THE UZBEK STATE UNIVERSITY OF WORLD LANGUAGES

THE FIRST ENGLISH LANGUAGE FACULTY

THE DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH PHONETICS AND PHONOLOGY

Islomova Yulduz

Various approaches to developing of language skills of b1level students with the different learning styles

5220100-Philology and teaching languages (The English language) for granting the bachelor's degree

QUALIFICATION PAPER

"THE QUALIFICATION PAPER   **SCIENTIFIC ADVISORS:**

IS ADMITTED TO DEFENCE"

Head of the Department of   _____Ibragimov N

English Phonetics and phonology   "____" _____2016

_____M.Chutpulatov

"____" _____2016

Tashkent-2016

CONTENTS:

INTRODUCTION

In modern society like ours in the Republic of Uzbekistan language is used in two ways: directly and orally; and indirectly or in written language. Thus we distinguish oral language and written language. Direct communication implies a speaker and a hearer, indirect communication implies a writer and reader. Hence the practical aims in teaching a foreign language are four in number: hearing, speaking, reading and writing.

A great step forward in the sphere of the learning foreign language was made in Uzbekistan in the last years. The decree PD – 18-75 was issued on December 10, 2012[1] and the decree PD – 19-71was adopted on May 23, 2013.

The Requirements of the CEFR have become the most important element in determining the contents of the programs of teaching foreign languages[2].

The qualification paper is dedicated to the study of the problems of economic terms in the languages of different system which presents a certain interest both for theoretical investigation and for practical usage. We have the full basis to approve that many linguists have brought the invaluable contribution to studying various properties of the problems of language economy in the English syntax (more in detail see L.S. Barkhudarov, M.Y. Blokh, A.V. Kobrina, G.G. Pocheptsov, A.I. Smirnitsky, Ch. Fillmore, W. Chafe, A. Khudyakov, W. Taylor, J. Talmy, B.V. Reznik, N.D. Arutyunova, E.S. Kubrjakova's works and etc.), that has created necessary theoretical preconditions for describing the semantics of language economy. Also we looked through the works written by the scholars of

---

[1] И.А.Каримов "Чет тилларни ўрганиш тизимини янада такомиллаштириш чора тадбирлари тўғрисида" Ҳалқ сўзи, 2012, 11 декабр, 1-бет

[2] CEFR. Strassburgh, 2006

our university like M. Iriskulov, A. Sadikov, T. Ikramov, M. Rasulova, A. Kuldashev, B. Juraev, I. Ibrogimhodjaev and T. Madrahimov.

The **topicality** of the investigation is expressed on the one hand by the profound interest in learning the problems of economic terms in the languages of different, on the other hand by giving a detailed information of the linguistic structure of the economic terms.

The **aim** of this research is based on detailed study of the problems of economic terms in the languages of different and explain their grammatical, lexical and semantic-syntactical features and reason of using them.

The **object** of given investigation is the problem of economic terms, linguistic peculiarities and structural features of economic terms.

The **subject** is the contextual-semantic features of the economic terms in the languages of different.

Hypothesis The investigation of English economic terms will surely make out many structures of their origin and present information about their semantic, grammatical, lexical and cognitive features, which can used in compiling special dictionaries. Comprehensive analysis will used to achieve the aim and tasks put forward in the presented investigation.

According to this general aim the following particular **tasks** are put forward:

1. To review of the linguistic literature on the problems of general linguistics and the problem of syntactic connections of words in Modern English Grammar.

2. To reveal linguistic status of the concept of linguistic economy and its principles in Present Day English.

3. To describe the contextual semantics of the problem of the linguistic economy in early English texts.

4. To analyse the contextual, morphological and syntactic features of the language economy used in different contexts in Present Day English.

5. To analyse the effect of economic terms in the languages of different.

6. To analyse the syntactic features of the economic terms in short text messages such as clippings and contractions of text messages in Modern English.

The **methods** of investigation used in this research are as following: complex approach to the study of the problems of economic terms in the languages of different, including morphological, structural, distributional way of analysis of the English language unit, like transformational, functional, derivational, etc.

Methodological bases of research is Decrees of the President of Republic of Uzbekistan about development of languages, educations and sciences, the national program on a professional training, and also basic researches in the field of the theory of linguistics, in particular Theoretical Grammar of English and Comparative Typology of English and Russian Languages, and Translation Theory.

The **novelty** of work is determined by the translation of the works of leading scholars, concrete results of investigation, which is to distribute into various tables problems and specificity of the linguistic status of the problems of language economy in the English syntax.

Theoretical value is that it can serve as a basis for studying the contextual-semantics of the language economy widely. It will allow understanding deeply importance of studying problems of language economy in the English syntax because this kind of the verbs are most of widely formed with the help of the contextual properties.

Practical value of this work is that the theoretical statement of this paper can be used in delivering lectures and seminars on theoretical grammar, general

linguistics, typology, and methodology of Teaching English. The results of the work can also help students to enrich their lexical resources of English language.

The **material** includes different scientific literature like monographs, dissertations, articles on the problems discussed, and magazines and journals containing articles on teaching technologies, different types of dictionaries, both translational and explanatory.

The **structure** of the given qualification paper consists of an introduction, three chapters, and conclusion followed by the list of literature used in the course of research. **Introduction** presents the aim and the tasks of the qualification paper and gives brief idea of the main problem of research.

– **The first chapter** consists of three paragraphs, introducing the review of the literature on the development of semantic field theory. Secondly, it touches the problem of meaning of the English word and semantic structure of English words;

– **The second chapter** is entitled "Exploring achievements and perspectives in compiling special dictionaries in Modern English". This chapter is described diversity of special dictionaries and their structure, general problems of dictionary-compiling and new demands;

– **The third chapter** is entitled "Linguistic peculiarities of economic terms in the languages of different systems". In this chapter the main problem of my Qualification paper is revealed. There are given main characteristics of the scientific and technical language, linguistic aspects of the economic term system and analysis of structural features of economic terms in English and Russian.

– **Conclusion** provides results of investigation. **Bibliography** consists of 32 items, including web sites

CHAPTER 1. Review of linguistic literature on the problem of meaning of the English word

1.1. The word as the basic unit of general lexicology

The word is one of the fundamental units of language. It is a dialectal unity of form and content. Its content or meaning is not identical to notion, but it may reflect human notion and is considered as the form of their existence. So the definition of a word is one of the most difficult in linguistics, because the simplest word has many different aspects: a sound form, its morphological structure, it may occur in different word-forms and have various meanings.

E. Sapir takes into consideration the syntactic and semantic aspects when he calls the word as one of the smallest completely satisfying bits of isolated "meaning", into which the sentence resolves itself. Sapir also points out one more, very important characteristic of the word, its *indivisibility*: "It cannot be cut into without a disturbance of meaning, one or two other or both of the several parts remaining as a helpless waif on our hands."[3]

A unit which most people would think of as 'one word' may carry a number of meanings, by association with certain contexts. So, *pipe* can be any tubular object, a musical instrument or a piece of apparatus for smoking; a *hand* can be on a clock or watch as well as at the end of the arm. Most of the time, we are able to distinguish the intended meaning by the usual process of mental adjustment to context and register.

Word meaning is not homogeneous, but it is made up of various components, which are described as types of meaning. There are 2 types of

---

[3]I.V. Arnold. The English Word. M. 1973.

meaning to be found in words and word forms:

1)   the grammatical meaning;

2)   the lexical meaning.

As the world's global language, English has played a very important role in bringing people from different countries closer and closer, thus yielding great mutual understanding. The author argues that the mastering of the grammatical features of English words together with that of their semantic structures helps to make the communication in English successful. The study on English words in terms of grammar and semantics is, therefore, hoped to be of great value to teachers and learners of English as well as translators into and out of English. In this essay, English words are discussed in terms of their meaning, which poses several problems for the teachers, learners and translators.

The word may be described as the basic unit of language. Uniting meaning and form, it is composed of one or more morphemes, each consisting of one or more spoken sounds or their written representation. The combinations of morphemes within words are subject to certain linking conditions. When a derivational suffix is added a new word is formed, thus, "listen" and "listener" are different words.

When used in sentences together with other words they are syntactically organized. But if we look at the language "speech", it becomes apparent that words are not neatly segmented as they are by spaces in graphological realization. The pauses in speech do not consistently correspond with word-endings; many languages, including English, do not make it clear to a foreign listener where the utterance is divided into words.

The definition of a word is one of the most difficult in linguistics because the simplest word has many aspects. The variants of definitions were so

numerous that some authors collecting them produced works of impressive scope and bulk. A few examples will suffice to show that any definition is conditioned by the aims and interests of its author.

Thomas Hobbes (1588-1679), one of the great English philosophers, revealed a materialistic approach to the problem of nomination when he wrote that words are not mere sounds but names of matter. Three centuries later the great Russian physiologist I.P. Pavlov (1849-1936) examined the word in connection with his studies of the second signal system, and defined it as a universal signal that can be substitute any other signal from the environment in evoking a response in a human organism. One of the latest developments of science and engineering is machine translation. It also deals with words and requires a rigorous definition for them. It runs as follows: a word is a sequence of graphemes which can occur between spaces, or the representation of such a sequence on morphemic level.[4]

Within the scope of linguistics the word has been defined syntactically, semantically, phonologically and by combining various approaches.

According to John Lyons "One of the characteristics of the word is that it tends to be internally stable (in terms of the order of the component morphemes), but positionally mobile (permutable with other words in the same sentence)".

A purely semantic treatment will be found in Stephen Ulmann's explanation that we will fall into a certain number of meaningful segments which are ultimately compose of meaningful units. These meaningful units we called words.

---

[4]Arnold I.V. The English Word M. High School 1986 pp. 143-149

The semantic-phonological approach may be illustrated by A.H. Gardiner's definition: *"A word is an articulate sound-symbol in its aspect of denoting something which is spoken about."*[5]

The French linguist A. Meillet combines the semantic, phonological and grammatical criteria and gives the following definition of the word: *"A word is defined by the association of a particular meaning with a particular group of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment."*[6] This formula can be accepted with some modifications adding that a word is the smallest significant unit of a given language capable of functioning alone and characterized by positional mobility within a sentence, morphological uninterruptability and semantic integrity.

All these criteria are necessary because they permit us to create basis for the oppositions between the word and the phrase, the word and the phoneme, and the word and the morpheme: their common feature is that they are all units of the language, their difference lies in the fact that the phoneme is not significant, and a morpheme cannot be used as a complete utterance.

The weak point of all the above definitions is that they do not establish the relationship between language and thought, which is formulated if we treat the word as a dialectical unity of form and content, in which the form is the spoken or written expression which calls up specific meaning, whereas the content is the meaning rendering the emotion or the concept in the mind of the speaker which he intends to convey to the listener.

---

[5] Ginzburg R.S. et al. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. M., 1979 pp.72-82

[6] Ginzburg R.S. et al. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. M., 1979 pp.72-82

Its content or meaning is not identical to notion, but it may reflect human notions, and in this sense may be considered as the form of their existence. Concepts fixed in the meaning of words are formed as generalized and approximately correct reflections of reality, therefore in signifying them words reflect reality in their content.

1.2 General notes on the meaning of the English word

1.2.a. Grammatical meaning of the word

Every word has two aspects: the outer aspect (its sound form) and the inner aspect (its meaning). Sound and meaning do not always constitute a constant unit even in the same language.

It is more or less universally recognised that word-meaning is not homogeneous but is made up of various components the combination and the interrelation of which determine to a great extent the inner facet of the word. These components are usually described as types of meaning. The two main types of meaning that are readily observed are the grammatical and the lexical meanings to be found in words and word-forms.

We notice, e.g., that word-forms, such as *girls, winters, joys, tables* etc. though denoting widely different objects of reality have something in common. This common element is the grammatical meaning of plurality which can be found in all of them.

Thus grammatical meaning may be defined ,as the component of meaning recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words, as, e.g., the tense meaning in the word-forms of verbs *(asked, thought, walked, etc.)* or the case meaning in the word-forms of various nouns *(girl's, boy's, night's etc.).*

In a broad sense it may be argued that linguists who make a distinction between lexical and grammatical meaning are, in fact, making a distinction between the functional (linguistic) meaning which operates at various levels as the interrelation of various linguistic units and referential (conceptual) meaning as the

interrelation of linguistic units and referents (or concepts).[7]

In modern linguistic science it is commonly used that some elements of grammatical meaning can be identified by the position of the linguistic unit in relation to other linguistic units, i.e. by its distribution. Word-forms *speaks, reads, writes* have one and the same grammatical meaning as they can all be found in identical distribution, e.g. only after the pronouns *he, she, it* and before adverbs like *well, badly, to-day,* etc.

It follows that a certain component of the meaning of a word is described when you identify it as a part of speech, since different parts of speech are distributionally different (cf. my work and I work).

1.2.b. Lexical meaning of the word

Comparing word-forms of one and the same word we observe that besides grammatical meaning, there is another component of meaning to be found in them. Unlike the grammatical meaning this component is identical in all the forms of the word. Thus, e.g. the word-forms *go, goes, went, going, gone* possess different grammatical meanings of tense, person and so on, but in each of these forms we find one and the same semantic component denoting the process of movement. This is the lexical meaning of the word which may be described as the component of meaning proper to the word as a linguistic unit, i.e. recurrent in all the forms of this word.

The difference between the lexical and the grammatical components of meaning is not to be seen in the difference of the concepts underlying the two

---

[7] Arnold I.V. The English Word M. High School 1986 pp. 143-149, Ginzburg R.S. et al. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. M., 1979 pp.72-82

types of meaning, but rather in the way they are conveyed. The concept of plurality, e.g., may be expressed by the lexical meaning of the world *plurality;* it may also be expressed in the forms of various words irrespective of their lexical meaning, e.g. *boys, girls, joys* etc. The concept of relation may be expressed by the lexical meaning of the word *relation* and also by any of the prepositions, e.g. *in, on, behind* etc.[8]

It follows that by lexical meaning we determine the meaning proper to the given linguistic unit in all its forms and distributions, while by grammatical meaning we designate the meaning proper to sets of word-forms common to all words of a certain class. Both the lexical and the grammatical meaning make up the word-meaning as neither can exist without the other. That can be also observed in the semantic analysis of correlated words in different languages. E.g. the Russian word *сведения* is not semantically identical with the English equivalent *information* because unlike the Russian *сведения* the English word does not possess the grammatical meaning of plurality which is part of the semantic structure of the Russian word.

The interrelation of the lexical and the grammatical meaning and the role, played by each varies in different word classes and evening different groups of words within one and the same class. In some parts of speech the prevailing component is the grammatical type of meaning. The lexical meaning of prepositions is, as a rule, relatively vague[2] (cf. to think/speak of smb., independent of smb., one of the friends, the room of the house). The lexical meaning of some preposition, however, may be comparatively distinct (cf. in/on/under the table). In verbs the lexical meaning usually comes to the fore[3],

---

[8] Arnold I.V. The English Word M. High School 1986 pp. 143-149, Ginzburg R.S. et al. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. M., 1979 pp.72-82

although in some of them, the verb "to be", e.g. the grammatical meaning of a linking element prevails (cf. "he works as a teacher").

We know that most words convey several concepts and thus possess the corresponding number of meanings. A word having several meanings is called polysemantic, and the ability of words to have more than one meaning is described by the term "polysemy" (from Greece "polus"-many and "sema"-meaning)which means a plurality of meanings.[9]

The system of meanings of any polysemantic word develops gradually, mostly over the, centuries. These complicated processes of polysemy development involve both the appearance of the new meanings and the loss of old ones. Yet, the general tendency with English vocabulary at the modern stage of its history is to increase the total number of its meanings and to provide for a quantitive and qualitative growth of the expressive resources of the language.

Thus, word counts show that the total number of meanings separately registered in the New English Dictionary (NED) for the 1st thousand of the most frequent English words is almost 25.000,i.e. the average number of meanings for each of these words is 25.

1.2.c. Part-of-Speech Meaning

It is usual to classify lexical items into major word-classes (nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs) and minor word-classes (articles, prepositions, conjunctions, etc.).

---

[9] Arnold I.V. The English Word M. High School 1986 pp. 143-149

All members of a major word-class share a distinguishing semantic component which though very abstract may be viewed as the lexical component of part-of-speech meaning. For example, the meaning of "thingness" or substantiality may be found in all the nouns e.g. *table, love, sugar,* though they possess different grammatical meanings of number, case, etc. It should be noted, however, that the grammatical aspect of the part-of-speech meanings is conveyed as a rule by a set of forms. If we describe the word as a noun we mean to say that it is bound to possess a set of forms expressing the grammatical meaning of number *(table — tables),* case *(boy, boy's)* and so on. A verb is understood to possess sets of forms expressing, e.g., tense meaning *(worked — works),* mood meaning *(work! — (I) work)* etc.

The part-of-speech meaning of the words that possess only one form, e.g. prepositions, some adverbs, etc., is observed only in their distribution (*to come in (here, there)).*

One of the levels at which grammatical meaning operates is that of minor word classes like articles, pronouns, etc. Members of these word classes are generally listed in dictionaries just as other vocabulary items, that belong to major word-classes of lexical items proper (e.g. nouns, verbs, etc.).

One criterion for distinguishing these grammatical items from lexical items is in terms of closed and open sets. Grammatical items form closed sets of units usually of small membership (e.g. the set of modern English pronouns, articles, etc.). New items are practically never added.

Lexical items proper belong to open sets which have indeterminately large membership; new lexical items which are constantly coined to fulfil the needs of the speech community are added to these open sets.

The interrelation of the lexical and the grammatical meaning and the role

played by each varies in different word-classes and even in different groups of words within one and the same class. In some parts of speech the prevailing component is the grammatical type of meaning. The lexical meaning of prepositions for example is, as a rule, relatively vague *(one of the students, the roof of the house)*. The lexical meaning of some prepositions, however, may be comparatively distinct *(in/on, under the table)*. In verbs the lexical meaning usually comes to the fore although in some of them, the verb *to be,* e.g., the grammatical meaning of a linking element prevails (*he works as a teacher and he is a teacher).*

1.2.d. Denotational and Connotational meaning of the word

Proceeding with the semantic analysis we observe that lexical meaning is not homogenous either and may be analysed as including denotational and connotational components.

As was mentioned above one of the functions of words is to denote things, concepts and so on. Users of a language cannot have any knowledge or thought of the objects or phenomena of the real world around them unless this knowledge is ultimately embodied in words which have essentially the same meaning for all speakers of that language. This is the *denotational meaning*, i.e. that component of the lexical meaning which makes communication possible. There is no doubt that a physicist knows more about the atom than a singer does, or that an arctic explorer possesses a much deeper knowledge of what arctic ice is like than a man who has never been in the North. Nevertheless they use the words *atom, Arctic,* etc. and understand each other.

The second component of the lexical meaning is the *connotational component*, i.e. the emotive charge and the stylistic value of the word. Words contain an element of emotive evaluation as part of the connotational meaning; e.g. *a hovel* denotes 'a small house or cottage' and besides implies that it is a miserable dwelling place, dirty, in bad repair and in general unpleasant to live in. When

examining synonyms *large, big, tremendous* and *like, love, worship* or words such as *girl, girlie*; *dear, dearie* we cannot fail to observe the difference in the emotive charge of the members of these sets. The emotive charge of the words *tremendous, worship* and *girlie* is heavier than that of the words *large, like* and *girl*. This does not depend on the "feeling" of the individual speaker but is true for all speakers of English. The emotive charge varies in different word-classes. In some of them, in interjections, e.g., the emotive element prevails, whereas in conjunctions the emotive charge is as a rule practically non-existent.

The *emotive charge* is one of the objective semantic features proper to words as linguistic units and forms part of the connotational component of meaning. It should not be confused with *emotive implications* that the words may acquire in speech. The emotive implication of the word is to a great extent subjective as it greatly depends of the personal experience of the speaker, the mental imagery the word evokes in him. Words seemingly devoid of any emotional element may possess in the case of individual speakers strong emotive implications as may be illustrated, e.g. by the word *hospital*. What is thought and felt when the word *hospital* is used will be different in the case of an architect who built it, the invalid staying there after an operation, or the man living across the road.

Words differ not only in their emotive charge but also in their stylistic reference. Stylistically words can be roughly subdivided into literary, neutral and colloquial layers.

The greater part of the *literary layer* of Modern English vocabulary are words of general use, possessing no specific stylistic reference and known as *neutral words*. Against the background of neutral words we can distinguish two major subgroups – *standard colloquial* words and *literary or bookish* words. This may be best illustrated by comparing words almost identical in their denotational meaning, e. g., '*parent - father - dad*'. In comparison with the word *father* which is

stylistically neutral, *dad* stands out as colloquial and *parent* is felt as bookish. The stylistic reference of standard colloquial words is clearly observed when we compare them with their neutral synonyms, e.g. *chum - friend, rot - nonsense,* etc. This is also true of literary or bookish words, such as, e.g., *to presume (to suppose), to anticipate (to expect)* and others.

Literary (bookish) words are not stylistically homogeneous. Besides general-literary (bookish) words, e.g. *harmony, calamity, alacrity,* etc., we may single out various specific subgroups, namely: 1) terms or scientific words such as, e g., *renaissance, genocide, teletype,* etc.; 2) poetic words and archaisms such as, e.g., *whilome* - 'formerly', *aught* - 'anything', *ere* - 'before', *albeit* - 'although', *fare* - 'walk', etc., *tarry* - 'remain', *nay* - 'no'; 3) barbarisms and foreign words, such as, e.g., *bon mot* - 'a clever or witty saying', *apropos, faux pas, bouquet,* etc. The colloquial words may be subdivided into:

1) Common colloquial words.

2) Slang, i.e. words which are often regarded as a violation of the norms of Standard English, e.g. *governor* for 'father', *missus* for 'wife', a *gag* for 'a joke', *dotty* for 'insane'.

3) Professionalisms, i.e. words used in narrow groups bound by the same occupation, such as, e.g., *lab* for 'laboratory', *a buster* for 'a bomb' etc.

4) Jargonisms, i.e. words marked by their use within a particular social group and bearing a secret and cryptic character, e.g. *a sucker* – 'a person who is easily deceived', *a squiffer* – 'a concertina'.

5) Vulgarisms, i.e. coarse words that are not generally used in public, e.g. *bloody, hell, damn, shut up,* etc.

6) Dialectical words, e.g. *lass, kirk*, etc.

7) Colloquial coinages, e.g. *newspaperdom, allrightnik,* etc.

Stylistic reference and emotive charge of words are closely connected and to a certain degree interdependent. As a rule stylistically coloured words, i.e. words belonging to all stylistic layers except the neutral style are observed to possess a considerable emotive charge. That can be proved by comparing stylistically labelled words with their neutral synonyms. The colloquial words *daddy, mammy* are more emotional than the neutral *father, mother;* the slang words *mum, bob* are undoubtedly more expressive than their neutral counterparts *silent, shilling,* the poetic *yon* and *steed* carry a noticeably heavier emotive charge than their neutral synonyms *there* and *horse*. Words of neutral style, however, may also differ in the degree of emotive charge. We see, e.g., that the words *large, big, tremendous,* though equally neutral as to their stylistic reference are not identical as far as their emotive charge is concerned.

1.**3. Semantic structure of English words**

The modern approach to semasiology is based on the assumption that the inner form (or facet) of the word (i.e. its meaning) presents a structure, which is called the semantic structure of the word. Semasiology (from Gr. semasia – "signification") deals not with every kind of linguistic meaning only. This does not mean that we need not pay attention to the grammatical meaning. On the contrary, grammatical meaning must be taken into consideration in so far as it bears a specific influence upon lexical meaning.

The main objects of semasiological study are as follows: semantic development of words, its causes and classification, relevant distinctive features and types of lexical meaning, polysemy and semantic structure of word, semantic groupings and connections in the vocabulary system, i.e. synonyms, antonyms, etc.[10]

Meaning is one of the most difficult terms in the theory of language. An exact definition of lexical meaning becomes especially difficult due to intricacy of the process, by which language and man serve to reflect reality. There are 2 approaches to the problem: 1) the referential approach, which gives the nature of meaning as the interdependence between words and things or concepts they denote; 2) the functional approach, which studies the functions of a word in speech. This approach is (sometimes described as contextual) based on the analysis of various contexts.

The main feature of the first approach is in distinguishing between the three components, connected with meaning:

---

[10]   Ginzburg R.S. et al. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. M., 1979 pp.72-82

1) the sound form of the linguistic sign (sign or symbol);

2) the concept underlying this sound form *(meaning; thought or reference)*.

3) the actual referent, i.e. the part or the aspect of reality to which the linguistic sign refers (thing meant).

So, there are some interrelations between:

The first one is meaning and sound form. The sound-form of the word is not identical with its meaning in different languages. As example, [kot] is the sound form in English, used to denote a bed for a child. There are inherent connections between this sound form, used to denote a bed for a child. There are inherent connections between this sound form and the meaning of the word "cot", but they are conventional and arbitrary. We may prove it by comparing the sound-forms of different languages, conveying one and the same meaning, for instance English [kot] and Russian [krovatka]. On the contrary, the sound-cluster [kot] in the English language is almost identical to the sound form in Russian language possessing the meaning "male-cat".

The second one is meaning and concept. When we discuss about meaning and concept of a word, we see that its meaning, though connected with the underlying concept is not identical with it. To begin with, concept is a category of human cognition. Concept is the thought of the object that singles out its essential features. Our concepts abstracts and reflect the most common and typical features of the different objects and phenomena of the world. Being the result of abstraction the concepts are thus almost the same for the whole of humanity.

The difference between meaning and concept can also be observed by comparing synonymous words and word-groups expressing the same concepts, but possessing linguistic meaning, which is felt as different in each of the units under

considerations: *Big - large; Child - baby-babe-infant; To die - to pass away - kick the bucket - join the majority; Daddy - father - governor - etc.*

Another one is meaning and referent. To distinguish meaning from the referent, i.e. from the thing denoted by the linguistic sign, is very important. We can denote one and the same object by more than one word of a different meaning. As example, *an apple* can be denoted by the words *apple, fruit, smth, this*, etc. And it is understood that all these words have the same referent.

The outstanding Russian scholar Smirnitsky A. I. understands the linguistic sign as a two-facet unit. He with others view meaning as "a certain reflection in our mind of objects, phenomena or relations that makes part of the linguistic sign - its so called inner facet, whereas the sound-form functions as its outer facet"[11]

Meaning is to be found in all linguistic units and together with their sound-form constitutes by linguistic science. The linguistic signs studied by linguistic science.

The meaning has always operated with subjective and intangible mental processes. The results of the semantic investigation therefore depend to a certain extent on "the feeling of language". So, semasiology has to rely too much on linguistic intuition and unlike other fields of linguistics (phonetics, history of language) does not posses objective methods of investigation.

While comparing the two approaches in terms of methods of linguistic analysis, we may observe that the functional approach should not be considered an alternative, but rather a more valuable complement to the referential theory. It is obviously that linguistic investigation must start by collecting a great number of samples of context. Only through the samples of context you can formulate a

---

[11] http://studall.org/all2-43184.html

correct meaning thus identified. There is absolutely no need to set the two approaches against each other. The full meaning is incomplete without each of them.

The meaning is figurative when the object is named and at the same time characterized, through its similarity, with - another object, while naming the object the word simultaneously describes it.

Take, for example, the noun *"screen"*. It has direct meaning- it names *"a movable piece of furniture used to hide something or protect somebody"*, as in case of "*fire screen*" placed in front of a fireplace. The meaning is figurative when the word is applied to anything which protects by hiding, I as in *"smoke screen"*. We define this meaning as figurative comparing it to the first that we called direct. But it also has secondary meaning, when by a *"screen"* a speaker means "*a silver-coloured sheet on which pictures are shown*. When the same word is used attributively in such combinations as "*screen actor*", "*screen star*", "*screen version", etc.,* it comes to mean "*pertaining to the cinema"* and is abstract to comparison with the first meaning which is called concrete. The main meaning is that which possesses the highest frequency, at the present stage of development all these terms reflect, relationship existing between different meanings of a word at the same period, so the classification may be called synchronic and paradigmatic, although the terms are borrowed from historical lexicology and stylistics.

From what was said about the distributional meaning in morphemes it follows that there are cases when we can observe a direct connection between the structural pattern of the word and its meaning. This relationship between morphemic structure and meaning is termed morphological motivation.

The main criterion in morphological motivation is the relationship between morphemes. All one-morpheme words, e.g. *sing, tell, eat,* are non-motivated. In words which consisted of more than one morpheme the carrier of the word-

meaning is the combined meaning of the component morphemes and the meaning of the structural pattern of the word. This can be illustrated by the semantic analysis of different words composed of phonemically identical morphemes with identical lexical meaning. The words *finger-ring* and *ring-finger,* e.g., contain two morphemes, the combined lexical meaning of which is the same; the difference in the meaning of these words can be accounted for by the difference in the arrangement of the component morphemes.

If we can observe a direct connection between the structural pattern of the word and its meaning, we say that this word is motivated. Consequently words such as *singer, rewrite***,** *eatable,* etc., are described as motivated. If the connection between the structure of the lexical unit and *its* meaning is completely arbitrary and conventional, we speak of non-motivated or idiomatic words, e.g. *matter, repeat.*

One more point should be noted in connection with the problem in question. A synchronic approach to morphological motivation presupposes historical changeability of structural patterns and the ensuing degree of motivation. Some English place-names may serve as an illustration. Such place-names as *Newtowns* and *Wildwoods* are lexically and structurally motivated and may be easily analysed into component morphemes. Other place-names, e.g. *Essex, Norfolk, Sutton,* are non-motivated. To the average English speaker these names are non-analysable lexical units like *sing* or *tell.* However, upon examination the student of language history will perceive their components to be *East+Saxon, North+Folk and South+Town* which shows that in earlier days they were just as completely motivated as *Newtowns* or *Wildwoods* are in Modern English.

Some linguists, however, argue that words can be motivated in more than one way and suggest another type of motivation which may be described as a direct connection between the phonetical structure of the word and its meaning. It

is also pointed out that this type of phonetical motivation may be observed in the phonemic structure of some newly coined words. For instance, the small transmitter that specialises in high frequencies is called 'a tweeter', the transmitter for low frequencies 'a woofer'.

Another type of phonetical motivation is shown by such words as *swish, sizzle, boom, splash,* etc. These words may be defined as phonetically motivated because the sound clusters [swiʃ, sizl, bum, splæʃ] are a direct imitation of the sounds these words denote. The sound-cluster [iŋ] is imitative of sound or swift movement as can be seen in words *ring, sing, swing, fling*, etc. Thus, phonetically such words may be considered motivated.

This hypothesis seems to require verification. This of course is not to deny that there are some words which involve phonetical symbolism: these are the onomatopoeic, imitative or echoic words such as the English *cuckoo, splash* and *whisper*. And even these are not completely motivated but seem to be conventional to quite a large extent (cf. *кукареку* and *cock-a-doodle-doo).*

The term *motivation* is also used by a number of linguists to denote the relationship between the central and the coexisting meaning or meanings of a word which are understood as a metaphorical extension of the central meaning. Metaphorical extension may be viewed as generalisation of the denotational meaning of a word permitting it to include new referents which are in some way like the original class of referents. Similarity of various aspects and/or functions of different classes of referents may account for the semantic motivation of a number of minor meanings. For instance, a woman who has given birth is called *a mother;* so, any act that gives birth is associated with being *a mother, e.g.* in *Necessity is the mother of invention.* The same principle can be observed in other meanings: a mother looks after a child, so that we can say *she became a mother to her orphan nephew,* or *Romulus and Remus were supposedly mothered by a wolf.* Such

metaphoric extension may be observed in the so-called trite metaphors, such as *burn with anger, break smb's heart, jump at a chance,* etc.

In modern linguistics it is more or less universally recognised that the smallest two-facet language unit possessing both sound-form and meaning is the morpheme. It is generally assumed that one of the semantic features of some morphemes which distinguishe them from words is that they do not possess grammatical meaning. Comparing the word man, e.g., and the morpheme man-(in manful, manly, etc.) we see that we cannot find in this morpheme the grammatical meaning of case and number observed in the word *man*. Morphemes are consequently regarded as devoid of grammatical meaning.

Many English words consist of a one root-morpheme, so when we say that most morphemes possess lexical meaning we imply mainly the root-morphemes in such words. It may be easily observed that the lexical meaning of the word *boy* and the lexical meaning of the root-morpheme *boy* — in such words as *boyhood, boyish* and others is very much the same.

Just as in words lexical meaning in morphemes may also be analysed into denotational and connotational components. The connotational component of meaning may be found not only in root-morphemes but in affixational morphemes as well. Endearing and diminutive suffixes, e.g. *-ette (kitchenette), -ie(y) (dearie, girlie), -ling (duckling),* clearly bear a heavy emotive charge. Comparing the derivational morphemes with the same denotational meaning we see that they sometimes differ in connotation only. The morphemes, e.g. *-ly, -like, -ish,* have the denotational meaning of similarity in the words *womanly, womanlike, womanish,* the connotational component, however, differs and ranges from the positive evaluation in *-ly (womanly)* to the derogatory in *-ish (womanish):* Stylistic reference may also be found in morphemes of different types. The stylistic value of such derivational morphemes as, *e.g. -ine (chlorine), -oid (rhomboid), -escence*

(effervescence) is clearly perceived to be bookish or scientific.

The lexical meaning of the affixal morphemes is, as a rule, of a more generalising character. The suffix **-er**, e.g. carrier the meaning 'the agent, the doer of the action', the suffix**-less** denotes lack or absence of something. It should also be noted that the root-morphemes do not "possess the part-of-speech meaning (cf. *manly, manliness,* to *man***);** in derivational morphemes the lexical and the part-of-speech meaning may be so blended as to be almost inseparable. In the derivational morphemes **-er** and **-less** discussed above the lexical meaning is just as clearly perceived as their part-of-speech meaning. In some morphemes, however, for instance *-ment* or *-ous (as* in *movement* or *laborious***),** it is the part-of-speech meaning that prevails, the lexical meaning is but vaguely felt.

In some cases the functional meaning predominates. The morpheme **-ice** in the word *justice***,** e.g., seems to serve principally to transfer the part-of-speech meaning of the morpheme *just –* into another class and namely that of noun. It follows that some morphemes possess only the functional meaning, i.e. they are the carriers of part-of-speech meaning.

Besides the types of meaning proper both to words and morphemes the latter may possess specific meanings of their own, namely the differential and the distributional meanings. *Differential meaning* is the semantic component that serves to distinguish one word from all others containing identical morphemes. In words consisting of two or more morphemes, one of the constituent morphemes always has differential meaning. In such words as, e. g., *bookshelf***,** the morpheme **-***shelf* serves to distinguish the word from other words containing the morpheme *book***-,** e.g. from *bookcase, book-counter* and so on. In other compound words, e.g. *notebook***,** the morpheme *note***-** will be seen to possess the differential meaning which distinguishes *notebook* from *exercisebook, copybook***,** etc. It should be clearly understood that denotational and differential meanings are not mutually

exclusive. Naturally the morpheme **-shelf** in *bookshelf* possesses denotational meaning which is the dominant component of meaning. There are cases, however, when it is difficult or even impossible to assign any denotational meaning to the morpheme, e.g. *cran-* in *cranberry*, yet it clearly bears a relationship to the meaning of the word as a whole through the differential component (*cranberry* and *blackberry, gooseberry)* which in this particular case comes to the fore. One of the disputable points of morphological analysis is whether such words as *deceive, receive, perceive* consist of two component morphemes. If we assume, however, that the morpheme **-ceive** may be singled out it follows that the meaning of the morphemes *re-, per, de-* is exclusively differential, as, at least synchronically, there is no denotational meaning proper to them.

Distributional meaning is the meaning of the order and arrangement of morphemes making up the word. It is found in all words containing more than one morpheme. The word *singer*, e.g., is composed of two morphemes *sing-* and **-er** both of which possess the denotational meaning and namely 'to make musical sounds' *(sing-)* and 'the doer of the action' *(-er).* There is one more element of meaning, however, that enables us to understand the word and that is the pattern of arrangement of the component morphemes. A different arrangement of the same morphemes, e.g. *ersing*, would make the word meaningless. Compare also *boyishness* and *nessishboy* in which a different pattern of arrangement of the three morphemes *boy-ish-ness* turns it into a meaningless string of sounds.

CHAPTER II. Exploring achievements and perspectives in compiling special dictionaries in Modern English

2.1. Special dictionaries and their structure as a lexicographic problem.

Special dictionaries differ in what language material is subjected to processing and what methods of this processing are. An attempt to classify them was made by Stupin L.P. in 1973.[12] On his ground there are identified the following types of special dictionaries: *Etymological dictionaries* like as *Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology* edited by Onions C.T.. Oxford Univ. Press, 1966; *Historical dictionaries* as: *Bosworth J. and Toller T.N.* An Anglo-Saxon Dictionary; *Dialect and regional dictionaries:* the example of such kind of dictionary can be a 6-volume work by Wright (*Wright J.* The English Dialect Dictionary. 6vols. Oxford Univ. Press, 1896-1905); *Dictionaries of foreign terms:* dictionary by Mawson (*Mawson C.O.* Dictionary of Foreign Terms. N.Y., Bantam Books); *Dictionaries of word-frequency*: for example the E. Thorndike dictionaries and M. West's General Service List; *Usage dictionaries*: Designed for native speakers they supply much information on such usage problems as the difference in meaning between words like *comedy, farce* and *burlesque, illusion* and *delusion, formality* and *formalism,* the proper pronunciation of words like *foyer, yolk, nonchalant,* **etc.[13];** *Dictionaries of synonyms* : *Webster's Dictionary of Synonyms.* Mass., G. and C. Merriam Co. is considered to be the best dictionary of synonyms by right. Then: Allen F.S. *Allen's Synonyms and Antonyms*. N.Y., Harper and Br.; G. Crabb. *Crabb's English Synonyms.* N.Y., Grossel and Dunlop Publishers; *Phraseological dictionaries*: the best of them are Ball W.J. Colloquial Idioms. London, Longmans; McMordie W. English Idioms and How to Use Them. Oxford

---

[12] Ступин Л.П., Словари современного английского языка, Л.: Ленинград. ун-т, 1973, 67с.

[13] Моисеев М.В., Лексикография английского языка, Омск, 2006, с.73

Univ. Press; Collins V.H. A Book of English Idioms. London, Longmans; Partridge E. A Dictionary of Cliches; _Ideographic dictionaries:_ P.M. Roget's _Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases; Pronouncing dictionaries_: _English Pronouncing Dictionary_ by Daniel Jones and American variant is _A Pronouncing Dictionary of American English_ by J.S. Kenyon and T.A. Knott; _New words dictionaries,_ or _dictionaries of neologisms_: there are three dictionaries of neologisms for Modern English. Two of them (Berg P. A Dictionary of New Words in English, 1953; Reifer M. Dictionary of New Words, N.Y., 1955) came out in the middle of the 50s and are somewhat out-of-date. The third (A Dictionary of New English, A Barnheart Dictionary. L., 1973) is more up-to-date. The Barnheart Dictionary of New English covers words, phrases, meanings and abbreviations which came into the vocabulary of the English language during the period 1963-1972. [14]; _Dictionaries of slang (_contain elements from areas of substandard speech such as vulgarisms, jargonisms, taboo words, cursewords, colloquialisms, etc): _Dictionary of Slang and Unconventional English_ by E. Partridge, _Dictionary of Underworld: British and American, The American Thesaurus of Slang_ by Berry L.V & Den Bork M., _The Dictionary of American Slang_ by Wentworth N. and Flexner S.B.; _Dictionaries of abbreviations and signs_ : Wilkes D. _British Initials and Abbreviations._ London, Leonard Hill; Fawcett F.D. _Cyclopedia of Abbreviations._ London, Business Publications, Ltd.; Partridge E. _A Dictionary of Abbreviations. ;_A _reverse dictionary_ : one of the most known reverse dictionaries of the English language, that compiled by John Walker, is called _Rhyming Dictionary of the English Language._

Dictionary structure plays great role in learning foreign language. The dictionary which is composed correctly may be a good helper. Many scientists distinguish in a dictionary macrotext and microtext. By _macrotext_ there is

---

[14] Ступин Л.П., Словари современного английского языка, Л.: Ленинград. ун-т, 1973, 67с

understood the whole dictionary, considered as a single whole; and by *microtext* there is understood – a separate entry. Accordingly there are distinguished macrostructure and microstructure of a dictionary. By *macrostructure* there is understood the general structure of a dictionary and the character of the presentation of lexical units in a dictionary. By *microstructure* there is understood the entry format and the character of its filling.[15] Some linguists also distinguish *mediostructure,* especially in connection with the compiling of ideographic dictionaries, where the transfer from general vocabulary index to a separate entry is in some several consecutive transferrings to the subdivisions of smaller scope.[16]

Many lexicographers consider all the composition parts of a dictionary (beginning with preface and ending with supplements) to be included into the macrostructure, as the scope and content of the parts define the character of a dictionary.[17]

Introduction, in most cases containing the rules of using the dictionary for most effective usage of the dictionary. Besides this, introduction is often an original lexicographical work being of great interest to either linguists on the whole and specialists in the field of Lexicography specifically or to the students of the faculties of foreign languages.

For example, in the preface to New English-Russian Dictionary Yermolovich D.I. not only describes objective changes in the vocabulary for the

---

[15] Гринев С.В., Введение в терминографию, М.: Моск. Пед. ун-т, 1996, с.89.

[16] Агрикола Э., Микро-, медио- и макроструктура как содержательная основа словаря// Вопросы языкознания. 1984. Вып. 2, с.31.

[17] Ginzburg R.S., A Course in Modern English Lexicology, M., 1979, p.215.

last decades of the 20th century, but makes the analysis of Smirnitsky's dictionary, as the portrait of the dictionary author and his age.[18]

Supplements deepen and broaden the apprehension of the information contained in the basic index. In most cases supplements are an obligatory dictionary element (for example, indices in ideographic dictionaries).[19]

The distinctive feature of a dictionary structure from the structure of the texts of all other kinds is that in a dictionary the material is arranged in the form of separate units connected with one another by certain relations. The text of a dictionary can be presented in the form of the acquired system setting the definite system of searching.[20]

To the forming of a dictionary macrostructure there are referred such problems of a dictionary composition as the selection of the principle of the setting of lexical units, the ways of the presentation of polysemantic and homonymous units.

The order of the setting of entries can be *formal* or *subject.* The subject order is more ancient. The most well-known formal principle of vocabulary arrangement is the *alphabetical order* of entries following. It can be solid, when each headword (a lexical unit described in a dictionary) has its own entry; and all entries are in the strict alphabetical order. The solid alphabetical order is the most frequently used one in explanatory dictionaries of the English language at the present time.

---

[18] Ермолович Д.И., Предисловие: Новый большой русско-английский словарь как отражение нового лексике двух языков на рубеже тысячелетия// Ермолович Д.И., Красавина Т.М. Новый большой русско-английский словарь/ Под общ. Рук. Д.И. Ермоловича, М., 2004, с.VI-XV.

[19] Гринев С.В., Введение в терминографию, М.: Моск. Пед. ун-т, 1996, с.31.

[20] Горбис Б.И., Психолингвистика и порождающая лексикография// Тетради переводчика. 1977. Вып. 14. М.С., с.103-116.

The other mode of the alphabetical setting is the *cluster-type*. In this case an entry groups the information about several vocabules (headwords) connected with one another, an entries themselves are arrange according to the alphabet. Lexical units can be grouped into a cluster on the base of word-formative (morphological, syntactic) and lexical (semantic) features. According to this principle a lot of terminological dictionaries are built (both unilingual and bilingual), as it allows to group and present word-formative and semantic systems of terms clearly.[21]

Dictionaries in which the vocabulary is set according to the subject principle are called *subject dictionaries*. There are distinguished several varieties among them. In *subject-alphabetical* dictionaries there is used a combine way of the vocabulary presentation in the corpus of a dictionary (the basic index of the lexical units included into a dictionary) with some elements of formal arrangement. To such dictionaries there are referred *analogical* dictionaries, in which words are corresponded with the definite word-centres, the order of which is defined by the alphabet. The second sub-group of the subject dictionaries is *ideographic dictionaries* – thesauruses, in which the vocabulary is set according to the semantic fields. Thesauruses can be associative or hierarchic (systematic). The former are set according to the subject-groups on the base of associative connections between the notions defined by the words, the latter – use hierarchic connections between the notions.

Though there are different types of dictionaries, the components are all the same in every dictionary but under different names. They are:

1. introduction or foreword;

2. the part 'how to use the dictionary';

---

[21] Гринев С.В., Введение в терминографию, М.: Моск. Пед. ун-т, 1996, с.33-34.

3. key to transcription used in the dictionary;

4. the list of abbreviations used in the dictionary and their explanations;

5. dictionary corpus (word-list), i.e. the basic list of words;

6. additional material, i.e. different supplements;

7. the list of lexicographical sources.

A very significant element for thesauruses and phraseological dictionaries is index. The number and order of these basic elements of dictionary structure may vary depending on the author's setting.

To the supplements there are referred the list of the most frequently used English names, the list of geographical names, the list of the most frequently used abbreviations in England and the USA.

Let's look through each of the mentioned parts separately.

Foreword of a dictionary. It usually begins with the description of the history of the creation of the given dictionary and then briefly defines the dictionary's goals.

This material should be read attentively so that one knows exactly what he can find the dictionary and what he can't. For instance, if you are working with an explanatory dictionary, in the foreword there will be said if the dictionary includes obsolete words or not, if there are neologisms in it, etc.

At the end of the foreword there are some final words will be devoted to the acknowledgement to the experts and consultants who helped in the dictionary-compiling. This fact is also important as you may judge the dictionary quality and value by those who took part in its creating.

How to use the dictionary. This part is one of the basic ones for any dictionary and should be read very attentively. It usually includes such information about the entry structure, the ways of lexicographical analysis of a word, the place of derivatives, the labels given by the dictionary (prohibitive, restrictive, etc.), the grammatical characteristics of a word, etc.

Key to pronunciation. Showing of the pronunciation of English words is one of the main tasks of the English language dictionary. The difficulties are: firstly, English words are pronounced not in the way they are spelt; secondly, the problem is in the representing of the pronunciation of English words so that the system of the showing becomes clear and comprehensible to the most of the readers.

In our days in British and American lexicography there are two main systems of the showing of words pronunciation. The first is the showing of pronunciation by means of special phonetic alphabet – international phonetic transcription. This way of the showing of pronunciation is not so widely used in Great Britain and the USA as in Russia. The second one is the showing of pronunciation by means of the same English alphabet, by the letters of the English alphabet but with the addition of some signs (for example, table   [ta`b'l ]; yellow [ yel`o]. This way of showing of the pronunciation is widely abroad but isn't almost used in Russia.

The list of abbreviations. Abbreviations and signs use in the dictionaries enable to present the repeated information in a suitable way.

The basic list of words, i.e. the dictionary itself, consists of the headwords and their lexicographical analysis, which in its turn depends on the type of the dictionary. Mostly, dictionary material in all kind of dictionaries is given by two (in unabridged dictionaries – by three) columns on the page, as it's much quicker to read in narrow columns and small print, which is usually used in the dictionaries.

It's known that dictionary material is given in strictly alphabetical order. There are two methods of the presentation of entry words in a dictionary which are set according to the alphabet: the first one is word-by-word method, the second one is letter-by-letter method. *Word-by-word method* is presented entry words according to the alphabet, but those parts of words that are after a gap or hyphen are mot taken into consideration at the first stage. For example, the word *girl scout* will be given before the word *girlhood*, because the second part of the word *girl scout (scout)* is separated from *girl* by a gap. *Letter-by-letter method* is when the head words are set according to the alphabet and all parts of words are taken into consideration (whether they are written a hyphen or separately). No matter how a word or word-combination is written, it's suppose that all its parts are spelt together and words should follow one another strictly according to the alphabet. For instance, if the fifth letter of the word *girl scout* is 's' and the fifth letter of the word *girlhood* is 'h', *girlhood* should be placed before *girl scout.*

Word-by-word method	*Letter-by-letter method*
Girl	Girl
girl friend	girl friend
girl guide	girl guide
girl scout	girlhood
girlie	girlish
girlish	girl scout

In most dictionaries of the English language there is used the second method as more logical one.

Supplement. The supplements that published in Great Britain and the USA usually contain two kinds of information: 1)lists of words which were not included into the basic list of words for some reasons (for example, geographical names, surnames of some outstanding people, foreign words and expressions, etc.);

2) Encyclopaedic material which British and American publishers willingly give in their dictionaries[22].

In the English-Russian Dictionary on Exploration Drilling (1963) the supplement is the list of the most frequently used in technical literature abbreviations. Comparing it with the supplement (the list of abbreviations) given by Prof Muller in his English-Russian Dictionary (1963), we have found that the same abbreviations denote quite different notions:

Abbreviation	*English-Russian Dictionary (by Muller V.K.)[23]*	*English-Russian Dictionary on Exploration Drilling (by Hitzigrath E.E.)[24]*
O.S.	I. Old Saxon древнесаксонский язык; II. on spot 1. быть в наличии, на месте (о товаре)	oil sand нефтеносный песок

---

[22] Ступин Л.П., Словари современного английского языка, Л.: Ленинград. ун-т, 1973, 67с.

[23] Muller V.K., English-Russian Dictionary, M.: State Publishing House of Foreign and National Dictionaries, 1963, p.1164-1192.

[24] Hitzigrath E.E., Pinkevitch A.A., Vinogradova L.V., English-Russian Dictionary on Exploration Drilling, L.:
State Publishing House of Petroleum and Fuel-Mining Literature, 1963, p.311-318.

2.2 General problems of dictionary-compiling and new demands

The modern lexicographer sees his task in the description of the vocabulary and its use. The lexicographer knows that his duty is to fix that language in the script which he's observing, that constant change is a characteristic of any living organism.[25]

Any considerable dictionary is based on the *card index of examples* allowing the lexicographers to define the frequency of occurrence, spelling and meaning of any word, especially new words and new meanings that well-known words have got. Such card index is a refreshed collection of cards gathered by a group of trained readers who regularly look through current newspapers, magazines, scientific and technical periodicals, modern books of any genres, catalogues and other printed materials.

Each card contains the word with the surrounding context enough to make clear that meaning in which the author has used it, the transcription of the word and the exact source of the quoted material. Such card index serves several aims. It helps the lexicographer to establish comparative frequency of occurrence of each word, the genres of the sources in which it is used, its possible spelling variants and a large number of its meanings. The large illustrative material can also help the lexicographer to define the status of this or that usage on the type of its surrounding, i.e. whether a certain word is met just in written texts or in spoken language.

There are a lot of dictionaries intended for different users. Their scope varies from small pocket dictionaries, giving almost nothing, except for the spelling,

---

[25] http://www.krugosvet.ru/enc/gumanitarnye_nauki/lingvistika/LEKSIKOGRAFIYA.html

syllable-division and the shortest definitions for an extremely limited word-list, to the large dictionaries that include several hundred thousands entries.

The answer to the question whether to include a new word into a dictionary depends on the sphere covered by the concrete dictionary, the quantity and frequency of the occurrence of examples (whether the given word-usage is in numerous texts of different genres or the examples are taken from two-three technical journals), and also on the period the given examples cover. The lexicographer usually gives new words some incubation period in order to define their viability and let the definitions become more or less stable. From time to time people invent a new technical device – for instance – for generating, amplifying and concentrating light waves into an intense, highly directional beam. The inventors of the device give it the name – in the given case – the word 'laser', the abbreviation from Light Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiation, the name is supposed to remain the name of the device.

On the other hand, in this card index a term from the sphere of fashion can appear, for instance, the English word *breen* (designer's term for denoting brown-greenish tint, the contamination of the words *brown* and *green*). For such words the examples will appear in a great amount during one-two years, and then they will suddenly disappear, as the arbitors of fashion will be interested in other colour tints. The word *breen* will probably not be included into the dictionary, and will remain in the card index as a curious reminding about transient fashion.

If Samuel Johnson and Noah Webster compiled the dictionary as a whole, charging themselves with the etymology, the recommendations on the pronunciation, spelling and formulation of the definitions, the modern lexicographer chooses a concrete *specialization*. If his field is pronunciation, he should be an experienced phonologist working with the corpus of verbal examples and geographically-arranged multitude of informants. The work made up by

linguistic geographers, while preparing a linguistic atlas of the USA, serves as a useful source of lexicographic information about regional differences in the pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar (for instance, it allows to identify the regions of the country where /h/ is heard before /w/ in the words like *when, why, wheel, white).*

Today Etymology is one of the most scientific lexicographic discipline, avoiding conjectures and based on the evidence supported by a reliable material and on the using effective methods of the studying linguistic changes. The first rule of the modern etymologist – is to be careful of the evident and not to trust "interesting" interpretations of the origin of some words. The etymologist will have to convince an amateur that the often-told legend about the word *posh* "smart; first-class" is ostensibly from the combination of the initial letters of Port Outward Starboard Home is a pure fiction, and that this word is from an obsolete slang word of unknown origin with the meaning "dandy"

The definition can't give an excessive interpretation of all the usages of the word, the aim of the interpreter is to make one or several formulations which will give the reader an opportunity to reach the general understanding of the notion, which can be checked later.

Meanings of words can be defined in different ways: description [e.g. *lute* – is a stringed musical instrument with the frame in the form of half-pear, having 6-13 strings stretched along the carved finger-board]; the classification with some description [e.g. *champaca* – is an East-Indian tree (Michelia champaca) from the family of magnolias, with aromatic yellow flowers]; substitutive formulations, including synonymous ones [e.g. *honour* – "great respect; high public respect of which one takes advantage: (a) fame; (b) trust]; pointing onto the aim or function [e.g. *-in* – is the component of compounds, formed by the analogy with *sit-in* "sitting strike" for the description of different similar actions of the participants of

mass demonstrations, in the compound word *teach-in*]; comparison [e.g. *creek* – is "a small torrent a bit larger than a brook"].

The dictionaries follow different practical methods enumerating separate meanings of a word: some dictionaries follow strictly historical order relying on the available examples; some others – arrange meanings in the order of frequency of their occurrence.

CHAPTER III. Linguistic peculiarities of economic terms in the languages of different system

3.1 The characteristics of the scientific and technical language

In any technical and scientific texts, no matter of its contents and character, can be successfully translated from one language to other, even if in an artwork such branch of knowledge is required, for which in language of translation there is no appropriate nomenclature. In such cases the skillful translator more often resorts to interpretation, but becoming of a necessary nomenclature of a realization in a sphere of production or those scientific circles, which are engaged in data by problems.

Concept «the scientific and technical literature» combines, as is known different kinds of literature; the monographs, different textbooks, journal papers, descriptions, quick references.

The aim of science as a branch of human activity is to disclose by research the inner substance of things and phenomena of objective reality and find out the laws regulating them, this enabling man to predict, control and direct their future development in order to improve the material and social life of mankind. The style of scientific prose is therefore mainly characterized by an arrangement of language means which will bring proofs to clinch a theory. The main function of scientific prose is proof. The selection of language means must therefore meet this principle requirement.[26]

To get a proper translation, it is necessary to an interpreter to follow some requests, such as:

---

[26] Кожина М.М. О речевой системности научного стиля сравнительно с некоторыми другими. / М.М. Кожина. – Пермь, 2002. – 325 с

1. The substantial knowledge of a subject, which is treated in the source text.

2. Good knowledge of special language, as well as its lexical and grammatical features in comparison to the native language.

3. Knowledge of the bases' and some features of the theory of translation, and also receptions of technical translation and skill to use them.

4. Introducing to the character of scientific and technical functional style both in language of the original, and in the native language.

5. Good comprehension of conventional signs, abbreviations (cuttings), systems of measures and weights, both in language of the original and in the native language.

After studying the material of scientific-technical texts some of the major points can be determined:

The most important one is - the absence of emotional coloring. This feature is basically main point of the scientific and technical texts, because readers should not have associations of the translator, it should not be read between lines, be admired by the game of words and calamburs. The writer's purpose of the text is to describe either or other phenomenon or operation, this or that subject or process. So the major task of interpreter is correct translation of this operation or phenomenon, without private emotional coloring. Also, it is necessary to point out, that English language differs by figurativeness, which can not be transferred to Russian translation.

In given example *"The mother company bore a daughter in the Far East, granted her a dowry of 3.000 pounds and christened her…"* , - we see that if to translate literally, it will sound like : *"Компания мать родила на Дальнем Востоке дочь, дала ей приданное в 3 тысячи фунтов стерлингов и окрестила ее…"* But after processing it is coming to: *"Эта компания организовала на*

Дальнем Востоке дочернюю компанию и выделила ей капитал в 3 тыс. фунтов стерлингов; новая компания стала именоваться…"

Another point is rushing to clearness and shortness. The rushing to clearness shows expression in application of legible grammar constructions and lexical units, and also in the usage of a nomenclature. As a rule, placed terms will be utilized conventional, though meet and terminoids(terms, having circulation in a narrow orb), which considerably have hamper translation. The rushing to a multiplicity expresses in wide application of infinitive, gerundial and subordinate clauses, abbreviations (cuttings) and conventional signs.

One more point is the special semantic load of some words of ordinary colloquial speech. The rethinking of words of ordinary speech is one of productive methods of the new terms' construction. For instance , *to put out* - in ordinary speech "гасить огонь", but for sailors - "выходить в море" , *stroke* - in ordinary speech "удар", but for mechanic - "ход поршня" , *hoe* - "мотыга", but for builders - "обратная лопата". This pollysemantic meanings of words give a difficulties in translating for interpreter and errors for an initial translator.

Another one is rate, distinct from literary language, of the words' use of the basic dictionary fund. The lexicon of the scientific and technical language is much poorer than lexicon of art products. Therefore rate of separate elements of common lexicon of the scientific and technical literature is higher than rate of elements of lexicon of art products, thus the literary - book words and expressions, foreign drawings, scarcity of portable and contextual meanings treat to characteristic features of scientific and technical style.

The point of distinction from the literary language rate of the use and relative importance of some grammar shapes and constructions play a great role in transferring the text. For instance, in the engineering literature Passive Voice is

used in 15 times more often, than in art. The definition in the engineering literature is used in 4 times more often, than in art.

And the last points are scarcity of the idioms' use and application of abbreviations (cuttings) and conventional signs. The idiomatic word collocations are original irresolvable expressions having particular sense, frequently independent from elements, included in them. The idioms always have some emotional coloring and consequently are not entered in the scientific and technical texts. But on contrary, the scientific and technical texts mostly include a lot of abbreviations and cuttings.

Telling about scientific and technical operations, the material should come in exact order and be logically completed. For all aspects of the scientific and technical literature common lexical and grammar features of the scientific and technical literature are presented. The lexicon of the scientific and technical literature consists of common words and great number of the special terms.

One part of common words such as *to work, to know, place, new* is widely known for the pupil from school or other courses of the English language. Second part of common words is unknown by the pupil and represents that basic lexical reserve, which they should acquire in learning process. This part of common words may be subdivided into some groups:

1) Words used in the scientific and technical literature in meanings, distinct from what pupils have acquired in original course. As example, the verb *to offer* in the technical text more often is used in translation of "оказывать", instead of "предлагать". At the same time, it is necessary to refer and some auxiliary words such as *for, as, since, after*. An indication of these words is that they can execute functions of different parts of speech. For instance, word *for* can be a preposition and conjunction, and be translated as "для", "в течение", and as a conjunction "так как".

2) Words, which on the first stage of learning usually are not studied. As example *to regard* - рассматривать, считать, *to design* – конструировать. It is necessary to refer a great many of auxiliary words, that not studied before, "*on account of*" - из-за, "*due to*" - благодаря. Words and word-combinations providing logical connections between separate parts of the text and providing the logic of an account. As example, *to begin with* - прежде всего, *furthermore* - кроме того, *summing up* - говоря вкратце

3) Word and word combinations serving for relational expression of the writer to the stated facts or for clarification of these facts. For example, *needless to say* - не вызывает сомнения, *strictly speaking* - строго говоря. The meanings of such words should be learnt.

4) Phraseological word combinations. The feature of phraseological word combinations used in the scientific and technical literature is that they more or less neutral on coloring. For instance, *to be in a position* – быть в состоянии, *to be under way* – осуществляться, *to bring into action* – начинать действовать. Phraseological word combinations play the important role in the offer and they are necessary for knowing.

The second part of the scientific and technical lexicon is the terms that are considered as a words or phrases denoting the concept of a special area of knowledge or activity. For example, *guidance* – наведение, *combustion chamber* – камера сгорания, *force of gravity* – сила тяжести. If the expert well knows Russian nomenclature, having met in the text the unfamiliar term, he can guess without the dictionary by what appropriate Russian term is necessary to translate.

The greatest difficulty for translation and understanding is represented by the terms consisting not of one word, but from group of words. It is important to be able to come to their meanings requires (demands), particular sequence of operations and knowledge of a method of translation of separate components. It is

recommended to start translation from the last word.Then under the order on the right to the left to translate words, taking into account the semantic relations between the components.

As example, If we translate the term "*liquid-propellant power plant*" - first of all it should be translated "power plant" – силовая установка, and then "propellant"- топливо, and the last word is "liquid" - жидкий. And we can easily translate the whole word combination: "*Силовая установка на жидком топливе*"

It is necessary to take into account that many terms are polysemantic. It is fully seen in the example *stage* , as for radiotechnics has several meanings: *1)*Каскад; 2) Фаза 3) стадия. And for the rocket engineering – ступень ракеты.

To sum up, it is understand, that the mastering of a strictly choice and rather restricted amount of words forces the specialist to read the scientific and technical literature, not reverting to common English-Russian language

The genre of scientific works is mostly used in the written form of language (scientific articles, monographs or textbooks), but it may also be found in its oral form (in scientific reports, lectures, discussions at conferences, etc); in the latter case this style has some features of colloquial speech.

The main quality of this style is the logical sequence of utterances with clear indication of their interrelations and interdependence, that is why in no other functional style there is such a developed and varied system of connectives as in scientific prose. The most frequently words used in scientific text are functional words, conjunctions and prepositions.

The first 1000 most frequent words of this style are the following units: a) prepositions: *of, to, in, for, with, on, at, by, from, out, about, down*;

b) prepositional phrases: *in terms of; in view of, in spite of, in common with, on behalf of, as a result of; by means of, on the ground of, in case of;*

c) conjunctional phrases: *in order that, in case that, in spite of the fact that, on the ground that, for fear that;*

d) pronouns: *one, it, we, they*;

e) notional words: *people, time, two, like, man, made, years.*

As scientific text is restricted to formal situations and, consequently, to formal style, it claims a special vocabulary which consists of two main groups: words associated with professional communication and a less exclusive group of so-called learned words. Here it is found numerous words that are used in scientific text and can be identified by their dry, matter-of-fact flavor, for instance, *comprise, compile, experimental, heterogeneous, homogeneous, conclusive, divergent, et*c. Another group of learned word comprises mostly polysyllabic words drawn from the Romance languages and fully adapted to the English phonetic system, some of them continue to sound singularly foreign and using only by special dictionaries: *deleterious, emollient, incommodious, meditation, illusionary.*

A particularly important characteristic of scientific and technological language is the subject-neutral vocabulary which cuts across different specialized domains. In particular, a great deal of scientific work involves giving instructions to act in a certain way, or reporting on the consequences of having so acted.

Some lexical categories can be emphasized within the language of scientific narrative: 1) Verbs of exposition: *ascertain, assume, compare, construct, describe, determine, estimate, examine, explain, label, plot, record, test, verify.* 2) Verbs of warning and advising: *avoid, check, ensure, notice, prevent, remember, take care; also several negative items: not drop, not spill.* 3) Verbs of manipulation: *adjust, align, assemble, begin, boil, clamp, connect, cover, decrease, dilute, extract, fill,*

immerse, mix, prepare, release, rotate, switch on, take, weigh. 4) Adjectival modifiers and their related adverbs: *careful (y), clockwise, continuous (ly), final (ly), gradual (ly), moderate (ly), periodic (ally), secure (ly), subsequent (ly), vertical (ly).*

The general vocabulary employed in scientific text comes through its direct referential meaning, so the words used in scientific text will always tend to be used in their primary logical meaning. Hardly a single word will be found here which is used in more than one meaning. Nor will there be any words with contextual meaning. Even the possibility of ambiguity is avoided. Likewise neutral and common literary words used in scientific text will be explained, even if their meaning is slightly modified, either in the context or in a foot-note by a parenthesis, or an attributive phrase.

Need to say that terms are used in specific to each given branch of science. Due to the rapid dissemination of scientific and technical ideas, particularly in the exact sciences, some scientific and technical terms begin to circulate outside the narrow field they belong to and eventually begin to develop new meanings. But the overwhelming majority of terms does not undergo this process of de-terminization and remain the property of scientific text. There they are born, develop new terminological meanings and there they die. No other part of human activity is so prolific in coining new words as science is. The necessity to penetrate deeper into the essence of things and phenomena gives rise to new concepts, which require new words to name them. A term will make more direct reference to something than a descriptive explanation, non-term. More to say, terms are coined so as to be self-explanatory to the greatest possible degree.

3.2 Linguistic aspects of the economic term system

The rapid progress in our society increases the need for communication among different language communities. This development requires quick translations of specialized texts. The growing demand for specialized translations brings about a great amount of special terminology. This represents a problem for a translator, who in most cases is not a subject specialist, to find the correct translation of special terms.

The problem of developing economic and business terms became particularly actual in the period of transition from command-based to free- market economy. The economic terms came mostly in English. Though, it is able to meet a lot of economic dictionaries, there is still a task to compose a dictionary which will correctly transmit economic terms from English into Russian and it will take no force to find the needed term, it means that the dictionary should be not only full in terms but also easy to use. In general, lexicographic problems make an important area of linguistic investigations, being recently marked by the development of new trends in compiling English - Russian economic dictionaries.

The theoretical basis of the Qualification Paper is based on researches by M. Cabre; D. Crystal; J. Sager; L.S. Barkhudarov (Бархударов Л.С.); L. Visson; B. Scott; K. Kageura; V.S. Vinogradov (В.С. Виноградов); U. Heid and others. These problems are particularly important for analysing English scientific and technical terms, their peculiarities and ways of translation into Russian.

Quick search of terminology is a task which requires complex cognitive abilities. A terminologist identifies terms because he understands the lexical and grammatical structure of a language, but most of all because he understands its semantic organization and is able to map concepts into words. In cases of uncertainty about the nature of terms and their difference to non-terms a terminologist relies on answers provided by theoreticians in the field of

terminology.

A good theoretical background for a structural analysis of terms as opposed to non-terms originates from contributions in the field of language for special purpose (LSP). Studies on LSP (language for special purpose) have shown that noun phrases are dominant in LSP (language for special purpose) texts, while words of closed word classes are rare. Then, studies on term formation reveal that terms are mostly compound nouns. Translation of specialized language is quite different from the translation of common texts. Translation of special texts is meant to improve the communication among experts of a domain and to contribute to the distribution of knowledge across language boundaries.

The main problem in specialized texts is connected with the terminology, which requires specific concepts from foreign languages (source language) to be transferred into one's mother tongue (target language). Before starting to translate, the translator must become familiar with the terminology of the science to which the specialized text belongs. Usually words belong to the vocabulary of general language while terms form the vocabulary of special languages, as the following definitions reflect: "*The items which are characterised by special reference within a discipline are the 'terms' of that discipline, and collectively they form its 'terminology'; those which function in general reference over a variety of sublanguages are simply called 'words', and their totality the 'vocabulary'*"[27]. "*Terms, like words in the general language lexicon, are distinctive and meaningful signs which occur in special language discourse.*" [28] To find the suitable equivalents to the terms is often a time-consuming task even for skilled translators. Translators are not free to define unknown terms which may be too specialized to

---

[27] 'Practical Course in Terminology Processing' by Juan C. Sager
[28] Maria Teresa Cabré 'Terminology: Theory, Methods, and Applications'

occur in a dictionary. They have to research in previously translated documents, on the internet or contact domain specialists. Studies show that a translator needs 30 % of the process time for working on unknown terminology.

The main task in terminology is building a terminological base of the science containing relevant terms. Special languages are subsets of the set of language as a whole. Among these subsets is also general language. Every single LSP (language for special purpose) can be intersect with general language, with which it not only shares features but also maintains a constant exchange of units and conventions. Special languages also cross with each other. Special languages differ from general language particularly in their specialized vocabulary, or terminology; further in the structural characteristics of sentences.

LSP(language for special purpose) is understood as a language which is produced by a specific society and used by the group of people sharing the same profession or subject. When talking about special languages, one has to be conscious of the fact that among these subsets of language there are fields which have very little in common with each other, not only concerning the knowledge required but also as regards linguistic features. Sager, Dungworth and McDonald distinguish three fields of investigation of language: the field of pragmatics, of semantics, and of syntax. These fields are the basis for the description of LSP and for a classification of special language according to models.

The differences analyzed during comparison of some terms in L1(source language) and L2(target language) on the semantic level are presented by following aspects[29]:

- the divergence in morphological and syntactical structure;

---

[29] British Telecom Group Annual Report and Form 2008; The differences discovered during comparison of some terms in L1 and L2 on the semantic level (140 terms)

- the divergence grammatical structure;

- the divergence in lexical structure;

- the divergence in lexico-grammatical structure of terms in L1 and L2

The divergence in morphological and syntactical structure: *consumer demand* - потребительский спрос; *credit rating* - кредитный рейтинг; *interest income* - процентный доход; *parent company* - материнская компания.

The divergence in grammatical structure: *risk figure* – показатель риска; *capital market* – рынок капитала; *income tax* – налог на прибыль; *sales tax* – налог с продаж; *order inflow* – поступление заказов; *share turnover* –оборот акций; *coverage of liabilities* – обеспечение обязательств; *Board of Directors* – совет Директоров.

The divergence in lexical structure of terms in L1 and L2: *accounting convention* (literally: правило бухгалтерского учета) - метод бухгалтерского учета*; building of competencies* (literally: построение квалификации) - повышение квалификации*; utilization of losses* (literally: использование убытков) - погашение убытков.

The divergence in lexicogrammatical structure of terms in L1 and L2: *inventory* - товарно-материальные запасы; *maintenance* - техническое обслуживание; *nominee* - номинальный акционер *(from "nominee shareholder")*

There are also inequivalent terms such as: *custodian - попечитель, кастодиан* (банк или иная организация, принимающая на хранение финансовые активы или другие ценности); *temporary difference - временная разница* а) (разница между величиной прибыли по данным бухгалтерского учета и налогооблагаемой прибылью, возникающая за счет признания доходов и расходов в бухгалтерском и налоговом учете в разных отчетных

периодах) б) (отклонение балансовой стоимости статьи актива или обязательства от их налоговой базы); *termination income benefit* - денежное пособие, выплачиваемое по истечении срока действия договора; *mortgage backed liability* - обязательства, обеспеченные залогом недвижимости.

The lack of equivalent term does not mean the term cannot be translated but can be solved by using other language means in translation. Ways to translate inequivalent terms: selection of Russian term or current word (or word combination) with close meaning; transcribing, transliteration; descriptive (explanatory) translation.

There are two varieties of English terms in the inequivalent terminology:

1. The terms belonging phenomena (notions) absent in Russian economic sphere: *custodian - попечитель, кастодиан(*банк или иная организация, принимающая на хранение финансовые активы или другие ценности) *temporary difference - временная разница* а) (разница между величиной прибыли по данным бухгалтерского учета и налогооблагаемой прибылью, возникающая за счет признания доходов и расходов в бухгалтерском и налоговом учете в разных отчетных периодах) б) (отклонение балансовой стоимости статьи актива или обязательства от их налоговой базы); *valuation allowance* - резерв по переоценке [на переоценку], оценочный резерв, резерв под изменение стоимости активов (средства, резервируемые из прибыли на покрытие изменений стоимости активов компании) etc.

2. The terms which call the phenomena appeared in Russian economic sphere but yet did not form a separate category in conceptual structure correspondent to professional sphere. In this case, the undifferentiation of superordinate idea is the reason of the lack of term in L1. For instance: *dilutive securities* – ценные бумаги, разводняющие капитал ; group voting - голосующие акции группы (компаний); mortgage backed liability -

обязательства, обеспеченные залогом недвижимости; *parent holding* - акции в собственной материнской компании; *termination income benefit* - денежное пособие, выплачиваемое по истечении срока действия договора.

It is obvious that terms of the second aspect in L1 do not have the equivalence yet there exists a pre-term, i.e. an equivalent recommended by bilingual dictionaries. This pre-term makes up a combination of terms and current lexical units. Though the equivalent conveys the meaning of the notion in L1 system it does not answer the demands made to terms: it does not indicate the superordinate concept in L1 system, is not characterised by conciseness, structure invariability, and semantic unity. Thus, the diversity of notion systems in both languages illuminated by extra-lingual factors makes unbiased forms to inequivalence beginnings.

In this research into some peculiarities of scientific and technical texts translation was conducted. This issue is of a great interest for the intercultural communication. The difference of English and Russian economic terminology was demonstrated and the possibilities of equivalence consummation during translation of scientific and technical texts terminology were suggested.

3.3 Structural features of economic terms in English and Russian

The term (including scientific and technical terms and terms of organizational and administrative documentation) – is a unit of a peculiar natural or artificial language (word, phrase, abbreviation, symbol, combination of words and letters, characters, a combination of words and numbers, symbols), which has as a result of the current spontaneous or deliberate special collective agreement specific terminological value, which can be expressed either verbally or in some form of formalized and accurately and completely reflects the basic, essential at this level of science and technology criterions of the corresponding concepts.

A.A Reformed outlines the terms "as the unequivocal words, devoid of expressiveness." M.M Glushko defines that "the term - a word or phrase to express concepts and notation of objects having, thanks to his rigorous and precise definitions, clear semantic boundaries and therefore unambiguous within an appropriate classification system."

What is the linguistic nature of the term? Firstly, the term - it is an integral, organic part of the lexical system of language. Secondly, the terms differ from other words for its vast information saturation. The scientific and technical terms given to the most accurate, concentrated and economical determination of a scientific or technical concepts.

The main demand to the term is his uniqueness. In common terms, this requirement is implemented in two ways, so there are two types of terms: 1) general scientific and general technical terms 2) special (nomenclature) terms. The terms do not exist in a language, and a part of a certain terminology. Terminology, as a system of scientific terms, is a subsystem within the overall system of lexical language.

According to the AA Reformed, terminology is a complex system of concepts of the science set out in the appropriate verbal expression. If in the

common language (regardless of the terminology), the word can be multi-valued, then getting into a certain terminology, it becomes unambiguous.

The specifics of the terms as a special category of lexical words is that they are created in the process of production and research activities and, therefore, operate only with people who have the relevant scientific and industrial realities, i.e macro context. Therefore, in compare to the usual words that are clearly in speech communication is provided by the situation or the linguistic context, the uniqueness of the term regulated by extra-linguistic macro context or linguistic micro context.

The term does not require a context as a common word, so it is 1) a member of a specific terminology that supersedes the context; 2) may be used in isolation, e.g in the order of registers or texts in the art, and 3) what should be unambiguous and not in the language in general, and within this terminology.

Within the terms of the lexical system of language exhibit the same properties as the other words, that is peculiar to them and antonyms, and idiomatic. For instance, the term *"valve"* in Mechanical Engineering stands for "valve" in radio "vacuum tube," hydraulics "gate"; The term "*power"* in the physics means "power", "energy", in mathematics - the "degree" in optics - "power zoom lens." The same term can belong to different terminology, the language that is inter-science terminological homonymy, as example the word *reduction* belongs to 1) the economy, 2) in law, 3) in phonetics.

Gradually the content of scientific knowledge is beginning to penetrate and signs we have chosen the language, to saturate and fill them. In the language the word, phrase already inseparable from their meaning, and here the content of scientific knowledge becomes part of the language of science. Scientific knowledge, which found its expression in the word in terms of moving into a qualitatively new stage, including in the semantic system and the structure of a

language of science, becoming a member of the lexical-semantic system of the language.

Terms, phrases, expressing the common holistic concepts have varying degrees of semantic decomposability, in general, they are more stable in comparison with the free from the common language phrases on their lexical-semantic organization. They can be attributed to a number of lexical phrases characteristic feature of which is that the place of one of the components is not filled with any word corresponding category, but only some of which form a certain semantic group.

In English scientific and technical terminology, there are a large number of terms, which consist of several components. For instance: *read-write head for magnetic tape unit* (universal head the memory of the computer tape). Such multicomponent terms refer to two types: 1)irreducible phrases terms; 2)decomposable phrases terms.

Stable terminological phrases are much easier to transfer than complex words - terms, as they have all the components grammatical feature that facilitates the disclosure of semantic relationships between them.

In terms of phrases, grammatical form can be expressed: *suffixes* (selective communication); *prepositions* (system of taxes); *endings* (controlled system). More to say, usually the semantic content of terminological phrases do not allow for any inaccuracies in the interpretation of the terms.

Much attention is paid to the systematic re-established terms. In many areas developed special rules for the formation of terms for concepts or objects of a particular class. Terms, phrases are created by adding a term that refers to a generic term, specifying the signs in order to obtain specific concepts directly related to the

source. Such terms are actually rolled determining lead-in this concept under the more general and at the same time indicating its specific feature

For instance , the English term *tax*, defined as "*a tax, duty, levy, dues, onus, oppression, load, weight, payment under the invoice price, disapproval, reprimand; accusation* " is used as the basis for a number of terms, clarifying the nature of tax collection: *Income tax – подоходный налог; Expenditure tax – налог на расходы; Land-tax –налог на землю; Value-added tax –налог на добавленную стоимость.*

The term - a compound word is most often a combination of two or more bases of nouns that match the forms, driven in dictionaries: *distributable items* (нераспределяемая прибыль), *book value* (балансовая стоимость), etc. Terminology sustainable phrase is usually formed by a combination of an adjective with a noun, participle with a noun or more nouns, prepositions connected: *accounting convention* (метод бухгалтерского учета), *building of competencies* (повышение квалификации), *utilization of looses* (погашение убытков).

The terms - difficult words are increasingly penetrate into the English scientific literature, because the value of a compound word is always more accurate specialized than the value of the corresponding phrases. For instance, a compound word *allweather fighter* («всепогодный истребитель», i.e. тип истребителя, предназначенного как для дневных, так и для ночных действий в любую погоду) and *fighter for all weather* (истребитель, пригодный для использования в любую погоду).

SN Gorelikova formulates a number of formal rules of transfer of binary terms - *"if you can figure out the values of the components, these rules will help to uncover the meaning of a compound word as a whole."*

It is necessary to determine which lexical-semantic category includes the components of a compound word, what they indicate: the objects, actions, and properties, etc. Compound word - term, both components of which represent objects (i.e., machines, equipment, instruments, etc.) is translated differently depending on how much of the data are located between the objects.

Coming to analysis the economic terms in English and Russian we have found the following structural features as: N+N in examples *wheat consumption* (потребление пшеницы) *control system* (система контроля) *laboratory research* (лабораторное исследование) *gas consumption* (газовое потребление). Through examples you can define that the first component of a compound word refers to the object, and the second - his property, essential characteristic of the subject - weight, area, thickness, speed, pressure, etc., The Russian equivalent of the second component receives the form of the nominative case, and the equivalent of the first component - a noun in the genitive case. Compare : *crash test* (проверка аварии) *bank details* (реквизиты банка)

In order to know which number to place a noun denoting the object, you need to find the compound word microcontext corresponding English term as independent words and determine its grammatical number. The most difficult word grammatical number can not be determined, that is, to the components of the complex terms written, often separately, but they are not independent words, but only the basics. And the number of objects pointed by the first component, is not expressed in the compound word.

In the analysis of compound word type "object property +" have to pay attention to whether the concept applies, expressed the second component (i.e property), the subject of which is marked with the first component. If the first component of a compound word - the term refers to a subject, and the second - the action that takes place with this subject, the Russian equivalent of the second

component will be in the form of the nominative case, and the equivalent of the first component - the genitive form. As example: *bank pressure* (the pressure of the bank), etc.

A special challenge in the translation is multicomponent complex words. First of all it is necessary to disclose the value of the main component. A major role in this, of course, plays a context. Then, as part of a multi-component compound word - the term should find internal terms, if any, with the associated words. For example:

1) *control-surface cable adjustment access (access* – люк , *adjustment access* – люк для регулировки, *control-surface cable* – трос руля управления)- means "The value of all of the term - the door to adjust the rudder control cables".

2) *radio wave speed measurement (measurement* – измерение, *speed measurement* – измерение скорости, *radio wave* – радиоволна) – means "The value of the entire term - measurement of radio wave speed".

In Single-word terms in the English language mostly suffixes and prefixes used in the system of the term formation, mainly borrowed from the common, ordinary preformative means English.   This is especially for the chemical terminology, which most fully studied suffixes. In English, the form: 1) names of the main organic compounds and halogen-free - with the suffix - *ine [en]* (amine, fluorine); 2) the names of minority organic compounds - with the suffix - *in [in]* (salicin);3) name of hydrocarbons of acetylene series - with the suffix - *yne [i: n]* (propyne).

Also more or less clear specialization affixes carried out in biological and medical terminology, where the terms are constructed mainly of Latin and Greek roots. For instance, suffix - *us [s]* for nouns in the singular, and the suffix - *i [ai]* - for plural nouns: alveolus - alveoli (alveoli - the alveoli); suffix - *um [m],* for

nouns in the singular, and the suffix - *ia* - for plural nouns: cranium - crania (skulls - skulls). English prefixes *dis-, en* - widely used in the formation of biological terms. For example: *disafforest* (вырубать леса), *enfeeble* (ослаблять), *enrich* (удобрять почву) .

In terms of other branches of systematic specialization suffix values almost non-existent. So here suffixes have a broader meaning, indicating the category to which the sense of the term. As example, using the suffix - *er, - or, - ist* for forming nouns denoting worker specialist: *operator*, *philologist* - as well as machines, tools, devices: *drier* , *computer, cutter*.

Nouns with the specific objective value formed by adding the suffix - *ing, - ment: heating, development, leavings*

Nouns with the abstract value formed with suffixes that express the properties and qualities:-*ness (business);- Ty (safety); - Hood (likelyhood)*.

The suffix - *ing* is used to denote the action and processes in general. For example, *programming rotating, turning.*

The suffix - *(t) ion* is used for the operation of the expression: *activation, composition, revolution*

For scientific and technical terminology in the English language the term is formed as following unproductive suffixes are widely used:- *ment (treatment, filement); - ance, - ence (inductance, divergence).* There are some unproductive prefixes commonly used in term formation: *non-corroding, non-dimensional, non-freezing*

The system is widely used term formation adjective suffix - *wise,* giving the basis of value "in the direction parallel to": *streamwise, slantwise*

Some suffixes and prefixes used in term formation system, non-existent in the conventional English. For instance, the English term formation appeared as-prefix, which is used with the past participle, and passes the value "directly in the state, which has acquired the subject undergoing a process expressed by the participle": *as-cast* (immediately after molding), *as-controlled* (directly after inspection), *as-welded* (immediately after welding).

In many areas developed special rules for the formation of terms for concepts or objects of a particular class. As example, names of various kinds of electron tubes created by analogy with the term electrode with the number of electrodes used in the lamp: *triode, diode*

In conclusion, we denote that one-word terms are heterogeneous in the number of word-forming components. In accordance with the following groups make up this base-word terms:

I. The term structure includes a base: *agent, frame, domain;*

II. The structure of the term of the foundation and one or more affixes: *acknowledgment, application, connectionless;*

III. Terms derived by adding up the basics: *broadcast, network, dial-up;*

IV. The terms, parts formed by adding words: *modem, Internet, netiquette;*

V. Education of the term is done by adding bases and affixation: broadcasting, subnetwork.

Thus, all of the above it can be concluded that due to the complex and multifaceted nature of term, difficulties arise when it is translated. Consideration of the specifics of modern word-building processes found a significant rate of their occurrence. Famous word-formation models in economic terminology realized in

the form of a plurality of subject-specific values, significantly adding to the vocabulary of the language.

A high degree of productivity shows the derivation of foreign origin - prefixes, suffixes, producing bases, as well as the basics of proper names. Despite the stability of tradition and the main ways of word formation, word-formation process results obtained by the number of economic growths were significant.

The analysis of text material made it possible to identify two main classes of macroeconomic terms: single-word terms and phrases. The first class includes terms that consist of a single word (product, price, quality, customer). The second class includes phrases consisting of two or more elements (customer satisfaction). In the second class we can identify two subclasses, which can be differed by interdependence of their elements. The *first subclass* contains phrases elements of which are connected by coordination. In such expressions the word order cannot be changed (*supply and demand, income and expenditure*). This group also includes expressions which may contain more than two phrases (*overall growth and overall development*).*The second subclass* is distinguished by phrases with subordinate connection (*brand value, consumer association).*

Combinations with subordinate connection of the elements are defined in linguistics as regressive and progressive . Regressive ones have defining elements located to the left of the main element. In progressive combinations defining elements are located to the right of main (*liquid assets* - regressive structure, *quantity demanded* - progressive structure).

In this whole subclass several subtypes are as follows. The first subtype are two-word phrases with a subordinate connection which consist of two elements: the main and dependent word. The key word is a noun, and the dependent word may vary:

a) Noun: *market economy, capital expenditure, net profit.* This kind of word combinations are formed on the model of [N1 N], where N - the key word, and the N1 - dependent.

b) An adjective or participle I or II before the main word: *circulating capital, industrial capital, fixed assets.* The phrases are formed on the model of [Adj (Participle) N], where N - the key word, and Adj (Participle) - dependent.

c) The participle II after the main word are *: quantity demanded, quantity supplied.* The phrases are formed on the model of [N Participle II], where the main N-word, and Participle II - dependent.

The second subtype is represented by phrases consisting of three elements, of which we have identified two subtypes.

a) The main word of the phrase is defined by a preposition, which is the dependent word. The phrases are formed on the model of [N (Prep N1)], where N - the main word, and (Prep N1) - dependent. For instance: *fluctuations in expenditure, drop in the market, value of money, underperformance of economy, rate of profit, degree of liquidity.*

b) The main word itself is a combination of words and is determined by dependent word. The phrases are formed on the model of [Adj1 (Adj N)], where Adj N represents the structure of the first type with a subordinate connection and determines Adj1 Adj N. As example : *current market price, European Common Market, aggregate planned expenditure.*

The third subtype are terminological phrases consisting of four words and built on the following models:

– The main word of the phrase is a noun and its dependent word is expressed by the phrase, the structure is either an of-phrase or a for-phrase, and consists of a noun, an adjective or participle with a preposition. For example: *balance of*

national economy, market for farm products.

– In some of the phrases an already established collocation with internal subordinate connection can serve as a main word, the dependent word is usually a prepositional noun or adjective. For instance: *private sector of economy, asset demand for money, private sector of economy.*

The fourth subtype are terminological phrases consisting of five words and built based on the following models:

a) A determined expression serves as the main word, an expression of- phrase as the dependent. The following are other examples of this subtype: *economic functions of financial intermediaries, monetary theory of exchange rate.*

b) The main word of the phrase is a noun and a prepositional noun phrase with a complex internal organization serves as the dependent word. For example: *shifts of the aggregate demand curve, individuals in a rational expectations equilibrium.*

In conclusion we would like to say that the main goal of the research has been achieved, and the tasks have been completed. However, there remain a lot of questions that we have not focused on and that are of interest in terms of the analyzed topic, which means that the research can be continued.

CONCLUSION

Having analyzed the economic terms in the languages of different system we have come to the following conclusion.

The word is one of the fundamental units of language. It is a dialectal unity of form and content. It also may reflect human notion and is considered as the form of their existence. So, to come to one definition of a word is one of the most difficult problem in linguistics, because the simplest word has many different aspects:, its morphological structure, a sound form, it may have various meanings and occur in different word-forms.

Word meaning is not homogeneous, but it is made up of various components, which are described as types of meaning. There are 2 types of meaning to be found in words and word forms: 1)the grammatical meaning;2) the lexical meaning. So, according to this the definition of words can't give an excessive interpretation of all the usages of the word, the aim of the interpreter is to make one or several formulations which will give the reader an opportunity to reach the general understanding of the notion, which can be checked later.

In any scientific and technical text, irrespective of its contents and character, can be completely translated from one language to other, even if in an artwork such branch of knowledge is required, for which in language of translation there is no appropriate nomenclature. In such cases the interpreter more often resorts to interpretation, but becoming of a necessary nomenclature of a realization in a sphere of production or those scientific circles, which are engaged in data by problems.

There are many definitions of "term" . Linguistic Encyclopedic Dictionary defines the term as "a word or phrase denoting the concept of a special area of

knowledge or activity".[30]   The term must have such features as *consistency, precise definition, lack of expressiveness and stylistic neutrality.*

To ensure suitable translation, it is necessary to an interpreter to present the following requests:

1. The substantial acquaintance to a subject, which is treated in the original text.

2. Good enough knowledge of language of an artwork and its lexical and grammatical features in comparison to the native language.

3. Knowledge of the bases' theory of translation, and also receptions of technical translation and skill to use them.

4. Legible introducing about the character of scientific and technical functional style both in language of the original, and in the native language.

5. Acquaintance to accepted conventional signs, abbreviations (cuttings), systems of measures and weights, both in language of the original and in the native language.

The problem of developing economic and business terms became particularly acute in the period of transition from command-based to free- market economy began. The economic terms came mostly in English. Although we are able to meet a lot of economic dictionaries nowadays, there is still a task to create a dictionary which will precisely transmit economic terms from English into Russian. In general, lexicographic problems make an important area of linguistic investigations, being recently marked by the development of new trends in compiling English - Russian economic dictionaries.

Languages for special purposes are the items which are characterised by special reference within a discipline are the 'terms' of that discipline, and

---

[30] Linguistic Encyclopedic Dictionary

collectively they form its 'terminology'; those which function in general reference over a variety of sublanguages are simply called 'words', and their totality the 'vocabulary'. LSP (Languages for special purposes) is a language which is produced by a specific society and used by the group of people sharing the same profession or subject.

So, there are some differences discovered during comparison of some terms in L1 and L2 on the semantic level. They are:

The divergence in morphological and syntactical structure: *consumer demand* - потребительский спрос; *credit rating* - кредитный рейтинг; *interest income* - процентный доход; *parent company* - материнская компания.The divergence in grammatical structure: *risk figure* - показатель риска; *capital market* - рынок капитала; *income tax* - налог на прибыль; *sales tax* -налог с продаж; *order inflow* - поступление заказов; *share turnover* - оборот акций;

The divergence in lexical structure of terms in L1 and L2: *accounting convention* (literally: *правило бухгалтерского учета*) - *метод бухгалтерского учета; building of competencies* (literally: *построение квалификации*) - *повышение квалификации; utilization of losses* (literally: *использование убытков) - погашение убытков.*

The divergence in lexico-grammatical structure of terms in L1 and L2: *inventory* - товарно-материальные запасы; *maintenance* - техническое обслуживание; *nominee* - номинальный акционер *(from "nominee shareholder")*

We would like to say that the main goal of the research has been achieved, and the tasks have been completed. Thus being one of the disputable problems of the contemporary English the economic term in the languages of different system demands further development.

THE LIST OF USED LITERATURE:

1   И.А.Каримов "Чет тилларни ўрганиш тизимини янада такомиллаштириш чора тадбирлари тўғрисида" Ҳалқ сўзи, 2012, 11 декабр, 1-бет

2   Александрова Н.Г. Тенденции развития современной экономической терминологии в английском и русском языках. Когнитивные аспекты изучения языковых явлений в германских языках: Межвузовский сборник научных статей / Н.Г. Александрова. – Самара: Изд-во «Самарский университет», 2000. – 215 с.

3   Андрианов С.Н. Некоторые вопросы построения словарей специальной терминологии. Тетради переводчика. Вып. 2. / С.Н. Андрианов. – М.: Международные отношения, 2004 – 241 с.

4   Арнольд И.В. Лексикология современного английского языка / И.В. Арнольд. – М.: Высш. шк., 2003. – 302 с.

5   Арнольд И.В. Стилистика. Современный английский язык: Учебник для вузов. / И.В. Арнольд. – М.: Флинта: Наука, 2002. – 384 с.

6   Ахманова О.С. Лингвистические проблемы перевода. Сборник статей. / О.С. Ахманова, В.Я. Задорнова. – М.: МГУ, 1998. – 73 с.

7   Бархударов Л.С. Курс лекций по теории перевода. / Л.С. Бархударов, Я.И. Рецкер. – М., 1998. – 263 с.

8   Бархударов Л.С. Язык и перевод: Вопросы общей и частной теории перевода. / Л.С. Бархударов. – М.: Международные отношения, 2005. – 240 с.

9   Борисова Л.И. Лексические трудности перевода научно-технической литературы с английского языка на русский. / Л.И. Борисова. – М.: ВЦП, 1999. – 135 с.

10 Борисова Л.И. Особенности перевода общеупотребительной и общенаучной лексики с английского языка на русский. / Л.И. Борисова. – М.: ВЦП, 2000. – 171 с.

11 Борисова Л.И. Лексико-стилистические трансформации в англо-русских научно-технических переводах. / Л.И. Борисова. – М.: ВЦП, 2003. – 168 с.

12 Борисова Л.И. Особенности семантики общенаучной лексики. Диссертация. / Л.И. Борисова, канд. филол. наук. – М., 2006. – 351 с.

13 Борисова Л.И. Перевод неологизмов с английского языка на русский в научно-технических текстах. / Л.И. Борисова. – М.: ВЦП, 2007. – 114 с.

14 Борисова Л.И. Пособия по научно-техническому переводу (методологический обзор). / Л.И. Борисова. – М.: МПУ, 2000. – 72 с.

15 Борисова Л.И. Лексические особенности англо-русского научно-технического перевода. Учебное пособие. / Л.И. Борисова. – М.: МПУ, 2001. – 208 с.

16 Бреус Е.В. Основы теории и практики перевода с русского языка на английский: Учебное пособие. / Е.В. Бреус. – М.: Изд-во УРАО, 2000. – 208 с.

17 Бреус Е.В. Теория и практика перевода с английского языка на русский: Учебное пособие. / Е.В. Бреус. – М.: Изд-во УРАО, 2001. – 104 с.

18 Бурак А.Л. Введение в практику письменного перевода с русского языка на английский. Этап 1: уровень слова. / А.Л. Бурак. – М.: МГУ им. М.В. Ломоносова, 2002. – 176 с.

19 Ванников Ю.В. Типы научных и технических текстов и их лингвистические особенности. / Ю.В. Ванникова. – М., 1998. – 240 с.

20 Володина М.Н. Когнитивно-информационная природа термина и терминологическая номинация: Дисс. докт. филол. наук. / М.Н. Володина. – М., 1998. – 178 с.

21 Воробьева М.Б. Особенности реализации оценочных значений в научном тексте. Научная литература. Язык, стиль, жанры. / М.Б. Воробьева. – М.: Наука, 2000. – 215 с.

22 Глушко М.М. Функциональный стиль общественного языка и методы его исследования. / М.М. Глушко. – М., 2004. – 198 с.

23 Головин Б.Н. Роль терминологии в научном и учебном общении. Термин и слово. / Б.Н. Головин. – Изд-во ГГУ им. Н.И. Лобачевского, 2000. – 127 с.

24 Грайс Г.П. Логика и речевое общение. Новое в зарубежной лингвистике. Вып. 16. / Г.П. Грайс. – М.: Лингвистическая прагматика, 2005. – 297 с.

25 Гринев С.В. Введение в терминоведение. / С.В. Гринев. – М.: Московский лицей, 1998. – 309 с.

26 Даниленко В.П. Лингвистический аспект стандартизации терминологии. / В.П. Даниленко. – М., 2003. – 280 с.

27 Даниленко В.П. Русская терминология: Опыт лингвистического описания. / В.П. Даниленко. – М.: Наука, 1999. – 246 с.

28 Канделаки Т.Л. Семантика и мотивированность терминов. / Т.Л. Канделаки. – М.: Наука, 2001. – 168 с.

29 Каде О. Проблемы перевода в свете теории коммуникации. Вопросы теории перевода в зарубежной лингвистике: Сборник статей. / О. Каде. – М.: Международные отношения, 2001. – 317 с.

30 Капанадзе Л.А. О понятиях «термин» и «теминология». Развитие лексики современного русского языка. / Л.А. Капанадзе. – М., 2005. – 289 с.

31 Кожина М.М. О речевой системности научного стиля сравнительно с некоторыми другими. / М.М. Кожина. – Пермь, 2002. – 325 с.

32 Комиссаров В.Н. Теория перевода (лингвистические аспекты): Учеб. для ин-тов и фак. ин. яз. /В.Н. Комиссаров. – М.: Высшая школа, 1999. – 253 с.

33 Комиссаров В.Н. Пособие по переводу с английского языка на русский. ч.II / В.Н. Комиссаров, Я.И. Рецкер, В.И. Тархов. – М.: Высшая школа, 2001. – 287 с.

34 Кутина Л.Л. Языковые процессы, возникающие при становлении терминологической системы. Лингвистические проблемы научно-технической терминологии. / Л.Л. Кутина. – М.: Наука, 2000. – 199 с.

35 'Practical Course in Terminology Processing' by Juan C. Sager

36 Maria Teresa Cabré 'Terminology: Theory, Methods, and Applications'

37 Arnold I.V. The English Word M. High School 1986 pp. 143-149

38 http://studall.org/all2-43184.html

39 http://ru.wikipedia.org/wiki/Идеографический_словарь

40 http://www.krugosvet.ru/enc/gumanitarnye_nauki/lingvistika/LEKSIKOGRAFIYA.html