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РАБОТА**

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## **QUALIFICATION PAPER**

on the theme: **COMPARATIVE STUDY OF BUSINESS TERMS IN  
THE ENGLISH AND UZBEK LANGUAGES**

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## INTRODUCTION

English is one of the popular languages of international communication. Its role as a means of communication has been increasing for the years of Independence of the Republic of Uzbekistan. For the years of Independence Uzbekistan established close contacts and relations with many foreign countries: Germany, the USA, Japan, China, England, Korea, India and others. We cooperate with our foreign partners in different spheres of life: economy, culture, education, trade, agriculture and others. English is being taught at all the educational establishments: secondary schools, academic lyceums, colleges and universities.

The Decree of the President of the Republic of Uzbekistan “On measures to further improve foreign language learning system” adopted on December 10 in 2012 put some actual issues: to start teaching foreign languages at the secondary schools from the 1-st form; to reform the curriculums and programmes in foreign languages; to provide students and teachers with all the necessary textbooks and manuals; to train highly-qualified teachers in foreign languages and other issues.[1:1].

In the period of market economy, Uzbekistan has relations and cooperation with many foreign companies and joint ventures. Today there have been many changes in all spheres on the basis of Strategy of Actions on the development of the Republic of Uzbekistan on the five main directions in 2017-2021.

In the Decree of the President of the Republic of Uzbekistan №2909 “On measures of further development of the system of higher education” adopted on April 20 in 2017 it is emphasized the importance of “establishing close perspective partnership relations with leading foreign educational establishments, wide implementation into educational process of innovative pedagogical technologies, curriculums and materials based on international educational standards” [2:4 ].

The study of English for specific purposes, including terms in different spheres of life, particularly commercial terms is of a great importance. Etymologically the vocabulary of the English language consists of two groups –

the native words and the borrowed words. The etymological linguistic analysis showed that the borrowed stock of words is larger than the native stock of words.

A native word is a word which belongs to the original English stock, which belongs to Anglo-Saxon origin. To the native words we include words from Common Germanic language and from Indo-European stock. Borrowed words are words taken over from other languages. When we speak about the role of native and borrowed words in the English language, we must not take into consideration only the number of them. but their semantic, stylistic character, their word building ability, frequency value, collocability (valency) and the productivity of their word-building patterns [ 10:67; 29:117-118].

The study of terms from different spheres: economy, culture, education, science, commerce and others plays a great role in life, because today we have relationships with our foreign partners and need learning terms for the communication.

Terms are words denoting notions of special fields of knowledge. Terms are generally associated with a definite branch of science. With the increase of science and technique to satisfy the growing needs of mankind many words that were once terms have gradually lost their qualities as terms and have passed into the common literary vocabulary. It is a well-known fact that terms are monosemantic and have not any contextual meaning. In most cases they have a denotational free meaning. But in some situations terms may have a figurative or emotionally coloured meaning. When a term is used in other styles but scientific it may cease to be a term and becomes an ordinary word [29:26].

The Qualification Paper deals with the terms of business English, commercial terms and their equivalents in Uzbek. The Qualification Paper consists of an Introduction, two main chapters, conclusion, bibliography and appendix. In Introduction we denote the main aim, tasks of the work, its actuality, novelty, theoretical and practical significance.

**The actuality of the Qualification Paper** is conditioned by the fact, that today learning English for specific purposes is very important. In the work we

make attempts to study the terms of commerce, which take a certain place in the vocabulary system, because our republic has close links with other developed foreign countries in the field of trade. Uzbekistan has relations with other countries and the whole world strives to global international economic unification and as the globalization grows, the countries of the world cooperate with each other.

**The object of the research paper** is the terms in the field of commerce that belong to business English. Commercial terms may arise significant problems before the translators in economic sphere, that's why it is necessary to find their equivalents in the native language. In connection with this we deal with the issues of translation.

**The aim of the research paper** is to study business English as a type of English for specific purposes, to reveal the peculiarities of commercial terms as well as their translation into Uzbek. For the lack of a great number of English-Uzbek dictionaries, especially in such fields as economy, Uzbek readers face difficulties in understanding them. As we know mass media uses Internet and other sources to spread information from the world trade. The interpreters translate news directly from English into Uzbek and they come across terms, which have different definition and interpretation. In the given work we'll make an attempt to come over these above-mentioned difficulties and obstacles in translation.

**The tasks of the work** comprise the following questions:

- to give information about the importance of English for specific purposes and its place in teaching English as a foreign language;
- to give overall picture of translation theory and terms;  
to characterize terms and special terminology;
- to distinguish commercial terms and to reveal their peculiarities;
- to analyze commercial terms according to their properties and give their equivalents in Uzbek.

**The subject of the Qualification Paper** is the works of the famous linguists devoted to the study of terms and their place in the vocabulary system of English. Terms belong to the literary layer of the vocabulary, they are usually used in the scientific style. Terms were investigated in the works of scholars: V.V.Vinogradov, A.A.Ufimtseva, A.V.Smirnitskiy, O.S.Akhmanova, A.V.Koonin A.Shaikovich, J.Buranov, O.Muminov, J.Trier, V.Croff, G.Ibson, and others.

**Methods and methodology of the work.** Methodology of the research work is based on the works of the outstanding linguists, scholars: T.Hutchison and A.Waters “English for Specific Purposes” “A Learning-Centred Approach” (1987), as well as E.Dudley and St. Johns “Developments in ESP a Multi-Disciplinary Approach” (1998). Besides, the method of description and method of semantic analysis will be used in the study of the terms in business English.

**The novelty of the work** is in the following: on the basis of the brief review on English for specific purposes the author will try to show its importance especially today when our country has close relations and cooperation with other foreign countries. There will be done the structural and semantic analysis of terms on the material of commercial terms, and their correspondences and equivalents in Uzbek will be presented.

The Qualification Paper has theoretical and practical significance.

**Theoretical significance of the work** lies in the attempt to give the review on the definition of terms and their characteristic features. As an example we'll focus our attention on the English commercial terms and give their equivalents or translations in Uzbek, it is one step forward in the field of translation theory. It may help for further improvement and development of the theory and practice of translation as a whole.

**Practical significance of the work** is in the following: the materials and results of the work may be used at the lectures and seminars at the lessons in the disciplines “English Lexicology”, “Theory and practice of translation” for the students at the institutes and universities, it may also be used for compiling

dictionaries, manuals, and in negotiations between companies or joint ventures, translating from English into Uzbek and on the contrary, in business sphere.

**Chapter I** deals with the general characterization of the English word stock and its layers: literary, neutral and colloquial. Terms take a certain place in the English word stock, they belong to the literary layer of the vocabulary and they are mainly used in the style of scientific prose. In this chapter some data about the specific features of terms will be presented.

**Chapter II** contains the characterization of English for specific purposes. As with most disciplines in human activity, ESP was a phenomenon grown out of a number of converging trends of which we will mention three most important:

Firstly, the expansion of demand for English to suit specific needs of a profession. Secondly, developments in the field of linguistics (attention shifted from defining formal language features to discovering the ways in which language is used in real communication, causing the need for the development of English courses for specific group of learners. Thirdly, educational psychology (learner's needs and interests have an influence on their motivation and effectiveness of their learning). From the definition, we can see that ESP can but is not necessarily concerned with a specific discipline, nor it aimed at a certain age group or ability range. ESP should be seen simple as an 'approach' to teaching, or what Dudley-Evans describes as an 'attitude of mind' who state, "ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning" [16:19]. The most effective approaches in teaching business English are Task-based and Content-based approaches.

In Conclusion we sum up the results of the work, its contribution into methods of teaching English as a foreign or second language, its theoretical and practical significance. In Bibliography we give the list of the literature used in the work, published in our country and abroad and materials recieved from the Internet.

Appendix contains samples of tasks and the vocabulary of the terms in business English and their equivalents in Uzbek.



# CHAPTER I

## GENERAL CHARACTERIZATION OF THE ENGLISH WORD STOCK.

### 1.1. The English vocabulary stock.

In order to get a more or less clear idea of the word stock of any language it must be presented as a system, the elements of which are interconnected, interrelated and yet independent. Some linguists, who clearly see the systematic character of language as a whole, deny, however, the possibility of systematically classifying the vocabulary. They say, that the word stock of any language is so large and so heterogeneous that it is impossible to formalize it and therefore present it in any system. The words of a language are thought of as a chaotic body whether viewed from their origin and development or from their present state.

Indeed, the coinage of new lexical units, the development of meaning, the differentiation of words according to their stylistic evaluation and their spheres of usage, the correlation between meaning and concept and other problems connected with vocabulary are so multivarious and varied that it is difficult to grasp the systematic character of the word stock of a language, though it co-exists with the system of other levels- phonetics, morphology and syntax. To deny the systematic character of the word stock of a language amounts to denying the systematic character of language as a whole, words being elements in the general system of the language.

The word stock of a language may be represented as a definite system in which different aspects of words may be singled out as interdependent. A special branch of linguistic science – lexicology – has done much to classify vocabulary. A glance at the contents of any book on lexicology will suffice to ascertain the outline of the system of the word stock of the language.

For our purpose, i.e. for linguistics, a special type of classification that is stylistic classification is the most important.

In accordance with the already mentioned division of language into literary and colloquial, we may represent the whole of the word stock of the English language as being divided into three main layers:

the literary layer,  
the neutral layer,  
the colloquial layer.

The literary and the colloquial layers contain a number of subgroups each of which has a property it shares with all the subgroups within the layer. This common property, which unites the different groups of words within the layer, may be called its aspect. It is this that makes the layer more or less stable. The aspect of the colloquial layer of words is its lively spoken character. It is this that makes it unstable, fleeting [ 29:24-25].

The aspect of the neutral layer is its universal character. That means it is unrestricted in its use. It can be employed in all styles of language and in all spheres of human activity. It is this that makes the layer the most stable of all. Neutral words form the bulk of the English vocabulary and they are used in both: literary and colloquial layers. Neutral words are the main source of synonymy and polysemy [44:78].

The literary layer of words consists of groups accepted as legitimate members of the English vocabulary, it includes the common literary words and special literary vocabulary. Common literary words are chiefly used in writing and polished speech.

The literary vocabulary consists of the following groups of words:

- a) common literary;
- b) terms and learned words;
- c) poetic words;
- d) archaic words;
- e) barbarisms and foreign words;
- f) literary coinages including nonce-words

The colloquial layer of words as qualified in most English or American dictionaries is not infrequently limited to a definite language community or confined to a special locality where it circulates. The colloquial vocabulary falls into the following groups:

- a) common colloquial words;
- b) slang;
- c) jargonisms;
- d) professional words;
- e) dialectical words;
- f) vulgar words;
- g) colloquial coinages;

The common literary, neutral and common colloquial words are grouped under the term standard English vocabulary. Other groups in the literary layer are regarded as special literary vocabulary and those in the colloquial layer are regarded as special colloquial (non-literary) vocabulary.

### **Terms and other words**

In addition to terms, a text on some special problem usually contains a considerable proportion of so-called learned words, such as approximate (a), commence (v), compute (v), exclude (v), feasible (a), heterogeneous (a), homogeneous (a), indicate (v), initial (a), internal (a), miscellaneous (a), multiplicity (n), respectively (adv). This layer is especially rich in adjectives.

The main factor at the bottom of all problems, concerning style is the concept of choice and synonymy in the widest sense of the word. All learned words have their everyday synonyms, which may seem either not dignified enough for scientific usage or less precise. The layer also has some other purely linguistic peculiarities. It has been noted, for instance, that the learned layer of vocabulary is characterized by a phenomenon which may be appropriately called lexical simpleton. This term is used for pairs like father (n) - paternal (a), name(n)-domestic (a), lip (n) - labial (a), mind (n) - mental (a), son (n)-filial (a), sun (n) –

solar (a). In all these cases a stylistically neutral noun of native origin is correlated with a borrowed relative adjective. The semantic relationship between them is quite regular. All these adjectives can characterize something through their relation to the object named by the noun. There exist also adjectives of the same root produced by derivation, but they are qualitative adjectives, besides, only some of them (like fatherly, peaceful) show the regular semantic pattern, others (like homely "simple", "plan") show irregular semantic derivation [20:56; 21].

The learned vocabulary comprises some archaic connectives not used elsewhere:

hereby	hereafter	hereupon	herein	herewith
thereby	whereafter	whereupon	wherein	therewith
whereby	thereafter	thereupon	therein	

It also contains double conjunctions, like *moreover*, *furthermore*, *however*, *such as*, and group conjunctions: *in consequence*, *in as much as*, etc. There may be an abundance of obsolete connectives elsewhere, but in this type of speech they are especially frequent because English tradition for business correspondence requires in many cases the whole message to be compressed into one sentence, no matter how many clauses this might involve.

There are some set expressions used in scientific and other special texts: as follows, as early as, in terms of, etc. By way of example a short quotation from a linguistic text by W. Croff may be helpful: such a description would be in terms of historical development and of empirical conditions such as the relative position of the components, the morphological and syntactical treatment, accentual relations, systematic structure and contrast, etc [40:44].

When the occasion is formed, in official documents and business correspondence some words may be used which in ordinary conversation would have pretentious or jocular ring. A short list of these is given below with corresponding stylistically neutral words in brackets:

accomodation (room)

comestibles (food)  
conveyance (carriage)  
dispatch (send off)  
donation (gift)  
emoluments (pay)  
forenoon (morning)  
obtain (get)  
summon (send for)  
sustain (suffer), etc.

The objectionable variants of these vocabularies have received the derogatory names of officialese and journalese. Their chief drawback is their triteness: both are given to clichés.

## **1.2. Some characteristics of a term**

### **A. Definitions of the concept “term”**

In the previous paragraph we spoke about the vocabulary and layers of the vocabulary and touched upon terms in the literary vocabulary layer. Terms are words denoting notions of special fields of knowledge. Terms were the object of many investigations [3, 41,42]. Here are the definitions of the term given by the famous scholars.

“All scientists are linguists to some extent. They are responsible for devising a consistent terminology, a skeleton language to talk about their subject-matter. Philologist and philosophers of speech are in the peculiar position of having to evolve a special language to talk about language itself” [4:107]. (Stephen Ullmann).

This quotation makes clear one of the essential characteristics of a term, that is, its highly conventional character. A term is generally very easily coined and easily accepted; and new coinages as easily replace out-dated ones [5:67]. Terms therefore are rather transitory by nature, through they may remain in the language as relics of a former stage in the development of a particular branch of science.

“ A word is organically one with its meaning; likewise a term is one with a concept. Conceptualization levels, as it was, language behind, although the words remain as (scientific or philosophical) terms. Linguistically the difference is important in that terms are much more easily substitutable by other terms than are words by other words: it is easier to replace, say, the term phonology by phonemics (provided I make it clear what is meant), than to replace everyday words like *table* and *chair* by other words” [23: 178]. (John.W.M.Verhaar).

Terms are generally associated with a definite branch of science and therefore with a series of other terms belonging to that particular branch of science. Terms know no isolation. They always came in clusters, either in a text on the subject to which they belong, or in special dictionaries which, unlike general dictionaries, make a careful selection of terms. Taken all together, these clusters of terms form the nomenclature, or system of names, for the objects of study of any particular branch of science. Terms are characterized by a tendency to be monosemantic and therefore easily call forth the required concept [23: 88] .

Terms are mostly the notions of some branch of science. Therefore it may be said that they belong to the scientific style. But their use is not confined to this style. They may as well appear in other style – in newspaper style, in publicistic style, in the belles-lettres style and practically in all other existing styles. But their function in this case changes. They no longer fulfill their basic function, that of bearing an exact reference to given notion or concept. The function of terms, if encountered in other styles, is either to indicate the technical peculiarities of the subject dealt with, or to make some reference to the occupation of a character whose language would naturally contain special words and expressions [25:92].

In this connection it is interesting to analyze the stylistic effect of the medical terminology used by A. J. Cronin in his novel “ The Citadel”. The frequent use of medical terms in the novel is explained by its subject – matter – the life of physician – and also by the fact that the writer himself is a physician and finds it natural to use medical terminology. Here is an extract from the novel by A.J.Cronin “The Citadel”:

He sat in his *surgery* one evening towards the end of April. It was nearly nine o'clock when a young woman entered. She gazed at him uncertainty...

She puffed her hands. "It's my hands..." He looked at her hands, the palms of which were covered by reddish *dermatitis*, rather like *psoriasis*. But it was not *psoriasis*.

"This is rather an uncommon skin condition, Miss Gramb. It's no good *treating* it *locally*. It's due to a *blood condition* and the only way to get rid of it by *dieting*."

"No *medicine*? No one ever told me that before."

"I'm telling you now". He laughed and, taking his pad, drew out a diet for her, adding also a list of food which she must absolutely avoid.[30:26-27].

In this extract the author uses the following medical terms as *dermatitis* (skin disease), *psoriasis* (a chronic skin disease) and common literary words which acquire the status of terms in the text: *blood condition*, *treating*, *locally*, *dieting*.

Generally, terms are used in the language of science but with certain stylistic purpose they may be used in the language of emotive prose. As we can see from the above-given example, A.J.Cronin used a lot of medical terms in some of his books to make the narration vivid, bright and close to life.

The piling up of difficult and special terms hinders the reader's understanding of the text even when the writer strives to explain them. Moreover, such an accumulation of special terminology often suggests that the author is showing off his erudition. Once a great statesman said that terms must not be over-used. It has been pointed out that those who are learning use fore more complicated terms than those who have already learned [25:59].

There is an interesting process going on in the development of any language. With the increase of general education and the expansion of technique to satisfy the ever – growing needs and desires of mankind, many words that were once terms have gradually lost their qualities as terms and have passed in to the common literary vocabulary. This process may be called "determinization". Such words as *radio*, *television* and the like have long being in common use and their

terminological character is no longer evident. A good writer will confined himself to the use of terms that are easily understood from the context and those also that he finds absolutely necessary in the development of his theme.

Here is an example of immoderate use of special terminology bordering on common literary vocabulary:

“There was a long conversation – a long wait. His father come back to say it was doubtful whether they could make the loan eight percent, then being secured for money, was a small rate of interest, considering its need. For ten percent Mr.Kuzel might make a call – loan. Frank went back to his employer, whose commercial choler rose at the report “[26:122].

(Th. Dreiser, “The Financier “)

Such terms as “loan”, ”rate of interest ” and phrase “to secure for money” are widely known financial terms which to the majority of the English and American reading public need no explanation. The terms used here do not bear any special meaning. Moreover, if they are not understood they may to some extent be neglected. It will suffice if the reader has a general idea, vague though it may be, of the actual meaning of passage is not to explain the process of business negotiations, but to create the environment of a business atmosphere or to characterize a person through his calling and his consequent made of expression.

Sometimes terms are used with a satirical function. Here is an interesting example [30:27]:

“What a fool Rawdon Crowley has been”, Clump replied, “to go and marry a governess! There was something about the girl too”.

“Green eyes, fair skin, pretty figure, *famous frontal development*”, Squills remarked.

(W.M. Thackeray ,“Vanity Fair”)

The words “frontal” and “development”, in addition to their ordinary meanings, have a terminological aspect, i.e., they belong both to the common literary stock and to a special group of the literary vocabulary, to the science of



anatomy. But being paired they lose their common aspect and become purely terminological. The combination becomes, as it were, an anatomical term signifying “breast”. But being preceded by the word “famous” used in the sense indicated by the Shorter Oxford Dictionary as “ a strong expression of approval (chiefly colloquial): excellent, capital”, the whole expression becomes satirical.

In the following passage the metaphorical use of “little animal”, causes the terms to assume a satirical function:

“I should like”, said young Jolyon, ”to lecture on it: Properties and qualities of a Forsyte. This *little animal*, disturbed by the ridicule of his own *sort*, is unaffected in his motions by the laughter of strange *creatures* (you and I). *Hereditarily* disposed to *myopia*, he recognizes only the persons and *habitats* of his own *species*, among which he *passes an existence* of competitive *tranquility*”

(J. Galsworthy “The man of Property”)

The metaphor “animal” has drawn into its terminological aspect such words and word combinations as “sort”, “pass an existence”, “tranquility”. On the other hand, the word “animal” used as term involves other terms from the nomenclature of biology: “creature”, species” habitats”, myopia” (med.) [26:144].

Brian Foster in his book “The Changing English Language” writes: “...science is one of the most powerful influences molding the English language into fresh shapes at the present time. Scientific writing is not highly esteemed for its elegance-one recalls the tale of the scientist who alluded to a certain domain of enquiry as a ‘virgin field pregnant with possibilities’ – but scientific jargon and modes of thought inevitably come to the fore in a society which equates civilization with chromium-plated bath taps. Nor does the process date from yesterday, for we have long been talking of people being ‘galvanized’ into activity or going ‘full steam ahead’, but nowadays this tendency to prefer technical imagery is ever-increasing, so that science can truly be said to have ‘sparked off a chain-reaction’ in the linguistic sphere” [17:12].

This quotation clearly shows how easily terms and terminological combinations become determinized.

## **B. Different approaches to terms**

A further subdivision within the lexico-grammatical group is achieved in the well-known thematic subgroups, such as terms of kinship, names for parts of the human body, color terms, military term, commercial terms and so on. The basis of grouping this time is not only linguistic but also extra – linguistic: the words are associated because the things they name occur together and are closely connected in reality. It has been found that these words constitute quite definitely articulated spheres held together by differences, oppositions and distinctive values. For an example it is convenient to turn to the adjectives. These are known to be subdivided into qualitative and relative [31: 59]. Among the first, adjectives characterize a substance for shape, color, physical or mental qualities, speed, size, etc. are distinguished.

The group of color terms has always attracted the attention of linguists because it permits research of lexical problems of primary importance. The most prominent among them is the problem of the systematic or non—systematic character of vocabulary and of the relationship between thought and language. There are many hundreds of articles written about color terms [33:34].

V.A. Moscovitch gives a clear systematic description of this microsystem in English. The basic colour name system comprises four words: blue, green, yellow, red; they cover the whole spectrum. All the other words denoting colours bring details into this scheme and form subsystems of the first and second order, which may be considered as synonymic series with corresponding basic terms as their dominants. Thus red is taken as a dominant for the subsystem of the first order: scarlet, orange, crimson, rose, and the subsystem of the second degree is: vermilion, wine-red, cherry, coral, copper-red, etc. Words belonging to the basic system differ from words belonging to subsystems not only semantically but in some other features as well [39:143]. These features are:

- a) Frequency of use
- b) Motivation
- c) Simple or compound character

d) Stylistic coloring

e) Combining power

The basic terms, for instance, are frequent words belonging to the first thousand of words in H. S. Eaton's "semantic frequency list"; their motivation is lost in present – day English. They are all native words of long standing. The motivation of color terms in the subsystems is very clear: they are derived from the names of fruit (orange), flowers (pink), coloring stuffs (indigo). Basic system words and most of the first degree terms are root words, the second degree terms are derivatives or compounds: coppered, jade – green, sky – colored. Stylistically the basic terms are definitely neutral, the second degree terms are either special or poetic. [8:87]. The meaning is widest in the four basic terms, it gradually narrows down from subsystem to subsystem.

Thematic groups as well as ideographic groups (in which words belong to different parts of speech are linguistically and thematically related) are mostly stupid diachronically on the principles of comparative linguistics.

A.A. Ufimtseva's monograph on the historical development of the words *early, land, ground; middan – zearð, molde, folde and hruse* centers round Old English *eorpe* — earth denoting various aspects of the same notion and describes in great detail the semantic evolution of these words from the Old English period up to the present. The set in this case is defined by enumerating basis of their meanings, This author calls her groups lexico – semantical and system underlying the vocabulary. The difficulty, however, lies in the transition from this very limited subset of nouns to the whole of the vocabulary. The possibilities of transferring the results on the vocabulary system remain undefined.

The author succeeds in bringing forth different types of ties within a lexical system. Her comparative analysis of the semantic structures of the words *land, ground, middan – zearð* very definitely shows particular and concrete manifestations of general feature of a notion (and consequently every component of meaning) may serve simultaneously as uniting for equivalent lexical elements and differentiating with respect to other units. Thus all the semantic variants of the

word land are united by the meaning of “the feature that characterizes extension in space”; with respect to all the other words(*grund, eorpe, middan – zearð, folde, molde*) the same feature is distinctive [43:133].

The ideographic subgroups are independent of classification into parts of speech. Words and expressions are here classed not according to their signification, i.e. to the system of logical notions. These subgroups may comprise nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs together, provided they refer to the same notion.

Thus, V.I. Agamdrhanova unites into one group such words as *light (n), bright (adj), shine(v)* and other words connected with the notion of *light* as something permitting living beings to see the surrounding objects [29:146] .

The approach resembles the much discussed theory of semantic fields but is much more precise, because this author gives purely linguistic criteria according to which words belonging to the group may be determined. The equivalence of words in this case is reflected in their valency.

The theory of semantic fields continues to engage the attention of linguists. A great number of articles and full – length monographs have been written on this topic and the discussion is far from being closed.

Jost Trier’s conception of linguistic fields is based on Saussure’s theory of language as asynchronous system of networks held together by differences, oppositions and distinctive values. The starting point of the whole field. J. Trier shows that they form an interdependent lexical sphere where the significance of each unit is determined by its neighbors. The semantic areas of the units limit are another and cover up the whole sphere. This sphere he called a linguistic, conceptual or lexical field. His definition is:

“Filed are linguistic realities existing between single words and the total vocabulary; they are parts of a whole and resemble words in that they combine into some higher unit, and the vocabulary in that they resolve themselves into smaller units” [13:83-95].

Since the publication of J. Trier’s book, the field theory has proceeded along different lines, and several definitions of the basics notion have been put forward.

A search for objective criteria made W. Parzig, G. Ipson and other authors narrow the conception down. Ipson studies Indo-European names of metals and notices their connection with color adjectives. W. Parzig pays attention to regular contextual ties: *dog – bark, blind – see, see-, eye*. A. Jolles takes up correlative pairs like *right – left*.

The greatest merit of the field theories lies in their attempt to find linguistic criteria disclosing the systematic character of language. Their structuralist orientation is consistent. J. Treir's most important shortcoming is his idealistic methodology. He regards language as a super-individual cultural product shaping our concept and our whole knowledge of the world. His ideas about the influence of language upon thought, and the existence of an "intermediate universe" of concepts interposed between man and universe, is wholly unturnable. Freed from its idealistic fetters, Tier's theory may, if properly developed, have far-reaching consequences in modern semantics. At this point mention should be made of influential and promising statistical work by A. Shaikevitch. This investigation is based on the hypothesis that semantically related words must occur near one another in the text, and vice versa, if the words often occur in the text together they must be semantically related.

Words were chosen from concordance dictionaries for Chaucer, Spenser, Shakespeare and several other English poets. The material was studied statistically, and the results proved the hypothesis to be correct [3: 144]. Groups were obtained without making use of their meaning on a strictly formal basis and their elements proved to be semantically related. For example : faint, feeble, weary, sick, tedious and whole "healthy" formed one group Thin, think, subtle also came together. The experiment shows that a purely formal criterion of co-occurrence can serve as a basis of semantic equivalence.

A syntactic approach to the problem of semantic field has been intuited by the Moscow structuralist group. From their point of view, the detailed syntactic properties of the word are its meaning. Y. Apresyan proposes an analysis the material of which includes a list of configuration patterns (phrase types) of the

language as revealed by syntactic analysis, an indication of the frequency of each configuration pattern and an enumeration of meanings that occur in each pattern. Preliminary study of English verbs as constituents of each pattern have yielded corresponding sets of verbs with some semantic feature in common [4, 5].

For different purposes of study different types of grouping of words may be effective. Words joined together by one common semantic component form semantic fields [17:68]. A semantic field can therefore be described on the basis of the valency potential of its members. Since a correlation has been found between the frequency of a configuration pattern and the number of word meanings which may appear in it, Y. Apresyan proposes that a hierarchy of increasingly comprehensive word fields should be built by considering configuration patterns of increasing frequency. The German linguist Jost Trier shows that the significance of each unit in the semantic field is determined by its neighbours, A. Shaikevich says that semantically related words must occur near one another in the text. If the words often occur in the text together they must be semantically related and they form a semantic field.

Thus, we can see different approaches to the definition and interpretation of the concept “term”. The brief review of the works of the famous scholars and linguists on this issue helps us determine the place of terminology in the English vocabulary stock and understand the main characteristic features of this concept.

### **1.3. Special terminology.**

Sharply defined extensive semantic fields are found in terminological systems. Terminology constitutes the greatest part of every language vocabulary. It is also its most intensely developing part, i.e. the class giving the largest number of new formations. Terms are words denoting notions of special fields of knowledge. A term is generally very easily coined and easily accepted; new coinages easily replace out-dated ones.

Terms are generally associated with a definite branch of science. With the increase of science and technique to satisfy the growing needs of mankind many words that were once terms have gradually lost their qualities as terms and have

passed into the common literary vocabulary. Each field of science has its own terminology.

Terminology of a language consists of many systems of terms. We shall call a term any word or word – group used to name a notion characteristic of some special field of knowledge, industry or culture. The scope and content of the notion that a term serves to express are specified by definitions in literature on the subject. The word *utterance*, for instance, may be regarded as a term since Z. Harris, Ch. Fries and other representatives of descriptive linguistics attach to it the following definition:

“*An utterance* is any stretch of talk by one person before and after which there is a silence”[17:74].

Many of the influential works on linguistics that appeared in the last years devote much attention to the problems of sociolinguistics. Sociolinguistics may be roughly defined as the study of the influence produced upon language by various social factors. It is not difficult to understand that this influence is particularly strong in lexis. Now, terminology is precisely that part of lexis where this influence is not only of paramount importance, but where it is recognized so that terminological systems are purposefully controlled. Almost every system of special terminology is nowadays fixed and analyzed in glossaries approved by authorities, special communications and prominent scholars [15].

A term is in many respects a very peculiar type of word. An ideal term is monosemantic and when used within its own sphere, doesn't depend on the micro – context, provide it is not expressed by a figurative variant of a polysemantic word. Its meaning remains constant until some new discoveries or inventions change the referent or the notion. Polysemy, if it arises, is a drawback so that all the speakers and writers on special subject are very careful to avoid it. Polysemy may be tolerated in one form only, namely if the same term has various meanings in different fields of science. The term *alphabet* and *word*, for example, have in mathematics a meaning very different from those accepted in linguistics.

Being mostly independent of the context a term can have no contextual meaning whatever. The only meaning possible is a denotational free meaning. A good term is intended to ensure a one – to – one correspondence between morphological arrangement and content [31:58]. No emotional coloring or evaluation are possible when the term is used within its proper sphere. As to connotation or stylistic coloring, they are superseded in terms by the connection with the other members of some particular terminological system and by the persistent associations with this system when the terms is used out of its usual sphere.

A term can obtain a figurative or emotionally colored meaning only when taken out of its sphere and used in literary or colloquial speech. But in that case it ceases to be a term and its denotational meaning may also become very vague. It turns into an ordinary word. The adjective *atomic* used to describe the atomic structure of matter was until 1945 as emotionally neutral as words like *quantum* or *parallelogram*. But since that time it has assumed a new implication, so that the common phrase *this atomic age*, which taken literally has no meaning at all, is now used to denote an age of great scientific progress, but also holds connotations of ruthless menace and monstrous destructions.

Every branch and every school of science develop a special terminology adopted to their nature and methods. Its development represents an essential part of research work and is of paramount importance, because it can either help or hinder progress. The great physiologist I.P.Pavlov, when studying the higher nervous activity, prohibited his colleagues and pupils to see such phrases like *the dog thinks, the dog wants, the dog remembers*; he believed that these words interfered with objective observation.

The appearance of structural schools of linguistics has completely changed linguistic terminology. A short list of some frequently used terms will serve to illustrate the point: *allomorph, allophone; constituent immediate, constitute distribution, complementary distribution, contrastive distribution; morph, morphophonemics, morphotactics* .



Using the new terms in context one can say that phonologists seem to establish the system, pattern or structure of archiphonemes, phonemes and phonemic variants, based primarily on the principle of two fold choice or binary opposition. All the italicized words in the above sentence are terms. No wonder therefore that the intense development of linguistics made it imperative of linguistic terms now in current use. Such work on terminology standardization has been going on in almost all branches of science and engineering since the an active part in it, while leaving their own terminology in a sad state of confusion. Now this work of systematization of linguistic terms is well under way. A considerable number of permanent UNESCO commission is planning to publish a series of glossaries for various linguistic schools. These efforts are of paramount importance, the present state of linguistic terminology being quite inadequate creating a good deal of ambiguity and misunderstanding.

The terminology of a branch of science is not simply a sum total of its terms but a definite system terms may be regarding the system of its notions. Terminological systems may be regarded as intersecting sets because some terms belong simultaneously to several terminological systems [4]. There is no harm in this if the meaning of the terms and their definitions remain constant, or if the respective branches of knowledge do not meet; where this is not so, much ambiguity can arise. The opposite phenomenon, i.e. the synonymy of terms, is no less dangerous for very obvious reasons. Scholars are apt to suspect that their colleagues who use terms different from those favoured by themselves, are either talking nonsense or else are confused in their thinking. An interesting way out is offered by one of the most modern developments in world science, by cybernetics. It offers a single vocabulary and a single set of concepts suitable for represent in the most diverse types of systems: in linguistics and biological aspects of communication no less than in various engineering professions. This is of paramount importance, as it has been repeatedly found in science that the discovery of analogy or relation between two fields lead to each field helping the development of the other.

Such notions and terms as quantity of information, redundancy, entropy, feedback and many more are used in various disciplines. Today linguists, no less than other fields of learning and keep abreast of general progress.

Up till now we have been dealing with problems of linguistic terminology. These are only a part of the whole complex of the linguistic problems concerning terminology. It goes without saying that there are terms for all the different specialists. Their variety is very great, e.g.: amplitude (physics), antibiotic (medicine), arabesque (ballet), feedback (cybernetics), fission (chemistry), frame (cinema). Many of the terms that in the first period of their existence are known to a few specialists, later become used by wide circles of laymen. Some of these are of comparatively recent origin. Here are a few of them, with the year of their first appearance given in brackets:

Stratosphere	(1908)	gene	(1909)
Quantum	(1910)	vitamin	(1912)
Isotope	(1913)	behaviorism	(1914)
Penicillin	(1929)	cyclotron	(1932)
Ionosphere	(1932)	radar	(1942)
transistor	(1952)	bionics	(1960)

The origin of terms shows four main channels, two of which are specific for terminology. These specific ways are:

a) The use of combining words (compounds) from Latin and Greek like aerodrome, aerodynamics, cyclatron, microfilm, telegenic, telegraph, thermonuclear, telemechanics, supersonic. The process is common to terminology in many languages;

b) Borrowings from another terminological system within the same language whenever there is any affinity between the respective fields. Sea terminology, for instance, lent many words to aviation vocabulary which in its turn made the starting point for the terminology adopted in the conquest of space. If we

turn back to linguistics we shall come across many terms borrowed from rhetoric: metaphor, metonymy, synecdoche and others [21, 23].

The remaining two methods are common with other layers of the vocabulary. These are word – formation in which composition semantic shift and derivation take the leading part and borrowing from other languages. The character of the terms borrowed, the objects and ideas they denote, are full of significance for the history of world culture. Since the process of borrowing is very marked in every field, all terminology has a tendency to become international. An important peculiarity of terms as compared to the rest of the vocabulary is that they are much more subject to purposeful control. We have already mentioned special establishments busy with improving terminology. We must also pay attention to the fact that it is often possible to trace a term to this author. It is, for instance, known that the terms *anode* and *cathode* were coined by M. Faraday, the term *vitamin* by Dr. Funk in 1912, the term *bionics* was born at a symposium in Ohio (USA) in September of 1960. Those who coin a new term are always careful to provide it with a definition and also to give some reasons for their choice by explaining its motivation.

It is common knowledge that distinctions and classifications which theoretically appear to be very clear have been found gradually to merge into one another when it comes to practical and empirical cases. Terms are not separated from the rest of the vocabulary and it is rather hard to say where the line should be drawn. With the development and growth of civilization many special notions become known to the layman and from part and parcel of everyday speech. Are we justified to call such words as vitamin, inoculation the selective terms? With radio and television sets in every home many radio terms are well known to everybody and often used in everyday conversation. In this process, however, they may lose their specific terminological character and become similar to all ordinary words in their semantic structure. The constant interchange of elements goes both ways. The everyday English vocabulary, especially the part characterized by a higher index

of frequency and polysemy, constitutes a constant source for the creation of new terms.

Dictionaries for the most part include these terminological meanings the semantic structure of the head-word. The fact that one of the meaning is terminological is signaled by showing in brackets the field where it can be used. For example, the word *load* is as an electrical term means “ the amount of current supplied by a generating station at any given time”; *power* in number into itself”, and in mechanics “capacity of doing work”; the optical term *power* denotes “ the magnifying capacity of a lens” [8:234].

The above survey of terms as a specific type of words was descriptive, the approach was strictly synchronic. As we know there are two approaches to the study of the vocabulary of a language: diachronic and synchronic. Synchronic approach deals with the vocabulary as it exists at the given time, at the present time. The diachronic approach studies the changes and the development of vocabulary in the course of time. Investigation need not stop at the descriptive stage. On the contrary, the study of changes occurring in a group of terms or a whole terminological subsystem, such as sea terms, building terms, etc., during a long period of time can give very valuable data concerning the interdependence of the history of language and the history of society. The development of terminology is the most complete reflection of the history of science, culture and industry.

There are many different methods used in lexicological research. They are: contrastive analysis, statistical methods of analysis, Immediate Constituents analysis, distributional analysis, transformational analysis, componential analysis, cognitive analysis and others. They can be used for the investigation of words and special terminology as well. In our work we used the method of contrastive analysis which is used to reveal the features of the sameness and differences in the lexical meaning and the semantic structure of correlated words in both related and non-related languages. Polysemantic words may denote very different types of objects but they are correlated in one basic meaning. There are some common and different features in the meanings of business terms in English and Uzbek.

## CHAPTER II.

### CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES OF ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

#### 1.1 General notes on English for Specific Purposes

Since the 1960 s, English for specific purposes has become one of the most active branches of Applied Linguistics in general, and of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) in particular. Among the factors that could explain its vitality and its expansion is, as previously mentioned, the emergence of English as a world language, for this reason the necessity to cope with the different teaching situations and needs that such a position brings about. Such necessity implies an understanding of its development, types and the different teaching concepts of ESP. However, it is of great importance to start with the main definitions stated by the linguists concerning ESP.

Some people described ESP as simply being the teaching of English for any purpose that could be specified. Others, however, were more precise describing it as the teaching of English used in academic studies. And the ESP is teaching of English for vocational or professional purposes [7: 9-10].

“ESP is generally used to refer to the teaching of English for a clearly utilitarian purpose” [16;2]. That is to say, Teachers teach English to achieve specific language skills using real situations, in a manner that allows them to use English in their future profession, or to comprehend English discourse related to their area of specialty.

Generally the students study English “not because they are interested in the English language or English culture as such, but because they need English for study or work purposes” [34: 2]. In ESP, “language is learnt not for its own sake or for the sake of gaining a general education, but to smooth the path to entry or greater linguistic efficiency in academic, professional or workplace environments” [16:18]. This denotes that, the role of ESP is to help language learners to build up the needed abilities in order to use them in a specific field of inquiry, occupation, or workplace. These definitions stated above according to ESP evolution through time, this latter viewed in more details in the following section.

As with most developments in human activity, ESP was not a planned and coherent movement, but rather a phenomenon that grew out of a number of converging trends. These trends have operated in a variety of ways around the world, but we can identify three main reasons common to the emergence of all ESP.

### **1. The demands of a Brave New World**

The end of the Second World War in 1945 heralded an age of enormous and unprecedented expansion in scientific, and technical and economic activity on an international scale. This expansion created a world unified and dominated by two forces – technology and commerce –, which in their relentless progress soon generated a demand for an international language. For various reasons, most notably the economic power of the United States in the post – war world, this role fell to English.

The effect was to create a completely new mass of people wanting to learn English, not for the pleasure or prestige of knowing the language, but because English was the key to the international currencies of technology and commerce. Previously people could not define the reasons for learning English (or any other language). Knowledge of a foreign language had been generally regarded as a sign of a well – rounded education, but few had really questioned why it was necessary. Learning a language was, so to speak, its own justification. However, as English became the accepted international language of technology and commerce, it created a new generation of learners who knew specifically why they were learning a language. For example, those businessmen and women who wanted to sell their products, mechanics who had to read instruction manuals, doctors who needed to keep up with developments in their field and a whole range of students whose course of study included textbooks and journals only available in English. All these and many others needed English and most importantly, they knew why they needed it [22;6].

This development was accelerated by the Oil Crises of the early 1970s, which resulted in a massive flow of funds and Western expertise into the oil-rich

countries. English suddenly became big business and commercial pressures began to exert an influence. Time and money constraints created a need for cost-effective courses with clearly defined goals.

The general effect of all this development was to exert pressure on the language teaching profession to deliver the required goods. Whereas English had previously decided its own destiny, it now became subject to the wishes, needs and demands of people other than language teachers. English had become accountable to the scrutiny of the wider world and the traditional leisurely and purpose-free stroll through the landscape of the English language seemed no longer appropriate in the harsher realities of the market place.

## **2. Changes in Linguistics**

At the same time as demand was growing for English courses tailored to specific needs, influential new ideas began to emerge in the study of language. Traditionally the aim of linguistics had been to describe the rules of English usage, that is, the grammar. However, the new studies shifted attention away from defining the formal features of language usage to discovering the ways in which language is actually used in real communication. One finding of this research was that the language we speak and write varies considerably, and in a number of different ways, from one context to another. In English language, teaching this gave rise to the view that these are important differences between, say, the English of commerce and that of engineering. These ideas married up naturally with the development of English courses for specific groups of learners. The idea was simple; if language varies from one situation of use to another, it should be possible to determine the features of specific situations and then make these features the basis of the learners' course [22:7].

In short, the view gained ground that the English needed by a particular group of learners could be identified by analyzing the linguistic characteristics of their specialist area of work or study. "Tell me what you need English for and I will tell you the English that you need" became the guiding principle of ESP.

## **3. Focus on the learner**

New developments in educational psychology also contributed to the rise of ESP, by emphasizing the central importance of the learners and their attitudes to learning. Learners were seen to have different needs and interests, which would have an important influence on their motivation to learn and therefore on the effectiveness of their learning. This lent support to the development of courses in which “relevance“to the learners’ needs and interests was paramount. The standard way of achieving this was to take texts from learners’ specialist area – texts about Biology for Biology students etc. The assumption underlying this approach was that the clear relevance of the English course to their needs would improve the learners’ motivation and thereby make learning better and faster [22: 8].

Stevens notes: “the existence of a major „tide“ in the educational thought, in all countries and affecting all subjects. The movement referred to is the global trend towards “learner-centered education” [36:152].The scholars in terms of its characteristics and functionality see ESP differently.

### **Characteristics of English for Specific Purposes.**

ESP is a recognizable activity of English Language Teaching (ELT) with some specific characteristics. Dudley-Evans and St. Johns tried to apply a series of characteristics, some absolute and some variable, to outline the major features of English for specific purposes [16].

#### **Absolute Characteristics:**

1. ESP is defined to meet specific needs of the learners;
2. ESP makes use of underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves;
3. ESP is centered on the language (grammar, lexis, and register), skills, discourse and genre appropriate to these activities.

#### **Variable Characteristics:**

1. ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines;
2. ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of General English;
3. ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution



or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be for learners at secondary school level;

4. ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students. Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language systems, but it can be used with beginners [24: 4].

It is obvious that the absolute characteristics are specific to ESP because learners' needs are of central importance when designing language activities. Concerning the variable features, ESP courses can be designed for a specific group using definite teaching methodology, nevertheless, all learners' categories and disciplines can be concerned with ESP. For that reason ESP should be seen simply as an "approach" to teaching, or what Dudley-Evans and St. John illustrate as an "attitude of mind" [24]. Similarly, Hutchinson and Waters stated that, "ESP should properly be seen not as any particular language product but as an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning" [22:19].

In the course of the statements suggested below great similitude is noticed between ESP and General English Purposes (EGP) as teaching approaches knowing that each methodology is set up to fulfill specific social requirements. So in what terms are they different?

### **The Difference between ESP and EGP**

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) stated that there is no difference between the two in theory; however, there is a great deal of difference in practice. ESP, like any other language teaching activity, stands on facts about language nature, learning and teaching; it is, however, often contrasted with General English. ESP teaching approach is known to be a learner-centered where learners' needs and goals are of supreme value, whereas General English approach is language-centered, and focuses on learning language from a broad perception covering all the language skills and the cultural aspects of the English speaking community. P.Robinson stated that "the general with which we are contrasting the specific is that of General education for life, culture and literature oriented language course in which

the language itself is the subject matter and the purpose of the course” [34:6].

It is observed from the above distinctions that ESP and General English are different in terms of aims and objectives of the courses, the nature of the learners and the themes. The latter is also a point of disagreement between the linguists concerning ESP branches or the categorization of its subjects of practice.

### **Types of ESP**

The maturity of ESP through time knew multiple views concerning its subdivision. Different types are proposed by the linguists the present study relies on Hutchinson and Waters’ subdivision. In 1987, they rooted one of the most well known and useful theories regarding English language teaching branches with the in which they divided ESP into three types:

- a) English for Science and Technology (EST),
- b) English for Business and Economics (EBE), and
- c) English for Social Studies (ESS).

Each type is concerned with specific field of scientific knowledge as technology, business and economy or the social fields in general; with its various and large amount of human sciences studies. Additionally, each of these is divided into further sub-branches: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). An example of EOP for the ESS branch is 'English for Psychology' whereas an example of EAP for the ESS branch is 'English for Teaching'. Yet Hutchinson and Water’s classification of EAP and EOP is rather unclear; that is why further clarification is needed in order to distinguish between them. EAP versus EOP Hutchinson and Waters admitted that there is not a precise distinction between EAP and EOP: People can work and study simultaneously, it is also likely that in many cases the language learnt for immediate use in a study environment will be used later when the student takes up, or returns to a job [22: 16].

However, the distinction can be made in the sphere of convenience. Courses in English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) train individuals to perform on the job using English to communicate. This type of course would be useful for the training

of lawyers for instance and administrative chiefs aiming at reaching a proficiency level. On the other hand, English for Academic Purposes (EAP) is applied for common core elements also known as “study skills”. They basically consist of writing academic texts, taking notes and observations, listening to formal academic discourses and making presentations.

It is viewed that in the first instance, learners’ needs have to be identified and analysed. Therefore, the development of an ESP course should be in line with learners’ requests and wants. Thus, needs outcomes will operate as a guide for the teacher in designing a suitable syllabus, producing course materials as well as teaching and testing methods.

### **Needs Analysis**

“As in all ESP teaching situations, we must start by considering the needs of the learners and what they have to do in the target situation” [19:21]. In general, the term “needs” is defined as the differences between the actual state regarding the group or situation in relation to a specific question and the desired state. They reflect the existence of a certain problem that requires an intervention and must be dealt with.

Pedagogically, needs are always defined as the learners' requests in order to communicate efficiently in specific situations. “The idea of analysing the language needs of the learner as a basis for course development has become almost synonymous with ESP” [37: 29]. Hence, ESP has its foundation on the exploration and analysis of learners' purposes and the set of communicative requirements arising from these purposes. The analysis of the specific needs serves as the introduction to an ESP course design, “...any course should be based on an analysis of learner need” because it determines the reason and procedures that should be used to achieve satisfactory communicative results [22: 53].

“The rationale for needs analysis is that by identifying elements of students’ target English situations and using them as the basis of EAP/ ESP instruction, teachers will be able to provide students with the specific language they need to succeed in their courses and future careers” [24: 67].

## **2.2. Effective Strategies for teaching Business English**

Today, when a foreign language has rooted among different fields of training and among academic disciplines at the university, it may seem that a foreign language for special purposes is something peripheral, private. However, if we think about it deeper, people start learning any second language when they have a special purpose for using it .

Here we described effective strategies of teaching business English that were experienced by the ESP teachers of different Universities.

Before studying ESP, students should master General English. On the one hand, the difference of teaching ESP (in our case it is Business English) from teaching General English consists in the choice of contexts for listening and reading texts and in the choice of lexis in grammar and vocabulary exercises, where examples such as “I’m going on business trip” replace “I’m going on holiday”. On the other hand, teaching Business English requires a teacher’s awareness of the subject matter.

In fact, ESP combines the subject matter and English language teaching skills. The role of a teacher at this stage is managing to adapt teaching skills and strategies for teaching Business English. Such integration is very motivating for students because they will have the opportunity to put into practice their knowledge acquired during their Business English lessons in their major sphere of study, whether it is economics, commerce, business management or marketing [37: 48].

Students of Economics study English for specific purposes as it is necessary for them to study Business English in connection with their basic studies. In this case, students have particular purpose and focus for learning the language as they study English to not only understand everyday speech but also use the language in a special context for career opportunities.

As it has been mentioned, a teacher is expected to pique learners’ interest and create relevant context for the lessons. One of helpful and useful ESP teaching strategies is to explain terms or business realities. Students of economics are

supposed to have enough knowledge of the key economic and business matters. So they can be asked to explain them in English, e.g. what is a balance sheet and how does it work? Alternatively, what is back pay? While students speak, a teacher can provide them with correct words and phrases or correct mistakes. This kind of task is very productive with our students as doing it they not only show their subject knowledge but also use topic vocabulary. Besides, students' answers provide a teacher with the information of students' grammar or word order weaknesses, gaps in their vocabulary or pronunciation problems. Thus, such tasks of explaining specific business concepts help a teacher give students some practice in both their subject matter and the language [37: 50].

In teaching Business English, a teacher should know key business terminology, company structure, as well as the basics of business correspondence and telephoning, negotiating, job interviewing, etc. Practising the vocabulary and structures that students learn in a specific meaningful context consolidates what is taught and increases their motivation. In the process of teaching ESP, grammar takes a second place. Still it should be taught. To meet students' needs a teacher has to make task-based grammar exercises, i.e. use authentic articles for discussion business issues, or write an official business letter that supposes to contain correct grammar structures [37: 51].

Still teaching Business English a teacher should always remember that he trains not only business vocabulary and grammar but also communicative skills. In order to develop learners' communicative skills we often use teaching strategies which involve the following tasks:

Asking learners to give a presentation about a particular product, company or their current research is always a highly focused activity, where a teacher can both give directions at the preparation stage (useful vocabulary and grammar, steps of presenting material) and feedback on the performance (discussing language mistakes, presentation construction). They are asked to prepare a presentation of a company and describe its main activities and specialization, staff, main markets, organization, etc. Useful phrases are divided into several parts: opening part –

introduction (*I'm ...; I'm going to talk about ...; I'd like to give you some background information...*, etc.), organizing the presentation – describing a company and its structure (*founded in..., divided into..., consists of..., includes..., employs..., cooperates with...*, etc.) and closing part – summarizing (*To sum it up..., If you have any questions...*, etc.).

A teacher can enrich these parts with more phrases as well, ask students to use grammar structures viewed in the topic (connectors, Passive voice, modals, etc.). Visual aids are always welcome as students also practice how to work with slides and the audience. At the end, all students discuss weak and strong points in the presentations and make recommendations for improvement.

Making a telephone call is often done in the form of a dialogue. Before the task, we usually review phrases used in telephoning. A teacher gives helpful opening and closing phrases for greeting, introducing (*This is... speaking*), and starting a conversation (*Could I speak to...? I'd like to talk to...*). There are phrases like asking for something (*Could I leave a message? Can he call me back as soon as possible?, Can I have his contact number?*). Furthermore, these phrases are for answering the phone call (*The line is busy now, Hold on, please*), ending a call (*I will call back later, Glad to hear from you*). Then students are given different situations like “You call to your partner’s office but he is not here. Leave a message” or “You need to organize a meeting with an advertizing manager. Make an arrangement”.

We often ask students to use their cell phones, make notes, ask again, etc. for making conversations more realistic. All mentioned strategies are valuable because they develop both students’ language and communicative skills integrating with each other. Besides, students develop their ability to use their knowledge acquired on their basic studies on economy, management, etc. in practice [37: 53]. As the object of the work we analysed business terms on the material of commercial terms that are widely-spread especially today in connection with the development of business and trade relations of our country with other foreign countries.

### **2.3. Commercial terms and theory of translation**

The task of a translation - is to give contents of original text exactly and wholly, by the means of another language. Keeping its stylistic and expressive peculiarities. Under “wholeness” of translation should be understood unity of forms and contents in a new language. If the criterion of exactness of translation is identify of information, informing in different languages, then wholeness can be recognized only such translation which can transfer this information equivalent means. In other words, differing from retelling, translation must transfer not only that that is expressed in it. This requirement belongs to as all translation of a given text in whole as to its separate parts.

Let's change the topic and discuss about the notion of equivalent means. Primary importance for building of linguistic theory of translation has researches in the sphere of comparative study of languages. As a rule, these researches touch on part of language system: grammar building, dictionary contents, stylistics of certain languages.

Thus, the results of comparative analysis can serve as the material for private theory of translation [18]. It should be kept in mind that complex character of translation process requires complex comparison. It is necessary for a translator to compare not separate grammar forms on syntactic constructions but structural-semantic “knots”, containing single national wholeness.

In the theory and practice of translation there are two understanding of equivalent. Not often under equivalent is meant any correspondence of a word on a phrase of original in a given concrete context, or, by other words, any found correspondence of micro unit of translation. But such unconstructive understanding of equivalence leads to non-existing difference between categories of dictionary correspondences. Equivalent should be understood as permanent equal meaning correspondence, as a rule, which doesn't depend on context.

Equivalents are catalyzers of their own in the process of translation. Their role isn't easy to overvalue, especially the meaning surrounding text and statement in whole, even keeping unknown words to him.

These units of translation having permanent correspondence in native language, first of all are clarified in confession of a translation and help him to understand differences in culture result in situations in which a concept in one language is unknown in the receptor language and no lexical equivalents exist to convey it [32:91]. This may be due to differences in climate, customs, beliefs or worldviews. When the concept is a key concept in the information the problem becomes even more critical. In searching for approximate equivalents Larson points out that it is important to distinguish between form and function. An equivalent may be of different form (e.g. pen vs quill) but have the same function (e.g. writing) or be of similar form (e.g. dog) but have different functions (e.g. pet, hunting dog). In the worst case there may be equivalents for neither form nor function. Larson gives the example of "sheep" which in the Middle East have a function of being a "sacrifice for sin". In the Amazon sheep-like animals do not occur nor is there any notion comparable to "sacrifice for sin". Further difficulty exists when the information makes important distinctions between concepts for which even the generic equivalent is unknown in the receptor language. Larson gives the example of distinctions having to be made between church, mosque and synagogue when the generic equivalent "shelter used for religious purposes" may have little meaning in the receptor culture. The situation is further complicated when the key word also carries a symbolic meaning [32:112].

Multiple senses of lexical items (a) Secondary sense: In addition to the primary sense a lexical item may have secondary meanings. These are dependent on the context in which a word is used. Whilst a second language will often have a lexical equivalent for the primary meaning, the secondary meanings in the two languages tend not to match at all.

(b) Figurative sense: This is based on associative relations with the primary meaning. It is correct to say "The kettle is boiling" even though a kettle cannot itself



"boil". Such metonymy occurs in most languages but a specific case in one language will tend not to have an exact equivalent in another. Larson indicates that "The Prime Minister barred laborers from entering the country" may be completely misunderstood if the second language does not indicate that the action was in fact carried out by subordinates. Other forms of figurative expression are synecdoche, idiom, euphemism and hyperbole.

The versions of bilingual dictionaries cannot be considered as the truth in the last instance. But a dictionary gives rather clear description about those categories of words and phrases of a language, which have only one equivalent correspondence in a given language. These equivalents are geographical names, names of people, terms of any branch of knowledge and science [32: 137].

Obviously, word combination and compound words have equivalent correspondence than simple words. Overwhelming majority words in English are polysemantic.

Equivalents can be complete and partial, absolute and relative. *Collar* - ёқа, *pen* - ручка are complete equivalents as they cover all their meanings. *Dirt cheap* - буёланган шолёомдан арзонроқ are relative equivalents: they differ by their stylistic and expressive colorfulness. *Shadow* has partial equivalence in main meaning as *coal* as English word has other meanings: ярим тун and рух.

Variant correspondence is set between words when there are some words in the target language, for giving the same meaning of source word. A noun *soldier* has at least four correspondences in Russian: *солдат, рядовой, военнослужащий, военный* and in Uzbek: оддий аскар, харбий хизматчи [29:56]. It would be wrong in this case if we say that *soldier* was a polysemantic word.

Many lexical units of English are undifferentiated, i.e. they mean wide meaning that are not covered by one word in Russian and Uzbek. Such English words are considered and related to the category of abstract notions.

Variant correspondences containing of one-root Russian synonyms are more characteristically for correlation between dictionary structure of Russian and English. For instance, words serving to the same English adjective “writing”: пишущий, письменный, писчий, писчебумажный (writing table – письменный стол, writing paper – писчая бумага) [46:131].

It can be said that a Russian or Uzbek noun may have several English equivalents.

*Correspondences with the same meaning.* For example: этаж (қават) – floor and story, грязь (кир) – dirt, filth, mud. Relating to common wide notion each of them is distinguished by special secondary sign, and peculiarities of usage of each are opened in standard phrases or word combinations. For instance

- Да вот он, кстати, *легок на помине...*
- Ана ўзи, бўрини *эсласанг қулоғи кўринар.*
- But here he comes – *talk of the devil.*

Adequacy isn't separated from exactness and is reached by grammatical, lexico-phraseological and stylistic changes creating equal value effect. Owing to changes a translator actually can give all elements of original. Tactical usage of changes includes on art of a translator. Sometimes he has to sacrifice something omitting a detail, to weaken or strengthen a statement.

The essence of adequate translation is in using changes and correspondences. In case of impossibility of translation of all elements of source text a translator can use equivalents due for them he can create equal effect. Such changes are possible that's why the same effect can be reached by different stylistic means and the same stylistic means can fulfill different functions [43:99]. For instance:

*All eyes* were eagerly fixed on..... *All nostrils* drank greedily the sragrant a in ..... *All ears* welcomed.... .

Хамма ...га тикилган ... . Хамма шаффоф ҳаводан нафас олар ... . Хамма ...ни тинглашарди.

In this version of translation the main stylistic peculiarities are kept: parallel constructions, emphasized by an author and their rhythm.

#### **2.4. Structural and semantic analysis of commercial terms**

It is clear that the vast, unstable and loosely organized congeries of words which we call vocabulary cannot be analyzed with the same scientific rigour and precision as the phonological and grammatical system of a language. This does not mean, however, that words are not amenable to any kind of structural treatment.

Attempts have also been made to identify and describe the various lexical structures into which our words are organized. These inquiries, which are still at a tentative stage, are being conducted at three superimposed levels: that of single words, that of conceptual spheres, and that of the vocabulary as a whole.

Some linguists believe that the structural approach, which has been tried out so successfully at the level of single words and conceptual spheres, can be extended to embrace the entire vocabulary of a language. To this end, R. Hillig and W. Von Wartburg have devised a general classification of concepts which, in their view, is both broad and flexible enough to be applied to any idiom. In this scheme, which springs basically from the same idea as Roget's Thesaurus, concepts are divided into three groups, each of them with numerous subdivisions: the Universe, Man and the Universe. The aim is to provide a uniform framework for lexicological studies of different languages and different periods of the same language, so that the results should be readily comparable with each other. Without claiming any special virtues for this scheme, which is only one of many possible arrangements, the adoption of a common framework offers obvious practical advantages, and a beginning has already been made in applying it in lexicological inquiries.

It can be seen from the foregoing that considerable progress has been made, during the last three decades, in the introduction of structural view – points into semantics. It is indeed symptomatic of current interest in these problems that

structural semantics appeared on the agenda of the last two international congresses of linguistics, held at Oslo and at Cambridge, Massachusetts. All this makes it surprising and regrettable that many structuralists should still feel disinclined to handle problems of meaning [15, 20].

Some of this reluctance to deal with semantic problems undoubtedly started as a reaction against the indiscriminate use of the term meaning and other “mentalistic” abstraction: but this is surely no sufficient reason for excluding the semantic side of language from the field of linguistics.

Another reason for the avoidance of semantics by many linguists is the widespread belief that structural viewpoints are inapplicable to problems of meaning. In the light of recent developments in semantics, this position is, as we have seen, no longer tenable – unless, of course, the term structure is equated with “formal structure”, as is only too often the case.

But there is an even deeper cause for the structuralists’ refusal to tackle problems of meaning. As mentioned earlier, semantic phenomena cannot usually be described with the same scientific rigour as the formal elements of language. The last few years have witnessed a spectacular change of climate in linguistics, but one still has the impression that many structuralists are merely paying tip – service to a study which has become more respectable. If this formalistic bias were to be perpetuated, linguistics would develop into a strangely unbalanced discipline and would lose much of its humanistic content. It would become an esoteric study, unable to contribute to the solution of the great problems of our time, some of which are closely bound up with the nature of our words.

Taking into consideration the above – mentioned we would like to analyze commercial terms as the main aim put in the work requires it. Before starting to analyze the words denoting commercial terms we should firstly determine the place of these terms in the system of English vocabulary. For this purpose we addressed to Collins’ English Dictionary, where we found detailed information about what classes, subclasses or groups of words belong to our scope of vocabulary [6]. If we take subclasses, the presence of some general dominant

meaning in them makes them form a lexical field. Now let's look through thoroughly this field from the structural point of view:

	<b>Parts of speech</b> <b>Structural types</b>	Quantity	Percentage	Notes
1.	<b>Noun</b> Simple Derivative Compound Composite	430 672 217 58	13,5 29 6,9 0,7	
2.	<b>Adjective</b> Simple Derivative Compound Composite	170 131 74 --	5,2 4,0 0,8 --	
3.	<b>Pronoun</b> Simple Derivative Compound Composite	-- -- -- --	-- -- -- --	
4.	<b>Numeral</b> Simple Derivative Compound Composite	-- -- -- --	-- -- -- --	

5.	<b>Verb</b>			
	Simple	635	24	
	Derivative	310	11,3	
	Compound	--	--	
	Composite	--	--	
6.	<b>Adverb</b>			
	Simple	73	0,8	
	Derivative	--	--	
	Compound	--	--	
	Composite	--	--	
7.	<b>Model words</b>	--	--	
8.	<b>Prepositions</b>			
	Simple	--	--	
	Derivative	--	--	
	Compound	--	--	
	Composite	--	--	
9.	<b>Conjunctions</b>	--	--	
10	<b>Other types of speech</b>	--	--	

As we see from the table we may find different parts of speech. They are different but they are equally used to denote the notions indicated as a name of the lexical field, of course, their usage differs from another by the frequency, stylistic coloring and distribution. It is quite natural, we know it, and the biggest group of words denoting commerce terms is the derived noun, which makes nearly a half of the whole amount of words. The second group of words in frequency is the simple verb, which makes 24 percent of the total amount. And the third group is the simple noun, which was met in 13,5 percent cases.

Thus, the structural analysis of terms let us see their frequency value and ability to create lexical fields.

## **Semantic analysis of commercial terms**

Just over eighty years ago, a new term was introduced into linguistics. In 1883 the French philologist Michel Breal published an article on what he called the “intellectual laws” of language. In this work he argued that, alongside of phonetics and morphology, the study of the formal elements of human speech, there ought also to be a science of meaning, which he proposed to call a *semantique*, by a word derived from the Greek *onma* “sign”. The branch of study advocated in this work is not entirely new, yet it is mainly Breal’s generation, and in the first place Breal himself, who established semantics as a discipline in its own right. In 1897 he published his “Essai de semantique” which saw many subsequent editions and is still widely read. Three years after its publication, Breal’s “Essai” was translated into English under the title “Semantic studies in the Science of Meaning” and although the term had been used in English a few years earlier, this translation played a decisive role in the diffusion of the new science and its name.

Semantics (or Semasiology) is a branch of Linguistics which studies meaning, it is an independent branch of Lexicology alongside word formation, etymology, phraseology and lexicography. And at the same time it is often referred to as the central branch of Lexicology. The significance of Semantics may be accounted for by three main considerations: 1. Language is the basic human communication system aimed at ensuring the exchange of information between the communicants which implies that the semantic side forms the backbone of communication. 2. By definition Lexicology deals with words, morpheme and word groups. All those linguistic units are two-faced entities having both form and meaning. 3. Semantics underlines all other branches of Lexicology. Meaning is the object of semantic study.

The meaning of a word is the realization of a notion by means of a definite language system. A word is a language unit, while a notion is a unit of thinking. A notion cannot exist without a word expressing it in the language, but there are words which don’t express any notion but have a lexical meaning.

Semantics ought to set an example to other science in the avoidance of ambiguity, and it is somewhat paradoxical that the term itself has become highly ambiguous in recent years. Since the 1920s the philosophers have acquired their own brand or brands of semantics, which have very little in common with the homonymous science practiced by philologists. Philosophical semantics in the more esoteric sense of the term is a branch of the “theory of signs”, dealing with relations between signs and what they stand for. In its more popular sense, philosophical semantics is a study of the misuse of abstractions and of other shortcomings of language.

At the time when Semantics appeared on the scene, the science of language was an exclusively historical discipline. Semantics wholeheartedly accepted this orientation and for the first half-century of its existence it remained classification of changes of meaning according to logical, psychological or sociological criteria, and the discovery of any abiding tendencies – misleadingly called “semantic laws” – which governed these changes [25]. This phase found its crowning achievements in Gustaf Stern’s “Meaning and change of meaning, with Special Reference to the English language” which was published in 1931 and contained the first scheme of classification based on an extensive collection of concrete data. Meanwhile, however, far – reaching changes had taken place in general linguistics, as a result of which semanticists were soon faced with a dilemma, which remains unresolved to this very day.

“When I use a word”, said Humpty Dumpty, “it means just what I choose it to mean – neither more nor less”. Some linguists, in their eagerness to underline the importance of context and to demolish the belief that there is a “proper” meaning inherent in each word, go almost as far as Humpty Dumpty in their dogmatic utterances. Statements like “le mot n’est que par le contexte et n’est rien par lui – meme”- “the word exists only through the context and is nothing in itself” which are frequently heard nowadays, are neither accurate nor realistic. While it is perfectly true, and even a truism, that words are almost always found embedded in specific contexts, there are cases when a term stands



entirely by itself, without any contextual support, and will still make sense. A one – word title such as Tolstoy’s “Resurrection” can be heavily charged with meaning, and even such elliptical titles as Kipling’s “If” and Henry Green’s “Nothing” will conjure up some cases it is different or even impossible to answer, in others one can do so without a moment’s hesitation; no one knowing French would have any difficulty in giving the equivalent of an adjective like “yellow”, a verb like “white”, a concrete noun like “pencil”, or an abstract noun like “equality”. If words had no meaning outside context it would be impossible to compile a dictionary. “There is no getting away from the fact”, writes an eminent semanticist, “that single words have more or less permanent meanings, that they actually do refer to certain referents and not to others, and that this characteristic is the indispensable basis of all communications”. This is only common sense, and it has recently been confirmed by experimental data. A series of tests designed to study the influence of context has shown that there is usually in each word a hard core of meaning, which is relatively stable and can only be modified by the context within certain limits [43:86].

At the same time no one would deny the crucial importance of context in the determination of word – meanings. As far as the role of verbal context is concerned, this was already recognized as fundamental by some of the pioneers of modern semantics. Modern linguists, however, have not only placed greater emphasis on context but have considerably broadened its scope and have also probed more deeply into its influence on word – meanings.

The above mentioned says that Semantics is very important by all means. Revealing a word’s meaning, for us, carries primary importance, as the main job of ours is to analyze terms of commerce. Structural analysis is not sufficient to have a wholesome picture of the scope of meanings expressed by the words denoting commerce. Therefore we have made up our mind to thoroughly analyze the semantic aspect of this lexical field. For this purpose, first of all we determined lexico – grammatical meaning to presented in the semantics of the word. As such we chose the following components of the meaning of the

words. For example, if it is a noun we analyzed whether this noun is common, proper, abstract, concrete, collective, material, non – person, countable, uncountable, etc. If it is a verb it should be an actional one, processed one, stative, causative, iterative, modal, auxiliary, link verb, etc. If it is an adjective it can be personal, possessive, demonstrative, impersonal, reflexive, etc. If it is an adverb it can be one of time, place, cause, degree, measure, manner, result, etc. Then we can analyze all the words of the investigated lexical field to find the instances of those meanings in their semantic structure. The main object of the semantic analysis is the meaning of a word. In the semantic analysis we distinguish parts of speech and semantic types, then define their quantity and percentage. It is shown in the following diagram:

The lexical field of words denoting commercial terms include the words of different semantic coloring with various shades of the general meaning, which is presented in each of these words in this or that form.

And the most commonly registered word was the actual verb, which was found in 32% of the total amount. The next group is common noun gave a rather large number of occurrence – 23%. The third group was formed the qualitative adjective, which was registered in 19% of cases and so on.

Thus, according to the semantic analysis of words, terms, we see, that a word has not only one meaning and even one word usually implies some additional information which differentiates one word from another. So we see, that if we are interested in semantic features of words, we should pay attention to their meaning and what parts of speech they represent.

The combination of different methods of analysis helps to classify the vocabulary as a whole and each lexical unit taken separately. It should be said that practically no procedures function independently and separately from each other. In fact, being a two-faced unit, a lexical item provides to be an indivisible unit of form and content. Different methods of semantic analysis of terms (method of componential analysis, method of immediate constituents analysis and others) let us understand deeper their meanings.

## **2.5. English commercial terms and their equivalents in Uzbek.**

In the conditions of developing market relations the great importance in economy play economical interactions between financial-credit, commercial systems and organizations. These relations take place not only in the region of particular country but also they have started to occur on global basis from day to day. This requires usage of specific language, universal terms and conclusions. In the Qualification Paper we try to solve positively the issues of interaction of financial and commercial systems. We intend to reflect equivalent variants of modern commercial terms and expressions in English and Uzbek. Trying to distinguish the peculiarities of the commercial terms in different languages it is necessary to pay attention and emphasize the following features:

1. There are universal and original international terms that enlarge the terminology base of science in Uzbek. They are the following:

**acceptance-акцепт**, нақд пулсиз ҳисоб-китобларнинг шаклларида бири, тўловни амалга ошириш бўйича розилик бериш.

**annuity- аннуитет**- йилда қиймати ва фоизлари тўланадиган муддатли давлат заёми.

**audit-аудит, тафташ**

**bank marketing-банк маркетинги**

**bankruptcy code-банкротлик (қасодга учраш) тўғрисидаги кодекс (низом).**

**bank's creditor- банк кредитори** (банка қарз берган субъект)

**bank resources-банк ресурслари-кредитлаш** ва бошқа актив операцияларни амалга ошириш учун банк тасарруфидаги мавжуд маблағлар тўплами. Банкнинг ўз ва четдан жалб этиладиган маблағлари.

**costs of funding- банк томонидан ресурсларни жалб этиш қиймати.**

**country bank- хар қандай Федерал резерв банки ёки ўнинг бўлимлари жойлашган шаҳарда жойлашмайдиган банк.**

**country risk- мамлакат rischi**

**credit agency-кредит агентлиги-** кредит маълумотларини йиғиш ва ўларни тарқатишни амалга оширади.

**credit agreement-кредит келишуви** (битим), кредитларнинг миқдори, шакли ва бериш шартларини аниқловчи келишув (битим).

**credit assessment-кредитни баҳолаш**

**credit inquiry-кредит сўрови** (банкнинг, мол етказиб берувчиларга ва миждоз билан боғлонган бошқа шахсларга юбориладиган (жўнатиладиган) миждоз тўғрисидаги маълумот бўйича сўровномаси).

**currency policy-валюта сиёсати-** давлат органлари, марказий банклар, молиявий муассасалар ва халқаро молия-валюта ташкилотлари томонидан валюта муносабатларида қўлланиладиган ҳуқуқий, ташкилий, иқтисодий чора-тадбирлар йиғиндиси.

**currency parity-валюта паритети-** валюта курсининг асоси ҳисобланган икки валюта ўртасида қонуний ўрнатилган нисбат.

**currency system- валюта тизими-** иқтисодий интеграциялашув, валюта мавжудлиги билан боғлиқ бўлган ўзаро иқтисодий муносабатларни мувофиқлаштириш мақсадида мамлакатлар томонидан қабул қилинган иқтисодий муносабатлар мажмуи

**dealer-дилер-ўз** маблағи ва ўзининг номидан биржа ёки савдо воситачилиги билан шуғулланувчи шахс. Биржада ўз жойига эга, турли қимматли қоғозлар котировкасини амалга оширади.

**debtor- дебитор-** корхона, ташкилот, муассасага пул қарзи мавжуд бўлган қарздор юридик ва жисмоний шахс.

**debtor-қарздор, дебитор** –кредиторлардан мажбуриятлари бор томон.

**deflation- дефляция-** инфляция даврида муомалага ортиқча чиқарилган қоғоз пуллари ва банкноталарнинг муомаладан олиниши ҳамда мамлакатда товарлар баҳосининг умумий пасайишию

**deposit- депозит, омонат** – молия-кредит, божхона, суд ёки бошқа маъмурий муассасаларга сақлаш учун топширилган қимматбаҳо қоғозлар ёки

пул маблағлари.

**deposit check-келгусида инкассалаш учун (банкда) чекни депозитга қўйиши.**

**deposit expansion-тижорат банкларига хос бўлган депозитли экспансия,** ўз миқдорларини кредитлаш йўли билан, ресурсларни жалб қилмасдан ўз депозитларининг бир қисмини яратиш имконияти.

**depository- депозитарий-** қимматбаҳо қоғозларни сақлаш, ҳисобга олиш ва ҳисоб-китоб қилишни, фоизларни ундириш ва қимматбаҳо қоғозлар билан боғлиқ бўлган бошқа хизматларни амалга оширувчи ташкилотю

2. In the usage and translation of specific terms and expressions into Uzbek, special attention was paid to their semantic match. In defining the equivalent terms the practical usage of these terms in the commercial and financial fields was taken into account. For example, let's see the following commercial terms in English and their equivalents in Uzbek:

**appraisal of property-** мол-мулкни баҳолаш (кўчмас мулк ҳисобига кредит бериш жараёнидаги мажбурий тадбирлардан бири).

**baby bond-** номинал қиймати 100 доллар ва ундан кам бўлган облигация

**bad money-** рискли пуллар, тўлиқ қийматга эга бўлмаган пуллар

**bank employee-** банк хизматчиси

**be converted into-** пул маблағларига айлантириш

**borrower-** қарздор, ссуда олувчи, қарз олувчи

**buyer's market-** сотиб олувчи бозори-ишлаб чиқарувчилар ва товар сотувчилар таклифининг талабга нисбатан ортиқлиги натижасида баҳоларнинг пасайишини тақозо этувчи бозордаги ҳолат.

**cash flow-** пул оқими

**cash payment-** нақд пуллик ҳисоб-китоблар – товар ва хизматлар қийматининг сотиб олувчи томонидан сотувчига тўлиқ ўтказиб берилишини таъминловчи барча ҳисоб-китоб турлари.

**collection order-инкасса топшириқномаси**

**commercial invoice-сотилган товарларнинг ҳаммо реквизитларини ўзида акс эттирувчи жорий ҳисоб-факутураси**

**commercial law-тижорий ҳуқуқ**

**commercial mortgage lending- ишбилармонлик фаолиятини молиялашда фойдаланиладиган мол-мулкни гаровга олиш асосида кредитлаш**

**commercial teller- корхонага хизмат кўрсатувчи банк бухгалтерияси ходими**

**commodity exchange-товар биржаси**

**common stock- оддий акциялар**

**data of maturity- (қарзни) қайтариш (узиш) муддати**

**demand loan-кредит олувчининг хоҳиши бўйича ёки талаб қилинган вақтда қайтараладиган ссуда**

**deny payment-тўловдан воз кечмоқ**

**direct costs -тўғридан-тўғри (бевосита) харажатлар**

**disbursement -тўлаш, тўлов (пул маблағлари ёки чек билан)**

**exchange market-валюта бозори- чут эл валютаси ва чет эл валютасидаги тўлов ҳужжатларининг олди-сотди савдосидаги ижтимоий-иқтисодий ва ташкилий муносаботлар мажмуаси.**

**expenses-харажатлар, чиқимлар**

**expenses of circulation- муомала харажатлари- ишлаб чиқарувчининг товарларни сотиш ва сотиб олиш билан боғлиқ бўлган харажатлари.**

**license -лицензия- савдо маркази, ишлаб чиқариш сири, малака, техник билим, патент билан ҳимояланган кашфиётлардан фойдаланиш учун ташкилот ёки айрим шахсларга берилган рухсатнома.**

**loan agreement-кредит шартномаси**

**loan contract-кредит шартномаси, кредит битими**

**loan type-ссуда тури**

Each language has its own system for arranging concepts into different parts of speech making it risky to seek one – to – one equivalents. One language may use the verb form more frequently, where another will seek to express the same meanings by means of a verbal noun or an adjective. Such skewing between the grammar and semantic structure is a device, which counteracts monotony in the presentation of information.

The lexical items of a language represent a network of interrelated meanings that has been called a cognitive network. No two languages will have equivalent sets of terms referring to a particular domain. This is clearer in the case of tangible objects, but is also true in the case of verbs. Larson gives the example of Bora (Pera) in which a number of verb roots are used to describe different forms of “coming” and “going”, which do not match the English verbs [35 ].

The difficulty of translation between languages involves much more than the problem of lexical equivalents. The structure used to convey the information in the source language needs to be abandoned if the information is to be embodied in the receptor language without loss or distortion of meaning. Whereas meaning components are combined into concepts, concepts are themselves combined to form propositions.

Taking into account all above-said, we give the analysis of some articles from the newspapers. Commercial terms have their own treatment according to which we can define their peculiarities. For example, let’ study the following sentence:

Taiwan is planning to use a T\$1000 by (US\$ 28564) *fund to share up real estate prices by buying property-backed problem loans* and holding them until *the market recovers*.

The translation of this sentence seems easy. Obviously, a learner of English may take into consideration not all the words. If we analyze it according to lexical method it would be clear that terms of commerce used here may have proper or improper equivalents in Uzbek. Let’s take “**fund**”, it has the same equivalent in Uzbek - фонд. The same association may give “**loans**” – қарзлар, кредитлар, but

if we take terms separately we can see a clear picture of their inner peculiarities:

To share up — қўллаб қувватламоқ, ёрдам(кўмак) бермоқ

Real estate prices — кўчмас мулк нархлари

Property- backed — мол — мулкни ҳимоя этувчи

Market recovers — бозорни қайта жойлашуви (жадаллашуви)

Now let's see the translation of the above-given example into Uzbek::

*Тайван кўчмас мулк нархларини қўллаб, қуватлаш мақсадида бир минг миллиард тайва доллари (28,5 млрд АҚШ доллари) миқдоридagi фондни ажратди. Бунда Тайван мол мулкни ҳимоясига йўналтирилган кредитларни сотиб олиб, бозор жойлангунга қадар ушлаб туришини режалаштирмоқда.*

Newspaper articles differ with their various topics. Information and articles of informational character are much more composed, business and “free – bound” according to their style. Adequateness in translation of such articles are often done by the way of syntactical change of a sentence or sentences, structural changes, i.e. substitution and using lexical correspondences. For example:

*The head of Germany's powerful trade union movement has warned the government against introducing far – reaching economic reforms, and has threatened labour movement opposition if it does so.*

*Германиянинг кучли савдо бирлашмаси ҳаракати раҳбари янгиб ҳали охири кўринмас иқтисодий ислоҳатларни киритишга қаршилигини билдириб, ҳукуматни огоҳлантирди ва агар ҳукумат шундай қарорга келадиган бўлса, ишчилар норозилик ҳаракатини бошлаб юбориши ҳақида дўқ — пўписа қилди.*

In order to translate this sentence we changed a lot in it. Lexical and grammatical substitution in translation took place, that is the reason for adequateness. The translation itself has more words than the original due to the



addition, if we do not add a reader may not understand the whole meaning. Now we will draw your attention to the following extract from the newspaper 'Financial Times':

*1. In the national budget, Trevor Manuel, finance minister, allowed local companies and financial institutions to invest more outside Africa. He also released funds of South Africans who have left the country but could not take their savings with them because of exchange controls.*

*Африка Молия вазири Тревор Мануэл маҳаллий компаниялар ва молиявий корхоналарни Африкадан ташқарига кўпроқ инвиститцияларин чиқаришни таклиф этди. Мамлакатдан кетган жанубий африкаликларнинг капиталларини олиб кетишга рухсат берди бироқ улар оширилаётган пул алмашинуви назорати туфайли олиб кета олмадилар.*

The following extract shows the same changes in translation :

*2. The European Union took a step closer to possible retaliation over a US corporate tax scheme yesterday. When the European Commission issued a draft final list of US exports that could be hit with sanctions worth \$4bn ( € 3.7bn, J 2.5bn). The commission also said it was considering ways of legally sheltering Europe Union companies from criminal proceedings under the US 1916 anti – dumping act. The act, little used until recently, has been ruled illegal by the world trade organization.*

*Кеча АҚШнинг корпаратив солиқ тизимига қарши Европа Иттифоқи репрессалия эълон қилди. Бунда Европа Комиссияси АҚШ экспорт молларининг сўнгги рўйхатини чиқарди. Бу рўйхат 4 млрд. АҚШ долларига тенг санкцияга қаршидир.*

*Комиссиянинг таъкидлашича, бу ҳаракат АҚШнинг 1916 йилги демпингга қарши актига асосан Европа компанияларини ноқонуний жиноий жараёнлардан ҳимоя қилади.*

Translating these extracts we have to address to Muller’s English – Russian dictionary, then to Russian – Uzbek dictionary, which give us more detailed information about the meanings of the words used as terms. When we looked Muller’s dictionary we found out the following information about the meanings of some terms:

In the first extract: release – қўйиб юбормоқ, озод этмоқ; юмшатмоқ, оғриқни қолдирмоқ; ташламоқ (авиа бомбани); нашрдан чиқармоқ; кечмоқ (қарздан); рад этмоқ (ҳуқуқни)

If we take the words together “released funds” this expression doesn’t give us proper understanding. That’s why we have to study them in the context and define their contextual meaning. The contextual meaning of the expression “released funds” has been translated into Uzbek as the following:

“Капиталларни олиб кетишга рухсат берди”.

Here we used the lexical method – addition. The next word – “savings” – can be translated as “ жамарма пуллари” which completely coincides with the Uzbek word.

In the second extract we have the following terms: retaliation – репрессалия; sanction – санкция; dumping – демпинг.

All three words are considered international economic – trade words. Here we had to use their own meanings, otherwise we could give their descriptive translation. Grammatically in both extracts there are some changes in their syntactical patterns in order to let Uzbek readers understand them.

Thus, terms of commerce in English and Uzbek have some common features (the same meaning or similar meanings and notions) on the one hand, and some peculiarities (distinctive meanings, notions), on the other side. There are universal and original international terms that enlarge the terminology vocabulary in Uzbek and they have identical meanings in both languages. There are specific terms the meanings of which don’t coincide, they have different meanings in two compared languages.

## CONCLUSION

The study of terms in different spheres of life and in different fields of economy is one of the actual significant issues today. The Republic of Uzbekistan has close relationships with many foreign countries and cooperates with them in different spheres: economy, culture, education, agriculture and others. The economists and other specialists go abroad to exchange experience, to study and work, and our foreign partners come to our country with the same purposes. In this case we deal with the issues of translation from English into Uzbek and on the contrary, from Uzbek into English. The actuality and novelty of the given Qualification Thesis is defined by the necessity to solve these above-mentioned questions. The choice of commercial terms as the basic subject of the research work may be explained by this fact. The main aim of the work is : to study commercial terms in English and their translations into Uzbek.

The word stock of a language may be represented as a definite system in which different aspects of words may be singled out as interdependent. A special branch of linguistic science – lexicology – has done much to classify vocabulary. A glance at the contents of any book on lexicology will suffice to ascertain the outline of the system of the word stock of the language. For our purpose, i.e. for linguistics, a special type of classification that is stylistic classification is the most important.

Terms are mostly and predominantly used in special works dealing with the notions of some branch of science. Therefore it may be said that they belong to the style of language of science. But their use is not confined to this style. They may as well appear in other styles – in newspaper style, in publicistic and practically in all other existing styles of language. But their function in this case changes. They don't always fulfill their basic function, that of bearing exact reference to a given concept. When used in the belles-lettres style, a term may acquire a stylistic function and consequently become a stylistic device. This happens when a term is used in such a way that two meanings are materialized simultaneously.

The function of terms, if encountered in other styles, is either to indicate the technical peculiarities of the subject dealt with, or to make some reference to the occupation of a character whose language would naturally contain special words and expressions.

The literary layer of words consists of groups accepted as legitimate members of the English vocabulary, it includes the common literary words and special literary vocabulary. Common literary words are chiefly used in writing and polished speech. The literary vocabulary consists of the following groups of words:

- a) common literary;
- b) terms and learned words;
- c) poetic words;
- d) archaic words;
- e) barbarisms and foreign words;
- f) literary coinages including nonce-words

The common literary, neutral and common colloquial words are grouped under the term standard English vocabulary. Other groups in the literary layer are regarded as special literary vocabulary and those in the colloquial layer are regarded as special colloquial (non-literary) vocabulary.

In addition to terms, a text on some special problem usually contains a considerable proportion of so-called learned words, such as approximate (a), commence (v), compute (v), exclude (v), feasible (a), heterogeneous (a), homogeneous (a), indicate (v), initial (a), internal (a), miscellaneous (a), multiplicity (n), respectively (adv). This layer is especially rich in adjectives.

The main factor at the bottom of all problems, concerning style is the concept of choice and synonymy in the widest sense of the word. All learned words have their everyday synonyms, which may seem either not dignified enough for scientific usage or less precise. The layer also has some other purely linguistic peculiarities. It has been noted, for instance, that the learned layer of vocabulary is characterized by a phenomenon which may be appropriately called lexical

simpleton. This term is used for pairs like father (n) - paternal (a), name(n)-domestic (a), lip (n) - labial (a), mind (n) - mental (a), son (n)-filial (a), sun (n) – solar (a). In all these cases a stylistically neutral noun of native origin is correlated with a borrowed relative adjective. The semantic relationship between them is quite regular. All these adjectives can characterize something through their relation to the object named by the noun. There exist also adjectives of the same root produced by derivation, but they are qualitative adjectives, besides, only some of them (like fatherly, peaceful) show the regular semantic pattern, others (like homely ”simple”, “plan”) show irregular semantic derivation.

The learned vocabulary comprises some archaic connectives not used elsewhere. It also contains double conjunctions, like *moreover*, *furthermore*, *however*, *such as*, and group conjunctions: *in consequence*, *in as much as*, etc. There may be an abundance of obsolete connectives elsewhere, but in this type of speech they are especially frequent because English tradition for business correspondence requires in many cases the whole message to be compressed into one sentence, no matter how many clauses this might involve.

There are some set expressions used in scientific and other special texts: as follows, as early as, in terms of, etc. By way of example a short quotation from a linguistic text by W. Croff may be helpful: such a description would be in terms of historical development and of empirical conditions such as the relative position of the components, the morphological and syntactical treatment, accentual relations, systematic structure and contrast.

The Qualification Paper deals with the English for specific purposes and the analysis of commercial terms and their translation problems. We worked out concrete practical recommendations to settle the problems arising.

The tasks put in the Qualification Paper were solved in the following way:

- we gave the general characterization of English for specific purposes and its types and its differences from English for general purposes;
- we described effective strategies for teaching Business English
- we analyzed the translation problems of terms of commerce and their

peculiarities;

- we determined the possible ways of solving difficulties in translation ;
- we distinguished lexical methods of analyzing the terms by choosing them.

Each language has its own system for arranging concepts into different parts of speech making it risky to seek one – to – one equivalents. One language may use the verb form more frequently, where another will seek to express the same meanings by means of a verbal noun or an adjective. Such skewing between the grammar and semantic structure is a device, which counteracts monotony in the presentation of information.

The difficulty of translation in different languages involves much more than the problem of lexical equivalents. The structure used to convey the information in the source language needs to be abandoned if the information is to be embodied in the receptor language without loss or distortion of meaning. Whereas meaning components are combined into concepts, concepts are themselves combined to form propositions.

This linguistic phenomenon of commercial terms was thoroughly investigated with modern methods of comprehensive analysis which were used to achieve the aims and tasks put forward in the presented qualification paper. The work has some practical importance, its materials can be used when preparing lectures and at the practical lesson and seminars in “English Lexicology”, “Theory and practice of translation”, for writing manuals, textbooks, etc. It may be useful for students to discuss lexical problems of theory of translation.

Thus, the research work deals with various points of view and approaches to the definition of terms, different ideas of scholars on the issues of English for specific purposes, effective strategies for teaching Business English, commercial terms through the prism of theory of translation, the structural and semantic analysis of commercial terms in English, their equivalents and translation into Uzbek. Bibliography includes the list of literature used in the Qualification Paper: the works of the famous scholars, books, manuals, dictionaries and Internet resources.

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## APPENDIX A

### Samples of tasks on the consolidation of terms.

*Task 1.* State the nature of the terms in the following passages and comment on them. State what fields of science the terms belong to.

1. "... don't you go to him for anything more serious than a pendectomy of the left ear or a strabismus of the cardiograph". No one save Kennicott knew exactly what this meant, but they laughed. (S.Lewis).
2. ...he rode up to the campus, arranged for a room in the graduate dormitory and went at once to the empty Physics building. (M.Wilson).
3. "Didn't you believe that the neutron existed?" "Oh, I believed. To me neutrons were symbols,  $n$  with a mass of  $m_n = 1,008$ . But until now I never saw them." (M.Wilson).
4. "Good", Abbey said suddenly. He took up a specimen- it was an aneurism of the ascending oarta- and began in a friendly manner to question Andrew... "Do you know anything of the history of aneurism?"
5. He brought his upper and lower lips together, protruded them forward, and placed them softly against hers in a movement seen also in the orang-outang but never in the hippopotamus.
6. "What a fool Rawdon Crawley has been", Clump replied, "to go and marry a governess! There was something about the girl too". "Green eyes, fair skin, pretty figure, famous frontal development", Squills remarked. (Thackeray).
7. "They're real!" he murmured. "My God, they are absolutely real!" Erik turned. "Didn't you believe that the neutron existed?" "Oh, I believed", Fabermacher shrugged away the phrase. "To me neutrons were symbols..." (M.Wilson).

*Task 2.* Pick out linguistic terms and translate extracts into your mother tongue.

1. In discussing the order of words it is advisable to treat first of simple sentences and headclauses of compound sentences, before we take the subordinate clause.

The most important question as to word-order is the relative position of the subject and the verbal part of the predicate. The position of the rest of the sentence often depends upon this. (Cruisinga).

2. The commonest way of making new words is by what is called derivation. We are all familiar with this method by which a prefix or suffix is added to an already existing word, as “coolness” is formed by adding the suffix – *ness* to “cool”, or in “distrust” *dis-* is prefixed to “trust”. Many of these affixes we know to have been originally separate words.

Our mind differentiates between the original meaning and the newly acquired one, so that although it is still only one word it has two or possibly more specialized meanings.

If a friend tells us he will send us a wire, we know that wire in this case means a telegram; but we also know that in another context it would mean the metallic filament. That way is the original sense of it, the other is merely a transferred meaning, originating in the fact that telegrams are sent by means of wires. (Wood)

3. Living affixes are easily singled out from a word. Living affixes are traditionally in their turn divided into productive and non-productive. The term “productivity” is a subject of discussion among the linguists.

The term “productive” is often used rather indiscriminately to refer both to certain aspects of the behavior of the speakers of a language and to certain diachronic trends while there is presumably in many cases a connection between these two aspects of productivity. It is necessary to keep the distinction in mind. Moreover, and more importantly the concept of what we might term “synchronic productivity” is itself often used in a rather ill-defined way in the area of word formation, and it is in many cases difficult to decide just what is being implied when a morphological process is said to be synchronically productive (K.E.Zimmer).

## APPENDIX B

### Commerce terms in English and their equivalents in Uzbek.

absolute majority - мутлоқ, кўпчилик

advance, payment in advance, pre-payment - аванс, бўлак

to advance money - бўлакلامок

advance balance – бўлак ҳисоботи

in advance - бўлак тариқасида

automated production – автоматлаштирилган ишлаб чиқариш

assets, foreign assets – авуарлар (чет эл банкига қуйилган пуллар)

agent, representative – агент, вакил

agency - агентлик, вакиллик

addressed allocation of funds- олувчиси кўрсатилган ҳолда маблағ

ажратиш

acquisitor - аквизитор

acquisition- аквизиция

by the piece payment, lump-work - ҳақ бай

accreditation - аккредитлаш

assets - фаол, актив пул

assets and liabilities - актив ва пассив (пул)

favorable balance - актив баланс

accounting by acceptance – акцент шаклида ҳисоб-китоб қилиш

to purchase - сотиб олмоқ

alimony - ундирма нафақалар, алиментлар

accumulation - жамғарма

depreciated accumulation - ейилма жамғармалар

market analysis - бозор вазияти таҳлили

to annual an agreement latreaty - шартномани бекор қилмоқ

currency arbitrage, arbitration - валюта ҳакамлиги

interest - bearing arbitrage without initial payment – фарвар қоплашли фоизли  
ҳакамлик

rent, lease -ижара  
renter, leaseholder, lessee - ижарачи  
rental relationships -ижара муносабатлари  
lessor -ижарага берувчи  
allocation, appropriation - маблағ  
budgetary allocation -бюджет маблағи  
auction -кимошди  
auctioneer - аукционер  
auction trader - кимошди савдоси  
base price - асосий нарх  
balance -мувозанат  
unfavorable balance - пассив баланси  
trade balance -савдо мувозанати  
initial value of goods - асосий ишлаб чиқариш жамғармаларининг  
мувозанат қиймати  
bank -банк  
commercial bank -тижорат банки  
banknotes - қоғоз пуллар  
volume (banking ) business -банк операциялари  
bank capital -банк капитали  
bank credit - банк кредити  
bank transfer -банк ўтказмалари  
bank interest - банк фоизи  
bankruptcy -банкрот бўлиш  
barter - мол айирбошлаш  
barter transaction -бартер битими  
barter exchange -бартер алмашуви  
without pay -тўловсиз  
barter, exchange -валютасиз айирбош қилмоқ  
free aid -беғараз ёрдам

profitless, none profit - фойдасиз, даромадсиз  
cashless accounting, accounting by transfer -ақд пулсиз ҳисоб китоб  
free,gratis - бепул  
duty-free tariff-free import -божсиз келтириш  
interest-free loan -фоизсиз қарз  
exchange - биржа, тижоратгоҳ  
commodity's exchange -товар биржаси  
labour exchange - меҳнат биржаси  
stock market -биржа савдоси  
market value -бозор ҳисоб китоби  
stock trade - биржа савдоси  
dealer, trader in stock - биржачи  
reserved items, items on reserve -банд қилинган маблағлар  
gross -брутто, ялпи  
expressed in terms of money -пул билан ифодаланганда  
on the average - ўртача  
on account of - ҳисобига  
gross profit -ялпи фойда  
gross production -ялпи маҳсулот  
gross income - ялпи даромад  
currency - валюта  
currency operation - валюта муомаласи  
rate of exchange - валюта курси  
list of defects -нуқсонлар қайдномаси  
list of expenses - харажатлар қайдномаси  
by rent -ижарага  
foreign trade association -ташқи савдо бирлашмаси  
foreign trade -ташқи савдо  
sum of foreign trade - ташқи савдо муомаласи  
foreign loan - ташқи қарз

internal market - ички бозор  
internal trade - ички савдо  
to reply, to pay of one's debts - қарзни тўламоқ  
to refund, reimburse, compensate - тўламоқ, ундирмоқ  
to recover losses - зарарни тўламоқ  
profit, benefit - фойда  
permanent assets – бекитилган фаол пул  
to be freed of debt - қарздан қутулмоқ  
redemption, ransom - қайтариб олиш учун тўланадиган пул  
disbursement - пул тўлови  
to pay off debts - қарз тўлови  
to release a portion of working funds - айланма, муомиладаги  
маблағларнинг бир қисмини бўшатмоқ  
high profit - юқори фойда  
high prices - юқори нархлар  
high income - юқори даромад  
high – paying, highly profitable - сердаромад  
calculation of interest / percentages - фоизни ҳисоблаш  
to calculate - ҳисобламоқ  
letter of guarantee - далолатнома  
to liquidate debts - қарзларни тўламоқ  
annual income - йиллик даромад  
bonus - устама пул  
trade documentation - савдога оид ҳужжатлар  
extra payment - қўшимча ҳақ  
costly goods - қимматбаҳо моллар  
sufficient funds - етарли маблағ  
reasonable prices - арзон баҳолар  
income - даромад, кирим  
profitable enterprise - даромад келтирадиган корхона

profitable - даромадли  
to inflate prices -наrx-навони ошириб юбормоқ  
to overprice - нарх-навони ошириб юбормоқ  
unsold goods - касод товарлар  
deposit - гаров, залог  
pawning - гаров, залог  
to change exorbitant price - жуда юкори нарх қўймоқ, сўрамоқ  
freezing of income -даромадларни тўхтатиб қўйиш  
to freeze capital(assets) -капиталларни ишга солмаслик  
to spend -сарфламоқ  
to expend -сарфламоқ  
expenses - сарф -харажатлар  
to profit - фойда кырма=

final sum - жами сумма  
quality goods - сифатли товар  
client - мижоз  
customer - мижоз  
businessman - тижоратчи, савдогар  
tradesman - тижоратчи, савдогар  
merchant - тижорат  
commerce - тижорат  
trade - тижорат  
trading- тижорат  
commercial activity - тижорат фаолияти  
commercial operations - тижорат  
transactions - муаммолари  
sales manager - тижорат директори  
commercial enterprise - тижорат корхона  
terms and conditions of a contract -контрактнинг шартлари  
crisis - кризис



broker - брокер  
stock broker – биржа брокери  
showing little profit – озгина фойда курсатиш  
minimal expenditures – минимал  
minimum time period – минимум вақт  
cash - касса  
funds that have not been accounted for – ҳисобга олинмаган фонд  
unprofitable - фойдаси йўқ  
face value – қуриниб турган баҳоси  
to negotiate the terms – шартларини гапириш  
example - мисол  
model - модель  
fixed capital – ўрнатилган капитал  
to open an account – счёти ошиш  
share – доля, пойи  
partnership- партнёрство, ўз-ара ишлаш  
initial value- биринчи баҳоси  
initial working capital- биринчи иш капитали  
transfer - ўтказиш  
profit redistribution-қайтадан бўлиштириш  
planned profit- режалаштирилган фойда  
payer-тўлайтугун одам  
payment- тулаш  
balance of payments- тўлаш баланси  
result- натижа  
fruit - миво  
to pay off a debt- қаризни тўлаш  
to receive an income- доход олиш  
to receive a profit- фойда олиш  
price list- баҳо кўрсаткичи

income and expenditures - олиш ва совуш  
rental - рента  
direct deliveries - туўғри эткизиш  
calculation - санов  
cost sheet - баҳоси  
accounting operation - хисобга олинган операция (харакат)  
accounting profit- хисобга олинган фойда  
profitability- фойдаланиш  
free market- эркин бозор  
economic market- экономика бозори  
balance- баланс  
self repayment- ўз-ўзига тўлаш  
self financing - ўз финансини тамийнлаш  
prime cost - дастлабки баҳоси  
trade margin - савдо  
retail trade- қисқа савдо  
trade by gross-опта савдоси  
trade agreement- савдо келишими  
to expend- совуш  
price- баҳо  
base price- асосий баҳо  
contractual price- шартнома асосидаги баҳо  
purchase price-молнинг баҳоси  
increased price- юқори (усган) баҳо  
whole sale price-умумий сотиш баҳоси  
retail price - камайтилган баҳоси

**Нукусский государственный педагогический институт им. Ажинияза**  
**Факультет иностранных языков**

**Кафедра английского языка и литературы**

**Учебный год:** 2014-2015

**Студент:** 4 «Ж» курса Хасанбоев Азизбек Атабекович

**Научный руководитель:** ст. преподаватель кафедры английского языка и литературы Рзаева Р.К.

**Тема выпускной квалификационной работы:** Comparative study of business terms in the English and Uzbek languages.

### **АВТОРСКАЯ АННОТАЦИЯ**

**1.Актуальность темы исследования.** Актуальность темы работы обусловлена тем, что изучение английского языка для специальных целей, и в частности изучение коммерческих терминов английского языка делового общения представляет интерес и является необходимым в особенности сейчас, когда наша республика имеет тесные связи со многими развитыми зарубежными странами в области экономики и торговли.

**2.Цели и задачи работы** Основной целью работы является описание и анализ коммерческих терминов и их перевод на узбекский язык. В задачи работы входит также структурный и семантический анализ эквивалентов английских терминов в узбекском языке.

**3.Объект и предмет исследования.** Объектом исследования являются коммерческие термины. Предметом исследования являются труды известных лингвистов В.В.Виноградова, О.С.Ахмановой, А.А.Уфимцевой, Г.Ибсон, А. Шайкевич, Дж. Трайор, В. Крофф и других.

**4.Методология и методы исследования.** Методология исследования основана на Постановлениях Президента Республики Узбекистан, теории и положениях, выдвинутых известными учеными по словарному составу английского языка. В работе использованы сравнительный метод и методы структурного и семантического анализа.

**5.Научная новизна и результаты исследования.**

Новизна работы заключается в том, что в ней делается попытка составить словарь коммерческих терминов в английском языке и их эквивалентов в узбекском языке, системно изложить вопросы терминологии и дать характеристику специальных терминов.

**6. Практическая ценность и внедрение результатов** Работа имеет большую практическую ценность. Материалы и результаты работы могут быть использованы на лекционных и практических занятиях по «Лексикологии английского языка» и «Теории и практике перевода» для студентов вузов республики, а также в деловом общении.

**7. Структура работы.** Выпускная работа состоит из Введения, двух глав, заключения и библиографии. Каждая глава состоит из нескольких параграфов. В Заключении делаются выводы по всей работе и в библиографии приводится список использованной литературы и ресурсы Интернет.

**8. Основные результаты выполненной работы.** Результатами работы является то, что она содержит богатый практический и теоретический материал по вопросам терминологии. Важным является вывод о том, что сложные слова и словосочетания имеют больше соответствий в узбекском языке чем простые слова.

**9. Краткое обобщённое изложение выводов и предложений .**

Изучение коммерческих терминов в английском языке и их эквивалентов в узбекском языке представляет одну из актуальных вопросов лексикологии, так как в настоящее время укрепилась связи республики с другими странами и появилась необходимость в переводе в сфере экономики, коммерции и других отраслях. В работе делается попытка составить англо-узбекский словарь коммерческих терминов.

Научный руководитель:

Рзаева Р.К.

Студент:

Хасанбоев А.А.

## ОТЗЫВ

**на выпускную квалификационную работу студента 4 «Ж» курса кафедры английского языка и литературы факультета иностранных языков НГПИ им. Ажинияза А.А.Хасанбоева на тему : «Comparative study of business terms in the English and Uzbek languages»**

Выпускная квалификационная работа А.А.Хасанбоева посвящается актуальному вопросу лексикологии – изучению терминов по коммерции в современном английском языке и их перевода на узбекский язык.

Работа состоит из Введения, двух глав, заключения и библиографии. Во Введении излагаются основная цель и задачи работы, её теоретическая и практическая значимости, новизна и актуальность темы исследования.

**Глава I** содержит общую характеристику словарного состава английского языка. В словарном составе английского языка выделяются три основных пласта слов: нейтральные, литературные и разговорные. Термины относятся к общим литературным словам, они в основном применяются в стиле научного изложения. В работе автор опирается на положения по вопросам терминологии, изложенные в трудах известных лингвистов: В.В.Виноградова, А.А.Уфимцевой, Дж. Трайор, А.Шайкевич, В.Крофф, Г.Ибсон, А.И.Смирницкого, О.С.Ахмановой и других.

**Глава II** работы посвящается вопросам обучения английскому языку для специальных целей, изучения терминов по коммерции в сфере делового общения, их особенностей, структурному и семантическому анализу английских терминов. Автор работы выделяет полные, частичные, абсолютные и относительные эквиваленты. В приложении приводятся задания по усвоению терминов делового английского языка и словарь коммерческих терминов. В Заключении делаются выводы по всей работе и в библиографии приводится список использованной литературы.

Выпускная работа А.А.Хасанбоева отвечает требованиям и рекомендуется к защите.

Научный руководитель:

Рзаева Р.К.

## РЕЦЕНЗИЯ

**на выпускную квалификационную работу студента 4 «Ж» курса кафедры английского языка и литературы факультета иностранных языков НГПИ им. Ажинияза А.А.Хасанбоева на тему : «Comparative study of business terms in the English and Uzbek languages»**

Выпускная квалификационная работа А.А.Хасанбоева посвящается актуальному вопросу – изучению терминов в английском языке для делового общения, и в частности, коммерческих терминов в современном английском языке и их эквивалентов в узбекском языке.. Выбор темы исследования обусловлен тем, что Республика Узбекистан имеет тесные связи с другими зарубежными странами в различных отраслях экономики, включая и коммерческую деятельность и торговлю. Коммерческие термины необходимы для общения и сотрудничества, они играют большую роль в обогащении словарного состава английского языка и необходимо подбирать адекватные эквиваленты при переводе на узбекский язык.

Выпускная работа состоит из Введения, двух глав, заключения и библиографии. Во Введении излагаются основная цель и задачи работы, её теоретическая и практическая значимости, новизна и актуальность темы исследования.

**Глава I** содержит общую характеристику словарного состава английского языка, описание терминов, занимающих особое место в общем литературном пласте словарного состава. В работе использованы труды известных лингвистов по вопросам словарного состава и в частности терминологии: В.В.Виноградова, А.И.Смирницкого, О.С.Ахмановой, А.А.Уфимцевой, Дж. Трайор, А.Шайкевич, В.Крофф, Г.Ибсон и других. В работе делается попытка определить место терминов в словарном составе английского языка и показать особенности коммерческих терминов, приводятся высказывания известных учёных по изучаемой проблеме.

**Глава II** работы посвящается вопросам изучения коммерческих терминов и их особенностей в английском языке, а также структурному

анализу коммерческих терминов, их эквивалентов в узбекском языке. В результате исследования были выявлены следующие эквиваленты коммерческих терминов в узбекском языке: полные, частичные, абсолютные и относительные. С помощью сравнительного метода показаны отличительные особенности простых и сложных слов, а также и словосочетаний в английском и узбекском языках.

В этой главе также проводится семантический анализ коммерческих терминов английского языка и их эквивалентов в узбекском языке. Для лучшего усвоения терминов в приложениях даются задания и словарь-минимум коммерческих терминов. Практический материал представлен упражнениями, текстами и заданиями, взятыми из различных учебников, учебных пособий и других источников. В работе делается попытка составить словарь-минимум коммерческих терминов в английском языке и их эквивалентов в узбекском языке, после основной части даётся приложение с терминами по коммерции.

В Заключении делаются выводы по всей работе и в Библиографии приводится список использованной литературы, а также ресурсы Интернет.

Следует отметить что в работе собран большой теоретический и практический материал, который можно использовать на практических занятиях по английскому языку для студентов экономического факультета, а также на лекционных и семинарских занятиях по лексикологии английского языка, теории и практике перевода.

Выпускная работа А.А.Хасанбоева отвечает требованиям, рекомендуется к защите и заслуживает хорошей оценки.

Доц. кафедры английского языка

КГУ им. Бердаха :

к.ф.н. Тлеумуратов Г.Т.

