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ABSTRACT

of the dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

COGNITIVE BASIS OF MEANING FORMATION IN ENGLISH TEXTS

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GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE WORK

The relevance and scope of the subject. For the past few decades, the text and its internal structure have become the central problem of many humanitarian sciences. In fact, the root of this concept goes back to the very beginnings of linguistics. Linguists claim that a word itself has no meaning and cannot be understood in complete isolation. Instead, a word acquires its meaning only in connection with sentences and texts. This interpretation has not always been the dominating, however. In the 1920s, Bakhtin, Tomaszewski and others treated the text as a unit with a special structure, and its content was completely denied. Similarly, since the late 1940s many linguists have worked from the idea of speaking as a complex syntactic unit that is less affected by context, rather than in the study of the syntactic structure of the related speech chain. The work of American linguists in the 1950s marked a turning point in this area, paving the way for our contemporary understanding. Such a strong interest in the study of the text is due to attempts to interpret language as a global phenomenon, as a means of communication, as well as to investigate the regularities inherent in large passages. At present, this issue is at the center of attention of linguistics all over the world. However, the text problem remains unresolved as authors approach the text from different angles, depending on what they consider its generally relevant feature. When studying a text, its functional side is often highlighted, and it is defined as a higher communicative unit.

It should be noted that the text is not the first controversial concept in the history of linguistics. Researchers have long been occupied with the essence of words and sentences, and in the 1930s and 1940s, countless definitions were given to the sentence. Unfortunately, most of them illuminate only one side of this extremely complex system.

One of the most controversial issues in the text is its form of existence. A group of linguists consider only the unit in written form as text, while others even oppose the term text and replace it with

speech. In fact, the text exists in both written and oral form, and we have no right to speak of the absolute superiority of these forms.

As mentioned above, the problem of text in textual linguistics remains unresolved, and linguists (especially Azerbaijani linguists) have not given this issue sufficient attention. Although the systematic study of the text problem in Azerbaijani linguistics began to be considered more seriously in the 1970s, speaking about the need to study the text in Azerbaijani linguistics, K. Abdullayev states that the text in Azerbaijani Turkish linguistics only recently became the object of systematic and comprehensive analysis. There are still almost no general works on text linguistics or text syntax in Azerbaijani linguistics. However, the internal logic of the syntactic sequence dictates that the problem must be studied urgently.¹

The urgency of this need makes it most fruitful and relevant to study the possibilities of the formation of the text on the basis of English texts and the emergence of meaning in Azerbaijani linguistics.

In the past decade, little attention has been given to this area of study in Azerbaijan with the notable exceptions of the works of K. Abdullayev, G. Kazimov, M. Mahmudov, A. Abdullayev and A. Mammadov. Although countless monographs and articles have been written in foreign linguistic schools to study this problem, there is still no consensus on fundamental issues. It is enough to mention that it is very difficult to get the necessary information about the basic concepts of Text Linguistics in large linguistic encyclopedias to illustrate this.

Purpose and objectives of the research. The objective of this research is to clarify the formation process and comprehension of the text and to identify the factors that create meaning in English texts, as well as to involve them in the analysis of cognitive parameters. To achieve this goal, particular attention was paid to addressing the following tasks:

- to reveal the methods of studying the text and the factors that determine its origin on the basis of factual materials;

¹ Complex syntactic units in the Azerbaijani language / K.M. Abdullayev [et al.] - Baku: Mutarcim, - 2012. – p.18.

- to determine the factors influencing the comprehensibility of the text;
- to distinguish “external” and “internal” components of the text;
- to select the parameters related to the parameters of the text situation;
- to study the possibility of developing individual sentence members in different positions (preposition, presupposition) in the formation of the text;
- to determine the nature of the realization of the presupposition in the text;
- to determine the functions of the presupposition of the text;
- to clarify the reasons for the implicit expression of the main meaning in the text (implicit being not explicitly stated);
- to determine the nature of the relationship between the explicit and the implicit meaning in the text.

Methods of the study. Situational-contextual and discursive analysis, empirical and interpretive methods, as well as cognitive and communicative component analysis methods were used to solve the problem.

Main provisions put out for defense:

1. Communicative components predominate in the creation of the text, and it is the concrete linguistic embodiment of the text, first of all, compared with these communicative components.
2. The content of the text is formed not only by its explicit side, but also by its implicit side.
3. From a pragmatic point of view, it is the implicit aspect, not the explicit, that is important in revealing the content of the text.
4. Conceptual metaphors in English literary texts and ideas about society are realized due to the verbalization of the concept of society.

Scientific novelty of the research. This subject, which is studied on the basis of English texts and cognitive aspects of the formation of meaning in texts, enriches new areas of research in Azerbaijani linguistics. The factual analysis of cognitive metaphors and presuppositions in the texts determines the scientific novelty of the dissertation. The analysis is mainly based on literary texts as the

richness of style of literary texts and the existence of more colorful forms of individual text construction in works of art gives most fruitful subjects of study.

Theoretical and practical significance of the study. The study of the cognitive basis of the factors that create meaning in texts is important issues of textual linguistics. Linguistic study of cognitive metaphors and presuppositions in texts provides scientific and theoretical facts for psycholinguistics, ethnolinguistics, sociological linguistics, as well as cognitive psychology. The results of the research can be used in the future in the teaching process, in the teaching of English stylistics and functional analysis of English.

Approbation and application of the research. Certain aspects of the research and the results achieved were reflected in articles and abstracts presented at international conferences both in the Republic of Azerbaijan and abroad, as well as published in various journals.

Name of the organization in which the dissertation work is performed. The dissertation was performed at Department of Stylistics and Lexicology of the English Language of the Azerbaijan University of Languages.

The structure and volume of the dissertation, in signs, indicating the volume of each structural unit separately. The research consists of an introduction, three chapters, a conclusion and a bibliography. The introductory part of the dissertation is 4 pages, 7 247 characters, chapter I is 20 pages, 37 818 characters, chapter II is 77 pages, 150 801 characters, chapter III is 24 pages, 46 379 characters. Conclusion is 2 pages, 2 419 characters. The total volume of the dissertation is 244 664 characters, excluding the list of used literature.

BASIC CONTENT OF THE WORK

In the “**Introduction**”, the relevance of the topic is justified, the goals and objectives of the research determined, its scientific novelty has been interpreted, and its theoretical and practical significance highlighted, as well as methods and sources of research, defense provisions, approbation and structure of the work.

The first chapter of the dissertation, entitled **“Review of the history of text linguistics”**, consists of three sub-chapters. The first sub-chapter, entitled **“Formation and development of text linguistics”**, notes that the study of the text as a special field of linguistics, though limited has a rich history with interesting ideas and facts uncovered. Thus, from the end of the 1940s, when the text was studied in phonetic, morphological and other directions, it gradually became the object of study of linguistics conducted in foreign linguistics by V. von Humboldt, F. de Saussure, Z. Harris, E. Benveniste and others; in Russian linguistics by N. S. Pospelov, V. Dressler, I. F. Vardol, G. Y. Solganik, L. I. Zilberman, O. I. Moskalskaya, T. M. Nikolayeva, E. L. Shendels and others; and, finally, in Azerbaijani linguistics by N. Z. Hajiyeva, K. M. Abdullayev, A. A. Abdullayev, A. Y. Mammadov and others.

In 1952, for the first time in linguistics, the American scientist Z. Harris named the text larger unit than sentence, along with the definition of larger compounds than speech in his article “Analysis of the text”. Interestingly, shortly after Harris’ publication, the French scientist Emily Benveniste interpreted the statement as considering the speaker’s speech.²

According to N. S. Pospelov, one of the first researchers in the field of text linguistics, the text, the true syntactic unit of related speech is not a simple and complex sentence, but a complex syntactic whole that retains its syntactic exhaustion and independence when removed from the context of related speech.³ W. Dressler wrote: “Research in the field of text linguistics is carried out mainly in two directions. The first direction is formed from the analysis carried out in order to reveal the general regularities of text construction. In such an analysis, the text is taken as the object of text linguistics ... The second direction is related to the actual realization of the text, i.e. the

² Zveginsev, V. A. Computer memories: A metaphor for memory organization // The structure of human memory - San Francisco: W. H. Freeman and Company, - 1976, - pp. 67-99.

³ Pospelov, N. S. Complex syntactic whole and the main features of its structure // - Moscow: Reports and messages of the Russian Language Institute, - 1948. Issue II, - p. 122.

definition of the linguistic and stylistic status of a certain text, a certain artistic, journalistic, scientific profile”⁴

I.F. Vardul also puts forward a similar opinion. He notes that today the text is understood by researchers as a unity of meaning and a unity of content formed by a chain of sentences, combined with certain syntactic intonational connections.⁵

Furthermore, according to E.I. Shendels, the internal impulse for the development of the text was the need to go beyond the sentence in the understanding of a number of grammatical events; the external impulse of the development of the text “based on a new direction of grammatical theory, promotes the speech activity of the language associated with other types of social activity.”⁶

K.M. Abdullayev further notes that recent research in textual linguistics shows once again that, although it is a young field of study, its development can shed light on many obscure issues in other areas of linguistics.⁷

The views expressed by A.A. Abdullayev in this area are also interesting. He writes: “One of the most successful classifications of text linguistics is its designation as a science that studies the language in use. In the past, text linguistics was understood as the study of the written embodiment of the concept of ‘parole’.”⁸

A.Y. Mammadov, trying to clarify the concept of the text, focusing on its meanings, writes that “the term ‘text’ is used to refer to any utterance consisting of one or more sentences that, in the speaker's opinion, contain a completed meaning.”⁹

⁴ Dressler, W. Text syntax // New in foreign linguistics. Moscow: Progress, 1978, Issue VIII, - pp. 111-137.

⁵ Vardul, I.F. Foundations of Descriptive Linguistics / I.F. Vardul. – Moscow: Progress, - 1977. - p.20.

⁶ Shendels, E.I. Internal organization of the text //- Canada: Foreign languages at school, - 1987. No. 4, - pp. 62-70.

⁷ Abdullayev, K. M. Theoretical problems of Azerbaijani language syntax / K.M. Abdullayev. - Baku: Maarif, - 1999. – p.83.

⁸ Abdullayev, A. A. Actual segmentation and text / A. A. Abdullayev. - Baku: Publishing House of Khazar University, - 1998. - p.33.

⁹ Mammadov, A.Y. A system of formal means of communication in the creation of text / A.Y. Mammadov.- Baku: Science, - 2001.- p. 14.

Summarizing the existing theories in this first sub-chapter, we can say that there are two main interrelated reasons for the emergence and development of text linguistics:

1) Improving the text (interpretation, teaching to read the text, linguistic support of the information system), as well as the development of appropriate applied linguistic disciplines – areas of activity related to linguistic informatics, linguodidactics, and linguosemiotics under the influence of the scientific and technological revolution;

2) In the context of the study of the characteristics of discrete language units inadequacy of structural and generative linguistic methods without taking into account their use. This set of reasons has led to a problematic situation – a contradiction between language practice and existing linguistic concepts.

Of course, the emergence of problem situations and of textual linguistics took place at different times in different countries, and the features of the development of national linguistics were not reflected there.

The second sub-chapter of the first chapter is entitled **“Approach to the term text and discourse.”**

This considers how, in linguistics, the term “text” is approached from several perspectives. Thus, the term text concept is used on the one hand to describe a sentence consisting of a coherent sequence of several sentences to express the speaker’s opinion, and on the other hand, the term text refers to the names of prose works (stories, novels, etc.). Linguistic sources contain various explanations of the interpretation of the text. For example, O.S. Akhmanova equates the text with the work and corpus in oral and written form.¹⁰ Another dictionary of linguistic terms (authored by D.E. Rosenthal and M.A. Telenkova) gives the following a definition to the concept of text: “A text is a work of speech reflected in writing and in print”.¹¹ According to L.M. Granovskaya, “Text is only a product of the written form of a graphically expressed language.” As

¹⁰ Akhmanova, O. S. Dictionary of linguistic terms / O. S. Akhmanova. – Moscow: Progress, - 1969. - p.209.

¹¹ <http://rus-yaz.niv.ru/doc/linguistic-terms/fc/slovar-210.htm#zag-1669>

can be seen from the explanation, Granovskaya notes that the text has only a graphic expression, and she points out that “We call letters, reports, telegrams, novels, scientific monographs, advertisements and so on, as the text”.¹²

There are also many other views and approaches to the interpretation of the term text. For example, I.R. Galperin is of the opinion that all the distinguishing features of the text taken separately should be considered reasonable. On the other hand, other researchers note that the volume parameter is important in characterizing the text, considering it necessary to review the positive problem between the components of the text.¹³ Here, M.A.K. Halliday and R. Hasan give the following definition to the text: “A text, orally or in writing, is a piece of speech that forms a whole of any length”.¹⁴

A.A. Abdullayev notes that the study of the text has traditionally been carried out in two ways. The first method is the propositional method. This method applies the already defined features of the sentence based on the parameters of the text. The second method is the communicative method. This method involves the study of the text, the separation of its immanent properties without resorting to homogeneous syntactic structures. Such a method or approach requires a precise differentiation of the specific features of the text as a whole object.¹⁵

In contrast to the text, slightly different approaches are observed in the English-language linguistics literature regarding the interpretation of the term discourse. Z. Harris’ famous “Discourse

¹² Granovskaya, L.M. Russian literary language at the end of the 19th and 20th centuries: Essays / L.M. Granovskaya. - Moscow: Elpis, - 2005. - p. 20.

¹³ Galperin, I.R. Text as an object of linguistic research / I.R. Galperin. - Moscow: Nauka, - 2007. - p. 22.

¹⁴ Halliday, M. A. K. and Hasan, R. Linguistic Function and Literary Style: An enquiry into the language of William Golding's “The Inheritors”. “Literary Style: a Symposium” // Ed. by Seymour Chatman, London and New York: Oxford University Press, - 1971. - p. 330.

¹⁵ Abdullayev, A. A. Actual segmentation and text / A. A. Abdullayev. - Baku: Publishing House of Khazar University, - 1998. - p.23.

Analysis”, deals with a unit outside the sentence.¹⁶ Later, M.A.K. Halliday, R. Wagner, and others equate discourse with text, and for some time the term discourse began to be used in English-language sources, while the term text was used in German and Russian-language sources.

This creates some differences in the interpretation of linguists in different countries. A. Kibrik has shown that “discourse is a broader concept than text. Discourse is both a process of language activity and its result, and the result is the text itself.”¹⁷

Furthermore, A.Mammadov considers discourse as an event that is formed without the intersection of cognitive and communicative processes.¹⁸

A different approach to discourse is emerging. Recall N. Enkvist's idea of discourse, which, in our opinion, can be considered a classic: “Discourse is a set of context with a text and a situational component.”¹⁹ It can be concluded that there is no discourse without text and context.

The third sub-chapter, “**Factors determining the origin of the text**”, mainly examines the semantic-syntactic way of text formation and analyzes how the process of comprehension and understanding of the text takes place. For any text, the beginning is such a motive that the text begins with this motive, in other words, the need to reflect a certain content. If none of these motives exist, the text is not created and content information is not provided. However, it would be wrong to think that the process of creating a text is always the same, and that the role of the motives that lead to its creation always has the same structure and takes the same place in the psychology of

¹⁶ Halliday, M. A. K. and Hasan, R. *Linguistic Function and Literary Style: An enquiry into the language of William Golding's "The Inheritors"*. “Literary Style: a Symposium” // Ed. by Seymour Chatman, London and New York: Oxford University Press, - 1971. - p. 331.

¹⁷ Kibrik, A.A. *Cognitive research on discourse* // - Moscow: Questions of linguistic knowledge, - 1994. No. 5, - p. 126.

¹⁸ Mammadov, A.Y. *The place of text-discourse system in functionalism* // - Baku: Foreign languages in Azerbaijan, - 2007. No. 1, - p.45.

¹⁹ Enkvist, N. E. *From Text to Interpretability: Analysis of Text and Discourse* // - Ed. by W. Heydrich. Berlin and New York: Mouton de Gruyter, - 1989. - p. 369..

the speech process. The more complex forms of text formation represent a special class of communication. Such forms include, above all, dialogue-type texts. Different forms of dialogue speech are known in psychology. The simplest of these is a form in which the answer is a complete repetition of the question, or part of the question; in these cases, no special creative activity is required for the speech to occur. For example, “Did you go to university today?” “Yes, I did”; “Do you have a computer?” “Yes, I do.” What is being said here is a reproduction or repetition of a fragment in question.

However, we must not forget that dialogue is a more complex form of texts there is a case where the answer does not repeat part of the question and the subject is required to formulate a new idea independently. For example, “Who did you see at university today?” – “I saw students and teachers at the university today”; question: “What are you going to do tonight?” – answer: “I’m going to a birthday tonight, and after that I’ll probably prepare for tomorrow’s lecture.”

This form of dialogue speech is psychologically more complex and provided by a more complex composition of psychological processes.

There are two essential components available to the original intention of the text. They are denoted as “theme” (T) and “rheme” (R) in linguistics. The object of the text, which is already known to the subject, is usually indicated as a “theme”, while the novelty that defines the predicative structure of the utterance that must be said about this subject is conventionally called “rheme”. These two parts form the initial idea, that is, the system of connections that will potentially exist in the future text. These relationships arise according to a meaning or semantic scheme. This scheme, in turn, consists of certain elements of speech on the one hand, and a vector or group of relations between these elements on the other. It ensures the completeness or coherence of the text, which in turn makes it a closed institution of thought.

As an example, let us refer to a text which has been analyzed in detail by a number of researchers: “He promised Larry that, in the

evening, he would kindly and sincerely accept Lisa, welcoming her with all of his hospitality". There are two main components to this phrase: the main object (subject) of the utterance is "He"; and the rheme is the fact that, "he promises Larry that he will welcome Lisa in the evening and Lisa's welcome will be most hospitable, sincere and kind". This second part of the text forms its main content. Thus, the whole text can be divided into two parts.

The original scheme, or "semantic writing," has the character of a cover text, which then becomes a system of words that are sequentially connected to each other. The successful opening of this semantic scheme is carried out through a sequentially organized text, which is the next step in the formation of the text.

The second chapter of the dissertation is entitled "**Cognitive approach to the study of text comprehension in linguistics.**" This chapter consists of three sub-chapters, the first of which is "**General Information about Text Comprehension Models.**"

Over the past decades, different models of the emergence and understanding of the text have been offered by linguists and so-called psycholinguists. Out of these, models on the formation of the text by scientists from Soviet Union in the late 1960s and early 1970s are theoretically particularly useful. In this regard, we would like to note the creative legacy of such scientists as L.S. Vygotsky, A.R. Luriya, N.I. Jinkin, A.N. Leontiev, S.A. Rubinstein and P.Y. Galperin.

The idea of the origin and comprehension of a text can, of course, be either narrower or broader. This depends primarily on the extent to which the process is considered and how this activity is completed. Taking a broader point of view, we believe that the process of understanding the text begins when the activated consciousness decides what to say, beginning with the formation of the idea and the planning of the utterance of the text. When studying text-speech activity, we refer to the basics of the text and its pre-verbal stages. The very concept of the origin and comprehension of the text itself is used here as a general concept for the organization and perception of the text, the recording of all the events related to speech processes and listening in their complete cycle. However, in the context of text activity, we learn only the basic processes. It is

important for us to know what language ability is necessary for the text to function and what knowledge, feelings and emotions are reflected in the text. The definition of these processes as a specific type of activity also expands their understanding, because the analysis includes such categories that they are used in the characteristics of any activity.

The second sub-chapter is called **“Meaning and Comprehension in Different Types of Texts.”** This sub-chapter provides extensive information on the comprehension of two texts – simple type and dialogic texts. “Comprehension” refers here to some processes of thought activity, their results, and preparations for these processes and results. There are many definitions of comprehension in linguistics. Although many of these definitions contradict each other, they hold true in and of themselves: “Comprehension is the association of the single image of the text with the meaning of that unit”; “Comprehension is the process of understanding the internal connections in the content of the text”; “Comprehension is the movement towards cognition in the process of reading or listening to a text”; “Comprehension is the penetration of a person's feelings, thoughts, intentions and decisions, which are not clearly expressed in the text”.

As can be seen from the definitions, the basis for linguistics is not the generality of text comprehension, but the definition of species diversity.

Today, it is safe to say that the method of conducting various experiments has now become one of the main features of the psycholinguistic study of speech activity. In this regard, there are two approaches to assessing the importance of “negative language material” in linguistics:

a) The “from the normative structure of communication” approach is to better understand how the norm is constructed. This gives rise to an approach that is interesting to the negative material, but nevertheless an auxiliary, additional material for the study of the regularities of the structure of the norm. This view of negative language material is even more prevalent today;

b) The “general regularities of communication” approach is used to identify the general regularities of the structure of a mechanism that allows communication to take place. In this case, the norm is only a special case of the manifestation of this mechanism. Thus, the negative language material is treated as a necessary and full-fledged material for the study of the legality of speech activity.

One of the most important structural types of negative language material is simple texts. Simple texts include children's speech, advertisements, movies, play titles, remarks, etc. For example:

- Advertisement: You're hungry – don't stop, eat Snickers (a brand name chocolate bar).
- Boards: Book House; photo studio.
- Names of books, plays, movies, etc; “The Secret of a Castle”, “If Not That One, Then This One” and so on.
- Replicas in dialogues: – Please tell, where is the production? – In Turkey and so on.

The intellectual processes that underlie question-and-answer dialogue occupy a very large space in the sphere of human thought. The full content of the question-and-answer dialogue can be viewed at three levels: 1) Question-answer dialogues at the highest level represent a form of social interaction between people; 2) The formation of a question-and-answer dialogue at the next level implies the processing of the text in a natural language; 3) At the lowest level, we can approach questions and answers from the point of view of the organization of memory and the search for information stored in it. If the questions and answers are considered at all three levels, much can be said about their semantic features.

Let us now consider these levels one after the other in a hierarchical manner. In the question-answer dialogue, the semantic description of the utterance is realized at the highest level through the social context. There are four classes of social contexts in which the question is interpreted. Accordingly, four classes of answers are distinguished from each other.

(1) Inquiry question – informative answer, such as:

Q1: Where are you going?

A1: To Baku.

The inquiry question is intended to obtain any information. This information is available in the informative response.

(2) Question-request-response-action, such as:

Q2: Can you give me your book for a day?

A2: (The book is given).

The question-and-answer informs the addresser that the asking side is interested in seeing a certain action by the addresser. Response-action means the actual execution of that action.

(3) Situational question – situational answer, such as:

Q3: Hello, How are things going?

A3: Thank you, everything's good.

A situational question reflects a certain social condition. A situational answer is a response that takes place in a particular situation, is socially conditioned, and does not contradict the question.

(4) Strategic question – strategic answer, such as:

Q4: Who told you it was forbidden to enter here?

A4: Who said it's forbidden?

In the given example, the first question can hardly be interpreted as a real question, as a request for certain information. In fact, this is an expression of dislike, and this expression actually means that “I do not want you to be here”. This strategy of the speaker puts the listener implicitly in a dominant position. The reply shows that the respondent understands that a game of strategies is taking place, and his answer is another pseudo-question, and in fact means, “You have no power over me.”

Understanding these different situational meanings brings us to the third sub-chapter of the second chapter, entitled “**The Role of Components in Text Comprehension.**” It is known that each word has an polysemy character, that is, it has a plurality of meanings. Therefore, in order to determine its relevance to the subject and to distinguish the meaning of the word, each time its meaning must be selected from a range of possible meanings. This is determined, first of all, by the context in which the relevant word is included. For example, the word “cool” may refer to air or emotional attitude; the word “sharp” can refer to needles or discussions, for example. This polysemy also exists in verbs, such as the verb “to

raise” can indicate “to raise the object from the floor”, “to raise the hands up”, or “to raise the question”, and so on.

Obviously, to understand each of these statements it is necessary to choose the adequate meaning from all of the meanings of the word. This is also ensured by inserting the word into the appropriate context. For example, the word “stain” has completely different meanings in different contexts: “stain on the sun”, “oil stain on the shirt”, “stain on dignity”, etc.

So, it is not enough to know that words belong to a stable subject and a stable meaning in order to comprehend the text: each time the appropriate meaning of the word must be chosen, and finally the necessary meaning must be chosen from the resulting alternative.

From what has been said, it would be a great mistake to think that words are always unchanged and have the same meaning. Such semantic selection of an adequate meaning of a word is a complex cognitive process, and its study can help to reveal the basic mechanisms that determine the comprehension and decoding of the received message.

The third chapter of the dissertation is entitled “**Factors that create meaning in English texts.**” This chapter consists of three sub-chapters, the first being “**Cognitive metaphors that create meaning in English texts.**” Metaphors as a means of actively participating in the construction of literary discourse include the cultural-cognitive frame. Metaphors used in literary discourse can belong to different models, such as strong models, weak models, and mixed models.

In a strong metaphorical model, the similarity in objects exists in the paradigmatic relationship between the common discreptors.

If the result is similar, but there is no paradigmatic connection, then a weak metaphor emerges. For example, there are many weak metaphorical models of war and sports:

*The leaders, the generals, of course, they didn't call it a retreat, they called it a redeployment.*²⁰

²⁰ Seymour, G. *A Song in the Morning* / G. Seymour. – New York: Transworld Publishers, - 1999. - p.46.

The concept of “war” has been replaced by weak metaphors of “retreat” and “redeployment”.

A mixed model can create both strong and weak metaphors. For example, “war”, “fight”, “life”.

*The war is not over everywhere, she was told. The war is over. This war is over. The war here. She was told it would be like desertion. I will stay here. She was warned of the uncleared mines, lack of water and food. She came upstairs to the burned man, the English patient, and told him she would stay as well.*²¹

G. Lakoff and M. Johnson called the metaphor an abbreviated comparison.²² At the current level of development of metaphors, the similarities between them fully confirm the facts mentioned above. This is also due to the laconicity of expression and the expressiveness of the content. Let us refer to the metaphors used in literary discourse:

*He is a great fish and I must convince him, he thought. I must never let him learn his strength nor what he could do if he made his run. If I were him I would put in everything now and go until something broke. But, thank God, they are not as intelligent as we who kill them: although they are more noble and more able.*²³

*But beside the missionary the only white man who lived on Baru was Ginger Ted, and he, of course, was a disgrace to civilization.*²⁴

The given comparison is made between *us* (human) and *fish* or *disgrace to civilization* and *Ginger Ted*. However, by saying that *Ginger Ted was a disgrace to civilization*, it is possible to abbreviate the part *of course*, and hence the laconicity arises. However, the objects of comparison remain the same and form the basis of the

²¹ Ondaatje, M. *Running in the Family* / M. Ondaatje. - London: Bloosbury, - 1982. - pp.41-42.

²² Lakoff G., Johnson M. *Conceptual Metaphor in Everyday Language* // - New York: The Journal of Philosophy, - 1980. Vol. 77, No. 8, - p455.

²³ Hemingway, E. *A Farewell to Arms* / E.A. Hemingway. - New York : Scribner, -1929. - p.49.

²⁴ Maugham, W. S.. *The Narrow Corner* / W.S. Maugham. - London: Penguin Classics, - 1993. - p.8.

metaphor. Thus, as a result, the difference arises between a comparison model and a metaphor model because if the comparison is based on collisions, the comparison in metaphors remains almost hidden with the transfer of meaning coming to the fore. This means that we are talking not only about redundancy, but also about the model created as a result of redundancy.

The second sub-chapter is entitled **“The importance of presupposition in the disclosure of meaning in English texts.”** Socrates believed that it was impossible to have a true or false view of non-existence. In modern terminology, however, the existence of an object in the context of any statement is consistent with the idea of the importance of presupposition. However, the secret affirmation, which is accepted by the speaker as the truth, is reflected not only in the logical and philosophical aspects of our speech, but also in its purely linguistic characteristics.

For example, let us consider the two sentences in English: *I see a note on my desk. Has someone been here?* In this context, the second sentence does not act as a mere question sentence. It contains a presupposition and asks for confirmation of this possibility. Similarly, the sentence *Could you give me some more tea?* is not just a question sentence. *Why have you stopped speaking? Isn't there something else to tell me?* In this context, *There is certainly something else to tell* is the thought behind this sentence. Similarly, in the sentence *Why do some people always have all the luck?* presupposition finds its place. In this sentence, the modality of the question covers only the / why / part of speech.

In general, the main features of the statements expressing a specific question are as follows: they have a part outside the modality that raises the question, that is, bringing the presupposition to confirm the utterance. For example, in the Azerbaijani language, the sentence *Sən bu kitabı haradan almısan* (*Where did you get this book*) is a presupposition (*sən kitabı almısan – you got the book*). If we compare the sentences *He came late* and *Even he came late*, it becomes clear that there is a noticeable difference between their meanings. The second sentence also expresses the meaning of the first sentence, however, except for the main meaning, the addition of

the participle /even/, /he came late/ makes it possible to give the sentence an additional meaning: /it is unexpected/ in a hidden form. The sentence is called a presupposition, which can be given in such a secret form, arising from his judgment.

Presupposition, as a linguistic phenomenon, is more specific than the semantics of a sentence and is characterized in the following two cases. The first comes from the sentence (if it were not so, we would not be able to learn about the presupposition, or it would be something other than a presupposition). The second lies in its “insensitivity” to the denial of the sentence. The sentences *Even he came late* and *Even he did not come late* differ sharply in their meanings. It is confirmed in the first sentence, denied in the second sentence. However, their presupposition is general – *contrary to my expectations*.

The third sub-chapter is called “**The role of implication in the semantic disclosure of meaning in the text.**” In relation to this, F. Veysalli emphasises on the lexical, grammatical, phonetic means, as well as intonation play an important role in the formation of internal relations of the text is key. He adds paralinguistic means in the form of oral speech (movements of the eyebrows and other parts of the body) to these factors, and punctuation marks in writing.²⁵ At the same time, F. Veysalli writes: “So, the cohesion and coherence of each speech is known from its connection with the context.”²⁶

For example, in the Azerbaijani language, in the sentence “*Adil bağı xeyli axtarandan sonra tapdı – After much searching, Adil found the shoelace*” has a lexical ambiguity, where the lexeme *bağ* (garden) can be used either as a property with both trees and a place to rest, or in the sense of *rope* (shoelace).

Indeed, the content of this sentence can only be clarified through context. According to F. Veysalli, “the context is able to answer all these questions”.

²⁵ Veysalli, F.Y. Basis of structural linguistics. / F.Y. Veysalli. – Baku: Studia philologica III, - 2009, - p. 234.

²⁶ Ibid., - p.235.

The three main components that characterize speech should here be noted: presupposition, assertion, implication. The expressed element of speech is assertion, that is, it is part of the plan of meaning expressed in an explicit form by the lexical and grammatical means of language.

The concept of pragmatic presupposition is used in the analysis of speech. The pragmatic presupposition that determines the local / inappropriate, successful / unsuccessful of speech is understood by communicators as a fund of cognitively acquired general knowledge. Therefore, this or that part is not pronounced, it is only guessed, as the idea is expressed in an implicit form. For example, as in the following dialogue in English:

- “*Have you any need for a sword?*” she asked.
- “*I’m going to the front,*” I said.
- “*Oh yes, then you won’t need a sword,*” she said.²⁷

The protagonist of E. Hemingway's novel *Farewell to Arms* uses a phrase in a conversation with a salesman of an arms store that has no relation to his desire to buy or not to buy a weapon. The protagonist assumes that the addressee has an idea of war and the front in his “knowledge reserve” and therefore does not explain that such a purchase is unnecessary (in today’s wars, the sword is not needed on the front).

The content of any discourse in the act of speech is formed not only by the explicit part, but also by the implicit part, which is equally involved in the disclosure of the content of the discourse.

In English, formal indicators of implicit proposition, markers of disobedience act as a marker on the basis of presumption in the sphere of complex sentences with implicit content. In this case, the formal indicator acts as a marker for the conjunction / and /, and the conjunction / but / as the marker of the logical result. For example, *We got to the Edmont Hotel, and I checked in.*²⁸

²⁷ Veysalli, F.Y. Basis of structural linguistics. / F.Y. Veysalli. – Baku: Studia philologica III, - 2009, - p. 146.

²⁸ Salinger, J.D. The Catcher in the Rye / J.D. Salinger. - New York: Little, Brown and Company, - 1951. - p.101.

In a complex sentence with implicit meaning, a greater judgement is expressed in the implicit form – /everybody comes to a hotel to check in/, less judgment was expressed in the explicit form – /we got to the Edmont Hotel/, the conjunction /and/ testifies to the existence of an implicit judgment.

Thus, along with the explicit aspect, its implicit aspect plays an important role in revealing the content of the speech. In understanding and accepting of its content, the listener transcends the boundaries of explicitly expressed information through assertion, presupposition, and implication.

The “**Conclusion**” of this dissertation summarizes the findings of the research process. As the main results of the dissertation, the following can be noted:

1. The most important characteristic of the text comprehension model is based on the notion that its cognitive use and, at the same time, other complex processing of information is a strategic process, and as a result its mental representation in memory for the interpretation of the text is built. Both perceived information and stored information are used in relevant processes.

2. Related texts do not exist in a vacuum. They are produced and perceived by speakers and listeners in specific situations, in a broad socio-cultural context. Therefore, comprehension of the text is not only a cognitive event, but also a social event.

3. Cognitive processes cannot be satisfied with superstructures – they require the involvement of conceptual processes based on propositional representations.

4. To understand dialogues, especially question-and-answer dialogues, it is necessary to have a wealth of information about the social interactions of people. The level of comprehension of the text under consideration reflects the in-depth pre-processing of the text.

5. Metaphors play an important emotional role in the text. The creative power of metaphors is that the external world around us can associate and express discrepancies by discovering new features and creating new layers of meaning in verbalized concepts.

6. There is a great need for model theory in the cognitive study of text analysis. Models are cognitive representations of the situation

in episodic memory, which are also described as texts. However, in relation to these models, we can establish a reference identity by evaluating the information with its accuracy and inaccuracy, and reveal its relevance at the local and global levels.

Presupposition then includes both the specific conditions of the act of speech and the background knowledge that this covers. Understanding the content of a speech depends on whether the presupposition overlaps when speaking and listening. Furthermore, the implicit nature of a sentence is not absolute, as it can be expressed in one sentence as implicit and in another as explicit.

The main content of the dissertation is reflected in the following works of the author:

1. The role of cognitive models in text comprehension // Philological issues. Baku, Science and Education. No. 10. Baku, 2014, pp.90-94.
2. Cognitive interpretation of the text // Pedagogical University News. No. 4. Baku, 2014, pp.241-243.
3. “Good” and “bad” reader skills in text comprehension // Actual problems of foreign language teaching. Materials of the Republican Scientific-Practical Conference. Baku, May 4-5, 2015, pp.70-73.
4. Invariant organization of meaning // Language and culture. Materials of the Republican Scientific-Practical Conference. Baku, October 8-9, 2015, pp.282-284.
5. Theory of objectivity of meaning // Baku Slavic University. Tagiyev’s readings. Collection of scientific articles 2/2015, pp.151-155.
6. Perception of the text of the story // Philological issues.No. 9. 2016, pp.373-377.
7. Understanding of simple texts // Scientific works. Baku Girls' University.No. 3, 2017, pp.58-62.
8. Three Types of Understanding of the Text // International Journal of Humanites and Cultural Studies. Volume 4,No. 3, pp.154-160.

9. Ways of revealing the semantic hidden moments in the text // Modern problems of philology and methods of teaching foreign languages. Materials of the V International correspondence scientific conference. - Astrakhan: - April 27, - 2018, - pp. 139-144.
10. The importance of presupposition in revealing the meaning in English texts // Azerbaijan foreign languages. Scientific-methodical and social-publicistic journal.No. 1, 2018, pp.119-122.
11. The role of words in text comprehension // - Baku: Science and Education, Philological issues, - 2019. - №17, - pp.71-76.
12. Difficulties in understanding phrases in the text // - Baku: Azerbaijan University of Languages. Foreign languages in Azerbaijan, - 2019. - №4, - pp.78-82.
13. Different models of metaphors used in artistic discourse // - Baku: Baku Girls' University. Scientific works, - 2020. -pp.57-62.
14. Features of metaphors on the literary text // - Baku: Science and Education, Philological issues, - 2020. - №12, - pp.58-66.

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