

Language is a Means of Cognition and Communication for Teaching in Education

Nigmatova Mavjuda Makhmudovna,
Niyazova Gulbakhor Davronovna, Eshova Dilbar Shonazarovna
and Mirzaeva Dilfuza Shavkatovna

Abstract--- *Cognitive linguistics characterizes a modern approach to language, language learning, and conceptual structure. Furthermore, it provides an outlook for language and the mind which is diametrically opposed to both Grammar and Formal Semantics. Cognitive linguistics investigates the relationship between human language, the mind, and socio-physical experience. The grammatical system determines the grammatical meaning of the words, grammatical categories and grammatical forms in the process of discourse. These following subsystems are conducted by different linguistic disciplines. The sound system is studied by phonology, the lexical meaning of words is studied by lexicology and grammatical meaning of words and sentence formations are studied by grammar. This article deals with the analysis of language cognition and communication for teaching in education.*

Keywords--- *Cognition, Language Communication, Language Teaching, Education System, Socio-physical Experience, Human Language, The Mind, Approaches.*

I. INTRODUCTION

As we know language is a significant feature that differentiate human from other living beings. It is a central figure of our lives. We found our personality as individuals and social beings when we get language during childhood.

At the beginning of XIX century some linguists, especially, one of members of naturalism August Schleicher emphasized that language is a living organism. However, Wilhelm von Humboldt is against naturalism and he stated that language is a system. He also mentioned about the approaches of language and mind and the connections and differences between them. Some linguists such as, a Swiss linguist F. de Saussure stated language as a system of signs and means of communication.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

However, modern science studies language as reflecting nature of conceptual structure and cognition. It analyzes the relationship between human language and mind. According to these opinions the new theory emerges in modern science which is called cognitive linguistics. This term came from a Latin word “cogniscere” which means cognize and cognition. Cognitive linguistics has its origins in scholarship which came up in the 1970s, conducted by some

*Nigmatova Mavjuda Makhmudovna, Teacher of the Department of Pre-School Education, Bukhara State University.
E-mail: mavjuda.nigmatova@gmail.com
Niyazova Gulbakhor Davronovna, Teacher of the Department of Pre-School Education, Bukhara State University.
E-mail: niyozovagulya7@gmail.com
Eshova Dilbar Shonazarovna, Teacher of the Department of Pre-School Education, Bukhara State University.
E-mail: dilbareshova9@gmail.com
Mirzaeva Dilfuza Shavkatovna, Teacher of the Department of Pre-School Education, Bukhara State University.
E-mail: dilfuzamirzayeva05@gmail.com*

scientists that include Charles Fillmore, George Lakoff, Ronald Langacker, and Leonard Talmy. In 1980 famous linguists G. Lakoff and Johnsons wrote “Metaphors we live by” which helped this science improve strongly.

Cognitive linguistics characterizes a modern approach to language, language learning, and conceptual structure. Furthermore, it provides an outlook for language and the mind which is diametrically opposed to both Grammar and Formal Semantics. Cognitive linguistics investigates the relationship between human language, the mind, and sociophysical experience.

III. ANALYSIS

The famous linguist Nino Kirvalidze defined that language is a means of cognition and communication. It enables us to express our ideas and emotions, to think for ourselves or set control over others. But language is first and foremost a means of transmitting information which helps us cooperate with other people in our community. When we know a language, we are able to speak and be understood by other people who know this language. Acquiring a language gets us to combine words to make, and phrases to form sentences. Yet every group of words doesn't form a sentence well in a language. For that reason, in addition to knowing the lexis of the language, linguistic knowledge involves instructions for their combination to make sentences and give our own opinions. These instructions must be controlled in length and number and it can be kept in our mind. But, they must allow us to make and understand new sentences.

May be we have a dictionary of any language; however, it can't include all the words of the language, because no dictionary can list all the possible sentences. Knowing a language means being able to produce new sentences never spoken before and to understand sentences never heard before.

The famous linguist Noam Chomsky stated this ability as a creative feature of language use: creativity is a universal property of human language. Every speaker of a language can probably not make great literature, however all people who are aware of a language, they are able to create or know an infinite set of new sentences in the procedure of human communication. Therefore, creativity or creative aspect of language includes the skills to make and know an infinite set of new sentences in the procedure of human communication.

Language is a system of signs. It can role as a means of cognition and communication because of the unity and contact of its three basic subsystems. These parts are the phonological system, the lexical system and the grammatical system. They play a big role in human language.

The phonological system controls the phonetic forms of its significant units, such as phonemes, sounds, intonation and so on.

The lexical system studies lexis, the lexical meanings of words, constant word groups.

The grammatical system determines the grammatical meaning of the words, grammatical categories and grammatical forms in the process of discourse.

These following subsystems are conducted by different linguistic disciplines. The sound system is studied by phonology, the lexical meaning of words is studied by lexicology and grammatical meaning of words and sentence formations are studied by grammar.

The term “grammar” comes from a Greek word “gramma” which means art of letters. Actually, the ancient Greeks used this term as the rules of reading and writing correctly. Nowadays the term “grammar” is used in two meanings. Firstly, in general, this term states the description of the speaker’s linguistic competence. Secondly, the term “grammar” refers to the study of morphology (i.e. the rules of word formation, parts of speech and their grammatical categories) and syntax (i.e. the rules of sentence formation), often complemented by phonology, lexicology, semantics and pragmatics. It studies a particular language, its grammatical system and structure. Our ability to speak and understand, and to make judgments about the well-formedness of sentences, reveals our knowledge of the grammar of our language. The former Greek scientist Plato (427-347 BC) used the word “grammar” in his work named “Cratylus”. However, it only means rules of reading and writing correctly.

The latter the members of the scholarship “Alexandria” revealed grammar as an independent subject. About two thousand years ago the Greek grammarian Dionysius Thorax created the first Greek grammatical book named “Art of Grammar”. He began to classify parts of speech and separate nouns from verbs in his works. He divided parts of speech into 8 groups. They are: nouns, verbs, prepositions, participle, pronouns, adverb, conjunctions and articles. He defined grammar as that which allows us either to speak a language or to speak about it.

In the middle ages, grammar was the study of Latin. In England, this conception of grammar continued until the end of the 16th century. Latin grammar was the only grammar learned in schools. Until then there were no grammars of English. Most of linguists emphasized Robert Lowth as the creator of the first English grammar. His work “Short Introduction to English Grammar” which published in 1762 was the most influential grammar of English. . It began the period of prescriptive grammar.

However, some researchers stated that grammarian Alphric firstly wrote on the system of English Grammar in his book named “Glossary. The grammar of English, Brief Grammar for English, written by William Bullokar, was published in 1585. ”. Later famous linguist Samuel Jonson (1709-1784) wrote “A grammar of English tongue”.

There are different types of grammar in linguistics.

General or universal grammar studies not only grammatical constructions of a language, but also grammatical structures, rules and word formation of all languages. Universal grammar is divided into 2 groups:

Traditional or historical universal grammar

Typological universal grammar

The former type of grammar expressed grammar from the point of logic view. It was created in the Middle centuries. The latter studies the expression of grammatical categories in concrete units of languages. This type of grammar appeared in the XX centuries.

Most of linguists investigate the world languages and try to find the methods in which they distinguish from each other. The researchers reveal that these differences of languages are restricted. There are linguistic universals which belong to all languages. These common facts are:

Wherever humans live, language stays alive.

Every language changes throughout time.

There are no “primitive” languages – all languages are equally complex and equally able to express any idea in our life. The lexis of any language can be explained to involve new words for new concepts. The connections between the sounds and meanings of spoken languages are for the most part arbitrary, the sounds of linguistic signs bear no natural similarity to their meaning and the relation between them is a matter of convention, and conventions differ radically across languages.

Each grammar of the world languages consists of rules of a resemble type for the word and sentence formation.

Every spoken language uses a limited set of distinct sounds to make meaningful elements or words, which themselves may be combined to form an infinite set of possible sentences.

All spoken languages contain distinct sound segments, which can all be characterized by a limited set of sound properties or peculiarities. Every spoken language has a group of vowels and a group of consonants. We can see similar grammatical categories such as category of case, number; parts of speech like verb, adjective in the grammars of every spoken language. All languages have a style of expressing exclamation, forming questions, giving orders, negating, referring to past or future time, and so on.

Every language has a style of making different structural kinds of sentences.

Speakers of all languages are able to form and understand an unlimited set of sentences.

Any normal child, born anywhere in the world, of any racial, geographical, social or economic heritage, is capable of learning any language to which he or she is exposed. The differences we find among languages cannot be due to biological reasons.

These following theories are found and studied by Universal Grammar, which describes the foundation of the particular grammars of all possible human languages. Famous linguist Naom Chomsiy figured out strong evidence for Universal grammar in the style children learn language. In this theory he emphasized that children doesn't need to be intentionally taught because they can acquire naturally any human language to which they are exposed, and they learn it at a very early age. Until four or five years of age, children have almost gained knowledge of the whole adult grammar. It implies that children are born with a genetic ability to learn and make use of human language, which is part of the Universal grammar.

Philosophical grammar which deals with logics, psychology and philosophy studies the relations with grammar and mind. One of the essential works “The Philosophy of Grammar” was written by Danish scientist Otto Yespersen. This grammar was very popular at that time.

IV. DISCUSSION

Comparative grammar studies the comparison of grammatical peculiarities of languages. It determines the similarities and differences between languages. The creators of this grammar R. Rask, G. Grim, A. Pott, A. Shleyxer and so on. In the following examples of the verb to be we can see the resemblance between different languages.

Nevertheless, most of linguists believe that language is vigorous and permanent changing. All languages and dialects are expressive, complete and logical. They are all rule governed and what is grammatical in one language may be ungrammatical in another equally prominent language. These researchers stated that the grammar and

procedure of standard English may be principal for social and political reasons, but other dialects are linguistically equally complex, logical and capable of producing an infinite set of sentences to express any thought. If sentences are messed up, it is not owing to the language but due to the speakers. No grammar, therefore no language, is either superior or inferior any other. Languages of technologically undeveloped cultures are not grammatically primitive or ill-formed in any way.

Transformational Grammar is influenced by Noam Chomsky in his work “Syntactic Structures” in 1957. According to his theory, in place of beginning with minimal sounds, Chomsky started with important part, such as elementary sentences, the number of which is limited in any language. In accordance with Transformational-Generative Grammar, by a limited number of elementary sentences and a set of transformational rules we are able to create numerous syntactic combinations. There are two levels of representation of each sentence in a language: a deep structure and a surface structure. The deep structure characterizes the heart of semantic relations of a sentence which is planned, exactly explained to us the surface structure using transformations. Famous linguist N. Chomsky emphasized that there would be large similarities between deep structures of dissimilar languages, and that these structures would show chances, general to all languages. Chomsky and his followers prepared transformational rules, which change a sentence with a given grammatical structure into a sentence with a different grammatical structure but the same basic meaning.

For example: Bill broke the window yesterday.

The window was broken by Bill.

The predicate of the former sentence is in the past indefinite tense, the 3rd person, Active voice. The latter is in the past indefinite tense, the 3rd person and passive voice. However, we can see the same meaning in the both sentences although they have been made with different grammatical structures. For example:

Jonson asked: “What time will you come?”

He asked me what time I would come.

In the following examples the sentences are in different grammatical structures: the first one is an example for direct speech. The second one is for indirect speech despite the similar meaning.

Transformational-Generative grammar affects in general grammar and psycholinguistics; especially it has been influential in children linguistic competence.

Theoretical or Scientific grammar studies theoretical description of grammatical system of any languages, it scientifically investigates and describes main classes of words, so called parts of speech, their grammatical categories and learn the mechanisms of sentence formation in the procedure of speech making. Any new theories or ideas which deal with grammar are firstly analyzed and discussed in scientific grammar, and then they are studied in practical or normative grammar using exercises.

Since the publication of Ronald Langacker’s monumental, two-volume *Foundations of Cognitive Grammar* in 1987 and 1991, the cognitive approach to grammar has established itself as a viable and attractive model of linguistic description. An increasing number of linguists from all over the world have become dissatisfied with the still widespread view of language as a separate module that is detached from all other cognitive faculties. A

Cognitive Grammar is based on the insight that grammar is the product of human cognition. Therefore we must first understand the principles of cognition that determine grammar. Cognitive Grammar, by contrast, claims that language is part and parcel of our overall cognitive and human make-up. A Cognitive Grammar is based on the following assumptions:

The grammar of a language is part of human cognition and interacts with other cognitive faculties, especially with perception, attention, and memory. For example, in the same way that we focus on a bird we see flying in the sky and not on the sky surrounding the bird, we describe the situation as *a bird in the sky* and not as *the sky around the bird*.

The grammar of a language reflects and presents generalizations about phenomena in the world as its speakers experience them. For example, tense as a grammatical form is used to express general notions of time (present, past and future) but not specific notions such as years, hours or days, which are expressed by lexical material.

Forms of grammar are, like lexical items, meaningful and never “empty” or meaningless, as often assumed in purely structural models of grammar. For example, the element *to* of a *to*-infinitive as in *I'd like to hear from you* indicates that my wishes are directed towards a goal.

The grammar of a language represents the whole of a native speaker's knowledge of both the lexical categories and the grammatical structures of her language.

The grammar of a language is usage-based in that it provides speakers with a variety of structural options to present their view of a given scene. For example, I might describe the same scene as *I'm running out of time* or *Time is running out*.

It quickly becomes clear to any careful observer that the grammar of a language is not just a long list of formal rules. A grammar may be seen as a cognitive achievement: it is the solution that generations of speakers of a speech community have found to structure their thoughts with the intention to communicate them to other people. As human products, the words and grammatical structures of a language reflect the physical, psychological and social experiences of its human creators.

There are a number of ideas on this matter: some linguists state that there are four units such as phoneme-phone, morpheme-morph, lexeme-lex and sentence; others believe that there are five units like phonemes, morphemes, lexemes, word -combinations or phrases and sentences. Yet others emphasized that in addition to the mentioned ones there are paragraphs, utterances and texts. As one can see there's no unity in the number of language and speech units. The most well-known opinion is that there are five units of language (speech) and correspondingly there are five language levels, they are: phonetic/phonological; morphological; lexicological, syntax - minor and syntax - major.

The levels and their units are as follows:

- phonological/phonetic level: phoneme/phone
- morphological level: morpheme/morph
- lexicological level: lexeme/lex

- Syntax - minor: sentence
- Syntax - major: text

Secondary level or non-basic level is characterized by having no unit of its own. For instance, stylistics can be said to be non – basic (secondary) due to the fact of that this level has no its own unit. In order to achieve its aim it makes wide use of the units of the primary levels. The stylistics studies the expressive means and stylistic devices of languages. Famous Russian linguist I.R. Galperin said: "The expressive means of a language are those phonetic means, morphological forms, means of word -building, and lexical, phraseological and syntactical form, all of which function in the language for emotional or logical intensification of the utterance. These intensifying forms of the language, wrought by social usage and recognized by their semantic function have been fixed in grammars, dictionaries".

While talking about the levels we have to reveal the difference between language and speech because the linguistics distinguishes language units from speech units.

According to F. de Saussure's theories, the basic difference between language and speech is in the following:

1. Language is abstract and speech is concrete;
2. Language is common, general for all the bearers while speech is individual;
3. Language is stable, less changeable while speech tends to changes;
4. Language is a closed system, its units are limited while speech tend to be openness and endless.

Sometimes the terms of "language levels" are corresponded to the term of "emic level" while the "speech levels" are corresponded to "ethic levels". Very often these terms are used interchangeably.

Phonology and phonetics are the lowest level in the hierarchy of strata. Phonology is the level that deals with language units and phonetics is the level that deals with speech units. The lowest level deals with language and speech units which are the smallest and meaningless. So, the smallest meaningless unit of language is called phoneme; the smallest meaningless unit of speech is called phone. Phonemes are the smallest undivided meaningless units of language. They are used as material elements to make the higher level segments – morphemes and words. They are essential units which distinguish one word or morpheme from another.

For example: pan [pən] and pen [pen]; chalk [tʃə:k] and talk [tɔ:k].

Letters symbolize phoneme in writing. Lingual units of the higher levels are meaningful, for that reason they express signs. A morphemic or morphological level is situated above the phonemic level. This level is represented by morphemes and morph. The morpheme is a unit of language; morph is a unit of speech. The morpheme is a basic meaningful part of the word. It is made up by a string of phonemes or even by one phoneme. For example: *enjoy-able, teach-er*.

The morphs that have different forms, but similar meanings are united into one morpheme and called "allomorphs". The morpheme of the past tense has at least three allomorphs, they are /t/, /d/, /id/.

Examples: *worked, phoned and wanted*. The variant of the morpheme depends on the preceding sound in the word.

The third level in hierarchy strata is the lexemic level which formed by words and lexemes. The word is made up by a string of morphemes or one morpheme. Sometimes, it is thought that words (lex) and lexemes are the same terms. However, "Lexeme" is a unit of language in the lexicological level which has a nominative function. "Word" is a unit of speech in the lexicological level which has a nominative function. Consequently, both of them nominate something or name things, actions phenomena, quality, quantity and so on. For instance: mother, nurse, radio, box, black, happy, unfortunately.

In the following examples "happy" is an abstract lexeme is used in speech as a lex with concrete meaning of "happy girl", "happy holiday", "happy day" and so on. There may be "allexes" which are lexes that have identical or similar meanings but different forms, compare: *lady, girl, woman, female and so on*. We often confuse between the terms "morpheme" and "lexemes". To avoid making such a mistake we must remember that morphemes are structural units while lexemes are communicative units. Morphemes are formed by phonemes and they are used to make up words and lexemes. Lexemes take an essential part in determining the thoughts, that is, in building sentences.

Additionally, lexemes may consist of one or more morphemes. The lexeme "box" consists of one morpheme while the lexeme "*unfaithfulness*" consists of four morphemes: *un - faith - ful - ness*.

V. RESULTS

The next level in the hierarchy of language system is the syntactic level. There are 2 branches of syntactic level: syntax-minor and syntax- major. Syntax-minor deals with simple sentences, with a smaller unit than the simple sentence i.e. word combinations and with the bigger unit than the simple sentence – composite sentences. The sentence is an elementary full sign as it not only names a certain extra linguistic situation or event but performs communicative function as well, transmitting a piece of information. In the same way the level syntax - major can be explained. The unit of this level is text -the highest level of language and speech. "Syntax- major" represents both language and speech levels due to the absence of separate term as well as "text" is used homogenously for both language and speech units. Unlike a sentence, text nominates a set of extra linguistic events or situations which constitutes its target space.

Sometimes a string of thematically interconnected well-organized sentences, one simple sentence or even a word, can be described as a text if it represents a communicative function. For example: "*My money!*", "*Thief!*", "*Catch!!!*".

In the following examples we can see three words defined as a text which expressed the speaker's full emotions.

VI. CONCLUSION

Language is regarded as a system of signs such as sounds, words, etc. These elements have no value without each other, they depend on each other, they exist only in a system, and they are nothing without a system. All structural levels are subject matters of different levels of linguistic analysis. At different levels of analysis we focus attention on different features of language. Generally speaking, the larger the units we deal with, the closer we get to the actuality of people's experience of language.

Dimensions are syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations between units of language. As a result of their potentiality of occurrence in a definite context or sentence lingual units such as, morphemes, phonemes, lexemes go into relations of two distinctive types. They are often called syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations in scientific literature

To sum it up, each level has its own system. Therefore, language is regarded as a system of systems. The level units are built up in the same way and that is why the units of a lower level serve the building material for the units of a higher level. This similarity and likeness of organization of linguistic units is called isomorphism. This is how language works – a small number of elements at one level can enter into thousands of different combinations to form units at the other level.

The main functions of language are to enable people to symbolize their experiences in a perceptible form and to communicate them to others. In expressing their thoughts, speakers constantly need to decide which words and grammatical constructions to use.

Both the inventories of words and constructions of a language provide a set of options which the speaker has to choose from in communicating her thoughts. A cognitive approach to grammar is therefore “usage-based”: it looks at the structural choices available and the speaker’s reasons for choosing one alternative over the other.

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