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**BUSINESS ENGLISH VOCABULARY USE IN  
GENERAL CORPORA TEXTS OF DIFFERENT  
REGISTERS**

**BIZNESA ANĢĻU VALODAS VĀRDU KRĀJUMA  
LIETOJUMS DAŽĀDU REĢISTRU VISPĀRĪGO KORPUSU  
TEKSTOS**

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## Anotācija

Pētnieciskā darba tēma ir biznesa angļu valodas vārdu krājuma lietojums dažādu reģistru vispārīgo korpusu tekstos. Pētījuma mērķis ir izpētīt ar dažādām biznesa jomām saistītu biznesa angļu valodas vārdu krājuma lietojumu Britu nacionālā korpusa (The British National Corpus) un Mūsdienu amerikāņu angļu valodas korpusa (Corpus of Contemporary American English) laikrakstu un mutvārdu (piemēram saruna, raidījums, prezentācija) tekstos. Pētījuma metodes ietver teorētisko un empīrisko (kvantitatīvo un kvalitatīvo) analīzi.

Veiktais pētījums ļauj secināt, ka kopumā, pētāmais biznesa angļu valodas vārdu krājums biznesa nozīmē ir biežāk sastopams Mūsdienu amerikāņu angļu valodas korpusā (Corpus of Contemporary American English) iekļauto laikrakstu un mutvārdu tekstos nekā Britu nacionālajā korpusā (the BNC). Savukārt, kas attiecas uz biznesa angļu valodas vārdu krājuma lietojumu laikrakstu un mutvārdu tekstos, kopumā, atlasītais biznesa angļu valodas vārdu krājums ir biežāk sastopams laikrakstu nekā mutvārdu tekstos. No atlasītajām biznesa angļu valodas vārdu krājuma vienībām, *competitive advantage*, *social responsibility*, *liabilities*, *corporate governance* un *differentiation*, bija biežāk satopamas biznesa nozīmē. Visbeidzot, pētījuma rezultāti liecina, ka izvēlētie vispārīgie korpusi var būt noderīgi avoti biznesa angļu valodas vārdu krājuma lietojuma pētīšanai.

**Atslēgvārdi:** vispārīgais korpus, Britu nacionālais korpus, Mūsdienu amerikāņu angļu valodas korpus, laikrakstu teksti, mutvārdu teksti, biznesa angļu valoda, biznesa angļu valodas vārdu krājums.

## Abstract

The topic of the present research is business English vocabulary use in the texts of different registers. The purpose for this research is to examine the use of business English vocabulary of different domains in newspaper texts as well as spoken texts (e.g. conversations, broadcasts, presentations) in the British National Corpus (the BNC) and Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA). Research includes theoretical and empirical (quantitative and qualitative) research methods.

The present research allows concluding that, in general, in the newspaper and spoken texts of COCA there were more examples of the selected business English vocabulary applied in a business meaning than in the BNC. As for the use of business English vocabulary in the newspaper and spoken texts in both corpora, on the whole, the selected business vocabulary items were more prevalent in the texts of newspapers. However, five out of ten selected business vocabulary items (competitive advantage, social responsibility, liabilities, corporate governance and differentiation) occur more frequently in the business meaning. To conclude, the results of the research reveal that selected general corpora can be adequate sources for studying the business English in use.

**Key words:** general corpus, the BNC, COCA, spoken texts, newspaper texts, business English vocabulary.

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## INTRODUCTION

Business terminology is used in our everyday communication therefore it is important to gain an understanding of the business English language use in non-business context. Consequently, the research of business English vocabulary use in general corpora texts of different registers presents an opportunity to look into the meanings of the generally accepted business vocabulary found in non-business texts. A lot of research of the vocabulary use has been done on the basis of the general English corpora data; for instance, Adami (2009) has researched the use of pronouns in the BNC, whereas Pearce (2008) has investigated the nouns *man* and *woman* and their collocations in the BNC. As for the business English lexis, it has been researched by, for example, Nelson (2004). However, the research of the selected business vocabulary in written and spoken texts of general English corpora has not been in the focus of the researchers. Accordingly, the present research is concerned with both, texts of different registers available in the general corpora and the business vocabulary use.

The goal of the research is to examine the use of business English vocabulary of different domains in newspaper texts as well as spoken texts (e.g. conversations, broadcasts, presentations) in the BNC and COCA. To achieve the goal the following enabling objectives were set:

- to analyse the theories on general corpora and register, vocabulary, lexis and terminology;
- to select general corpora and text types of different registers for the research;
- to select a set of business vocabulary for the research;
- to implement theoretical and empirical (quantitative and qualitative) analysis in order to test the hypothesis set;
- to draw conclusions.

The hypothesis of the present research is as follows: business English vocabulary of different domains is used in newspaper texts as well as spoken texts available in the BNC and COCA.

The methods of research:

- Theoretical research: the analysis of the theories on general corpora and register. The main theories and researchers include McEnery, Xiao, Tono (2006), David Y. W. Lee (2010), researchers on register include Biber and Conrad (2009), Halliday (1978) and Eggins (2004);
- Empirical research is based on corpus linguistics methodology: quantitative method -

frequency of the selected business vocabulary, qualitative method - the extraction and analysis of concordance lines containing business vocabulary examples;

The first chapter is devoted to the definition of corpus, corpora types and general corpora. In detail, the first chapter provides a comparison of six definitions of the term *corpus*, followed by the illustration of the different types of corpora, and concludes by the examination of the characteristic features of general corpora. The second chapter is devoted to the definition of register and the core components of analysis of register. This chapter includes a brief overview where the definitions of register, proposed by different researchers, are compared and analysed. Additionally, the second chapter examines the features of situational context and the relationship between the linguistic features and situational context, which are essential for understanding the differences between various registers. The third chapter is concerned with defining the terms *lexis*, *vocabulary* and *terminology*. This chapter contains a comparison of the definitions of terms mentioned. Chapter four is devoted to the business vocabulary research in newspaper and spoken texts of the BNC and COCA. It contains methodology, description of the research procedure and analysis of the obtained results, in particular, the frequency of business vocabulary and the discussion of the examples. The paper finalizes with the conclusions drawn on the basis of the obtained results.

# 1. DEFINITION OF CORPUS, CORPORA TYPES AND THE CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES OF GENERAL CORPORA

Nowadays, the use of corpora in linguistics is a widespread approach. For instance, Tony McEnery and Andrew Hardie (2012:26) explain that corpora provide an opportunity to observe and understand the language. In the case of present research, corpus data is vital because the business vocabulary is examined in the texts of different registers available in general corpora. Therefore, this chapter presents a comparison of several definitions of the term *corpus*. Finally, the characteristic features of general corpora are brought out on the basis of the theories of the corpora types.

## 1.1. Definition of corpus

Numerous corpus linguists have proposed definitions of a corpus that vary in terms of the number of features and details emphasized. In order to provide a well-structured comparison of the definitions of corpora, this sub-chapter examines six definitions, with some of them being general and brief and others being detailed and comprehensive. Thus, definitions of the following researchers are analysed and compared: Malmkjaer (2004), McEnery, Xiao, Tono (2006), Sinclair (1996), Stubbs (2004), David Y. W. Lee (2010) and Reppen (2006).

One of the researchers who defines corpus in a general way, without going into specifics, is Malmkjaer (2004: 84), and the definition is as follows: 'A body or collection of linguistic data for use in scholarship and research'. In this definition, several details, such as the machine-readable nature of the linguistic data as well as any division of this linguistic data based on various criteria, are not specified. However, these specifics of a corpus are highlighted by McEnery, Xiao, Tono (2006:4) in their proposed definition: 'The term *corpus* as used in modern linguistics can best be defined as a collection of sampled texts, written or spoken, in machine-readable form which may be annotated with various forms of linguistic information'. In comparison to the first definition, the definition proposed by McEnery, Xiao, Tono mentions, other characteristic features, the machine-readable nature of the corpus data, the distinctions made regarding the mode of the language, the fact that texts are sampled according to certain criteria and can be annotated. In contrast, a slightly different definition than the previous two discussed, is offered by Sinclair (1996) and quoted by (McEnery, Xiao, Tono, 2006: 4), 'A corpus is a collection of pieces of language that are selected and ordered according to explicit linguistic criteria in order to be used as a sample of the language'. This definition neither mentions the mode of language, that is written or spoken, nor the machine-readable form of this 'collection of pieces of language', the two of the features assigned to the

corpus by McEnery, Xiao, Tono. Yet there are similarities between the definitions of Sinclair and McEnery, Xiao, Tono, for example, the emphasis on the linguistic features which are taken into account in the organization of texts included in a particular corpus. As for the comparison of all three definitions discussed, the purpose of the creation of a corpus is suggested by Malmkjaer and Sinclair, but not by McEnery, Xiao, Tono. To demonstrate, Malmkjaer claims that the 'use in scholarship and research' is behind the creation of a corpus, and likewise, Sinclair states that a corpus is created to serve 'as a sample of the language'. In summary, as it has been noted, there are similarities and differences between the definitions of corpus proposed by Malmkjaer, McEnery, Xiao, Tono and Sinclair.

A detailed definition is proposed by Stubbs, one of the contributors to *the Handbook of Applied Linguistics* (2004), where the researcher emphasizes three characteristics of corpus in his definition which are 'large', 'computer readable' and 'designed for linguistic analysis'. This definition differs greatly from the previous ones discussed due to the number of noted and explained characteristics of a corpus. However, there are similarities between the definition proposed by Stubbs and the three definitions examined already by Malmkjaer, McEnery, Xiao, Tono and Sinclair. As for the definition by Stubbs (2004: 106), the researcher notes that the term *language corpus*, or *corpus*, starting from the 1990s have been used in a meaning of

a text collection which is large: millions, or even hundreds of millions, of running words, usually sampled from hundreds or thousands of individual texts; computer-readable: accessible with software such as concordancers, which can find, list and sort linguistic patterns; designed for linguistic analysis: selected according to a sociolinguistic theory of language variation, to provide a sample of specific text types or a broad and balanced sample of a language.

This definition is more detailed and explicit in comparison to the previous ones discussed. First of all, concerning the differences, Stubbs uses the term *computer-readable* rather than *machine-readable*, the term used in relation to corpus by McEnery, Xiao, Tono. As for the other differences, Stubbs refers to the large size of a corpus in the definition, and this characteristic feature has not been emphasized by McEnery, Xiao, Tono, Malmkjaer and Sinclair. Even more, Stubbs (2004: 106) specifies the large size of a corpus by making the reference to the particular figures, that is, 'millions, or even hundreds of millions, of running words'. Regarding the similarities, Stubbs (2004: 106) points out the purpose of creating a corpus, which is as follows: 'To provide a sample of specific text types or a broad and balanced sample of a language'. Similarly, Malmkjaer and Sinclair include the purpose of the creation of a corpus in their definition. In brief, Stubbs proposes a more detailed definition than the previous ones discussed that are constructed around three main characteristics: 'large', 'computer readable' and 'designed for linguistic analysis'.

A general definition of a corpus is offered by David Y. W. Lee (2010: 107), a contributor to the book *The Routledge Handbook of Corpus Linguistics*, where the researcher refers to the corpora as '*ready-made*' corpora, and defines it as : ' Specially organised collections of text that are called corpora by their creators ' . This definition, compared with those proposed by Malmkjaer, McEnery, Xiao, Tono, Sinclair or Stubbs, fails to specify several characteristics of corpus, such as, machine or computer readable form of the corpus, the large size, and the purpose of the creation of corpus. Furthermore, the characteristic of the linguistic information considered in selection and organization of the texts is not directly noted, however, it is presumably implied by Lee (2010: 107) using the phrase 'specially organised collections of text'.

Finally, the last definition analysed is provided by Reppen (2010:194), the contributor to *the Concise Encyclopedia of Applied Linguistics*, and it is as follows: 'Corpora consists of large collections of spoken and/or written texts, are typically stored on computers, and are often grammatically annotated and/or marked up for certain text features'. As for the similarities with other definitions discussed, Reppen makes a reference to the size of a corpus, just like Stubbs did, and to the computer-readable form which is characteristic of a corpus emphasized by Stubbs and McEnery, Xiao, Tono (although, McEnery, Xiao, Tono preferred the term *machine-readable*). Additionally, Rappen makes a distinction in the definition regarding the mode of the texts, which is written or spoken, similarly like McEnery, Xiao, Tono did. Lastly, Rappen mentions the notion of the corpus texts being 'annotated and/or marked up for certain text features', something which Stubbs, McEnery, Xiao, Tono, and Sinclair have expressed as well.

In summary, there are numerous definitions of corpus proposed by different researchers (Malmkjaer (2004), McEnery, Xiao, Tono (2006), Sinclair (1996), Stubbs (2004), Lee (2010) and Reppen (2006)) who have their own approach to defining a corpus. Researchers like Malmkjaer and David Y. W. Lee defines corpora without going into the great detail. For instance, Malmkjaer focuses on the one feature in the definition, which is the purpose of creation of every corpus while the only detail emphasized by Lee is the characteristic of the linguistic information considered in the selection and organization of texts. On the other hand, the other researchers' definitions analysed in this chapter reveal two or more characteristics of corpora. For example, Sinclair emphasizes two details in the definition which are the purpose behind the creation of a corpus and the linguistic features taken into account in the organization of texts while Reppen refers to the several characteristics in the definition including the mode of the collected texts, size of the corpus, computer-readable form and corpus annotation. In conclusion when selected definitions of corpus have been analysed, a

common characteristic is revealed, that is, the reference to corpus as 'collections of texts'. Even if the phrase 'collections of texts' was not applied, the descriptions used instead, for instance 'text collection' or 'collection of pieces of language', have the same meaning and are the core to understanding what a corpus is.

## **1.2.Types of corpora**

Concerning the different types of corpora, researchers McEnery, Xiao, Tono (2006: 59) note that there is a specific purpose for creation of every corpus, for instance, a particular research project, although, a great deal of corpora which are designed for the research projects are not accessible to those not involved. Since there is such variety of different corpora, it is essential to look into various types of corpora (the term used by McEnery, Xiao, Tono (2006:15)), or categories of corpora (the term used by Lee (2010: 108). Moreover, examination of the types of corpora allows to more carefully understand the characteristics of general corpora, since the each type has its own distinctive features. Concerning the classification of the corpora, it differs when it comes to different researchers. In order to demonstrate it, this sub-chapter examines the classification of corpora proposed by McEnery, Xiao, Tono and by Lee. Moreover, in order to provide the most relevant information for the present research, this sub-chapter is aimed at investigating the classification of monolingual English language corpora; therefore non-expert corpora monolingual corpora for languages other than English and multilingual corpora are not described.

With regard to the classification of corpora by McEnery, Xiao, Tono (2006: 59), the researchers claim that it is done 'in terms of their potential use: general vs. specialized corpus, written vs. spoken corpus, synchronic vs. diachronic corpus, learner corpus and monitor corpus'. The researchers acknowledge that this is only classification of the main English language corpora, and there are corpora in languages other than English. As to the classification of monolingual English language corpora, Lee (2010: 108) proposes a subdivision into the six categories, which are parsed, speech, historical, general, specialised and multimedia corpora. Lee (2010:108) notes that in the case of monolingual English language corpora, more subdivision in the categories proposed is possible, for instance, 'spoken versus written'. In fact, this approach of dividing corpora into spoken or written corpora is chosen by McEnery, Xiao, Tono.

To sum up, for the present research, it is relevant to concentrate on the classification of monolingual English language corpora (or the main English language corpora, which is the term applied by McEnery, Xiao, Tono) which differs when it comes to different researchers. Concerning the monolingual English language corpora, Lee (2010) proposes six corpora types within this section whereas McEnery, Xiao, Tono (2006) proposes a division of eight types of

corpora, arranged into four pairs, which demonstrates their opposite nature, for example, general vs. specialized corpus. That being the case, the classification of the section of monolingual English language corpora by McEnery, Xiao, Tono is selected to discuss the types of corpora in the greater detail.

First types of corpora discussed are specialized and general corpora. Since the general corpora are selected for the present research, it is discussed only briefly because a separate sub-chapter is dedicated to this subject. Concerning the specialized corpora, McEnery, Xiao, Tono (2006: 61) emphasize that for the research in particular genres or domains, specialized corpora can provide useful means. Likewise, Lee (2010: 114) describes specialised corpora in a similar way: 'those that do not aim to comprehensively represent a language as a whole, but only specialised segment of it'. Lee (2010: 114) also notes that due to this aim to represent a 'specialised segment' of a language, specialised corpora are smaller than general corpora in terms of scale. Regarding the examples of specialized corpora, McEnery, Xiao, Tono (2006: 61) name *the Guangzhou Petroleum English Corpus*, a corpus which offers a collection of texts belonging to 'the petrochemical domain', *the Corpus of Professional Spoken American English*, a corpus which provides texts of transcribed speech from the 'White House press conferences', 'academic discussions' and spoken language from other 'professional settings', and *the Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English*, a corpus aimed to represent spoken language of the University of Michigan. As to the description of general corpora, Lee (2010: 109) explains that it can contain samples of written or spoken language, or both. According to Lee (2010: 109), the examples of general corpora are *the Bank of English*, *The British National Corpus*, *Corpus of Contemporary American English* and *the American National Corpus*.

Written and spoken corpora are the two types of English language corpora established by McEnery, Xiao, Tono (as for Lee (2010), the researcher applies the term speech corpora instead of spoken corpora). Firstly, in the case of written corpora, McEnery, Xiao, Tono (2006: 61) inform that written corpora provide text collections of written English language. Regarding the examples of written corpora, the researchers mention (2006: 61) *the Brown University Standard Corpus of Present-Day American English* as an example of written corpora, which contains collection of written texts, representing American English from the year 1961. Concerning the written corpora consisting of the texts in British English, as it is pointed out by McEnery, Xiao, Tono (2006: 61), *the Lancaster-Oslo-Bergen Corpus of British English* is an example. In contrast, in order to define spoken corpora or speech corpora, McEnery, Xiao, Tono (2006: 63) explain that this type of corpora have collections of spoken English in a form of transcribed speech or recordings. In addition, the researchers (2006: 63)

provide example of spoken corpora which is *the Wellington Corpus of Spoken New Zealand English* (WSC), a spoken corpus which consists of 'One million words of spoken New Zealand English in the form of 551 extracts collected between 1988 and 1994'

The next corpora types discussed are synchronic and diachronic corpora (or historic corpora, a term used by Lee (2010)). Concerning the historical corpora, Lee (2010: 113) explains that this type of corpora serves to identify and to provide explanations of the changes occurring in the English language over time. With regard to the particular details of historical corpora, according to Lee (2010: 113), it can deal with a single genre or focus on a single historical period, or both. Additionally, Lee (2010: 113) proposes examples of historical corpora such as *Corpus of Historical American English* and *The Corpus of Early English Correspondence*. Regarding the first example, *Corpus of Historical American English* is a historical corpus which deals with the time period of the early 1800s to the present day and represents such genres as newspapers, academic prose, fiction and popular magazine. As for the *The Corpus of Early English Correspondence*, it is a historical corpus created to study letters from the years of 1417 to 1681. Also, on the subject of historical corpora, McEnery, Xiao, Tono (2006: 65) indicate that usually historical corpora have collections of written texts, although, there are some examples of historical corpora containing spoken language like *the Corpus of English Dialogues 1560-1760*. Finally, as for the synchronic corpora, McEnery, Xiao, Tono (2006: 64) explain that synchronic corpus allows to examine language varieties and dialects from a single time period. In order to demonstrate it, the researchers provide an example of *The International Corpus of English* (ICE). According to McEnery, Xiao, Tono (2006: 64), this corpus was created, in particular, for the synchronic study of national varieties of English. For this reason, the ICE encompasses twenty corpora representing the English language from regions or countries where the English language is official or the main language, for instance, South Africa or Honk Kong. Moreover, McEnery, Xiao, Tono (2006: 64) explain that each corpus has the same design and scheme for annotations thus allowing to carry out comparative studies of the English language use in the set of countries.

Finally, the last two types of monolingual English language corpora discussed are learner and monitor corpora. Concerning the learner corpus, McEnery, Xiao, Tono (2006:65) defines it as 'a type of corpus that is immediately related to the language classroom'. Further, the researchers (2006: 65) explain that this type of corpora represents the spoken and written language of 'learners acquiring a second language'. The example of learner corpora, according to McEnery, Xiao, Tono (2006:66), include *the Cambridge Learner Corpus* (CLC), which is a learner corpus offering a large collection of written texts representing the English learners language from different places of the world. In the case of monitor corpus, McEnery, Xiao,

Tono (2006:67) explain that this type of corpora does not have a constant size because it is on the regular basis supplemented with the new data; nevertheless, the set of the text types incorporated in the monitor corpus remains the same. On the subject of monitor corpora researchers give an example of *The Bank of English*, a monitor corpus which has grown in size since its release in the 1980s.

In conclusion, there is more than one way how to classify monolingual English language corpora. Nevertheless, the approaches for classification of monolingual English language corpora, proposed by McEnery, Xiao, Tono (2006) and David Y. W. Lee (2010) are on the whole similar due to the fact that the main difference found is regarding the titles assigned to the particular corpora type. For instance, while McEnery, Xiao, Tono (2006) use the term spoken corpora, David. Y. W. Lee (2010) prefers the term speech corpora in order to refer to the corpus which provides a collection of spoken texts. Similarly, in the case of diachronic corpora, it is the term employed by McEnery, Xiao, Tono (2006) to refer to the corpus type representing English from earlier periods, on the other hand David. Y. W. Lee (2010) in this instance uses the term historical corpora instead.

### **1. 3. General corpora**

A general corpus is a type of corpora selected for this research. Therefore, it is important to define it, to look at the origin of general corpora and to discuss characteristics associated with it through looking into particular examples of this corpus type. Furthermore, this sub-chapter concludes by describing *the British National Corpus* and *Corpus of Contemporary American English*, which are the general corpora selected for the present research.

To begin with, according to McEnery, Xiao, Tono (2006: 4), the use of general corpora for studying language dates back to the early 1960s, with the first modern English language corpus being a general corpus. As for the title of this corpus, it is *the Brown University Standard Corpus of Present-day American English* or *the Brown Corpus*. Additionally, McEnery, Xiao, Tono (2006: 4) emphasize that the creation of *the Brown Corpus* was enabled due to the advances in technology, allowing to create a strong processing power and ability to store huge amounts of data. Also, on the subject of the origin of general corpora, the researchers Baker, Hardie, and McEnery (2006: 25) highlight that those were times of a 'hostility and criticism aimed at "corpus-based linguistic analysis" when Nelson Francis and Henry Kučera created *the Brown Corpus*. Concerning the characteristics of *the Brown Corpus*, Stubbs (2004:111) points out that it represents the American English in a form of written texts which amounts to one million words. In conclusion, Stubbs (2004:111) also clarifies that these texts are of various text types such as academic prose, news and fiction.

Regarding the definition and characteristics of general corpora, it is necessary to consider these aspects within the framework of the present research. However, before a general corpus is defined and its characteristics analysed, it is important to indicate that there are alternative titles used to refer to a general corpus. According to Baker, Hardie, and McEnery (2006: 18), a general corpus is also called a *balanced corpus*, a *reference corpus*, a *core corpus* or a *standard corpus*. In the case of standard corpora, Lee (2010:109) explains the reason why general corpora are also referred to as the standard corpora by pointing out that 'they set the standard for the future corpora and also because they were compiled along the same sampling lines'. With regard to the definition of a general corpus, McEnery, Xiao, Tono (2006: 59) state that 'if the corpus in question claims to be general in nature, then it will typically be balanced with regard to genres and domains that typically represent the language under consideration'. Additionally, this definition reveals such characteristic of a general corpus as the balanced representation of various genres and domains in order to represent the language as a whole. Another definition of a general corpus belong to Baker, Hardie, and McEnery (2006: 18), and it is as follows: 'A corpus that contains texts from a wide range of different language genres and text domains, so that, for example, it may include both spoken and written, and public, and private texts '. In conclusion, both definitions provided are similar due to the fact that the main characteristic feature of general corpus is a range of different genres and domains included in a corpus, as well as the balanced nature of the corpus regarding the genres and domains represented.

On the subject of notable general corpora worth to mention, according to Lee (2010: 109), these are *the Kolhapur Corpus of Indian English*, containing the collections of texts from 1970s, *the Lancaster Oslo – Bergen corpus of written British English*, presenting the texts from 1960s same as *the Brown Corpus of written American English*, and *the Wellington Corpus of Written New Zealand English*, which presents the collection of a wide range of genres, sampled in the 1980s. As for *the British National Corpus* (BNC), the general corpus selected for this research, Lee (2010: 109) informs that it offers a combination of written and spoken texts, with written part amounting to 90 per cent of the collected texts, while spoken part, in a form of transcribed speech, amounts to 10 percent. Additionally, Lee (2010: 109) indicates that the process of compiling the corpus started in 1991 and was finished in 1994. Furthermore, regarding the general information of The BNC, McEnery, Xiao, Tono (2006: 59) point out that it has 100, 106, 008 words provided by various text types such as academic books, newspaper articles, fiction, letters, essays, transcribed informal conversation, radio interviews and other. Moreover, Lee (2010:110) emphasizes that in terms of the accessibility and research, the BNC appears to be one of the most thoroughly and widely researched and

used corpora because of its active promotion and easy access. With regard to the types of research carried out in the BNC, McEnery, Xiao, Tono (2006: 59) highlight that in the fields of linguistics, lexicography, speech recognition and synthesis and literary studies, the BNC is of the value due to 'the use of internationally agreed standards for its encoding' as well as its general nature. Additionally, according to Lee (2010: 110), there is another reason that has contributed to the widespread use of the BNC, which is 'the huge variety of types of text included in the BNC'. Finally, McEnery, Xiao, Tono (2006: 60) note that the BNC has served as a model for the creation of a number of corpora, for instance, *the American National Corpus*, *the Polish National Corpus* and *the Korean National Corpus*. As for the other general corpus used for this research, it is *Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA)*. According to Lee (2010: 110), COCA is not only a general corpus but as well is classified as a mega-corpus. Moreover, when COCA is accessed, one of the sections describing the corpus indicates that it has 450 millions of words (Online 5). Further, with regard to the variety of the text types, Lee (2010: 110) explains that COCA provides text collections of fiction, academic prose, newspapers, magazines and transcribed speech from talk shows and broadcast interviews. As for the comparison of the corpora selected for the present research, the BNC and COCA both are general corpora therefore similarities are found in terms of the text types represented by the both corpora, which are, for instance, academic prose, fiction and news. However, there are differences between the BNC and COCA, for instance, COCA has approximately four times more words than the BNC. Additionally, COCA offers a collection of texts in American English while the BNC represents the British English.

To summarize, there are several alternative terms used for a general corpus, such as a *balanced corpus*, a *reference corpus*, a *core corpus* or a *standard corpus*. Further, the key characteristics of a general corpus, used by Lee and McEnery, Xiao, Tono to define this type of corpora, are the wide range and the balance of the genres and domains represented. *The Brown Corpus*, the first modern English language corpus which was also a general corpus, displays these characteristics by offering a balanced text collection of academic prose, news and fiction. Since the creation of *The Brown Corpus* in 1960s, there are now a significant number of general corpora available, for instance, *the Kolhapur Corpus of Indian English*, *the Lancaster Oslo – Bergen corpus of written British English*, *the Wellington Corpus of Written New Zealand English*, *the British National Corpus* and *Corpus of Contemporary American English*. Finally, the general corpora selected for the present research are The BNC and COCA. The BNC has 100, 106, 008 words provided by various text types such as academic books, newspaper articles, fiction, letters, essays, transcribed informal conversation, radio interviews and other. As for the COCA, it contains approximately four times more words than

the BNC, that is, 450,000,000 words provided by texts of fiction, academic prose, newspapers, magazines and transcribed speech from talk shows and broadcast interviews. Finally, the BNC represents the British English while COCA has texts of American English.

## **2. DEFINITION OF REGISTER, CHARACTERISTICS FOR ANALYSING REGISTER AND TYPES OF REGISTER**

The present research is concerned with the business English vocabulary use in general corpora texts representing different registers. Therefore, it is essential to define the term *register*, to emphasize the core components of the analysis of register.

With regard to the content of this chapter, the first sub-chapter is devoted to the definitions of register, the second sub-chapter is focused on one of the core components of describing a register, that is, the situational context and linguistic features, which needs to be considered when the register analysis is performed.

### **2.1 Definition of register**

There are numerous definitions available on the term *register*, however, in this sub-chapter the definitions of the researchers such as Halliday, Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad and Finegan and Malmakjaer are explored and analysed. This sub-chapter begins by examining the definitions of register proposed by Halliday, since this scholar is largely responsible for developing the concept of register. Then, the definitions offered by Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad and Finegan and Malmakjaer are examined.

Halliday is the scholar who has introduced the theory of Systemic-Functional Linguistics in the 1960s (Online 1), and within this theory Halliday (1964:77) defines the register in a following way: ‘A variety according to use, in the sense that each speaker has a range of varieties and chooses between them at different times.’ This definition reveals that the situational characteristics influence the linguistic features of the spoken or written text. Moreover, by defining the register in this way, Halliday indicates that various types of registers can be assigned to the particular speaker, with registers varying according to different circumstances. Furthermore, in the later works, Halliday (1978:23) defines register in a similar way, although, this definition is slightly more complex due to number of various details emphasized: ‘The set of meanings, the configuration of semantic patterns, that are typically drawn upon under the specific conditions, along with the words and structures that are used in the realization of these meanings’. This definition clarifies that the certain presumptions are created, regarding the language use in a particular situation. Moreover, by referring to the ‘specific conditions’, Halliday stresses the importance of the context within the production of a particular text. Concerning the comparison with the first definition displayed, the first definition is less detailed than the second one. For instance, while Halliday, in the definition proposed in 1964, describes the register as ‘a variety according to use’, in the second definition of register, proposed by Halliday in the later works, the

emphasis on the various changes in the language are stated more explicitly than in the first definition. These changes in the language use are specified as the changes in semantic patterns and grammar, caused by the situation where the text is produced.

Besides Halliday, there are other researchers who have defined the term *register*, for instance, Biber, Conrad, Reppen (1998:135), and the definition is as follows: 'A cover term for varieties defined by their situational characteristics'. By defining the register in this way, Biber, Conrad, Reppen explain that the register is a language variety with a range of situational characteristics assigned to it. Similarly, Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad and Finegan (1999:15) define registers as a 'varieties relating to different circumstances and purposes'. This definition, although brief, emphasizes the importance of situational characteristics which influence the language. Both definitions, although differently formulated, imply the relationship between the conditions and the situation where a text is produced and the language that is used.

Finally, the definition proposed by Malmakjaer (2004: 169) defines a register in a following way: 'A register is what you are speaking at a particular time, and is determined by what you and others-and which others-are doing there and then; that is, by the nature of the ongoing social activity'. This definition specifically emphasizes the particular characteristics of the situational context, such as participants, relations among the participants, setting and production circumstances. However, the specific changes in the language use, depending on the situational context are not specifically highlighted, as it was done in the definition by Halliday, available in the book *Language as Social Semiotic* (1978).

To summarize, for the present research, in order to analyse the business vocabulary use in the texts of different registers, it is essential to compare and analyse various definitions of the term *register*. In this chapter, the definitions of researchers such as Halliday, Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad and Finegan and Malmakjaer have been presented and analysed. The examination of the definitions has revealed that the term *register* is referred to as *variety* by all researchers analysed, except for Malmakjaer. Furthermore, all researchers discuss register by highlighting the existing relationships between the language and the situational context which is the core of understanding what register is.

## **2.2. The situational context and linguistic features**

In the previous sub-chapter, the term *register* was defined, revealing that the language is affected by the context of the situation where it is produced. Therefore, in this sub-chapter, situational context, also referred to as situational characteristics, and the relationship between the linguistic features and situational characteristics are briefly examined. First of all, as it is pointed out by Biber and Conrad (2009:6), the linguistic features of a register are lexical and

grammatical features associated with that register. As for the situational context, Eggins (2004:84) explains that there are signs of the context, embodied in the text, therefore 'all texts carry their context within them'. Due to the fact that situational characteristics affect the language produced, they are briefly described. According to Biber and Conrad (2009:40), these characteristics are participants, relations among participants, channel, production circumstances, setting, communicative purposes, and topics. Finally, this sub-chapter concludes by examining the linguistic features.

### **2.2.1. Participants and relations among participants**

To begin with, Biber and Conrad (2009:41) define the situational characteristic *participants* in the following way: 'The person producing the text, and the person to whom the text is addressed'. Additionally, on the subject of participants, Biber and Conrad (2009:41) distinguish the terms *addressor* and *addressee*, with an addressor being the person who produces the text and an addressee being the reader or listener for whom the text is intended. However, there is alternative term used by researchers instead of *the participants*, which is *the interactants*. For instance, Eggins (2004:84) applies the term *interactants* when discussing the relations among the participants. Concerning the specific features of the addressor, Biber and Conrad (2009:41) emphasize that in the written registers, as opposed to the spoken ones, the addressor can be less noticeable. Additionally, Biber and Conrad (2009:41) point out that factors such as level of education, sex, social class and others, have an effect on the language produced by the addressors. As for the characteristic features of the addressees, Biber and Conrad (2009:41) indicate that there can be one addressee, that is, an individual, or multiple addressees. Additionally, with regard to the number of addressees, Biber and Conrad (2009:41) make a point that there are registers that have 'un-enumerated set of addressees', for instance, in the case of a radio broadcast where the identification of listeners is not possible.

On the subject of the relations among the participants, according to Biber and Conrad (2009: 42), this situational characteristic is concerned with the way how the participants relate to each other. Therefore, Biber and Conrad (2009: 42) emphasize that the core feature to consider, when the relations among participants is analysed, is the interactiveness. Biber and Conrad (2009:42) explain that interactiveness is the degree to what the participants make direct interaction with each other. The degree of interactiveness, according to Biber and Conrad (2009:42), can be very different, starting from situations when participants respond to each other to the situations when there is hardly any interactiveness. Additionally, Biber and Conrad (2009:42) indicate that the social roles, personal relationships and shared background knowledge among participants are of the importance.

### **2.2.2.Mode and production circumstances**

Concerning the mode or channel, according to Biber and Conrad (2009:43), this situational characteristic reflects the most visible difference between the registers, that is, whether the text is produced in spoken or written language. Additionally, Biber and Conrad (2009:43) highlight a connection between the participants and mode of the text. Moreover, in order to illustrate this connection, Biber and Conrad (2009:43) gives the following example: 'registers produced in the spoken mode almost always have a specific addressor, and typically have specific addressees; in contrast, written registers can have an institutional addressor and un-enumerated addressees'. Also, Biber and Conrad (2009:43) emphasize that most of the times, spoken registers are interactive, which is not the case with the written ones.

As for the situational characteristic of the production circumstances, Biber and Conrad (2009:43) note that there is a direct link between the mode of the text and the production circumstances. In order to illustrate this link more precisely, Biber and Conrad (2009:43) state the following: ' Consider a normal conversation: The speaker is producing language at the same time that he is thinking about what he wants to say. The speaker usually does not have time to carefully plan what he will say next; if he takes too long thinking, his conversational partner might begin to talk, or the conversation might end in miscommunication'. Thus, spoken registers differ from the written ones because a writer has an opportunity to revise the text, also, the reader of the text has no knowledge of how many times the writer has revised the text produced. Similarly, the addressee comprehends a written text differently from a spoken one. To be specific, Biber and Conrad (2009:43) point out that a listener has to follow the speech at the same time as the speaker produces it whereas a reader has a choice to consume the text carefully, read it at one's chosen speed, or re-read it, if necessary.

### **2.2.3. Setting, topic and communicative purpose**

Regarding the term *setting* within a situational context, according to Biber and Conrad (2009:44), it is the physical context, time and place, where the communication takes place. Additionally, Biber and Conrad (2009:44) note a difference between written and spoken registers, in terms of the setting, that is, the participants of spoken registers usually belong to the same physical context, therefore direct references are made to it, for example, with the word *here*. Although, this is not often the case in written registers, Biber and Conrad (2009:44) mention that in the newspapers words like yesterday or Monday could be applied due to fact that these types of texts are meant to be read on the day they are produced. As for the topic, Biber and Conrad (2009:46) claim that the vocabulary of a text is mostly influenced

by the topic. Additionally, in order to describe a topic, Biber and Conrad (2009:46) note that topic can be described in various ways, at different levels.

With regard to the communicative purpose, Biber, Conrad (2009:45) define it as a general purpose of a register. In fact, Biber, Conrad (2009:45) point out that many registers have few communicative purposes, for example, to report, to describe or narrate past events, to explain or interpret, to persuade or argue, to express personal thoughts or attitudes, to address or entertain an audience and so on. In order to demonstrate the register with more than one communicative purpose, Biber and Conrad (2009:45) give an example of a textbook because textbooks most of the times have explanatory, as well as descriptive purpose. In conclusion, Biber and Conrad (2009:45) emphasize that the act of switching purpose can be considered as 'a shift in sub register'.

To conclude, in order to perform the register analysis, the situational characteristics need to be considered in relation to the linguistic features. These characteristics are participants, relations among participants, channel, production circumstances, setting, communicative purposes, and topics.

#### **2.2.4. Relationships between situational context and linguistic features**

In order to examine a register, according to Biber and Conrad (2009:2), two perspectives need to be considered, the linguistic features and situational context. Moreover, Biber and Conrad (2009:2) emphasize that specific linguistic features are linked to the situational context of the text of a particular register. In another words, Biber and Conrad (2009:6) explain that 'linguistic features tend to occur in a register because they are particularly well suited to the purposes and situational context of the register.' Further, in the following sub-chapter, the examples of relationship between the linguistic features and situational context, proposed Egging (2004), are provided and briefly examined. Finally, this sub-chapter is devoted to illustrate the connection between the situational context and linguistic features through briefly examining the linguistic implications of the mode of the language and those caused by the situational characteristic of relations among the participants.

To begin with, there are linguistic differences between the spoken and written language. Therefore, the relationship between the mode of the language and linguistic features is further examined. According to Egging (2004: 92), situational context of a spoken language is different from the situational context where the written language is produced, for instance, situations for the spoken language are usually interactive, for instance, as it is in the everyday communication where language produced is spontaneous and unrehearsed. On the other hand, Egging (2004: 92) gives an example of situational context of writing an essay in order to make

a point that spoken and written language is produced in different circumstances: 'written situations in our culture call for rehearsal: we draft, edit, rewrite, and finally re-edit our essay. Finally, for most of us writing is not a casual activity: we need peace and quiet, we gather our thoughts, we need to concentrate. The two situations of language use, then, reveal very different dimensions.' Furthermore, concerning the linguistic implications of mode of the text, Eggins (2004:93) gives a few examples, for instance, a spoken language typically would have everyday lexis and non-standard grammar whereas written language would contain prestigious lexis and standard grammar. Additionally, Eggins (2004:93) indicates that spoken language is lexically sparse as opposed to the written text which tends to be lexically dense.

Regarding the changes in language, related to the relations among the participants, Eggins (2004:99) notes that the social role of the participant has an effect on the language produced. Moreover, Eggins (2004:100) proposes an approach to discuss this situational characteristic, along with the linguistic features connected to it, in terms of the formal and informal situation types. According to Eggins (2004:100), a formal situation is as follows: 'One where the power between the interactants is not equal, the contact is infrequent, and the affective involvement low'. In contrast, as Eggins (2004:100) explains, an informal situation entails the participants with equal power, with frequent communication and high affective involvement, which means that participants are emotionally involved to the great extent. As a result, each of this situation types, shaped by the relations among the participants, has the particular linguistic implications. For example, Eggins (2004:103) points out the examples of the linguistic implications of a formal language, which are careful turn-taking, neutral lexis, titles, modulation to express suggestion whereas the linguistic features associated with an informal language are the use of swearing, abbreviations, diminutives, first names, modulation to express opinion.

In conclusion, since the language use, and in particular lexis, is influenced by the context where it is produced, the relationship between the situational context and linguistic features exist. Moreover, specific linguistic features are found in particular registers due to fact that those linguistic features are adequate for the situational context of those registers. As for the linguistic implications of specific situational characteristics, linguistic features and mode of the language were discussed, therefore illustrating the linguistic differences between the texts of different modes in terms of, for instance, the grammar. Similarly, there are linguistic implications of situational characteristic of relations among the participants which can be described by looking at the linguistic differences of the formal and informal situations.

### 3. VOCABULARY, LEXIS AND TERMINOLOGY

In the present research, the term business vocabulary is applied. Therefore, it is important to devote a chapter to the analysis of the terms *vocabulary*, *lexis* and *terminology* and a *term* thus explaining why the term *business vocabulary* is used in the present paper. First of all, the term *vocabulary* is defined by comparison of definitions proposed several researchers. Furthermore, the definitions of the term *lexis* and *terminology* are provided and analysed. Finally, the chapter concludes by explaining why the term vocabulary is preferred in relation to business English use in general corpora texts of different registers.

In order to provide an understanding of the term *vocabulary*, the definitions by researchers Richards, Platt, Weber, Hartmann and James are used in this chapter. The definition of vocabulary proposed by Richards, Platt and Weber (1985: 307) reveals that mentioned researchers consider that vocabulary includes also the units that go beyond single words and the definition is as follows: ‘a set of lexemes, including single words, compound words and idioms’. Similarly, Hartmann and James (1998:154) define vocabulary as ‘the sum total of the words in a language, by a speaker, or for dictionary making’. The definition by Hartmann and James lacks the distinction, made by Richards, Platt and Weber that the vocabulary is not only the single words but compound words and idioms as well. On the other hand, Hartmann and James bring out the speaker of the language and the purpose the vocabulary serves in their definition, therefore providing a slightly different perspective for understanding what vocabulary is.

In order to provide an understanding of the term *lexis*, two definitions are proposed and examined. The first definition proposed is by Richards, Platt and Weber (1985:165) emphasizes that lexis is ‘The vocabulary of a language in contrast to its grammar’. The other definition provided also emphasizes that a vocabulary of a language is lexis, and this is similarity between both definitions. Thus Matthews (1997: 226) defines the vocabulary in the following way: ‘The vocabulary of a language and the study of vocabulary’. Both definitions reveal the main differences between the lexis and vocabulary i.e. lexis is a broader concept than vocabulary

Finally, for the purpose of investigating the terms *terminology* and *term*, several definitions are selected. The first definition examined is provided by Richards, Platt and Weber (1985: 290) and it defines terminology as follows: ‘The special lexical items which occur in a particular discipline or subject matter’. This definition connects terminology with a specific subject or discipline, which is a similar approach of defining terminology to that of the researcher Sager. Further, Sager (1990:3) defines terminology as ‘A vocabulary of a

special subject field'. Additionally, researchers Faber and Rodríguez (2012: 11) define terminology in a detailed way '(...) We take the position that Terminology is essentially a linguistic and cognitive activity'. The researchers emphasize in their definition several details, including the characteristic of a terminology being associated with a particular subject or discipline, which is a feature highlighted by Richards, Platt, Weber and Sager as well. By defining terminology in this way Faber and Rodríguez have additionally described what a term is and it is revealed in their further definition: 'Terms are linguistic units which convey conceptual meaning within the framework of specialized texts. Hartmann and James (1998:138) also provide definition of a term which is as follows: 'A word, phrase or alphanumeric symbol used by the practitioners of a specialised technical subject to design a concept. Within the terminology of the whole field, the unity between term and concept is claimed to be an essential requirement of unambiguous communication, strengthened by agreed definitions and the avoidance of synonymous expressions'. As for the comparison of the definitions of a term by Faber and Rodríguez, and Hartmann and James, both definitions indicate that terms are not just single words. In order to indicate this, Faber and Rodríguez use the phrase 'linguistic units' while Hartmann and James select more detailed approach by emphasizing that terms can be words, phrases and even alphanumeric symbols. Additionally, definitions by Faber and Rodríguez and Hartmann and James, indicate a function of a term, for instance, Faber and Rodríguez note that the function of a term is to convey meaning in the specialized texts.

To summarize, in the present research, the term *vocabulary* is selected for the purpose of analyzing the business English use in the general corpora texts of different registers. Moreover, in this paper the term business English vocabulary is applied, instead of the lexis of business English, due to fact that lexis is a broader concept than vocabulary. Additionally, the business vocabulary items for the research have been selected from *Business Vocabulary in Use Advanced* (Mascull, 2004) therefore the term *business vocabulary* is used in this research instead of business terminology or lexis of business English. In conclusion, the definitions collected prove that vocabulary is the total amount of words of a specific language used by a speaker and lexis is the vocabulary of a particular language while terminology is a vocabulary of a particular subject or discipline.

#### **4. BUSINESS ENGLISH VOCABULARY USE IN THE GENERAL CORPORA TEXTS OF NEWSPAPERS AND SPOKEN REGISTERS AVAILABLE IN THE BNC AND COCA**

The present chapter includes the methodology of present research, the description of the selection process of corpora, text types and business vocabulary, the analysis of selected business vocabulary in texts of newspapers and spoken texts available in the BNC and COCA. The analysis of selected vocabulary presents the findings obtained from the BNC and COCA, as well as determines the differences of the business English vocabulary use in newspaper texts and spoken texts of the BNC and COCA.

##### **4.1. Methodology of the research**

The empirical research is based on corpus linguistics methodology and involves quantitative analysis of the frequency of words, and qualitative method, which is concerned with the analysis of the concordance lines. On the subject of frequency analysis, Baker, Hardie and McEnery (2006:75) explain that ‘frequencies can be given as a raw data, e.g. there are 58,860 occurrences of the word *men* in the British National Corpus (BNC); or (often more usefully) they can be given as a percentages or proportions – *man* occurs 602.91 times per million words in the BNC- allowing comparison between corpora of different sizes’. In the present research, frequency of words is looked from the perspective of raw data. As for the qualitative method of the analysis of concordance lines, according to McEnery and Hardie (2012:241), the term *concordance* in the corpus linguistics is ‘a display of every instance of a specified word or other search term in a corpus, together with a given amount of preceding and following context for each result or 'hit'. In addition, in the present research, when a business vocabulary item occurred more than hundred times, in newspaper texts or spoken texts found in one of the selected general corpora, the qualitative analysis was done in the following way: each of the first hundred concordance lines was carefully examined. Moreover, when the concordance line contained the selected business vocabulary item without offering a context, which was sometimes the case of newspaper articles and their headlines, the results which offered no context were not taken into account. As a result, in the sections of the tables, discussing the data on business and non-business meanings of selected vocabulary from the first hundred concordance lines, the occurrences of vocabulary items without context are not included and are not included in the total number of each particular vocabulary item occurring in business meaning shown in Tables 4.5, 4.6, 4.7, 4.8, 4.9 and 4.10. However, when the total frequency of the vocabulary item is discussed, all occurrences of selected items are included, regardless of the lack of context. Further, concerning the general corpora selected for the present research and their proportions of the spoken and

written texts, according to McEnery, Xiao and Tono (2006:17), the 90 per cent of the BNC texts represents the written English, with the rest 10 per cent being the transcribed speech. As for the proportions of the written and spoken texts of COCA, Mark Davies indicates that the text types of newspaper, spoken, popular magazine, fiction and academic texts each represents 20 per cent of the total amount of COCA texts (Online 6). Finally, Davies provides an information on the number of words in newspaper texts and spoken texts of the BNC and COCA, that is, the BNC has ten million words of spoken texts and eleven million words of newspaper texts while COCA has eighty-five million words of spoken texts and eighty-one million words of newspaper texts (Online 6).

#### **4.2. The selection of general corpora, texts of different registers and business vocabulary**

In this sub-chapter, the selection of general corpora, text types of different registers and business vocabulary items is explained. For the present research, two general corpora, the BNC and COCA, are selected. Also, two text types of different registers are selected, that is, newspaper texts and spoken texts (e.g. conversations, broadcasts, presentations).

In order to research the business vocabulary use in general corpora texts of different registers, two general corpora and text types of different registers were necessary. The main criteria in the selection of general corpora for the present research was accessibility and size of the corpus which led to the selection of the BNC and COCA. Both corpora are accessible for those who want to research the texts of the BNC and COCA, only the registration in the corpora is required. As for the size, The BNC has 100, 106, 008 words provided by various text types such as academic books, newspaper articles, fiction, letters, essays, transcribed informal conversation, radio interviews and other. On the other hand, COCA contains almost the four times more words than the BNC, that is, 385,000, 000 words provided by texts of fiction, academic prose, newspapers, magazines and transcribed speech from talk shows and broadcast interviews. Furthermore, regarding the selection of the text types of different registers, newspaper texts and spoken texts were selected in order to find out the frequency of the selected vocabulary and analyse its use in the written and spoken registers. The newspaper texts refer to the articles of newspapers while the spoken texts are the transcribed speech of conversations, broadcasts, presentations, lectures, tutorials and other spoken events.

For the purpose of analysing the business English vocabulary use in the newspaper texts and spoken texts, ten business English vocabulary items were selected from *Business Vocabulary in Use Advanced* (Mascull, 2004). This book was selected as a source for collecting business vocabulary due to the different business domains presented in the book because the criteria before the selection of business vocabulary was to have a collection of

business terms associated with different domains of business. Since each thematic chapter deals with the business vocabulary within a particular domain, the process of creating a list which represents a diverse range of business vocabulary was achieved successfully. In order to illustrate, *competitive advantage* is a business vocabulary item associated with marketing and is explained and defined in the Chapter 17 *Competition*. Similarly, business vocabulary item *differentiation* is widely used within the business domain of production/operations and it comes from the Chapter 18 *Companies and their industries*. As for the other business domains, represented by the selected business vocabulary items, *a segment* is a business vocabulary item widely used in marketing and therefore was frequently applied in the Chapter 25 *Knowing your customers 2*. Further, in the case of business vocabulary item *soft skills*, chosen from the Chapter 9 *The right skills*, it can be assigned to the business domain of human resources. Concerning the business vocabulary item *lean production*, it belongs to the business domain of production/operations and was selected from the Chapter 12 *TQM and JIT*. Furthermore, in the case of business vocabulary item *benchmarking*, selected from the chapter 15 *Striving for perfection*, it can be assigned to the business domain of production/operations where the issue of quality control is of the great importance. As for the business vocabulary item *social responsibility*, discussed in the Chapter 42 *Social reporting*, it can be assigned to the business domains of business development. Next, the business vocabulary item *goodwill* belongs to the business domain of accounting and was selected from the Chapter 35 *Balance sheet 1*. Similarly, the business vocabulary item *liabilities* is associated with the business domain of accounting, however, this vocabulary item comes from Chapter 36 *Balance sheet 2*. Finally, the business vocabulary item *corporate governance*, selected from the Chapter 44 *Corporate governance*, represents such business domain as general management of a business. In conclusion, in order to provide a clear understanding of the business meanings of vocabulary selected, the definitions obtained from the book *Business Vocabulary in Use Advanced* were compared with the ones available in *the Business Dictionary* [Online 2]. Additionally, selected business vocabulary items for the analysis of business English vocabulary use in texts of newspapers and spoken texts, available in the BNC and COCA, are placed in the *Table 4.1 Glossary of selected business vocabulary of production and operations*, *Table 4.2 Glossary of selected business vocabulary of accounting and marketing*, *Table 4.3 Glossary of selected business vocabulary of business development, general management and human resources*, along with their definitions. The three tables, containing the selected business vocabulary, are further presented in this paper.

The defined business vocabulary items *benchmarking*, *differentiation* and *lean production*, representing the business domains of production/operations, are placed in *Table*

4.1 *Glossary of selected business vocabulary of production and operations.* The whole table is dedicated to the business vocabulary from this domain due to fact that three vocabulary items are selected from the business domain of production and operations, which is more compared to the other domains, for instance, the business domain of marketing with only two items. This table is placed below.

**Table 4.1 Glossary of selected business vocabulary of production and operations**

Vocabulary item	Definition <i>Business Vocabulary in Use Advanced</i>	Definition <i>Business Dictionary</i>	Business domain
Benchmarking	‘The idea that a firm should find out which company performs a particular task best and model its performance on this practice’ (2004:38). Chapter 15 <i>Striving for perfection</i>	‘A measurement of the quality of an organization's policies, products, programs, strategies, etc., and their comparison with standard measurements, or similar measurements of its peers (Online 2)’.	Production and operations
Differentiation	‘Offering products and services that give added value in terms of quality or services compared to competitors’ (2004: 44). Chapter 18 <i>Companies and their industries</i>	Result of efforts to make a product or brand stand out as a provider of unique value to customers in comparison with its competitors (Online 2)’.	Production and operations
Lean production	‘Making things with the minimum of time, effort and materials’ (2004:32). Chapter 12 <i>TQM and JIT</i>	‘Doing more with less by employing 'lean thinking.' Lean manufacturing involves never ending efforts to eliminate or reduce 'muda' (Japanese for waste or any activity that consumes resources without adding value) in design, manufacturing, distribution, and customer service processes (Online 2)’.	Production and operations

Concerning the second table, *Table 4.2 Glossary of selected business vocabulary of accounting and marketing*, it contains definitions of business vocabulary items, associated with the business domain of accounting, which are *goodwill* and *liabilities*, and two vocabulary items associated with the business domain of marketing, which are *competitive advantage* and *segment*. The second table, *Table 4.2 Glossary of the selected business vocabulary*, is placed below.

**Table 4.2 Glossary of selected business vocabulary of accounting and marketing**

Vocabulary item	Definition <i>Business Vocabulary in Use Advanced</i>	Definition <i>Business Dictionary</i>	Business domain
Goodwill	‘The value that the company thinks it has as a functioning organization with its existing customers, and in some cases brands, because established brands have the power to earn money, and would have a value for any potential buyer of the company’ (2004:78).  <i>Chapter 35 Balance sheet 1</i>	‘Assumed value of the attractive force that generates sales revenue in a business, and adds value to its assets (Online 2) ’.	Accounting
Liabilities	‘A company’s debts to suppliers, lenders, bondholders, the tax authorities, etc.’ (2004:80).  <i>Chapter 36 Balance sheet 2</i>	‘Accounts and wages payable, accrued rent and taxes, trade debt, and short and long-term loans (Online 2) ’.	Accounting
Competitive advantage	‘Superior products, performance, etc. that a competitor can offer in relation to others’ (2004: 42)  <i>Chapter 17 Competition</i>	‘A superiority gained by an organization when it can provide the same value as its competitors but at a lower price, or can charge higher prices by providing greater value through differentiation (Online 2) ’.	Marketing
Segment	‘A group of customers or potential customers with similar characteristics, needs and requirements’ (2004:58).  <i>Chapter 25 Knowing your customers 2</i>	Subdivision of a sector, consisting of distinct but closely linked or related elements, members, or parts (Online 2) ’.	Marketing

Finally, the third table, *Table 4.3 Glossary of selected business vocabulary of business development, general management and human resources*, contains one business vocabulary item from the business domain of business development, which is *social responsibility*, one from the business domain of general management, which is *corporate governance*, and one business vocabulary item from the business domain of human resources, which is *soft skills*. The third table, *Table 4.3 Glossary of selected business vocabulary of business development, general management and human resources*, is placed below.

**Table 4.3 Glossary of selected business vocabulary of business development, general management and human resources**

Vocabulary item	Definition <i>Business Vocabulary in Use Advanced</i>	Definition <i>Business Dictionary</i>	Business domain
Social responsibility	‘When companies are concerned about the consequences of their activities on the community as a whole’ (2004:92). <i>Chapter 42 Social reporting</i>	‘The obligation of an organization’s management towards the welfare and interests of the society in which it operates (Online 2)’.	Business development
Corporate governance	‘The way a company is organized and managed at the highest level’ (2004:96). <i>Chapter 44 Corporate governance</i>	‘the framework of rules and practices by which a board of directors ensures accountability, fairness, and transparency in a company’s relationship with its all stakeholders (financiers, customers, management, employees, government, and the community) (Online 2)’.	General Management
Soft skills	‘The skills you need to work with other people, and in the case of managers, to manage people in tactful and non – authoritarian, non – dictatorial ways’ (2004:26). <i>Chapter 9 The right skills</i>	Communicating, conflict management, human relations, making presentations, negotiating, team building, and other such ability, defined in terms of expected outcomes and not as a specific method or technique such as statistical analysis (Online 2)’.	Human resources

### **4.3. Analysis of the selected business vocabulary use**

For the present research ten business vocabulary items were selected, associated with different business domains, in order to find out if and how the business vocabulary is used in registers where presumably business vocabulary is not applied. The types of registers, selected for the present research, are newspaper texts (newspaper articles) and spoken texts (e.g. conversations, broadcasts, presentations) both offered by *the British National Corpus* and *Corpus of Contemporary American English*, the general corpora selected for the present research. Concerning the scope of the research, the first hundred concordance lines are examined in order to find out if the selected business vocabulary is used in the business meaning or in the non-business meaning. The tables in this chapter gives information on the total frequency of the selected business vocabulary items which demonstrates the number of all occurrences of vocabulary items in newspaper texts or spoken texts of the BNC and COCA. On the other hand, when the business and non-business meanings of vocabulary items are discussed, the concordance lines containing the selected business vocabulary items without a context, which is sometimes the case of newspaper texts and their headlines, are not taken into account and are not included in the tables. In addition, not all of the selected business vocabulary items occur hundred or more than hundred times in either newspaper texts or spoken texts of the BNC and COCA. Therefore, for some of the selected business vocabulary items there are less than hundred or even zero concordance lines to investigate. Further, in order to illustrate the research process, the screen shot is provided below in *Figure 4.1 Analysis of competitive advantage*, demonstrating the analysis of the business vocabulary item competitive advantage in the texts of newspapers from COCA.

450 MILLION WORDS, 1990-2012 [DOWNLOAD ALL 190,000 TEXTS]										-- START --		history   lists	
SEE CONTEXT: CLICK ON WORD OR SELECT WORDS + [CONTEXT] [HELP...]										COMPARE		SIDE BY SIDE	
CONTEXT										FREQ			
1										103			
KEYWORD IN CONTEXT DISPLAY										Help / information / contact			
SECTION: NEWSPAPER (103)										PAGE: << < 1 / 2 > >>		SAMPLE: 100	
CLICK FOR MORE CONTEXT										[?] SAVE LIST		CHOOSE LIST	
										CREATE NEW LIST		[?]	
1	2012	NEWS	Atlanta	A	B	C	on corporate culture from the beginning, as we believe it is the only sustainable <b>competitive advantage</b> that is completely within our control. In our lobby, we ha						
2	2012	NEWS	CSMonitor	A	B	C	are short-term and geared to immediate gratification. # Doesn't that give China the <b>competitive advantage</b> of political capacity in the times ahead? # Zbigniew f						
3	2011	NEWS	NYTimes	A	B	C	but even to flourish. These banks now enjoy record profits and the seemingly permanent <b>competitive advantage</b> that accompanies being deemed " too big to fa						
4	2011	NEWS	USAToday	A	B	C	while others have not yet begun high-volume production. For Intel, it's a <b>competitive advantage</b> that helped it produce record gross margins (66%) last year. #						
5	2011	NEWS	CSMonitor	A	B	C	the appeals court said. # " Plaintiffs bemoan that matching funds deny them a <b>competitive advantage</b> in elections," the panel said. " The essence of this claim						
6	2011	NEWS	AssocPress	A	B	C	expert and has written extensively about how businesses can use environmental policy to improve their <b>competitive advantage</b> . # In an interview last week, he						
7	2011	NEWS	NYTimes	A	B	C	, a Wedbush Securities analyst. " Zynga is driven because it has a gigantic <b>competitive advantage</b> right now." # But Zynga could face a serious reaction. #						
8	2011	NEWS	USAToday	A	B	C	" If I tailor my assortment to the specific community, it gives me a <b>competitive advantage</b> ," Sternecker says. # Macy's started identifying customer wants and						
9	2011	NEWS	SanFranChron	A	B	C	attracts investment and new competitors," Kerner said. " Zynga has a massive <b>competitive advantage</b> , with a large customer base they can market new game:						
10	2010	NEWS	WashPost	A	B	C	the forthcoming book " The Design of Business: Why Design Thinking Is the Next <b>Competitive Advantage</b> ." # First, I have great empathy for those who have lo						
11	2010	NEWS	CSMonitor	A	B	C	we need more and freer trade, not less. # Recognize immigration for the <b>competitive advantage</b> it is. Our great secret, relative to Europe and much of Asia						
12	2010	NEWS	SanFranChron	A	B	C	bill " codifies too big to fail " and gives these large companies " a <b>competitive advantage</b> over firms that are not too big to fail. " # Banking consultant						
13	2010	NEWS	WashPost	A	B	C	; \$3.6 million in 2008; and \$6.2 million last year. # Knowland's <b>competitive advantage</b> - its secret sauce - is its ability to find and recruit hundreds of						
14	2010	NEWS	USAToday	A	B	C	. She says she is just as female as any other competitor and has no <b>competitive advantage</b> . # The lawsuit, which also names the LDA and two of its						
15	2009	NEWS	NYTimes	A	B	C	Washington to safeguard its investment. # China's leaders are turning economic crisis to <b>competitive advantage</b> , said economic analysts. # The country is using						
16	2009	NEWS	USAToday	A	B	C	are all are being used to improve customer service, retain users and gain a <b>competitive advantage</b> . # " If you're trying to hide from your customers, do						
17	2009	NEWS	Atlanta	A	B	C	" # In the long term, " it could absolutely position Charlotte at a <b>competitive advantage</b> over Atlanta," he said. # It wasn't the first time						
18	2009	NEWS	NYTimes	A	B	C	brutal spending environment. Still, being associated with AOL does give the sites a <b>competitive advantage</b> . # " We can make significant investments in quality cc						
19	2009	NEWS	USAToday	A	B	C	revenue from premium-class traffic, while Korean Air posts about 30%. # " Singapore Airlines <b>competitive advantage</b> is its young fleet and strong branding. Cat						
20	2008	NEWS	Denver	A	B	C	beyond price. The result is a limited ability to raise prices while maintaining a <b>competitive advantage</b> . // Frontier and other airlines are trying to raise fares, add						
21	2008	NEWS	Chicago	A	B	C	Jr.: " In today's world, innovation is our only fundamental source of <b>competitive advantage</b> . " // The government has a key role in innovation. After all						
22	2008	NEWS	NYTimes	A	B	C	of slow-motion suicide. Circuit City cut its own throat by not realizing what their <b>competitive advantage</b> is, and newspapers are doing the same thing." # Last we						
23	2008	NEWS	USAToday	A	B	C	says DaSilva. # " Companies who recognize this mind-set of consumers will gain a <b>competitive advantage</b> . " What companies gave # How the charitable giving I						
24	2008	NEWS	Atlanta	A	B	C	the idea. Having three teams in BCS bowls would be a significant financial and <b>competitive advantage</b> for that conference. # 5. Wouldn't a four-team playoff sol						
25	2008	NEWS	CSMonitor	A	B	C	a strong presence in Washington. Yemma and Wells said these bureaus represent a distinct <b>competitive advantage</b> for the Monitor at a time when other news or						
26	2007	NEWS	CSMonitor	A	B	C	. " We see real potential in using electricity as fuel and as a real <b>competitive advantage</b> for us, if we can develop this technology and get it to the						
27	2007	NEWS	USAToday	A	B	C	on a moment's notice " to visit his franchisees has given his businesses a <b>competitive advantage</b> , he says. # Just talking about piloting or giving a client a						
28	2007	NEWS	USAToday	A	B	C	any slight edge trackside has evolved to owners becoming equally fervent about securing the greatest <b>competitive advantage</b> in the front office," says David M.						
29	2007	NEWS	NYTimes	A	B	C	" We want to get great access to early technology that might give us a <b>competitive advantage</b> . " # A minority of the media companies treat their seed capital di						

Figure 4.1 Analysis of competitive advantage

As for the sequence of the business vocabulary items investigated, it is carried out in accordance with the sequence created by the three tables, that is, *Table 4.1 Glossary of selected business vocabulary of production and operations*, *Table 4.2 Glossary of selected business vocabulary of accounting and marketing*, *Table 4.3 Glossary of selected business vocabulary of business development, general management and human resources*. Therefore, the first business vocabulary items examined are those associated with production and operations, then followed by the selected vocabulary of accounting and marketing, followed by the vocabulary items belonging to the business domains of human resources, business development and general management. In conclusion, the following analysis deals with the results obtained from examining the use of selected business vocabulary items found in newspaper texts and spoken texts of The BNC and COCA. In order to present a clear overview of the findings obtained, a separate chapter is devoted to the selected vocabulary items of production and operations (benchmarking, differentiation and lean production), those of accounting and marketing ( goodwill, liabilities, competitive advantage and segment) and those of human resources, business development and general management (social responsibility, corporate governance and soft skills). Each of these chapters discusses the selected business vocabulary items separately, by determining the total frequency of the

vocabulary item in a particular text type of the BNC and COCA, by revealing the number of occurrences of this vocabulary item in a business and non-business meaning, obtained from the analysis of the first hundred concordance lines (excluding the instances when context is not provided) and by concluding which corpora and which register represents the selected vocabulary item more in a business meaning.

### 4.3.1 Analysis of production and operations vocabulary

Three business vocabulary items, associated with the business domain of production and operations, were selected for the analysis of newspaper texts and spoken texts of the BNC and COCA. These vocabulary items are benchmarking, differentiation and lean production. Benchmarking and lean production were found zero times in the texts of the BNC while the examination of the business vocabulary item *differentiation* yielded results. Conversely, in the newspaper texts and spoken texts of COCA all three vocabulary items were represented. Further, two tables below, *Table 4.5 Production and operation vocabulary in the BNC* and *Table 4.6 Production and operation vocabulary in COCA*, contain both, the total frequencies of selected business vocabulary items found in newspaper texts and spoken texts of the BNC and COCA, as well as the results of the qualitative analysis for the first hundred concordance lines, presenting the business and non-business meaning of selected vocabulary items. The sections of both tables, containing the data obtained from the qualitative analysis for the first hundred concordance lines, do not include occurrences of selected vocabulary items without a context. Finally, this chapter concludes by presenting the findings of production and operations vocabulary use in newspaper and spoken texts of the BNC and COCA by discussing the research results of each vocabulary item separately.

**Table 4.5 Production and operation vocabulary in the BNC**

Vocabulary items	Total frequency in newspaper texts (total number of words in newspaper texts is 11 million)	100 concordance lines		Total frequency in spoken texts (total number of words in spoken texts is 10 million)	100 concordance lines	
		Business meaning	Non-business meaning		Business meaning	Non-business meaning
benchmarking	0	0	0	0	0	0
differentiation	6	1	5	51	11	40
lean production	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	6	1	5	51	11	40

**Table 6 Production and operation vocabulary in COCA**

Vocabulary items	Total frequency in newspaper texts (total number of words in newspaper texts is 81 million)	100 concordance lines		Total frequency in spoken texts (total number of words in spoken texts is 85 million)	100 concordance lines	
		Business meaning	Non-business meaning		Business meaning	Non-business meaning
benchmarking	10	7	0	1	1	0
differentiation	53	18	34	40	3	37
lean production	1	1	0	0	0	0
Total	64	26	34	41	4	37

### **Analysis of *benchmarking***

The business vocabulary item *benchmarking*, associated with the business domain of production and operations, was found zero times within the texts of newspapers and spoken texts available in The BNC. In contrast, the examination of newspaper and spoken texts of COCA yielded results, with the total frequencies of benchmarking as well as the results from the qualitative analysis of concordance lines placed in *Table 4.6 Production and operation vocabulary in COCA*. In particular, business vocabulary item *benchmarking* was used once within the collection of spoken texts, offered by *COCA*. More relevantly, the one instance of the use of *benchmarking* provides an example of this business vocabulary item being used in a business sense. To illustrate, the single instance of the use of *benchmarking* is displayed and it comes from the *CNN* news broadcast.

#### *Example 1*

Well, the first step we have done, which is unusual for a company. We have set a target of 12 percent in terms of capital employed, as a first target. Then we have done a world **benchmarking** for every business unit of the 25, and we have now told the people for '97 that we want them to move in the next two, three years at the world best. (Date (19960919); Title 'Mercedes Exec Says Alabama Plant Will Employ 8,000';Source *CNN\_News* ).

Concerning newspaper texts available in COCA, ten results were offered. However, three out of ten concordance lines were containing business vocabulary item *benchmarking*, offered either as an isolated occurrence or as a part of a collocation, which was not enough to draw conclusions regarding the business or non-business meaning. Therefore, the three results of the business vocabulary item *benchmarking*, offered without a context, were not analysed and disregarded when the quantitative analysis were carried out and do not appear in *Table 4. 6 Production and operation vocabulary in COCA*. As for seven occurrences of the business vocabulary item *benchmarking*, the examination of the concordance lines showed that *benchmarking* was used only in a business meaning. In order to demonstrate, the example of

the business vocabulary item *benchmarking*, used in a business meaning in the article from *Associated press* is provided.

### *Example 2*

We use non-GAAP financial measures to evaluate the core operating performance of our business, for comparison with forecasts and strategic plans, for calculating return on investment and for **benchmarking** performance externally against competitors. (Date (081217); Title 'Atheros Updates Q4 08 Financial Guidance '; Source *Associated Press*).

In summary, the business vocabulary item *benchmarking* was found zero times within the collections of newspaper texts and spoken texts, available in the BNC. Conversely, regarding the texts of the selected registers, available in COCA, the business vocabulary item *benchmarking* was more frequent in the newspaper texts than in the spoken texts. Regarding the business and non-business meaning of this vocabulary item, the one instance found within the spoken texts showed *benchmarking* being used in a business sense. Likewise, seven instances of *benchmarking* in the newspaper texts of COCA revealed that this business vocabulary item was applied exclusively in a business meaning.

### **Analysis of *differentiation***

The frequency analysis for the business vocabulary item *differentiation*, associated with the business domain of production and operations, resulted in the analysis of six concordance lines of newspaper texts in the BNC, and the analysis of fifty-one concordance line of spoken texts in the BNC. The total frequency of *differentiation* and results of the qualitative analysis for the concordance lines are placed in *Table 4.5 Production and operation vocabulary in the BNC*. As for the use of *differentiation* in the texts of newspapers, available in the BNC, a one instance of *differentiation*, used in a business meaning was determined. The other five concordance lines contained *differentiation* applied in a non-business meaning. Concerning the spoken texts available in the BNC, fifty-one concordance line contained business vocabulary item *differentiation*. The analysis of concordance lines revealed that in forty of them, this business vocabulary item was used in a non-business meaning while eleven concordance lines had *differentiation* applied in a business meaning. In order to illustrate the use of *differentiation* in a non-business meaning, an example from the newspaper article of the BNC is provided.

### *Example 3*

Sir Russell Johnston, MP for one of the UK's largest constituencies, Inverness, Nairn and Lochaber, said the Chancellor had once again failed to make any **differentiation** between the situation of urban and rural car owners. (Date (1985-1994); Title 'World affairs material' ).

Concerning the use of *differentiation* in newspaper and spoken texts, available in COCA, *Table 4.6 Production and operation vocabulary in COCA* presents the obtained results, that is the total frequency of differentiation in the two text types and the number of occurrences of this vocabulary item in business and non-business meaning. The frequency analysis of this business vocabulary item resulted in the examination of fifty-three concordance lines of newspaper texts and forty concordance lines of spoken texts. Regarding the fifty-three concordance lines, resulted from the examination of newspaper texts, one of the lines contained business vocabulary item *differentiation* as a part of headline, therefore without a context. For this reason, fifty-two concordance lines of the newspaper texts, offered by COCA, were analysed. The analysis of these newspaper texts revealed that thirty-four concordance lines contained *differentiation* in a non-business meaning while eighteen concordance lines had *differentiation* in a business meaning. Further, regarding the use of business vocabulary item *differentiation* in spoken texts, available in COCA, the frequency analysis resulted in the investigation of forty concordance lines, with three of them representing the use of *differentiation* in a business meaning, and the rest thirty-seven instances offering the examples of differentiation in the non-business meaning. The following example shows the business vocabulary item *differentiation* used in a business meaning in the spoken text of COCA.

#### *Example 4*

Well, to me, you know, your only competitor and your only competitive advantage on the Net is speed. So you've got to get there first and then you have to execute and then you have to provide **differentiation** for the consumer with a brand that resonates with their changing lifestyle. So we move very, very fast but we move very carefully and it's well thought out and well planned. (Date (19990817); Title 'E\*TRADE - Chairman & CEO'; Source *Fox\_Cavuto* ).

In brief, concerning the analysis of business vocabulary item *differentiation*, used in newspaper texts and spoken texts of the BNC and COCA, there were more occurrences of this vocabulary item in the texts of COCA, as well as more instances of differentiation used in a business meaning. Concerning the use of differentiation in a business meaning in particular register, the business vocabulary item *differentiation*, used in a business meaning, was more frequent in the newspaper texts of COCA than in those of the BNC. As for the comparison of spoken texts of both corpora, the BNC had higher total frequency of this vocabulary item and had the BNC had *differentiation* more times in a business meaning in comparison to the spoken texts of COCA. Finally, vocabulary item *differentiation* was more frequent and more applied in a business meaning in the spoken texts of the BNC as opposed to COCA, where *differentiation* was more frequent and more applied in a business meaning in newspaper texts

### **Analysis of *lean production***

The business vocabulary item *lean production*, associated with the business domain of production and operations, was found zero times within the newspaper and spoken texts available in the BNC. As for the results obtained from COCA, the vocabulary item *lean production* was found zero times within the collection of spoken texts while within the texts of newspapers, a one instance of *lean production* was found and analysed. Moreover, the only instance of the business vocabulary item *lean production*, found within the collections of newspaper texts from COCA, displayed the business meaning. Therefore, the only example of *lean production* is provided, and it come from *the New York Times* article.

#### *Example 5*

Fiat's innovative car factory in Melfi, Italy, designed for **lean production**, and its main product, the Punto compact car, were his projects ' (Date (19990912); Title 'Bringing Good Things to Fiat? '; Source *New York Times* )

In summary, a one instance of business vocabulary item *lean production* was found within the newspaper and spoken texts from The BNC and COCA. The only example came from the newspaper texts of COCA and displayed a business meaning consistent with the collected definitions.

### **4.3.2. Analysis of accounting and marketing vocabulary**

Four business vocabulary items, associated with the business domains of accounting and marketing, were selected for the analysis of newspaper texts and spoken texts of the BNC and COCA. These vocabulary items are goodwill and liabilities (business domain of accounting), and competitive advantage and segment (business domain of marketing). All selected accounting and marketing vocabulary items were found in newspaper and spoken texts of the BNC and COCA, either in a business meaning or non-business meaning. Two tables below, *Table 4.7 Accounting and marketing vocabulary in the BNC* and *Table 4.8 Accounting and marketing vocabulary in COCA*, contain the total frequencies of selected vocabulary and results from the qualitative analysis for the first hundred concordance lines. Additionally, the sections of both tables, containing the data obtained from the qualitative analysis for the first hundred concordance lines, do not include occurrences of selected vocabulary items without a context. Finally, this chapter concludes by presenting the findings of accounting and marketing vocabulary use in newspaper and spoken texts of the BNC and COCA by discussing the research results of each vocabulary item separately.

**Table 4.7 Accounting and marketing vocabulary in the BNC**

Vocabulary items	Total frequency in newspaper texts (total number of words in newspaper texts is 11 million)	100 concordance lines		Total frequency in spoken texts (total number of words in spoken texts is 10 million)	100 concordance lines	
		Business meaning	Non-business meaning		Business meaning	Non-business meaning
goodwill	105	13	85	14	0	14
liabilities	32	30	2	18	18	0
competitive advantage	6	1	5	2	1	1
segment	18	1	17	11	1	10
Total	161	45	109	45	20	25

**Table 4.8 Accounting and marketing vocabulary in COCA**

Vocabulary items	Total frequency in newspaper texts (total number of words in newspaper texts is 81 million)	100 concordance lines		Total frequency in spoken texts (total number of words in spoken texts is 85 million)	100 concordance lines	
		Business meaning	Non-business meaning		Business meaning	Non-business meaning
goodwill	638	9	91	361	2	98
liabilities	356	59	35	123	93	7
competitive advantage	103	77	21	40	25	15
segment	1480	19	81	3249	6	94
Total	2577	164	228	3773	126	214

### **Analysis of goodwill**

The business vocabulary item *goodwill*, associated with the business domain of accounting, was found hundred and five times in newspaper texts and fourteen times in spoken texts, available in the BNC. This data is also placed in *Table 4.7 Accounting and marketing vocabulary in the BNC*, presenting the total frequency of goodwill in newspaper texts and spoken texts, as well as the results from the qualitative analysis for the first hundred concordance lines. Regarding the use of goodwill in newspaper texts of the BNC, the first hundred concordance lines contained two instances of vocabulary item *goodwill* being part of a headline. Therefore, ninety-eight concordance lines were analysed in order to determine the business or non-business meaning of goodwill in newspaper texts of the BNC. The analysis revealed that the business vocabulary item *goodwill* was applied in a business meaning thirteen times and eighty-five times in a non-business meaning. As a result, the analysis of newspaper texts of the BNC indicated that the selected business vocabulary item *goodwill* was generally applied in a non-business meaning, for instance, in the following sense,

illustrated by the definition taken from *the Oxford Dictionaries*: 'Friendly, helpful, or cooperative attitude'( Online 3). As for the texts of spoken registers and the use of goodwill in a business meaning, all fourteen occurrences of goodwill displayed a non-business meaning. However, the next example demonstrates the business vocabulary item *goodwill*, applied in a business meaning in the newspaper article of the BNC.

#### *Example 6*

The figures are more a reflection of the inadequacy of accounting rules on **goodwill** than the quality of the underlying businesses (Date (1985-1994); Title 'Independent, elect. edn. Of 19891005').

Furthermore, concerning the use of goodwill in newspaper texts and spoken texts, available in COCA, the results are presented in *Table 4.8 Accounting and marketing vocabulary in COCA*, showing the total frequency of goodwill and the number of occurrences in a business and non-business meaning. The frequency analysis revealed six hundred thirty-eight concordance lines in the case of newspaper texts, and three hundred sixty-one results in the case of the spoken texts. As for the business and non-business meaning of goodwill in the texts of newspapers from COCA, by analysing the first hundred concordance lines, the use of goodwill in a business meaning was detected in the nine instances out of hundred. Further, concerning the spoken texts of COCA, two instances out of hundred occurrences of goodwill displayed a business meaning. In order to demonstrate the use of goodwill in a non-business meaning, the example from the spoken text of COCA is provided.

#### *Example 7*

In recent years, Jolie's role as a **goodwill** ambassador for the U.N. Refugee Agency has gotten her more attention than her movie roles and taken her all over the world. (Date (20060612) Title 'Jolie and Pitt Return Home to California'; Source *CNN\_Showbiz* ).

In brief, the quantitative analysis for the business vocabulary item *goodwill* in newspaper and spoken texts of The BNC and COCA yielded result. Although, the frequency analysis showed more instances of goodwill in newspaper and spoken texts in COCA than in the BNC, the qualitative analysis revealed that this business vocabulary item was more applied in a business meaning in the BNC than COCA, based on the analysis of the first hundred concordance lines. That is, within the newspaper and spoken texts of COCA, eleven occurrences of goodwill use in a business meaning were detected, as opposed to the thirteen occurrences of the BNC. In addition, goodwill is more frequently used in newspaper texts than spoken ones. As for the business and non-business meaning, the qualitative analysis for the first hundred concordance lines allow to conclude that the use of goodwill in a business meaning is not common for these text types which were analysed in the BNC and COCA.

Finally, with regard to the non-business meaning of goodwill, the collocations and phrases such as *a goodwill ambassador*, *a goodwill store*, *a gesture of goodwill*, *an act of goodwill*, *a goodwill visit*, were found during the research process.

### **Analysis of liabilities**

The business vocabulary item *liabilities*, associated with the business domain of accounting, was found thirty-two times within the collection of newspaper texts, and eighteen times within the collection of spoken texts available in the BNC. The total frequency of liabilities in newspaper texts and spoken texts, as well as results from the qualitative analysis of the concordance lines are placed in *Table 4.7 Accounting and marketing vocabulary in the BNC*. As for the business and non-business meaning of liabilities in texts of newspapers, thirty concordance lines contained *liabilities* used in a business meaning while two concordance lines had liabilities used in a non-business meaning. On the other hand, concerning the use of liabilities in spoken texts of the BNC, all eighteen instances represented business meaning. The following example demonstrates the non-business meaning of liabilities, applied in the newspaper article from the BNC.

#### *Example 8*

Both Mrs Thatcher and Mr Kinnock are widely perceived to be **liabilities** to their parties. More and more Conservatives, in and out of the House, are coming to believe that their chances at the election would be stronger under a different leader. (Date (1985-1994) Title 'Guardian, elect. edn. Of 19891123' ).

Regarding the use of liabilities in newspaper texts and spoken texts of COCA, the total frequency of this vocabulary item, as well as results from the qualitative analysis are placed in *Table 4.8 Accounting and marketing vocabulary in COCA*. This business vocabulary item was found was three hundred fifty-six times in newspaper texts and one hundred twenty-three times in spoken texts. First of all, when the first hundred concordance lines of newspaper texts were examined, six occurrences of liabilities being part of the headlines were discovered, therefore without a proper context. As a result, these six instances of liabilities are disregarded from the qualitative analysis and are not included in *Table 4.8 Accounting and marketing vocabulary in COCA*. As for the business and non-business meaning of liabilities in the texts of newspapers in COCA, ninety-two instances represented a business meaning while two instances had liabilities in a non-business meaning. Further, the analysis for the first hundred concordance lines of spoken texts revealed ninety-three instances of liabilities applied in a business meaning and seven instances of liabilities in a non-business meaning. The next example demonstrates the business meaning of liabilities in spoken texts from COCA.

### *Example 9*

It's really that simple. And by doing this, by making this pitch the way that he is doing, you saw, the producers actually did a good job of laying out where the **liabilities** are. It's the automakers that owe the money. The banks have, in many cases, paid out the money or paid back the money. (Date 2010 (100114) Title 'Political Headlines'; Source *Fox\_Baier* )

To summarize, the total frequency of business vocabulary item *liabilities* is higher in newspaper and spoken texts of COCA than the BNC. Additionally, liabilities is more used in a business meaning in COCA than in the BNC. As for the texts of newspapers and spoken registers, in the texts of newspapers the vocabulary item *liabilities* is more prevalent in both selected corpora.

### **Analysis of *competitive advantage***

The business vocabulary item *competitive advantage*, associated with the business domain of marketing, was found six times in newspaper texts and two times in spoken texts, available in the BNC. The total frequency of competitive advantage, as well as results from qualitative analysis are placed in *Table 4.7 Accounting and marketing vocabulary in the BNC*. Concerning the business and non-business meanings of competitive advantage, analysed in the selected text types of different registers from the BNC, in newspaper texts one out of six occurrences displayed a business meaning. As for the spoken texts, one instance of competitive advantage had business meaning and one had a non-business meaning. To demonstrate, the following example illustrates the use of competitive advantage in a non-business meaning, and it was acquired from the collection of spoken texts available in the BNC. This spoken texts is a debate and business vocabulary item *competitive advantage* is not applied according to the definitions collected and is concerned with the competitiveness of individual states.

### *Example 10*

'Does he also agree that the imposition of the social chapter, which both parties opposite would like to force on this country, would not only destroy our **competitive advantage** but more importantly would destroy jobs? ( Date (1985-1994); Title 'House of Commons debate').

The total frequency of competitive advantage in newspaper and spoken texts of COCA, as well as results from qualitative analysis are placed in *Table 4.8 Accounting and marketing vocabulary in COCA*. The frequency analysis for competitive advantage in newspaper and spoken texts, available in COCA, yielded more results. To be precise, within the texts of newspapers, hundred and three results were offered, from which the first hundred

concordance lines were analysed. The analysis of first hundred concordance lines for competitive advantage in newspaper texts revealed that two times this business vocabulary item was used as a part of the headline. Therefore, the determination of business or non-business meaning was impossible. As a result, the qualitative analysis was carried out for the ninety-eight concordance lines which offered a context. As for the business and non-business meanings of competitive advantage, found in newspaper texts from COCA, seventy-seven concordance lines contained this business vocabulary item used in a business meaning while twenty-one concordance line had *competitive advantage* used in a non-business meaning. Further, concerning the use of competitive advantage in spoken texts, available in COCA, forty concordance lines were analysed, with twenty-five instances offering the use of competitive advantage in a business meaning and fifteen instances a non-business meaning. To illustrate, the following example demonstrates the use of competitive advantage in a business meaning, and it comes from the article of *USA Today*, available in COCA.

#### *Example 11*

It's been building 32-nm chips for a year, while others have not yet begun high-volume production. For Intel, it's a **competitive advantage** that helped it produce record gross margins (66%) last year. (Date (110329); Title 'Intel bets big on manufacturing'; Source *USA Today*).

To summarize, business vocabulary item *competitive advantage* was more frequently used in the selected text types of different registers, available at COCA. Further, concerning the use of competitive advantage in a business meaning, this business vocabulary item was more frequent in newspaper texts than in spoken texts. The qualitative analysis revealed that the use of competitive advantage in a business was frequent in newspaper texts of COCA since only twenty-one out of ninety-eight instances had a non-business meaning. In conclusion, although there were examples of competitive advantage used in a business meaning, the occurrences of competitive advantage used in a non-business meaning dealt with the competitiveness with states, and even the advantages that make athletes or politicians superior than their competitors.

#### **Analysis of segment**

The business vocabulary item segment, associated with the business domain of marketing, was found eighteen times in newspaper texts and eleven times in spoken texts available in the BNC. The total frequency of segment, as well as results from qualitative analysis are placed in *Table 4.7 Accounting and marketing vocabulary in the BNC*. The analysis of eighteen instances of segment, obtained from newspaper texts, revealed that in seventeen of those the business vocabulary item *segment* was used in a non-business meaning. As a result, there is

only one occurrence of business use in the texts of newspapers from the BNC. As for the spoken texts of the BNC, eleven instances of the use of segment were detected, and only one of those displayed a business meaning. To demonstrate, next example illustrates the use of segment in a non-business meaning, and it comes from the spoken text of the BNC.

#### *Example 12*

Yesterday the (pause) it wasn't yesterday, it was earlier on this week, the County Councillors set a new budget for Oxfordshire and they made ten million pounds worth of cuts. How did the Social Services segment fare in those cuts? (Date (1985-1994); Title 'Bill Heine radio phone-in (02). 9 partics, 2645 utts' ).

As for the use of segment in newspaper texts and spoken texts from COCA, the frequency analysis revealed that there are one thousand four hundred eighty instances of segment within the texts of newspapers and three thousand two hundred forty-nine instances of segment in spoken texts. These results are placed in *Table 4.8 Accounting and marketing vocabulary in COCA*, along with the data obtained from the qualitative analysis for the concordance lines. Regarding the business and non-business meaning of segment in the texts of newspapers, the analysis of the first hundred concordance lines allow to conclude that in nineteen of those the business vocabulary item segment was used in a business meaning. As for the texts of spoken registers, the examination of the first hundred concordance lines revealed that in the six instances *a segment* was used in a business meaning. The analysis of the use of segment in spoken texts suggest that by and large, this vocabulary item is applied in a meaning of a *news segment*. The next example illustrates the use of segment in a business meaning in the article of *Atlanta Journal Constitution* from COCA.

#### *Example 13*

Romance fiction is the fastest-growing segment of the e-book market, more so even than mysteries and science fiction, as voracious fans have discovered they can instantly download new titles instead of waiting for that next trip to the bookstore or Amazon package to arrive. (Date 2012 (120527) Publication information FEATURES ; Title 'Books;Hearts aflame for Ga. Writers ' ; Source *Atlanta Journal Constitution*).

In brief, the business vocabulary item *segment* is more frequently used in newspaper texts and spoken texts of COCA. As for the business and non-business meaning of segment, the analysis of the first hundred concordance lines inform that the business use is not common for the selected text types of the BNC and COCA. Nevertheless, the use of segment in a business meaning is more common for the newspaper texts.

### **4.3.3. Analysis of business development, general management and human resources vocabulary**

Three business vocabulary items, associated with the business domains of business

development, general management and human resources were selected for the analysis of newspaper texts and spoken texts of the BNC and COCA. These vocabulary items are social responsibility (business domain of business development), corporate governance (business domain of general management) and soft skills (business domain of human resources). All selected vocabulary items were found in newspaper and spoken texts of the BNC and COCA, either in a business meaning or non-business meaning. Two tables below, *Table 4.9 Business development, general management and human resources vocabulary in the BNC* and *Table 4.10 Business development, general management and human resources vocabulary in COCA*, contain the total frequencies of selected vocabulary and results from the qualitative analysis for the first hundred concordance lines. Additionally, the sections of both tables, containing the data obtained from the qualitative analysis for the first hundred concordance lines, do not include occurrences of selected vocabulary items without a context. Finally, this chapter concludes by presenting the findings of business development, general management and human resources vocabulary use in newspaper and spoken texts of the BNC and COCA by discussing the research results of each vocabulary item separately.

**Table 4.9 Business development, general management and human resources vocabulary in the BNC**

Vocabulary items	Total frequency in newspaper texts (total number of words in newspaper texts is 11 million)	100 concordance lines		Total frequency in spoken texts (total number of words in spoken texts is 10 million)	100 concordance lines	
		Business meaning	Non-business meaning		Business meaning	Non-business meaning
social responsibility	4	1	3	21	4	17
corporate governance	1	1	0	1	1	0
soft skills	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	5	2	3	22	5	17

**Table 4.10 Business development, general management and human resources vocabulary in COCA**

Vocabulary items	Total frequency in newspaper texts (total number of words in newspaper texts is 81 million)	100 concordance lines		Total frequency in spoken texts (total number of words in spoken texts is 85 million)	100 concordance lines	
		Business meaning	Non-business meaning		Business meaning	Non-business meaning
social responsibility	126	43	55	40	8	32
corporate governance	194	100	0	36	36	0
soft skills	8	8	0	1	1	0
Total	328	151	55	77	45	32

### ***Analysis of social responsibility***

The business vocabulary item *social responsibility*, associated with the business domain of business development, was found four times in the texts of newspapers and twenty-one times in spoken texts of the BNC. The total frequency of social responsibility, as well as the results from the qualitative analysis are shown in *Table 4.9 Business development, general management and human resources vocabulary in the BNC*. As for the business and non-business meaning of social responsibility in newspaper texts, one out of four concordance lines analysed displayed a business meaning. Further, in spoken texts, the business meaning of social responsibility was identified in four occurrences out of twenty-one. To demonstrate the use of social responsibility in a non-business meaning, the next example is provided from the spoken text of the BNC.

#### *Example 14*

Moderator it's hard within the space of these few minutes to give a sense of the breadth of the Board's work. And in focusing on some problem areas it's possible to fail to give an impression of the enormous privilege it is to serve the church and her lord in social responsibility. (Date (1985-1994); Title 'Inserting rules and regulations (Pub/instit). 10 partics, 177 utts').

As for the use of social responsibility in newspaper and spoken texts from COCA, this business vocabulary item was used hundred and twenty-six times in the texts of newspapers and forty times in spoken texts. Further, *Table 4.10 Business development, general management and human resources vocabulary in COCA* shows the total frequency of social responsibility in COCA, as well as results of the qualitative analysis for the first hundred concordance lines. The analysis of the first hundred concordance lines, containing *social responsibility* in newspaper texts contained two instances of this vocabulary item being part of a headline. Therefore, these two cases of social responsibility could not be analysed due to the lack of context. Further, from the ninety-eight occurrences of social responsibility, forty-three displayed a business meaning while fifty-five occurrences had a non-business meaning. Regarding the use of social responsibility in spoken texts of COCA, eight out of forty instances displayed a business meaning. The next example demonstrates the use of social responsibility in a business meaning, and it comes from the article of *USA Today*, available in COCA.

#### *Example 15*

Orlitzky says. " But more business strategists now believe that social responsibility has economic value. " # Hundreds of corporations churn out annual " CSR reports " that tout their social consciences and business practices. Investors poured \$179 billion in 2005 -- up from only \$12 billion a decade earlier -- into socially responsible mutual funds, reports the Social Investment Forum. (Date (20070214)'; Title 'Businesses grow more

socially conscious; More think strategy can also be profitable'; Source *USA Today* ).

To summarize, the business vocabulary item *social responsibility* is used more frequently in the selected text types of different registers, available in COCA than in the BNC. Additionally, in COCA, vocabulary item *social responsibility* was more frequent in newspaper texts than in spoken texts whereas in the BNC *social responsibility* was more used in the spoken texts. However, on the whole, there were more instances of social responsibility in a business meaning in newspaper texts. More relevantly, the qualitative analysis allows to conclude that the vocabulary item *social responsibility* is more applied in a non-business meaning, however, there are examples of the business related use in both corpora and both registers.

### ***Analysis of corporate governance***

The analysis of the business vocabulary item corporate governance, associated with the business domain of general management, was found once in newspaper texts and once in spoken texts, offered by the BNC. The total frequency of corporate governance in the BNC, as well as results from qualitative analysis are placed in *Table 4.9 Business development, general management and human resources vocabulary in the BNC*. Additionally, both instances of corporate governance were the examples of this vocabulary item used in a business meaning. In order to demonstrate, the following example from newspaper article of the BNC is provided.

#### *Example 16*

Norrie Morrison, an analyst at the broker Kleinwort Benson, said: ' I think it will go a long way to reassuring shareholders about **corporate governance**... The City will take heart that Barclays is listening to its shareholders. (Date (1985-1994) Title ' [Scotsman]. Commerce material, pp. ?? . 5053 s-units ' ).

As for the use of business vocabulary item *corporate governance* in newspaper texts and spoken texts of COCA, the frequency analysis showed that there are one hundred ninety- four instances of the use in newspaper texts and thirty-six instances in spoken texts. Furthermore, *Table 4.10 Business development, general management and human resources vocabulary in COCA* shows the total frequency of corporate governance in COCA, as well as results of the qualitative analysis for the first hundred concordance lines. Concerning the results from qualitative analysis, all concordance lines, both in the newspaper texts and spoken texts, represented the use of corporate governance in a business meaning. Even if this vocabulary item was a part of collocations or phrases such as *corporate governance lawyer* or *the Center for Business Ethics and Corporate Governance*, these examples were considered as representative of the business meaning of corporate governance since the context of these

instances was reflecting the issues connected to this business vocabulary item, and was in accordance with the definitions collected on corporate governance. Further, the following example, taken from the spoken text of COCA, illustrates the use of corporate governance in the business sense.

#### *Example 17*

I have a great belief in the U.S. system and in the people in the United States and the resiliency that we have shown and the ability to overcome 9/11, and slow down in the economy, and the bursting of the dot-com bubble and the **corporate governance** problems and all of the rest of that. (Date 2002 (20020910); Title 'Treasury Secretary – Interview; Source *Fox\_Cavuto* ).

To conclude, the business vocabulary item *corporate governance* is more frequently used in the texts of selected registers of COCA than in those of the BNC. As for the business and non-business meanings, there were none instances of corporate governance used in a non-business meanings. Finally, business vocabulary item *corporate governance* was more frequently used in the newspaper texts than in the spoken texts.

#### **Analysis of soft skills**

The business vocabulary item *soft skills*, associated with the business domain of accounting, was found zero times in newspaper texts and spoken texts, available in the BNC. As for the texts of selected registers of COCA, eight instances of the use of soft skills were detected in newspaper texts whereas only one instance of the use of soft skills was found in spoken texts. Additionally, *Table 4.10 Business development, general management and human resources vocabulary in COCA* shows the total frequency of soft skills in COCA, as well as results of the qualitative analysis for the first hundred concordance lines As for the business and non-business meanings of soft skills in the texts of newspapers, this business vocabulary item was used in business meaning in all the instances. Similarly, the one occurrence of soft skills in the spoken text of COCA offered the example of this vocabulary item used in a business meaning. The following example, taken from the article of *San Francisco Chronicle*, available in COCA, shows the use of soft skills in a business sense.

#### *Example 18*

"The main concerns are: Do they really want to work? Do they have **soft skills** like showing up on time? Will they take directions? And are they trainable? " (Date 1998 (19980518); Publication Information BUSINESS; ; Title 'Welfare-to-Work Programs Target Small Companies; 2 S.F. train jobless to enter workforce'; Source *San Francisco Chronicle* ).

## CONCLUSIONS

The goal of the research was to examine the use of business English vocabulary of different domains in newspaper texts as well as spoken texts (e.g. conversations, broadcasts, presentations) in the BNC and COCA. The hypothesis of the research was as follows: business English vocabulary of different domains is used in newspaper texts as well as spoken texts available in the BNC and COCA, and it has been approved.

The theoretical research of corpora definitions, proposed by various researchers revealed that characteristics of corpora such as large size, the reason behind the creation of a corpus, the linguistic features taken into account in the organization of texts, the mode of collected texts, computer-readable form of the texts and the annotation are typically included in the definitions. Additionally, the research allows concluding that there is more than one way how to classify monolingual English language corpora. The main differences in the classifications proposed by different researchers lie in the titles assigned to the particular corpora types.

Furthermore, concerning the general corpora, also referred to as balanced, reference, core or standard corpora, the investigation on this corpora type revealed that a general corpus is one with a wide range and balance of genres and domains represented.

As for the theoretical research on register, the investigation of definitions, proposed by several researchers revealed that the main idea expressed in defining a register is the existing relationships between the language and the situational context. Therefore, the examination on situational context and relationship between various situational characteristics and linguistic features was carried out, which allowed concluding that language is influenced by the context where it is produced. Specific linguistic features are found in the particular registers due to fact that those linguistic features are adequate for the situational context of those registers.

Finally, the definitions on lexis, vocabulary and terminology were researched and the research shows that the term *vocabulary* is a broader concept than *terminology* yet narrower than *lexis*; since analysed definitions demonstrated that vocabulary is the total amount of words of a specific language used by a speaker and lexis is the vocabulary of a particular language while terminology is the vocabulary of a particular subject or discipline.

The examination of the BNC and COCA, general corpora selected for this research, revealed that COCA provided more examples of the business English vocabulary used in a business meaning than the BNC. Additionally, when the ten selected business vocabulary items of different business domains were investigated in texts of the selected registers, in most of the cases, the research in the newspaper texts yielded more results. However, there were only a few instances when a business vocabulary item was more frequent in the spoken texts.

This was the case of business vocabulary items *differentiation* and *social responsibility* in the BNC and business vocabulary item *segment* in COCA. Although, when the first hundred concordance lines of COCA were investigated, the texts of newspapers represented business vocabulary item *segment* more in a business meaning than the spoken texts, that is, the newspaper texts of COCA had nineteen instances of *segment* in a business meaning whereas spoken texts had six instances displaying a business meaning. Overall the following business vocabulary items *competitive advantage*, *social responsibility*, *liabilities*, *corporate governance and differentiation*, provided more examples for studying business vocabulary in use.

To summarize, the present research allows concluding that there are examples of business vocabulary in general corpora therefore general corpora can be used as a source for making the learning materials in order to teach business English. Also, in the texts of the selected registers of COCA, the business vocabulary was applied more in a business meaning than in the BNC. The reason for that can be the fact that COCA is considerably larger as it contains more words than the BNC. Finally it is obvious that the texts of newspapers are more useful for studying the business vocabulary in use than the spoken texts.

## THESIS

1. There is a range of characteristics that defines a corpus, for instance, the purpose for creation of a corpus, the linguistic features taken into account in the organization of texts, the mode of the collected texts, the large size of a corpus, its computer-readable form and the annotation.
2. There is more than one approach for the classification of monolingual English language corpora and the inconsistencies within the classifications are concerned with different titles assigned to the particular corpus type, that is, speech vs. spoken corpora, diachronic vs. historical corpora, general vs. reference, standard, balanced or core corpora.
3. The register is defined by researchers as the relationship between the language and the situational context.
4. In order to perform register analysis, the relationship between the situational characteristics, which are participants, relations among participants, mode, production circumstances, setting, communicative purposes, and topic, and the linguistic features need to be considered since the language is influenced by the context where it is produced.
5. The vocabulary is the total amount of words in a specific language used by a speaker and lexis is the vocabulary of a particular language whereas terminology is a vocabulary of a particular subject or discipline.
6. The selection criteria for general corpora for the present research are accessibility and size of a corpus which led to the selection of the BNC and COCA; The newspaper texts and spoken texts are selected in order to find out the frequency and examine the use of selected vocabulary in the written and spoken communication while the main criteria in the selection of vocabulary items is the set of different domains of business in order to have diverse business vocabulary sample.
7. On the whole, in newspaper texts and spoken texts of COCA, business English vocabulary is more frequently used within the first hundred concordance lines analysed than in the BNC and similarly, on the whole, the texts of newspapers offer more examples of the business English vocabulary use than spoken texts.
8. From the ten researched business vocabulary items, *competitive advantage*, *social responsibility*, *liabilities*, *corporate governance* and *differentiation* occur more frequently in a business meaning

9. The present research allows concluding that there are examples of business English vocabulary in general corpora; therefore, general corpora texts can be used in teaching business English.

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## Appendix 1

*Table 1 business vocabulary use in the BNC*

Vocabulary items	Total frequency in newspaper texts (total number of words in newspaper texts – 11 million)	100 concordance lines		Total frequency in spoken texts (total number of words in spoken texts – 10 million)	100 concordance lines	
		Business meaning	Non-business meaning		Business meaning	Non-business meaning
benchmarking	0	0	0	0	0	0
differentiation	6	1	5	51	11	40
lean production	0	0	0	0	0	0
goodwill	105	13	85	14	0	14
liabilities	32	30	2	18	18	0
competitive advantage	6	1	5	2	1	1
segment	18	1	17	11	1	10
social responsibility	4	1	3	21	4	17
corporate governance	1	1	0	1	1	0
soft skills	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	172	48	117	118	36	82

## Appendix 2

*Table 2 business vocabulary use in COCA*

Vocabulary items	Total frequency in newspaper texts (total number of words in newspaper texts – 81 million)	100 concordance lines		Total frequency in spoken texts (total number of words in spoken texts – 85 million)	100 concordance lines	
		Business meaning	Non-business meaning		Business meaning	Non-business meaning
benchmarking	10	7	0	1	1	0
differentiation	53	18	34	40	3	37
lean production	1	1	0	0	0	0
goodwill	638	9	91	361	2	98
liabilities	356	59	35	123	93	7
competitive advantage	103	77	21	40	25	15
segment	1480	19	81	3249	6	94
social responsibility	126	43	55	40	8	32
corporate governance	194	100	0	36	36	0
soft skills	8	8	0	1	1	0
Total	2969	341	317	3891	175	283