage, nuptial vows, civil marriage, arranged match, marriage certificate, match-making, wedding service, honeymoon, marriage feast, marriage tie, widow, miscegenation, love-match, shotgun wedding, reception, bridesman, groomsman, bridal party, bridesmaid, usher, newlyweds, partner, husband, lord and master, bridal pair, married couple.

The analysis of the linguistic units and their associative links verbalizing the notion "wedding", enables us to reveal the following slots of the frame "Wedding":

1. Slot: **Engagement** (*engagement, an engagement ring, banns, Choosing the form of marriage, Getting a license, Choosing the place of marriage, Choosing the bridesmaids' clothing, Getting the wedding present*);
2. Slot: **Presituation:** (*a rehearsal of ceremony, a rehearsal dinner, hen night (BE), bridal shower (AE), stag night (bachelor party)*);

3. Slot: **Place** (church, altar, wedding chapel, registry office);
4. Slot: **Agents** (*bridesmaid, groomsman, bridegroom /bridesman, bride*);
5. Slot: **Participants** (*flowergirl, pageboy, usher, best man, wedding planner, marriage broker, agent, parents, relatives, friend, guests*);
6. Slot: **Reception** (*wedding party, wedding feast, wedding reception, wedding celebration, wedding dinner, wedding breakfast*);
7. Slot: **Wedding attributes** (*wedding bells, wedding cake, wedding apparel, wedding ring*); *marriage license, thank-you-notes, the guest book and keepsake album*).
8. Slot: **Aims** (marriage, anniversary)
9. Slot: **Procedure**: key events (*marriage, wedding ceremony, wedding vows, wedding bliss, to pronounce a toast*)
10. Slot: **Types of wedding** (*church wedding, marriage by the registrar/register wedding, thematic wedding, exotic wedding, intermarriage, miscegenation, compulsory marriage//shotgun marriage, marriage by a special license*);
11. Slot: **Results** (honeymoon, family, parenthood, marriage guidance, new relatives)

It should be noted that sometimes the traditional structure of the stereotypical frame-situation can be violated. The transformations of the frame structure are observed in case of 1) the change of the traditional content; 2) the elimination of some slots or subslots; 3) the emergence of new slots or subslots (Баранов, 1991). For instance, in Great Britain there appeared new types of weddings – thematic, exotic, humanistic (wedding between representatives of different religions, races, nationalities). These changes cause violations in the projection of the frame structure “wedding” that results in transformations of slots, subslots and terminals of a stereotype frame or their elimination.

For example, the structure of the frame-scenario of nontraditional thematic weddings (weddings of punks, hippy, emo, goths, etc.) or exotic weddings requires that, additional thematic slots should be introduced to the structure of the standard frame. In this case, transformations are observed at the level of the slots “Wedding Attributes” – *clothes in the style of punks, hippy, emo* (non-traditional wedding) or *masks, mascaraed, clothes in the style of the Harry Potter films’ heroes, middle ages clothes*, etc (thematic wedding); and “Place of Wedding” – *a museum, a beach, an observatory, a planetarium, local woodland, a Maple Sugar House, golf club, the Zoo, Niagara Falls, etc.*

The analysis of the frame “Wedding” in the Uzbek language proves that the main slots coincide with English. The differences are observed at the level of subslots which reflect the national world picture.

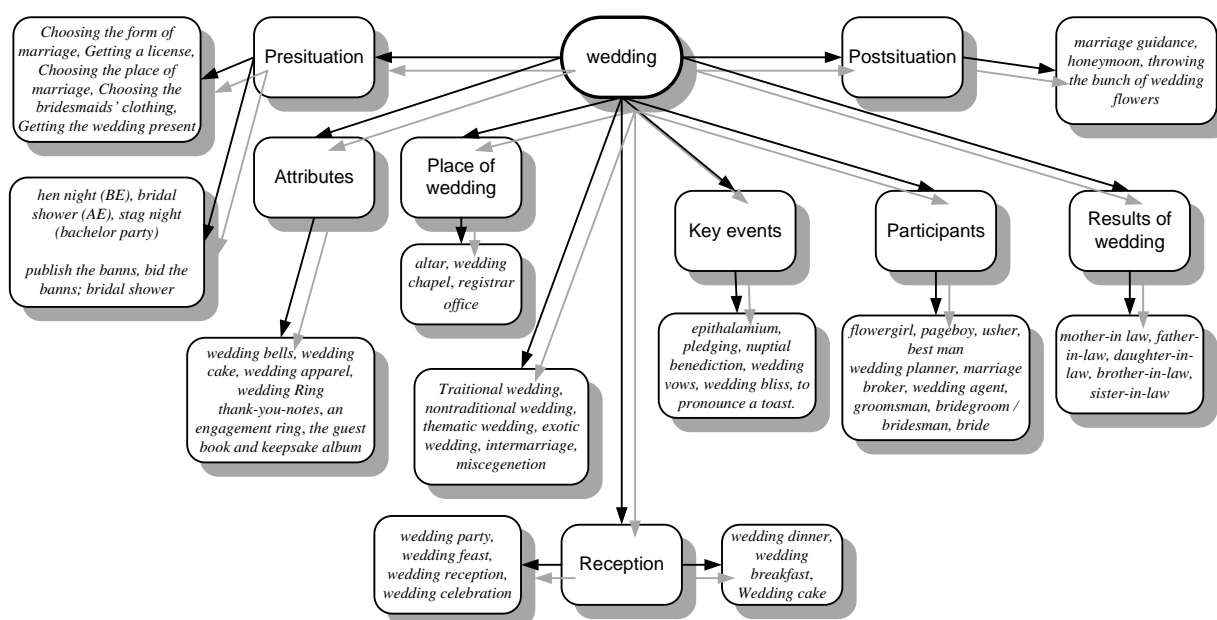
1. Slot: **Preparation** (*қиз танлаш, совчилик, учрашувга чиқиш, тўй совгалар, тўй таивиши*)
2. Slot: **Presituation**: (*совчилик, фотиҳа тўйи, нон-синдириш, сабзи тўғрар, ФХДЁ бўлимига ариза бериш, таклифномалар, тўёна, сарпо*)
3. Slot: **Place** (*масжид, тўйхона, ФХДЁ бўлими, ҳовли*);
4. Slot: **Agents** (*келин, кувёв, гувоҳлар*);

5. Slot: **Participants** (*янга, ота-она, қариндошлар, совчилар, махалла, қўшилар, меҳмонлар*)
6. Slot: **Reception** (*наҳорги ош, тўй зиёфати, тантана*);
7. Slot: **Wedding attributes** (*карнай, сурнай, дойра, тўй узуги, чимилдиқ, чопон, дастўрхон*).
8. Slot: **Aims** (*никоҳ, маросим, зиёфат*)
9. Slot: **Procedure**: key events (*хутбаи-никоҳ, оёқ босар, гўшанга, чимилдиқ*)
10. Slot: **Types of wedding** (*никоҳ тўй, ҳовли тўй, ҳосил тўй, бешик тўй, хатна ёки суннат тўй, сабон тўй, кумуш тўй, олтин тўй*);
11. Slot: **Results** (*келин салом, никоҳ тўғрисида гувоҳнома, сарпо кўрар*)

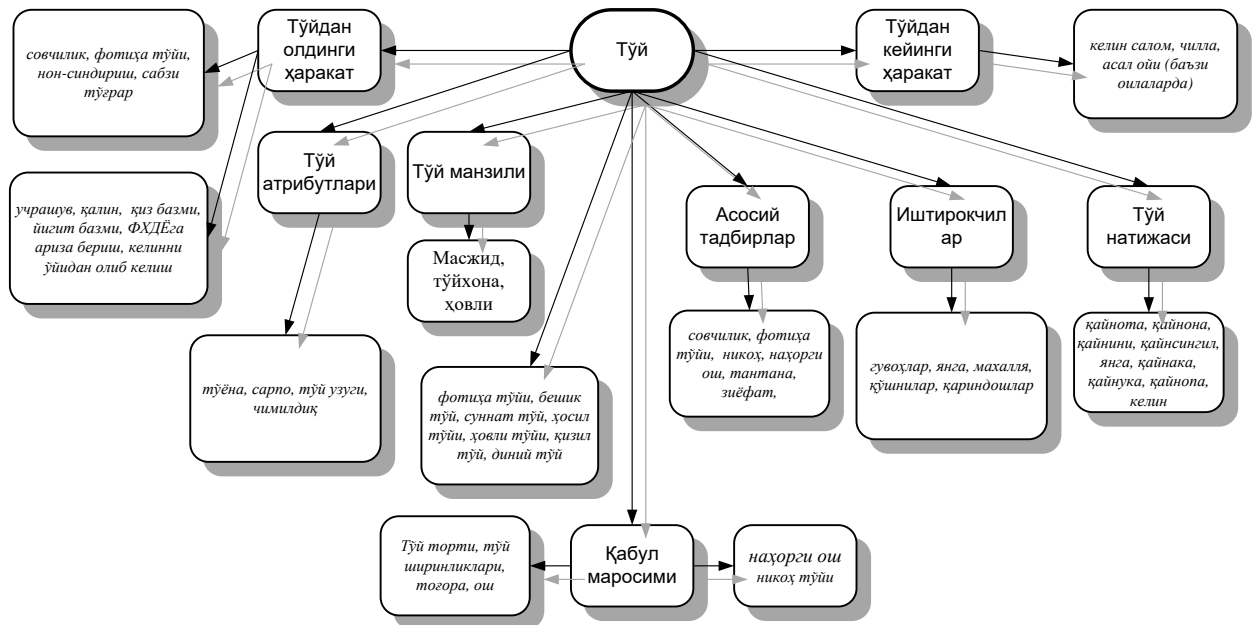
It should be mentioned that in the Uzbek language the lexeme “wedding” does not denote only “a ceremony of marriage” or “anniversary of marriage”, but is also used to denote:

- 1) different celebrations of various holidays, social (*ҳосил тўй, ҳовли тўй*) and family (*хатна тўй, суннат тўй*) events;
- 2) the celebration of pre-wedding presents that brides’ families send to each other (*тўй юбормоқ, тўй келди*);
- 3) the party devoted to some events (*қиз базми*)

Frame “Wedding” in English linguoculture



Frame “Тўй” in Uzbek linguoculture



Finally, Frame Semantics plays a major role in text understanding. Frame analysis applied to the text can be presented as a step-by-step procedure including:

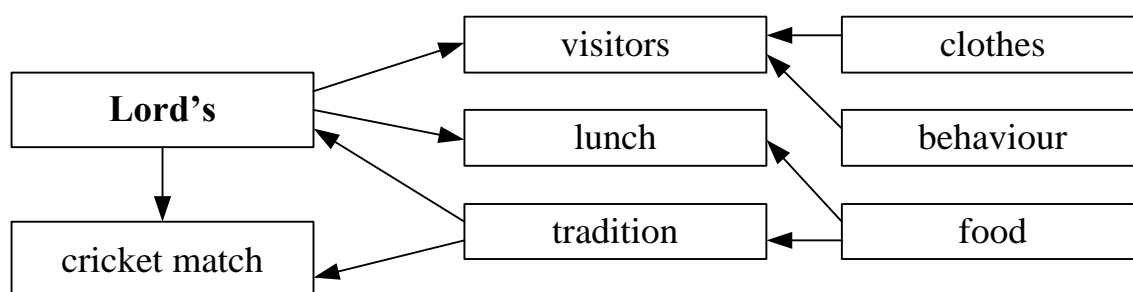
1. searching for the verbal signals representing conceptually important frames;
2. decoding their frames semantics, associative, figurative, contextual links;
3. activating knowledge structures, contextual and propositional functions;
4. conceptualizing textual information (generalizing, making conclusions, inferring knowledge on the basis of verbal signals).

All the stages of analysis contribute to cognitive text interpretation. In the process of frame analysis the missing, implicit frame components and their links can be restored; implications and inferences can be drawn. Let us take an example from Galsworthy’s novel “To Let” and analyze it from the positions of Frame Semantics:

On the day of the cancelled meeting at the National Gallery, began the second anniversary of the resurrection of England's pride and glory—or, more shortly, the top hat. "Lord's"—that festival which the war had driven from the field—raised its light and dark blue flags for the second time, displaying almost every feature of a glorious past. Here, in the luncheon interval, were all species of female and one species of male hat, protecting the multiple types of face associated with "the classes" The observing Forsyte might discern in the free or unconsidered seats a certain number of the squash-hatted, but they hardly ventured on the grass; the old school—or schools—could still rejoice that the proletariat was not yet paying the necessary half-crown. Here was still a close borough, the only one left on a large scale—for the papers were about to estimate the attendance at ten thousand. And the ten thousand, all animated by one hope, were asking each other one question: "Where are you lunching?" Something wonderfully uplifting and reassuring in that query and the sight of so many people like themselves voicing it! What reserve power

in the British realm—enough pigeons, lobsters, lamb, salmon mayonnaise, strawberries, and bottles of champagne, to feed the lot! No miracle in prospect—no case of seven loaves and a few fishes—faith rested on surer foundations. Six thousand top hats, four thousand parasols would be doffed and furled, ten thousand mouths all speaking the same English would be filled. There was life in the old dog yet! Tradition! And again Tradition! How strong and how elastic! Wars might rage, taxation prey, Trades Unions take toll, and Europe perish of starvation; but the ten thousand would be fed; and, within their ring fence, stroll upon green turf, wear their top hats, and meet—themselves. The heart was sound, the pulse still regular. E-ton! E-ton! Har-r-o-o-o-w!

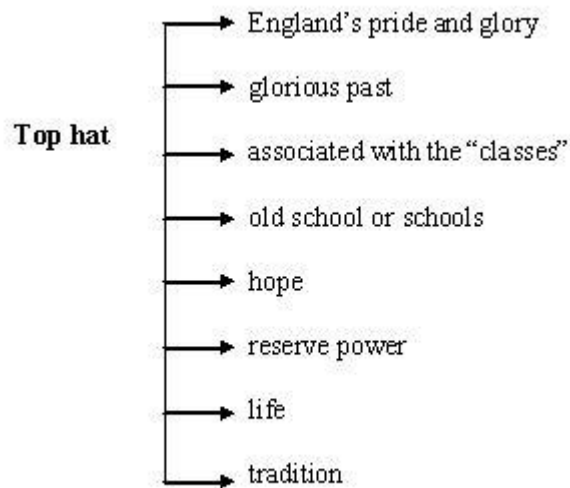
The text presents the situation describing the national vision of the British reality at the border-line of the XIX-XX centuries. The described event is the cricket match annually held in the famous stadium in London. The frame of this situation can be schematically presented as:



The name of this frame is LORD'S (the name of the stadium). The word "**Lord**", denoting a man of a high rank, contains implicit information about the stadium allotted to the rich and prosperous. Besides, the word **Lord** indicating the title of the British nobility, conveys nationally specific information. The frame includes the following slots: GAME, VISITORS, LUNCH, TRADITION.

GAME. The name of the game "cricket" is also nationally specific; it denotes an outdoor game which is very popular in Britain. To attend the annual cricket match at "Lord's" was a steadfast tradition, an event and a kind of festival for the privileged.

VISITORS – people in "top-hats" and squash hatted. The most important information is contained in the description of the people attending the stadium. A detailed description of their clothes, behaviour, attitudes, tastes discloses the life of the bourgeois society. The key-word of this text is the lexical unit "top-hat" used in a metonymical sense. In this context it assumes a variety of conceptual meanings inferred from the text on the basis of the following propositions:



So “**top hat**” becomes a symbol of the passing out but remaining still mighty bourgeois class, its hopes, former glory, power and stability. Conceptually important here is the word “top” which, being neutral in its dictionary meaning, focuses on the conceptual features of this symbol. Using the data of associative dictionaries and comparing them with the context signals, we can outline a great number of conceptual features signifying such notions as *superiority, greatness, tenacity, perfection, importance, success, pride, vanity, snobbism, respectability*, etc.

LUNCH – *pigeons, lobsters, lamb, salmon, strawberries, bottles of champagne*. The depiction of the lunch menu including delicious, expensive foods aims to characterize the upper class; their vanity, ambitions and aspiration for a luxurious life.

TRADITION. Adherence to tradition is one of the strongest feelings, the bourgeois class was attached to. They are proud of their traditions and try to display them wherever possible: annual visits to the cricket match, clothes (top hats, parasols), traditional lunch, etc.

So, frame analysis helps understand the text better, uncover and list conceptual features and entities, decode the conceptual information about the lifestyle of the upper class, their principles, values and traditions.

In summing up, the following conclusions can be made:

- frame is a schematisation of experience, a complex knowledge structure represented at the conceptual level and encoded in language;
- conceptual meanings can only be understood with the help of frame analysis;
- the theory of frame semantics is relevant to the meanings of words and set of words, grammatical categories and forms, and the text;
- frame analysis is aimed to conceptualize meanings and uncover new implicit conceptual senses.

9.3. CONCEPTUAL METAPHORICAL ANALYSIS

As has been mentioned, at present, metaphor is regarded not only as a stylistic device, but as “a cross-domain mapping in the conceptual system” (Lacoff, 1992), as “a cognitive mechanism whereby one experiential domain is partially “mapped”, i.e. projected onto a different experiential domain, so that the second domain is partially understood in terms of the first one” (Barcelona, 2000:3). A cross-domain mapping is a systematic set of correspondences that exist between constituent elements of the “source-domain” and the “target-domain” (see ch.VII). Detailed metaphorical analysis of conceptual metaphor in every day usage was done in G. Lakoff’s work. Here, we shall concentrate on conceptual metaphor in the literary text. Before proceeding with the topic, it needs to be reminded of a peculiar feature of conceptual metaphor in fiction. One of the most important properties the fictional conceptual metaphor is its crucial relevance to the conceptual information of the whole text. In other words, metaphorical expressions should be studied from the point of view of their cognitive functions within the text. Besides, it should be kept in mind that the cognitive mechanisms of conceptual metaphor is based on conceptual blending.

The following procedure of metaphorical analyses can be recommended:

- identify metaphorical expressions employed in the text;
- specify the source domain of conceptual metaphor and the knowledge structure constituting it;
- analyze the associative and textual links of the target domain;
- reveal the generic space including the common conceptual features of the target domain;
- reveal the new conceptual features emerging in the blend as a result of the cross-domain mapping;
- define the conceptual significance of the metaphor and its role in the author’s individual world picture representation.

It is difficult to overestimate the role of conceptual metaphors in the fictional text, because in the process of conceptual metaphorical analysis the missing implicit components and their links can be restored; implications and inferences can be drawn.

The next passage from the story “The Duel” by O’Henry provides a good example of conceptual metaphorical analysis. The focus of attention in this story is the philosophical view of the city of New York, which is described with the help of several metaphors:

"This town", said he, "is a leech. It drains the blood of the country. Whoever comes to it accepts a challenge to a duel. Abandoning the figure of the leech, it is a juggernaut, a Moloch, a monster to which the innocence, the genius, and the beauty of the land must pay tribute. Hand to hand every newcomer must struggle with the leviathan. You've lost, Billy. It shall never conquer me. I hate it as one hates sin or pestilence or—the color work in a ten-cent magazine. I despise its very vastness and power. It has the poorest millionaires, the littlest great men, the lowest skyscrapers,

the dolefullest pleasures of any town I ever saw. It has caught you, old man, but I will never run beside its chariot wheels. It glosses itself as the Chinaman glosses his collars. Give me the domestic finish. I could stand a town ruled by wealth or one ruled by an aristocracy; but this is one controlled by its lowest ingredients.

The analyzed extract abounds in the metaphorical expressions presented in the convergence. This fact testifies to the conceptual significance the analysed metaphors are charged with.

At the first stage of our analysis, we shall identify the metaphors used in the text. They are “*a leech which drains the blood of the country; a juggernaut; a Moloch; a monster*”.

At the next stage of our analysis we shall analyze the source domains of the given metaphors. The task is to reveal the knowledge structures the source domain conveys. For this purpose we use the materials of explanatory and encyclopedic dictionaries:

Moloch – 1) a Semitic deity to whom parents sacrificed their children; 2) Canaanite god said to have been propitiated by sacrificing children.

Moloch is a deity to whom child sacrifices were made throughout the ancient Middle East. The children were initiated to Moloch by burning them alive. Parents considered their action to be “the most valued sacrifice to Moloch” (Myth Encyclopedia)

Juggernaut – 1) a crude idol, deity in Hinduism, considered a deliverer from sin. At an annual festival the idol is wheeled through the town on a gigantic chariot and worshippers have thrown themselves beneath the wheels of the cart to be crushed as a sacrifice to him; 2) a massive inexorable force, campaign, movement, or object that crushes whatever is in its path; 3) any terrible force, esp one that destroys or that demands complete self-sacrifice; 4) a large heavy truck.

Juggernaut – deity in Hinduism, whose image is represented by horrifying wooden idol with a black face and a gaping mouth as red as blood. In Chariot Festival, the image of Juggernaut is placed on a 60-foot-high cart and pulled through the town by hundreds of people. Worshipers have thrown themselves beneath the wheels of the cart to be crushed as a sacrifice to him (Myth Encyclopedia)

Leviathan – 1) a sea monster mentioned in the Book of Job, where it is associated with the forces of chaos and evil; 2) a monstrous beast, esp a sea monster; 3) any huge or powerful thing

Monster – 1) a legendary animal combining features of animal and human form or having the forms of various animals in combination, as a centaur, griffin, or sphinx; 2) any creature so ugly or monstrous as to frighten people; 3) a person who excites horror by wickedness, cruelty, etc.; 4) any animal or thing huge in size; 5) something that is extremely or unusually large

Leech – 1) any of numerous carnivorous or bloodsucking usually freshwater annelid worms (class Hirudinea) that have typically a flattened lanceolate segmented body with a sucker at each end; 2) a person who clings to another for personal gain, especially without giving anything in return, and usually with the implication or effect of exhausting the other's resources; parasite.

As is seen from the definitions, the semantic fields of all these lexemes are related to people's sacrifice and death on the one hand and worship and admiration on the other.

The next stage presupposes the analysis of the target domain "New York", the conceptual structure of which is defined by the textual links and associations. In the given story the target "New York" is characterized by multiple textual links explicitly indicating the conceptual features ascribed to the city:

Such was the background of the wonderful, cruel, enchanting, bewildering, fatal, great city (O'Henry, The Duel).

A string of the epithets used here constitutes the emotional part of the target expressing the author's evaluative attitude to the city described. It should be noted that evaluation presented here is both of positive (*wonderful, enchanting, bewildered, great*) and negative (*cruel, fatal*) character, the clash of which entails a paradoxical effect.

The analysis of the generic space is aimed to reveal the common conceptual features of the source and target domains associated with the notions of size (*huge, vast, enormous*), power (*strong, violent, powerful, great*), worship (*wonderful, enchanting*), evil (*monstrous, cruel, hateful, horrifying*).

The blend includes all the above mentioned conceptual features and the emergent structure as well. The interaction of the two domains entails the emergence of new conceptual senses implied in the following image-schemas:

New York is an animate creature (*it has the power to please, subdue, kill, fight, win, conquer down, invade, thrill, elevate, enrich*);

New York is a huge monster (*cruel, fatal, hateful, terrifying*);

New York is a deity (*it is worshipped, enchanted, adored, loved, dreamt of*).

The final stage of analysis puts forward the task to define the conceptual significance of the metaphorical expression in the framework of the whole text.

Proceeding from the assumption that conceptual metaphor has crucial relevance to the conceptual information of the whole text, the final stage of metaphorical analysis focuses on the conceptual significance of metaphor (or metaphors), its role in the author's world picture representation. The conceptual information of the analyzed story is embodied in the container concept "Man and the City". In other words, it describes the relations between the city of New York and the newcomers who decided to live there. These relations are characterized as a severe confrontation between the man and the city... This idea is laid down in the title of the story "The Duel" implying the notions of a struggle, fight, battle. Metaphorical presentations of the city as an animate creature, as a monster, as a deity, accounts for the whirl of contradictory emotions experienced by the man who happened to come to New York. These are the feelings of love and hate, admiration and contempt, elevation and depression, delight and horror, beauty and ugliness, power and weakness, violence and humility, audacity and fear. So, metaphorical analysis based on cross-domain mapping makes it possible to infer new conceptual senses presenting the author's evaluation of New York and its influence on the people living there.

In summing up the following conclusions can be made:

- conceptual metaphor is one of the fundamental processes of cognition based on cross-domain mapping resulted in the conceptual blend and the emergence of new conceptual senses;
- conceptual metaphor in the literary text is of crucial relevance to the conceptual information of the whole text;
- conceptual metaphorical analysis is based on the cognitive mechanism of conceptual blending and consists of the following stages: a) identifying metaphorical expressions employed in the text; b) specifying the source domain of conceptual metaphor and the knowledge structures constituting it; c) analyzing the textual and associative links of the target domain; d) revealing the generic space including the common conceptual features of the source and target domains; e) inferring the new conceptual senses emerging in the blend as a result of cross-domain mapping; f) defining the conceptual significance of conceptual metaphor in the literary text and its role in the author's individual world picture representation.

QUESTIONS AND TASKS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What is the aim of conceptual analysis?
2. What are the main methods of conceptual analysis?
3. What is the essence and aims of cognitive mapping?
4. Describe a step-by-step procedure of cognitive mapping
5. What are the main constituents and zones of the concept "Word"?
6. Comment on the positive and negative evaluation of the concept "Word"
7. What is frame analysis and its aim?
8. Speak on the frame structure and its constituents
9. What is the role of Frame Semantics in text understanding?
10. What transformation of the frame structure can be observed?
11. Analyze the frame structure of the concept "Wedding" in the English and Uzbek/Russian languages
12. Dwell on the national specifics of the concept "Wedding" in the Uzbek/Russian languages

RECOMMENDED LITERATURE

1. Ashurova D.U. Text Linguistics. – Tashkent: Tafakkur Qanoti, 2012
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GLOSSARY

Activization, activation– stimulation of certain parts of the brain in the process of speech activity under the influence of verbal signals aimed to represent certain knowledge structures.

Anthropocentric paradigm – a theoretical framework concerned with the problem of “the human factor” in language, his mental and cognitive activity, the linguistic world picture, representing universal and national-specific values, national worldview.

Anthropocentrism means that a priority role in the process of language functioning is assigned to the human, his knowledge, experience and all kinds of cognitive activity. In other words, language is studied in its multiple relations to the linguistic personality, his mind, intellect, knowledge

Categorization – a mental process of taxonomic activity, regulated presentation of various phenomena classified according to their essential, category characteristics.

Classical theory of categorization - the widely accepted theory of the way humans categorise the world phenomena. According to this theory conceptual and linguistic categories have “a definitional structure”, i.e. all members of the category should have a set of necessary characteristics sufficient for the category membership.

Cognition – a mental process of learning and acquiring knowledge, its conceptualization and categorization.

Cognitive Grammar is the theoretical framework which deals with the grammatical categories, units, and constructions in their relationships to the processes of the world perception and cognition.

Cognitive Linguistics – a branch of linguistics which regards language as a cognitive mechanism of representing, storing and transmitting knowledge layers. It is concerned with the study of conceptual structuring in language, the relationships between linguistic choices and mental processes, human experience and their results – knowledge.

Cognitive metaphor– one of the fundamental processes of human cognition, a specific way of conceptualizing reality based on the mental process of analogy and knowledge transfer from one conceptual field into another.

Cognitive science – is the interdisciplinary science emerged at the interface of psychology, anthropology, linguistics, sociology, computer science, neuroscience, philosophy. It studies the mind and its processes, the organization of knowledge in the human’s mind, i. e. the functions of cognition and systems they represent; as well as problems connected with perception, memory, attention, reasoning, language and emotion.

Cognitive Semantics – the area of study that focuses on how language encodes and reflects conceptual structures, i.e. it deals with the conceptual theory of meaning

which presupposes the multilevel interpretation of both linguistic and non-linguistic (encyclopedic) knowledge.

Cognitive style – the author’s individual way of conveying and presenting information, its peculiar arrangement in the text related to a specific choice of cognitive operations and their preferable usage in the process of text production.

Cognitive stylistics – is the discipline emerged at the interface between linguistics, literary studies and cognitive science; it is concerned with the study of cognitive style, cognitive principles of text production and text perception, cognitive basis of stylistic devices, implicative aspects of textual communication and “figure and ground” theory.

Cultural concept – a complex mental unit, a means of representation of knowledge structures, a multifold cognitive structure, an operational unit of memory, “a quantum of knowledge”, a part of general knowledge about the world, a unit of the conceptual system reflecting the human cognitive activity.

Concept – a culture specific and nationally oriented unit, a multifold mental structure consisting of notional, image-bearing and evaluative layers and characterized by emotional, expressive components and associative links.

Conceptual blending/integration – is a cognitive operation based on the conceptual structures of two unrelated mental spaces (input spaces) which are linked by means of a generic space, and on the basis of their common elements are projected onto a new mental space (a blend), which generates a new emergent structure.

Conceptual domain – is a body of knowledge that organizes related concepts.

Conceptual system – is the repository of concepts available to the human mind, constituents of which form a structured and organised inventory which facilitates categorisation and conceptualisation. Each concept of the conceptual system is encoded and verbalized in the language.

Conceptual world picture – a global image of the world and its essential features reflected in the individual’s mind as a result of his spiritual activity.

Conceptualization – a mental process of meaning construction and concept formation in the individual’s mind, one of the main processes of the human cognitive activity connected with composing knowledge structures on the basis of text data and background information, mechanisms of inferences, making conclusions, decoding implicit information.

Emergence structure is new meanings appearing in the blend as a result of integration of the two domains –the target and source domains. It contains information which is more than the sum of its component parts.

Family resemblance - the members of one category can be united into one group on the basis of only some similar features, other features being quite different

Foregrounding – a cognitive principle of distributing information in the text; it marks out the most essential, relevant fragments of the text, thus guiding its interpretation. The following types of foregrounding are distinguished: convergence

of stylistic devices, coupling, defeated expectancy, “strong” positions of the text, contrast.

Frame – a hierarchical structure of linguistic data representing a stereotyped situation. It consists of two levels: the upper level is the name of the frame; the lower level consisting of subframes, terminals, slots and subslots, contains concrete information about the situation in question.

Frame semantics – a trend of Cognitive Linguistics which deals with the study of words and corresponding concepts hierarchically structured in a frame, representing stereotype situations. Frame semantics is the semantics of understanding, it is aimed to explain the relations between meanings and their corresponding concepts and reveal new implicit information.

Generic space provides abstract information common to both input spaces. The importance of generic space is that it can provide the concrete basis for analogy (comparison based on similarity) between the source and target domains. It generalizes over what is common to input spaces and indicates correspondences between conceptual domains.

Gestalt (shape, form) – unconscious perceptual mechanisms to construct wholes or gestalts out of an incomplete perceptual input. This theory attempts to describe how people tend to organize visible elements into groups or unified wholes.

Iconicity is defined as relations of a certain similarity between the verbal sign and its denotate, i.e. logical order of event sequence as well as the succession of homogeneous sentences. There are three principles of iconicity: 1) iconic sequencing; 2) iconic proximity; 3) iconic principle of quantity.

Inference – a mental process by which a conclusion is inferred from multiple observations; the cognitive interpretation of textual data aimed to get new information, exert additional conceptual senses and draw some conclusions about the conceptual system of the whole text.

Information is understood as knowledge represented and transferred by language units in the process of communication. Information can be subdivided into factual, subtextual and conceptual; cognitive and contextual; stylistic and pragmatic; old (given, known) and new (unknown).

Interdisciplinarity – the process of integration analytical frameworks and methods of two or more disciplines into one taking insights from a variety of relevant disciplines, synthesizing their contribution and integrating their ideas and achievements into a more complete, coherent framework of analysis aimed at deep and thorough understanding of a complex phenomenon.

Knowledge structures - a system of linguistic and nonlinguistic knowledge, blocks of information structured in terms of “frames”, “gestalts”, “scripts” containing a system of interrelated concepts.

Linguistic economy – the tendency to economize on verbal signs; It is externalized at all linguistic levels: morphological, lexical, syntactical

Linguistic method – a set of methods, devices used to achieve the tasks of the research in accordance with a certain linguistic theory within the framework of a certain paradigm.

Linguistic redundancy – an abundant use of linguistic expressions with the aim: a) to attract the addressee's attention; b) to avoid misunderstanding; c) to exert an emotional impact on the addressee.

Prototype – a schematic representation of the most salient, central characteristics that best represent the member of the category.

Prototype theory – categorization oriented to the “best example”, i.e. the prototype that assembles the key attributes that best represent members of a particular category.

Scenario – a stereotyped dynamic sequence of events, episodes, facts (f.e. visit to the stadium, game of football, examination)

Schema – a way of organizing knowledge; a cohesive, repeatable action sequence possessing component actions that are tightly interconnected and governed by a core meaning (Piaget); a set of linked mental representations of the world; a unit of knowledge, each relating to one aspect of the world, including objects, actions and abstract concepts.

Scientific paradigm – a system of scientific views dominating at a certain stage of the linguistic evolution, providing model problems and their solutions, determining the subject, principles and methods of linguistic research in accordance with philosophical, sociocultural and historical context of the epoch.

Source domain – the domain in terms of which the target domain is described. Source domains usually include concrete entities, relating to the Human, Body, Animals, Plants, Food, Forces, etc.

Target domain – the domain being described. Target domains tend to be more abstract, lacking physical characteristics; they include conceptual categories like Morality, Thought, Human Being Relationships, Time, etc.

The blended space contains selected aspects from each input spaces. The blended space takes elements from both inputs, but undergoes some changes and modifications providing additional “novel” meanings; It contains new information that is not included in either of the inputs.

Theory of “family resemblance” – the theory of categorization according to which the members of one category can be united into one group on the basis of salient attributes of the prototype the category members share.

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