

ФИЛОЛОГИЧЕСКИЕ НАУКИ

LEXICO-SEMANTIC AND FUNCTIONAL PECULIARITIES OF BUSINESS DISCOURSE AS MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

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DOI: 10.31618/ESU.2413-9335.2020.3.76.909*

ABSTRACT

The article considers the communicative-pragmatic approach to the study of business discourse, analyzes the relationship between the business and the Internet space, reveals the genre specificity of blogs and the peculiarities of business discourse.

The intentional base of business discourse is the struggle for power, which predetermines its main functions and methods of their implementation, speech acts, strategies and tactics. The goal of business discourse is not to describe, but to convince, having awakened intentions in the addressee, to give ground for persuasion and induce to action, in which the manipulative orientation of business discourse is manifested. Speech integration, orientation and aggression are widely used in accordance with the illocutionary purpose of expressing intentionality.

Discourse is political when it accompanies a political act in a political setting. It has both common language functions and characteristic features of business discourse. The most important functions of social control and the legitimization of power can be considered, since it is they who have manipulative influence on the public, thereby achieving the main goal business discourse - the possession of power and control of society.

In this research discourse can be used in any forms of communication related to the sphere of language. Such a definition of discourse involves the study of political language material taking into account the cultural, spatial and temporal conditions of its existence, as well as socio-cultural and personal characteristics of its creators and authors.

In this regard, the issues of discourse analysis, as the most influential on public consciousness and widespread in the business, identifying its linguistic and extra-linguistic features are highlighted today, which requires to the system-forming signs of discourse, its units, basic concepts and functions prove the topicality of our research.

Practical part identifies the main lexico-semantic, stylistic-syntactic and pragmatic features of modern business discourse in websites and mass business. It deals with a description of the functional and pragmatic capabilities of lexical and stylistic means in posts in political in websites and mass business, analyzes the pragmatic potential of these units and determines the range of their communicative and pragmatic functions.

The novelty of the research lies in the fact that it considers the features of the web-site discourse from semantic, stylistic and communicative-pragmatic aspect, which will further deepen and expand the special knowledge in the conceptual world view of the English-speaking community and their fixation on the linguistic map.

The purpose of the research work is to consider the most effective language means of representing the communicative and pragmatic potential of business discourse in web-sites and mass business. In the achievement of the main purpose of the study, the following tasks were set:

- to characterize the phenomenon of discourse as a linguistic phenomenon;
- to consider the specifics of the linguistic picture of the world in the framework of business discourse;
- to identify the features of the functional, mainly linguo-cultural and stylistic peculiarities business discourse, reflecting business discourse in web-sites and mass business;
- to establish the general conditions for the productivity of lexical and stylistic and syntactic means in website discourse.

Key words: business discourse, linguistic picture of the world, communicative-pragmatic aspect, syntactic analysis, context, website discourse, advertisement

Methodology

The implementation of the tasks was carried out using the **methods of research**, such as: lexical-semantic, stylistic and syntactic analysis, along with linguistic observation method, statistical analysis for processing which can be useful in defining the role of lexical innovations and stylistic-syntactic means in the

context of the implementation of communicative-pragmatic functions. The methods of discourse analysis and content analysis of more than 200 articles from mass media enabled to analyze hidden meaning of the text and in the context and the types of stylistic means.

Introduction

Discourse performs the function of influencing the listener through attracting attention, certain emotions, and persuasion. The pragmatic focus of discourse, its “concrete setting on the recipient of information” determines not only the selection of linguistic and non-linguistic means, but also the method of their presentation and organization. Discourse is a type of institutional discourse, a specialized kind of communication, due to the social functions of partners and regulated both in content and form.

The business discourse of the American version of the English language, its linguistic and sociocultural features are constantly in the center of attention of linguists, since the connection between language and politics is obvious. Stating this fact, V. I. Karasik stresses that “the specificity of politics, unlike a number of other spheres of human activity, lies in its predominantly discursive nature: many political actions are by their very nature speech acts” [1].

For many years, the definition of the concept of discourse is one of the problems in linguistics. Discourse as a linguistic category is a complex and multi-valued object of study. This difficulty lies in the fact that the discourse is a phenomenon between speech and communication, language behavior, on the one hand, and fixed text, on the other hand.

Many terms used in linguistics of speech, pragmalinguistics, psycholinguistics, linguo-cultural and linguistic cultural are interpreted ambiguously. Among them is the concept of discourse. In modern linguistics, there are many definitions of discourse. The first term “discourse” was introduced by E. Benveniste in linguistics. Eli Hinkel and Sandra Fotos define discourse as speech assigned to the speaker, as opposed to narration, which unfolds without the explicit intervention of the subject of the utterance [2, p. 129].

There are many definitions of this term. Frances Henry and Carol Tator propose to understand the discourse in a broad and narrow sense [3, p. 7-37]. In a broad sense, discourse (as complex communicative event) is a communicative event occurring between the speaker, the listener (the observer, etc.) in the process of communicative action in a certain temporal and spatial context [4, p. 243]. This communicative action can be verbal, written, verbal and non-verbal. Typical examples are an ordinary conversation with a friend, a dialogue between a doctor and a patient, reading a newspaper [5, 52p.].

Discourse in its narrow sense (as a text or conversation) is a verbal component of a communicative action, which is referred to as a “text” or “conversation”. In this sense, Kubryakova E. S., Aleksandrova O. V. Define the term discourse refers to the completed or ongoing “product” of a communicative action, its written or speech result, which is interpreted by the recipients [4, p. 7]. That is, the discourse in the most general sense is a written or verbal product of a communicative action [6, p. 37].

In linguistic science, the term “*discourse*” is one of the most commonly used and at the same time one of the most ambiguous. It has a lot of definitions.

1. Discourse relates to the concept of text, with the form of the text, with arbitrary text fragment. Krasnykh V.V. calls the discourse “actual spoken text” [7, p. 169].

The terms *speech* and *text* as two aspects of a discourse will be specific to the discourse uniting their generic term. Discourse is understood as all that is said and written, in other words, as speech activity, which is “at the same time linguistic material” [5, p.29], and in any of its representations - sound or graphic.

2. Discourse is correlated with the notion of a statement, with a group of statements, an integral speech work, in this connection Galperin I.R. [8, p.86] identifies three main approaches to the interpretation of the designated concept: the first approach is carried out from the standpoint of formally or structurally oriented linguistics and determines discourse as “a language above the level of a sentence or phrase”. The second approach is connected with the functional definition of discourse is any “use of language” in a broad socio-cultural context. The third version of the definition is based on the synthesis of the above definitions that emphasizes the interaction of form and function - “discourse as a statement”. It means that, discourse is not a primitive set of isolated units of the “several sentenced” language structures, but an integral set of functionally organized, contextualized units of language use.

The neat approach to the definition of discourse is noted in Nazarova T. B. [9, p. 37 - 38], he identifies eight meanings of the term “discourse” as:

1. an equivalent of the concept “speech”, i.e. any particular saying;
2. a unit that is larger than a phrase,
3. the impact of the statement on his recipient in view of situations of utterance;
4. conversation as the main type of utterance;
5. speech from the perspective of the speaker as opposed to narration that does not take into account this position;
6. use of language units, their speech actualization;
7. socially or ideologically limited type sayings, for example, feminist discourse and etc.;
8. theoretical construct intended for research text production conditions.

Presnukhina I. A. identifies three main characteristics of discourse:

- 1) formal, this is a unit of language that exceeds the sentence in terms of content;
- 2) according to its content, discourse is related to language use in a social context;
- 3) according to its structure, the discourse is interactive, i.e. dialogic [10, p. 15].

More specific differences between varieties of discourse are described using the concept of a genre, for example: “news discourse”, “business discourse”, “scientific discourse”, since discourse, including and political, is a process of speech activity and is built by the laws of the genre, having a certain structure:

1. Intentional plan;
2. Actual plan (practical implementation communication project in live activities);

3. Virtual plan (mental mechanisms of transmission and perception of semantic units of communication, including value orientations, methods of identification, interpretation and other mental operations);

4. Contextual plan (expansion of the semantic field based on sociocultural, historical and other contexts);

5. Psychological plan of discourse, which permeates all his other plans, speaking their emotionally charged component.

The main intention of political communication is the struggle for power. It determines the place of a separate genre of business discourse in the field structure of the genre space. Prototype genres, from this point of view, are parliamentary debates, public speech politics, slogan and vote. Peripheral genres are characterized by the interweaving of the function of the struggle for power with the functions of other types of discourse [11 p. 268].

A genre is: "a genus, a variety of speech, determined by the given conditions of the situation and the purpose of use" [1, p. 148]. The speech genre is understood as the language design of typical situations of social speech interaction of people [12, p. 107].

At the same time, he notes that business discourse is a form institutional discourse. This means that the discourses of politicians those discourses that are produced in such an institutional are considered environment, like a government meeting, a session of parliament, political party congress.

In the study of American linguist J. Bieber, it is found that for many genres it is very difficult to distinguish stable formal characteristics. Further, Arutyunova N.D. proposes to consider genres as cultural concepts lacking stable linguistic characteristics, and additionally select types of discourse based on empirically observable and quantifiable parameters, such as: the use of past tense forms, participles, personal pronouns and other grammatical structures [12, p. 3 - 43].

A detailed classification of the genres of business discourse was first proposed by E.I. Sheigal, which by business discourse means "any speech education, the content of which belongs to the sphere of politics" [7, p. 23]. In her opinion, genres can be differentiated:

- according to the parameter of institutionalism / formality;
- according to subject-addressee relationships;
- according to variants of political sociolects;
- according to event localization;
- according to the degree of centrality or marginality of a particular genre in the field of business discourse;
- according to the nature of the leading intention.

E.I. Sheigal [5, p. 22-29] distinguishes the following types of business discourse:

1. *Institutional business discourse*, in which only texts directly created by politicians and used in political communication (parliamentary transcripts, political documents, public speeches and interviews of political leaders, etc.) are used.

2. *Mass business* business discourse, in the framework of which uses texts created by journalists and distributed through the press, television, radio, the Internet.

3. *Official-business business discourse* related to hardware communication, in which the texts are created, intended for employees of the state apparatus.

4. Texts created by "ordinary citizens" who, not being professional politicians or journalists, occasionally participate in political communication. These can be various letters and appeals addressed to politicians or state institutions, letters to the business, etc.

5. "*Political detectives*", "*political poetry*" and texts very common in recent years, political memoirs.

6. *Politics-dedicated texts of scientific communication*.

The boundaries between the six named varieties of business discourse are not quite distinct, and we often have to observe their mutual intersection.

Business discourse from the point of view has numerous functions. However, the most successful classification of functions in our opinion is applied by Yu.Akhmanova O.S. [13, p. 36]:

1. The function of social control is regulative (the creation of prerequisites for the unification of behavior, thoughts, feelings and desires of a large number of individuals, that is, the manipulation of public consciousness).

2. The function of legitimizing power (explaining and justifying decisions regarding the distribution of power and public resources).

3. The function of the reproduction of power (strengthening the commitment to the system, in particular, through the ritual use of symbols).

4. Orientations (through the formulation of goals and problems, the formation of a picture of political reality in the mind of society).

5. The function of social solidarity (integration within the framework of the whole society or separate social groups).

6. The function of social differentiation (alienation of social groups).

7. Agonal function (initiation and resolution of social conflict, expression of disagreement and protest against the actions of the authorities).

8. Action function (implementation of policy through mobilization of the population: mobilization consists in activating and organizing supporters, whereas narcotization means the process of appeasement and distraction of attention, putting down vigilance).

Considering the diversity of discourse functions, we can conclude that they all possess an ideology of political correctness and are aimed at achieving political goals by manipulating the public consciousness, including in the struggle for power.

Taking into account the classification of various authors, a special form of business discourse is inaugural discourse, which fully reflects the basic concept of political communication in general - persuasiveness (pragmatic-speech impact with the aim of persuading in the communication process) and

suggestiveness (impact on the cognitive system of the addressee: process effects on the addressee's psyche, on his feelings, will and mind) [6].

Considering the discourse as a special form of business discourse, Arnold I.V. draws attention to his main genre characteristics and functions [12, p. 6]:

1. Polyfunctional character. For the genre of discourse the following functions are characteristic:

Phatic is the main function of business discourse as a speech genre of institutional political communication. Its purpose is to establish and maintain contact with the audience.

Influential - to put emotional pressure on voters.

Inspirational - to inspire the nation for the upcoming great things.

Agitational and propaganda - to introduce into the consciousness of the listeners the ideology chosen by the politician.

Informational - to inform the nation about political actions, intentions and positions of a politician [9, p. 12].

2. Communicative purpose. The communicative goal is to thank population for choice and trust, support of the elected president.

3. Addressing. Political discourse has no direct addressee - a specific person to whom the message is addressed (moderator, opponent, journalist). The analysis of political speeches is interesting in that they are internationally targeted. From a pragmatic point of view, the oratory speech of the newly elected president should be aimed at convincing everyone that he is able to successfully play the symbolic role of the leader of the nation. In order to influence the addressee in the inaugural discourse, the following tactics are singled out: uniting the sender and the recipient of the message, appealing to national values.

4. Valuable. Inaugural Discourse Values Concentrated in key concepts of American society - "power", "democracy", "Freedom", "prosperity".

5. Thematic. The main global themes of the inaugural discourse, exciting American people are the problems of the economy

inflation, unemployment, taxation, security American population, foreign policy.

6. Mythical. Mythology is the source collective unconscious. The most popular myths of the business discourse are such myths as the myths about the "American dream", about the "wise leader", about the "partnership", etc.

7. Accessibility. Inaugural discourse is a variation business discourse, characterized by the same functions, similar communicative goals and themes. Like the business discourse, it has all the main pragmatic features of the general business discourse, such as the semantic opposition "one's own - other's", euphemization of presentation, tactics of promises and proposals for decisions, agony, mythology, accessibility [7, p. 10].

Based on the above functions of business discourse, we can conclude that discourse is one of the basic concepts in communicative linguistics and allows for many scientific interpretations. Business discourse, as an institutional discourse, turns out to

be an extremely broad concept, encompassing the language system, speech activity and text.

A speech act is a purposeful speech action performed in accordance with the principles and rules of speech behavior adopted in a given society; unit normative social speech behavior, considered in the framework of a pragmatic situation. The main features are: intention (intentionality), dedication and conventionality. The sequence of speech acts creates discourse [1, c. 59]

Speech act - the minimum unit of speech communication; the production of a specific sentence in certain conditions, carried out in accordance with sets of constitutive rules.

By definition, E.I. Shaygal business discourse is characterized by such speech acts as political performatives - these are utterances, the very utterance of which is a political action, a form of political participation, the realization of which (i.e., their utterance or writing) in an appropriate institutional context is a form of political participation that can lead to quite real political consequences [5, P. 285-303]. The most significant political performatives include performatives of trust and distrust, support, choice, demands, promises.

In addition, she proposes to consider speech acts through the prism of the basic semiotic triad of the business discourse "integration - orientation - agony".

1. Speech integration acts are used to express unity, solidarity, rallying them. Examples include speech acts such as toast, a call for unity, or a statement of unity, as well as performatives and quasi-performatives of support. (*Long live the King! We are the United States of America. We Are Strong, We Are Independent, We Are The United States of America*).

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2. The verbal acts of orientation are slogan assertives and declarations, denoting a program position or acting in as a program statement, as well as speech acts such as reflexives, which contribute to the removal of cognitive tension, exposing a lie and exposing a euphemism, a prediction. The flip side of orientation is the oppositely directed process - disorientation, which is the essence of political manipulation. In this role, speech acts that contribute to the creation and maintenance of semantic uncertainty: assumptions, hints, references to rumors, evasion of the answer to the question.

The speech act of the forecast, is, along with the assumption, a specific means of orientation associated with the analysis of the future, and not the present or past in the world of politics.

The main features of the forecast are:

a) intention - to make an assumption about the likely course of events;

b) specific linguistic markers: future tense or subjunctive mood, indicators of probability modality;

c) optional components: a reference to the source of information (Reuters reported, according to, according to the source data), an indication of the reasons for the possible actions of the politician.

Speech prediction acts have the following typology:

1. The degree of categorical. The opposition on this basis is determined by the degree of validity of the assumptions put forward (cf. O.Akhmanova's dictionary definition: assumption is guess, preliminary thought (guess is assumption not based on sufficient data); forecast is the conclusion, conclusion about the upcoming development and outcome of something based on any data).

Strengthening the categorical forecast is carried out at the expense of confidence modality markers and temporal indicators: *We can't be able to make sure that we've been able to make it.* (Obama's election speech in Chicago) *Starting today, we're going to be able to work.* (Obama's oratoric speech)

Reducing the categorical forecast is achieved using indicators of the probability modality (may be, likely, unlikely, probably, apparently, chance, etc.):

It's hardly the first time that Washington politicians have gotten involved in sports. Indeed, sometimes it's hard to tell where the *politics ends and the sports begins.* (Playing Sports and Politics www.usnews.com)

2. Temporal affinity. The forecast is usually associated with the textual category of the prospectus; *The forecast-retrospection as a hypothetical reconstruction of a possible course of events of the past is much less common.* In the following example, *the forecast-retrospection* is used as an analytical method for comparing political leaders: *North Korea's new leader. In that time, the country's strategically tightly-controlled business strategist. But I can't get to know the North Korea's Kim Jong-un?* (Www.bbc.co.uk)

3. The degree of action. According to this criterion, predicting and reasoning is opposed, limited to mental action:

This country, with its institutions, belongs to it.

If you are a government, you can't get it. (Lincoln's inaugural speech)

As well as a prognosis-regulator with an additional intention urges to action. For the prediction-regulation, the presence of such a structural component as a statement of the condition, the fulfillment or non-fulfillment of which will lead to the predicted consequences is characteristic: *If you're looking for something like that, you can't make it true.* (Lincoln's inaugural speech)

4. Estimated focus. The object of the forecast can be neutral, positive and negative. However, in the overwhelming majority of cases, negative consequences are predicted - thus the politician tries to prevent an impending danger, and the forecast-fear performs the function of social warning.

3. The verbal acts of agony include, above all, behavioral regulative (appeals and demands), which stimulate political agents to commit political actions. This category includes argumentative acts, which are a civilized way of conducting political struggle through polemics.

Unfortunately, modern politicians resort not only to peaceful and civilized ways of conducting struggle. In this regard, the study of verbal aggression speech acts acquires a special interest for the linguist.

Aggression involves targeted destructive behavior that harms the objects of attack or causes negative experiences. The threat is the intention not only to harm the interests of the other party, but also to force the opponent to act in accordance with the requirements. Consequently, in political communication, the threat is used as a tactical method of manipulating the enemy in situations with different goals: the struggle for power and negotiation.

In the case of negotiations, i.e. searching for a compromise, a detailed elaboration of the conditions for the realization of the threat takes place, a list of various requirements is included, the time factor is taken into account (meeting the requirements for a specific time), etc.

Situations where the addresser allows himself to resort to threats in business discourse mainly differ in certain topics: military conflict with the use of force, socio-cultural and political-diplomatic international relations and their break, the struggle of applicants for real power.

Based on the functional approach to the language, the speech act of threat (the passive speech act) can be defined as the communicative-pragmatic class of statements with the semantic dominant of the threat.

The dichotomy of the communicatively pragmatic meaning of this type of utterance includes an implicit prescription with a darkened prescription and an explicit prescription in the form of a transformable model. For a clearer understanding of the explicitness and implicitness of the instructions of a speech act of threat, let us turn to the concepts of direct and indirect speech act.

The problem of direct and indirect speech acts has occupied the minds of linguists for many years. A speech act with an explicit intention, when "the speaker has in mind exactly and literally what he is saying," in the theory of speech acts is called a direct speech act.

In such a case, the content of the illocutionary act can be verbally explicated, and the performance sense corresponds to the illocutionary act, for example: *I declare, I promise, I order,* etc.

The implicit content of the utterance, as a rule, has no special means for its expression and is derived from the content of the utterance, the general situation of speech or the general background knowledge of the participants of communication [7, p. 40].

Thus, the intentionality of business discourse and its social purpose is to impress upon the addressees - the citizens of the community - the need for "politically correct" actions and assessments. In other words, the goal of business discourse is not to describe, but to convince,

having awakened the addressee's intentions, to give ground for persuasion and induce action. Such a manipulative orientation of business discourse is manifested in speech acts of integration, orientation and aggression.

The main forms and varieties of business discourse

From the standpoint of linguo-cultural, discourse is the communication of people, viewed from the standpoint of their belonging to a particular social group or in relation to a typical speech-behavioral situations, for example, institutional communication. There are two main types of discourse: institutional and personal.

Personal or personality-oriented discourse implies that the speaker acts as a personality, with all the personal characteristics and peculiarities inherent in it. Subdivided into everyday and personal, personal discourse is oriented either to dialogical, dotted communication at a reduced distance with an increased semantic load on non-verbal communication (everyday discourse), or to predominantly monologue, full of meaningful communication of a developed character, represented by works of philosophical, artistic and psychological literature (existential discourse).

In the case of institutional discourse, the speaker acts as a representative of a particular social institution within the framework of established status-role-playing and situational-communicative norms.

As noted by V.I. Karasik, "signs of institutionalism fix role characteristics of agents and clients of institutions, typical chronotopes, symbolic actions, stencil genres and speech clichés. Institutional communication is communication in peculiar masks" [1, p. 12]. Institutional discourse is a status-oriented form of communication: communicants appear not so much as individuals, individuals, but as carriers of a certain social status.

There are *political, administrative, legal, military, pedagogical, religious, mystical, medical, business, advertising, sports, scientific, stage and mass informational* types of institutional discourse. Of course, the above list can be supplemented or modified. Business discourse intersects with pedagogical as the political socialization of the individual. By political socialization is understood as the mastering by an individual of the basic elements of the corresponding political culture.

Acceptance or rejection by people of the dominant social order will be the result of discursive activities that carry out political socialization. The specificity of this border education lies in its two-dimensional mode - formal and informal political education, carried out through public educational institutions and in everyday life (in conversations with parents, peers, neighbors).

Legal discourse intersects with business discourse state legislation. Political advertising is a hybrid genre of political and advertising discourse - is aimed at the regulation of value relations in society, political advertising (as well as advertising in general) is characteristic a sharp narrowing of the subject matter, simplification in the presentation of the problem, use keywords, simple but expressive images, repetition of slogans, tautology, ellipticity. Relationship of advertising and business discourses are determined by a common goal

- to influence the potential buyer / consumer through informing for create motivation for action.

The main task of *political advertising* is form a certain image of politicians and parties and induce a certain attitude towards them.

The mention of *economic discourse* in the framework of the political we find in domestic researchers (Yu.N. Karaulov, E.I. Sheigal). The basis of state policy is the economic course, respectively, it is impossible to imagine political communication without all speech acts used in the description and characterization of economic realities. The themes "crisis" and "reforms" are interbusiness and belong to both areas simultaneously.

Scientific discourse distinguishes upholding its point of view in the process of knowing the world and polemics [12, p. 95 - 96]. It is not directly related to the struggle for power, but it can be used as an aid to planning and correcting political activity. The intersection of political and religious discourse, as Schweitzer A.D. writes, arises in the sphere of mythology of consciousness, belief in the magic of words, recognition of the divine role of a leader, use of methods of manipulative influence and ritualization of communication [15, p. 114 - 123].

Since both *religious discourse* and the political are strongly categorized and pursue the goal of social integration, such categorization of objects of a social nature is carried out according to the principle of "one's own - others".

Business discourse is bordered by *sports and military discourses*. A fierce struggle for power is played out as a contest, as big national games, for which entertainment, certain images, forms of manifestation of speech aggression are important. According to Schweitzer A.D., with business discourse, sports discourse brings together the moment of agony (competition) [14, p.103 - 112].

The basis of business discourse is incessant dialogue-duel between the "party of power" and the opposition, in which opponents from time to time attack each other, hold up their defenses, repel blows and go on the offensive. The metaphors of the game, sport and combat take an important place in the corpus of political metaphors. Especially the competitiveness of business discourse is evident during election campaigns and parliamentary debates. The researcher notes that in our mind there is a single cognitive space that unites many features of sports, political and military discourses. The general cognitive field of these three discourses includes such elements as the presence of the enemy, the struggle of rivals, the ethics of the fight, legal norms (regulations and rules), the strategy and tactics of struggle, victory, defeat, the triumph of the winner, prize / win / combat awards. However, Schweitzer A.D. emphasizes that sports discourse is different from the political and military functional side [13, p. 103 - 112].

There is a relationship between everyday discourse and political, on the one hand, and artistic and political, on the other. They distinguish a multidimensional model of the structure of business discourse, highlighting institutional parameters (from

conversations with friends to international negotiations), subject-recipient relations (communication between the institution and society, institution and citizen, agents within the institution), sociocultural differentiation (discourse of the ruling and opposition parties), differentiation by event localization (for example, chanting - rally, leaflet protest, public speech - congress), differentiation in nature intertextual relations (primary and secondary genres of business discourse (compare: speech, statement, debates and anecdotes, memoirs, graffiti) [14, p. 5 - 19].

Currently, under the influence of television and computer communication environment, there is a rapid change in the genres of discourse, due to the active expansion of mass information communication in the daily lives of people. Erasing the lines between everyday and institutional communication, the gaming component of communication dominates advertising discourse, transposed discourse forms emerge (for example, a teleconference within the framework of national diplomacy projects, a television imitation of court sessions to discuss topical issues of public life, a press conference as a role-playing game in educational discourse).

Inaugural performances, television debates of candidates for an elected public office are built as a spectacular event in which the scenic characteristics of communication come to the fore in comparison with the characteristics of business discourse.

Schweitzer A.D. writes that “for a layman who does not read political documents, is not familiar with the original texts of speeches and speeches, perceives politics primarily in the dissected form through the business, politics appears as a set of subjects. These plots (elections, visits, government resignation, war, negotiations, scandal) form the basis of political narrative, by which we understand the totality of discourse formations of various genres concentrated around a certain political event” [15, p. 305]

Thus, the genre of business discourse, intersecting with other genres of discourse, can adopt some of their characteristic features, fulfilling its main goal - the regulation of power.

Discourse is a commonly used multi-valued term that is common in many disciplines: critical theory, sociology, linguistics, philosophy, social psychology, and other areas. Business discourse is a form of institutional discourse, but at the same time it is a genre limited by the social sphere, namely politics. It has the structure of the genre (intentional, actual, virtual, contextual and psychological plans) and numerous functions, both common language and characteristic only of business discourse. Schweitzer A.D. gives a comprehensive analysis of business discourse and reduces the existing linguistic approaches to its study to three main types:

- descriptive (rhetorical analysis of politicians' language behavior),
- critical (revealing social inequality expressed in discourse) and
- cognitive (analysis of frames and concepts of business discourse).

In general, discourse is understood as “a communication system that has a real and potential (virtual) dimension” [15, p.11]. In the real dimension, it is the current speech activity and the texts arising from this activity, in the potential dimension - semiotic space, including:

- 1) verbal and non-verbal signs, oriented to the service of this communicative sphere’
- 2) thesaurus of case texts;
- 3) typical speech behavior patterns.

In the pragmatic aspect of particular interest is the function impact in the communication process. The socially significant impact of mass communication is determined by certain social strata of society - groups of politicians and economists, competing social institutions, advertisers, experts and a mass audience [14, p. 35 - 58]. The communicator is the main link of the mechanism of reflection of a fact or a real event in the text, which is perceived by a mass audience. The identity of the real event or fact and the text of the message perceived by the audience depends on what information is chosen, how carefully the text is edited, calculated for a certain communication channel, and what communication tools are used.

The main concepts of political communication are persuasiveness (pragmatic-speech influence with the purpose of persuasion in the communication process) and suggestiveness (impact on the cognitive system of the addressee: the process of influence on the addressee's psyche, on his feelings, will and mind). According to scholars “Language, as we know, acts as the source of conceptualization, categorization and linguistic units, in fact. It is a peculiar way of formatting of the gained knowledge. Verbalization has national and cultural distinctions” [15].

The rhetoric discourse is a kind of business discourse, characterized by the same functions, similar communicative goals and themes. He has all the main pragmatic features of the general business discourse, euphemistic speech of presentation, tactics of promises and proposals for decisions, mythology, accessibility.

In conclusion, business discourse is associated with such genres of discourse as administrative, legal, military, educational, religious, mystical, medical, business, advertising, sports, scientific, stage, mass information and other types of institutional discourse. Carrying out its main goal - regulation of power and depending on the purpose and place of communication, can adopt some features of other genres:

- manipulative influence,
- polemicism, using the realities of other discourses, applying similar struggle strategies,
- image formation, entertainment and others.

Findings and discussion

In advertising texts there is practically no negative vocabulary in the use of *adjectives*. The most commonly used words: *good, free, great, sure, new.*

Great moments in time. (Omega)

Be in Colin's, be free! (Colin's)

We make sure. (FUJITSU SIEMENS Computers)

You're no clown with the Crown Some slogans contain words and phrases that have the meaning of comparison in their semantics: *longer, stronger, better*.

No battery is stronger longer. (Duracell)

A Better Way forward. (Michelin)

There's no better way to fly Lufthansa. (Lufthansa)

2. The expressiveness of the slogan is enhanced if it uses a pun:

Give me a break! (Kit Kat)

Fly with US. (US Airways)

Digitally Yours. Samsung (pun is used in fully yours).

A Mars a day helps you work rest and play". (Mars)

Apple change of a proverb "*an apple a day keeps the doctor away*".

Break the ice! (Mints "Ice Breaker)

Here, *break the ice*; is changed from *get things moving*.

If it wasn't in VOGUE, it wasn't in vogue. (VOGUE) The advertising slogan is based on the use of the ambiguity of the word *vogue* (fashion, popularity). The first value of *VOGUE* is used as the name of the log. The second meaning is the basic meaning of the word.

3. The use of such a technique as an anaphora is not often observed in advertising. This technique is based on the loss of one or more sounds at the end of a word:

«I'm lovin' it» (McDonalds)

This example is interesting because the fallout of the final consonant "g" indicates the youth orientation of the campaigns. Thus, in the case of the McDonalds fast-food chain, the apex "lovin'" emphasizes orientation towards the younger generation, which strives for brevity both in oral and in written language.

Along with the anaphora, language compression can be distinguished, which has a significant impact on the semantic side of the text, rebuilding its structure.

4. One type of phonetic compression is paracellation.

L'Oreal. Because you're worth it! (L'Oreal)

In this case, the parcel element is perceived as an incomplete sentence, but at the same time it turns out to be the carrier of an important accented message and sometimes takes upon itself the entire functional load of the slogan.

Phonetic compression is also a type of language game, based on a violation of the spelling norm when writing words and phrases.

«Betcha can't eat just one» (Lay's POTATO chips)

The word *betcha* was created from the merger of the word *bet* (argue) and the personal pronoun 2 persons you.

«Zoom-Zoom» (Mazda)

In addition to the traditionally distinguished techniques of sound organization of the text, we consider it possible to add the following techniques of language play at the phonetic level:

Paronymic construction:

«So much to si» (Tourism Agency of Spain)

The paronymical construction of the Spanish "yes" optimizes the proposal to "see" the sights of the country.

All the above examples demonstrate the use of phonetic types of language games to attract the attention of potential buyers to various properties of products.

The increment of meaning allows us to perceive the advertising product (magazine) on a par with fashion. Due to the ambiguity of the slogan, the perception of advertising may be different: it informs the buyer that everything that was not in the magazine was also not in fashion and that it is important for consumers in life to be informed about current fashion trends, which means to have popularity.

1. Lexical language means are the most common type of pun in English-language advertising is **lexical repetition**. In English advertising slogans, repeats are used to increase the influence on the recipient.

«My card. My life» (American express)

«M & M's melt in your mouth..... Not in your hand» (M&M candies)

«You've got a lot to live.....Pepsi's got a lot to give» (Pepsi-Cola)

The repetition of certain words in the advertising phrase acts on the human mind more strongly than other linguistic devices.

2. Another lexical device, built on the play of stable phrases as is called an **allusion**. Mars campaign to advertise chocolate bars took this slogan:

«A Mars a day helps you work rest and play» (Mars chocolate)

In this example, the words "*An apple a day keeps a doctor away*" and the name of a chocolate bar merged. Customers have the image of a tasty and healthy product, and thanks to the rhymed form, the slogan is quickly remembered and brings a positive attitude.

3. At the lexical and stylistic level, **metaphor** has a great emotional impact.

«Live on the colorful side of life» (Coca-cola)

«Find your glow.» (Starbucks coffee)

4. The use of **metonymy**, the main function of which, the conviction of a potential buyer and attracting his attention.

- *«Open happiness» (Coca-cola)*

- *«Breakfast without orange juice is like a day without sunshine.»*

Widespread in advertising received a stylistic device called a pun.

5. A less common technique is **zeugma**.

«Grate it, grill it, spear it, stuff it, bake it, break it, toast it, roast it, post it.»

Grate it, fry it on the grill, pick it up with a fork, stuff it with it, bake it, break it off, brown it, melt it in a frying pan, send it by mail "(cheese advertisement). All uses of the pronoun it (his) in this sentence, except the last, refer to cheese.

6. Most slogans show **stylistic conversion**.

«You've got a lot to live.....Pepsi's got a lot to give» (Pepsi-Cola)

The lexical repetition (got a lot) and the assonance of the words live and give are clearly distinguished. We

also see an example of phonetic compression of the verbs have ('ve) and has ('s), which brings the advertising text closer to the lively speech. A personal appeal to the consumer (you) highlighted in the advertising phrase allows to bring the buyer closer to the goods.

3. Morphological stylistic devices and expressive means

1. A large number of advertising slogans is encouraging. From the point of view of language features, the *imperative mood* prevails in them: "be", "wear", "live", "drink", etc.

Live fast. (Diesel).

Be casual. (Finn Flare)

Think different. (Apple).

Just do it! (Nike)

2. In these slogans there is a clear appeal to the buyer, which, despite external intrusiveness, is one of the most effective manipulative means. Significantly different advertising slogans by type of speech producer. *The pronouns of the 1st person* are used less frequently, only 2-3% of the total number of units analyzed. In this case, the slogan is stylized under the direct speech of the "admiring" addressee of the advertisement.

Among the examples studied, a particularly vivid and memorable slogan of this category is the famous motto of the fast-food chain:

I'm lovin' it. (McDonald's).

There are other examples:

Here I am. (Nike)

I am what I am. (Reebok)

3. As a sign of direct addressing the consumer, *personal pronouns of the 2nd person* are used. Usually used polite form of you:

Because you're worth it! (Loreal)

However, if the target of the advertisement is youth, you can use the form.

Do the Dew. (Mountain Dew)

Once you pop you can't stop. (Pringles)

Similarly, possessive pronouns are used:

The Drive of your life. (Peugeot)

For the new you. (BEKO)

A part of you. (H. Stern)

What do you have to say? (HP, computers)

4. Verbs of the 3rd person in the slogans have the character of an objective assessment of the goods and, as a rule, are used in various advertising texts, regardless of the type of addressee (youth, women, men audience, etc.).

There are some things money can't buy. For everything else, there is MasterCard. (MasterCard)

Melt in your mouth, not in your hands. (M and M).

5. The creation of an occasional degree of word comparison by changing its lexical meaning is presented as a morphological method of playing a game in the language of English advertising.

The Orangemostest Drink In The World! (Orange drink Fanta)

6. In this slogan, a stylistic device arose as a result of a violation of the usual compatibility of morphemes in a word. The word *orangemostest* consists of the words orange, most and the suffix superlative degree of

comparison -est. If you try to translate the word, you get the "most prestigious" orange

7. The most common type of morphological language game has become *a word formation pun*. At the heart of its creation in English-language advertising may lie interword contamination - the formation of a new word from parts of other words:

"Catisfaction" (Kit Kat)

In this slogan the words "cat" and "satisfaction" merged. A potential buyer, hearing such a slogan, can understand that he will be satisfied by eating *Kit Kat bar*.

The freshness and singularity of such words or phrases are clearly felt by the speakers of a given language. In the advertising slogan there is a tendency to deviate from the accepted norms of the language and the creation of neologisms.

4. Syntactic stylistic means and expressive devices

1. As research of advertising slogans shows, the leading position is taken by *simple sentences with one grammatical basis*.

Breakfast of Champions. (Wheaties)

Discover Opel. (Opel)

Safety for everyone. (Honda)

2. Less common are sentences with homogeneous members that convey a concretely *sensual depiction of reality*.

Ultimate driving machine. (BMW)

Simplicity, beauty, truth. (BRUNELLO CUCINELLI)

An apple a day keeps a doctor away (Apples)

3. The main purpose of the slogan - to cause bright positive emotions. Therefore, many modern slogans are exclamatory sentences:

Have a Pepsi Day! (Pepsi)

Finger lickin' good! (KFC)

Now You're Playing With Power! (Nintendo)

Eat Fresh! (Subway)

4. There are also interrogative sentences containing a rhetorical question.

Where do you want to go today? (Microsoft)

Often slogans are built on the model of subordinate clauses that lack the main thing: Hungry? Grab a Snickers. (Snickers)

5. To enhance the expressive coloring slogans attached form parcelled structures:

Inspire me. Surprise me. AMD me. (AMD)

Buy it. Sell it. Love it. (Ebay)

Ready, set, go! (Maybelline)

6. The text of the advertisement also reflects such a phenomenon as repetition.

Anaphora is a repetition of the initial parts (sounds, words, syntactic or rhythmic repetitions) of adjacent segments of speech.

Have a break ... Have a Kit Kat. (Kit Kat)

The art of craft. The craft of art. (IWC)

My life ... My way. (LLOYD, shoes)

With the grace of mind ... With the grace of heart ... In the grace of light. (Swarovski)

7. Epiphora is a stylistic figure opposite to anaphora, a repetition of final parts.

Be American, buy American! (Buy American, online store)

The phenomenon of anaphora is more common than the phenomenon of such a stylistic figure as an epiphora.

In accordance with the differences in language design of syntactic characteristics, there are 3 groups of advertising slogans:

Tips & Tricks:

Grab life by the horns. (Dodge)

Skittles...taste the rainbow. (Skittles)

For successful living. (Diesel)

Ask For More. (Pepsi)

judgment slogans:

Impossible is nothing. (Adidas)

Nobody does chicken like KFC. (KFC)

We never forget you have a choice. (British Caledonian)

presentation slogans:

The Power of Dreams. (Honda)

Born to lead. (Yamaha)

It's a Skoda. Honest. (Skoda)

The Pursuit Of Perfection. (Lexus)

According to statistical analysis, the results of analysis showed the following results in Table 2:

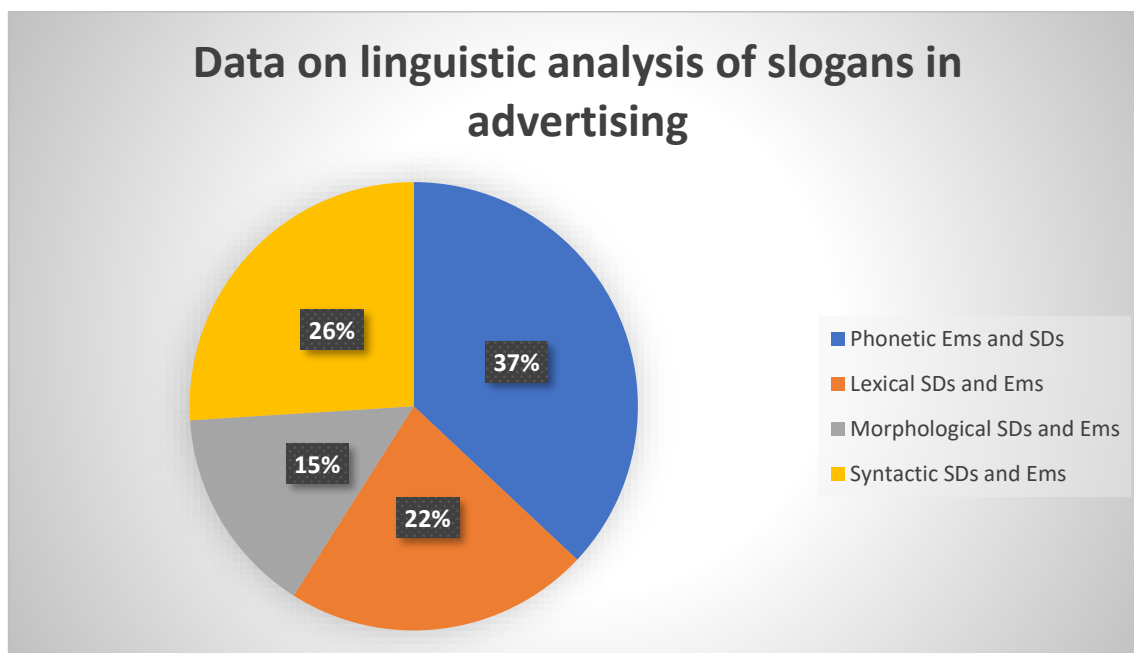
Table 2

Data on linguistic analysis of slogans in advertising

	Types of expressive means and devices	percentage
1	Phonetic expressive means and stylistic devices	37%
2	Lexical expressive means and stylistic devices	22%
3	Morphological stylistic devices and expressive means	15%
4	Syntactic stylistic means and expressive devices	26%

The results of 35 advertisements from internet sites and social network in different forms of electronic business we analyzed more than 100 stylistic devices and expressive means. The results helped to reveal that the most frequent means of language are phonetic expressive means and stylistic devices – 37%, the

second place is taken by syntactical expressive means and stylistic devices, then comes lexical expressive means and stylistic devices, which contained –22%. The least use of language means are morphological stylistic devices and expressive means which contains – 15%. The results can be illustrated in the Diagram 1.



We analyzed the data on advertisements on the classification of I.R. Galperin according to lexical and morphological, syntactic and phonetic. The stylistic means of sound organization of phonetic expressive means and stylistic devices are used most often, especially: alliteration, onomatopoeia, rhyme and assonance. Among lexical expressive means and stylistic devices, we found out that the use metaphor, metonymy, irony, antonomasia, pun and zeugma, allusions and quotations are expressed in the aims of attraction of customers. Syntactic expressive means and stylistic devices included, questions in the narrative text, parallel constructions, repetitions and parallel and

detached construction. Morphological expressive means are used in the structural peculiarities of sentences and use of parts of speech as: comparative and superlative forms of adjectives, pronouns and verbs.

Conclusion

Intentional orientation of business discourse and speech acts peculiar to it. Consideration of business discourse as speech activity makes it possible to relate it to the genre of public political speech, with its characteristic intentional orientation and speech acts.

Common terms of the business world and business slang can turn into the category of euphemisms. It is possible to identify a business euphemism by considering a specific text or a fragment of the text, taking into account the context of the situation, extralinguistic aspects, i.e. discourse.

1. The communication of business discourse is aimed at actively changing those parts of the recipient's picture of the world that are associated with the concepts of "success", "motivation", "achievement", "professional growth";

2. The initial impact on the addressee's logics in business discourse is the change in his level of awareness, and the second is the impact on his emotional state. The combination of argumentation and suggestion in business discourse is determined by the inseparable combination of the informational and influential functions of business.

As the review of literature has shown, the relevant research topic, modern linguists studying business discourse, focus on several types of it: business discourse, language of business communication, including electronic, language of business negotiations. The aim of the research work has been fulfilled which is to analyze the lexical content of business concepts in the discourse of the recipient and addressee.

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СИСТЕМА НОМИНАТИВНЫХ ЕДИНИЦ СОВРЕМЕННОГО АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА

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DOI: 10.31618/ESU.2413-9335.2020.3.76.911

АННОТАЦИЯ

В данной статье рассмотрены система номинативных единиц современного английского языка редупликативных слов. Они подвергаются фонетической, лексической и грамматической классификации, устанавливаются глубинно – поверхностные фоносемантические принципы звуковой мотивации, изучается их морфемная структура, стилистическая маркированность – немаркированность и многое другое.

Ключевые слова: редупликация, лингвистический статус, номинативные единицы, лексическая классификация, морфемная структура

В ходе развитие лингвистики номинативный статус языковых единиц рассматривался по разному. Одной из особенностей структуралистского подхода следует признать «автономизацию» языка: язык рассматривался как более или менее самодостаточный механизм, автономный как по отношению к человеку, так и по отношению к внеязыковой реальности. Акцент делался на внутренних, имманентных правилах и

законах строения и функционирования языковой системы.

Современные лингвистические теории характеризуются стремлением, с одной стороны, встроить язык в систему других когнитивных механизмов человека (например, концепция семантических примитивов А.Вержибицкой, которая исходит из единой общечеловеческой природы единиц универсального семантического