О.Ю. Буйнова

Tests in Lexicology

Учебно-методическое пособие

Буйнова О. Ю.

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Учебно-методическое пособие «Tests in Lexicology» является дополнением к курсу лекций по лексикологии английского языка. Оно направленно на совершенствование навыков, полученных в процессе работы над теоретическим материалом курса. Пособие содержит задания, которые закрепляют общепрофессиональные компетенции, в процессе овладения которыми студенты получают возможность адекватно анализировать основные явления и процессы, отражающие функционирование языкового строя вообще и его словарного состава в частности. Особое внимание уделяется отработке и эффективному применению понятийного аппарата лексикологии.

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CONTENTS

Введение

Концепция современного образования определяет цели, где подчеркивается необходимость формирование системы универсальных знаний, умений, эффективной деятельности, то есть тех ключевых компонентов, которые определяют качество иноязычного образования.

Учебно-методическое пособие является дополнением к курсу лекций по лексикологии английского языка. Оно направленно на совершенствование навыков, полученных в процессе работы над теоретическим материалом курса. Пособие содержит задания, которые закрепляют общепрофессиональные компетенции, в процессе овладения которыми студенты получают возможность адекватно анализировать основные явления и процессы, отражающие функционирование языкового строя вообще и его словарного состава в частности. Особое внимание уделяется отработке и эффективному применению понятийного аппарата лексикологии. С этой целью в пособие предлагается подробный глоссарий, в который вошли все ключевые термины, используемые при синхроническом и диахроническом исследовании лексических единиц.

Кроме того, выполняя предложенные в пособии тесты и комментируя теоретические аспекты речевого функционирования, учащиеся получат способность успешно интерпретировать основные проявления взаимодействия всех языковых уровней и взаимосвязи подсистем языка.

При подборе текстовых материалов (Readings) были использованы наиболее авторитетные источники современных учебных пособий по семантике английского языка, такие как: А. Коуи, «Phraseology, Theory, Analysis, and Applications», Р. Мун, «Fixed Expressions and Idioms in English, A Corpus-Based Approach», Дж Синклер, «Corpus, Concordance, Collocation», Д. Лакофф, М. Джонсон, «Metaphors We Live by», И. Равин, «Claudia Leacock, Polysemy Theoretical and Computational Approaches».

Таким образом, задания, предложенные в учебно-методическом пособии, позволяют развивать критическое мышление, способность к самоанализу, интерпретации экстралингвистических явлений, способствуют формированию у студентов представления о системной природе лексики и взаимосвязи всех элементов языка.

Part 1. Readings

1.1. Words and meanings

Text 1

The discussion in this passage focuses on the differences between lexical and grammatical items. There is a potentially infinite number of lexical words and, by contrast, a finite number of grammatical words. The two categories convey different kinds of meaning.

One distinction which it is clearly necessary to draw is that between grammatical and lexical words. The former comprise a small and finite class of words which includes pronouns (*I, you, me*), articles (*the, a*), auxiliary verbs (*must, could, shall*), prepositions (*in, on, with, by*) and conjunctions (*and, but*). *Grammatical words* like these are also variously known as "functional words', 'functors', 'empty words'. *Lexical words*, on the other hand – which are also variously known as 'full words' or 'content words' – include nouns (*man, cat*), adjectives (*large, beautiful*), verbs (*find, wish*) and adverbs (*brightly, luckily*). They carry a higher information content and are syntactically structured by the grammatical words. Also, while there are a finite number of grammatical words, there is a potentially unlimited number of lexical words. It is lexical words, too, which are most subject to what linguists term diachronic change, that is, changes in form or meaning over a period of time. There are numerous examples of regular changes in meaning of lexical words in the course of the historical development of any language. But grammatical words remain generally more immutable. This gives some obvious ground, therefore, for linguists to be able to refer to lexical words as an open class of words while grammatical words constitute a closed class.

► *Why do you think lexical words are said to be 'full' and grammatical words 'empty'?*

► *Grammatical words are said to change very little, in form, meaning, or use over time. Comment on the use of the pronoun 'one' in 'One must sympathize with ber', and of the possessive determiner 'their' in 'Someone bas left their bike outside'.*

Text 2

This extract traces the processes by which a new word or meaning enters the vocabulary of a language and becomes established. Whether or not the new term gains currency will depend on various factors, including the appearance of a new object or process which needs a name.

When a word first appears in a language, whether as a loan or as a nonce formation (i.e. a new complex word coined on the spur of the moment), it appears that speakers are aware of its newness, that is they are aware that they are exploiting the productivity of the language system. Thus, in modern journalistic language the word is often put in inverted commas, a phrase is added such as 'what has been called', 'as it is termed' and so on, or a complete gloss is provided. The large amount of written evidence for this awareness of novelty is a fairly recent phenomenon, since it is only in the twentieth century that vast numbers of dailies and periodicals have become commonplace, but it may be assumed that the awareness of innovation is not as recent as that, and that earlier generations put intonational "inverted commas' round the term, and provided oral glosses in the same way. In literary language, where new forms are often produced specifically to provide effect, such marking does not take place, and the form is most frequently left to speak for itself; but it should be remembered that, statistically speaking, literary language is the exception rather than the rule in linguistic behaviour.

Whether or not the new term gains currency will depend upon a number of factors. One of these is the status of the person who used the term – Adams cites the example of *triphibian*, which may have been helped into currency by the fact that it was apparently first used by Winston Churchill – or, in journalistic terms, the status and circulation of the newspaper involved. But although this is a factor which is frequently mentioned, whether or not a word is accepted and used seems frequently to depend on the attitude to the word evinced by society as a whole. Society's stamp of approval in turn frequently

depends on there being a need for the form in question. In the clearest cases this means that there is a new object or construct which needs a name (for example, *television, liguidizer*, and in linguistics such terms *as Chomsky adjunction or the category squish*), but frequently it is simply a matter of a known concept being required in a part of speech in which it has not previously been used.

In other cases there may not be an obvious need for a new word. For example, there is no obvious need for Danish TV, French *charter* and German *Fernsprecher*, given the prior existence of the synonymous forms *fjernsyn, affrété* and *Telephon*. In such cases, the new word may arise for reasons of prestige. In other cases, new complex words may be used to gain an effect, to save space (especially in newspaper headlines) or simply because the speaker cannot remember the usual lexeme used for the required concept. An example of the first of these is *dontopedology* 'putting one's foot in one's mouth', which has a humorous effect because it is a scientific-sounding label for something rather trivial; an example of the second is the recent use in headlines of *press freedom* in place of the more normal *freedom of the press*; and an example of the third (though one which may be gaining ground) is *equalitarian* for *egalitarian*. It would also be possible to speak of 'needs' in these instances, since in each case the existing list of lexemes fails to give immediate satisfaction in the speaker's search for an expression.

► *What conventions are used in spoken and written language to indicate that someone is aware of using a new word or meaning?*

► *An example of a word being used in a part of speech in which it has not previously been employed would be the term 'host' used as a verb in radio or television shows. Give further examples from broadcasting or another field.*

Text 3

In this passage, the writer confronts the problem that the meanings we give to a word can vary considerably from one context to another. Sometimes the meanings are quite distinct, but sometimes there are subtle but still perceivable contrasts of meaning.

Once we try to grapple with the notion 'the meaning of a word', we come up against a serious problem: the interpretation we give to a particular word form can vary so greatly from context to context. The observable variations range from very gross, with little or no perceptible connection between the readings, as in: *They moored the boat to the bank* and *He is the manager of a local bank*, through clearly different but intuitively related readings, as in *My father's firm built this school* (*school* here refers to the building) and *Job's school won the Football Charity Shield last year* (in this case *school* refers to (a subset of) the human population of the school), to relatively subtle variations, as in the case of path *in He was coming down the path to meet me even before I reached the garden gate* and *We followed a winding path through the woods* (a different mental image of a path is conjured up in the two cases), or *walk in Alice can walk already and she's only 11 months old and I usually walk to work*, where not only is the manner of walking different, but so also are the implicit contrasts (in the first case, standing up unaided and talking and in the second case, driving or going by bus/train, etc.).

This type of variation, which is endemic in the vocabulary of any natural language, means that answers must be sought to questions like: Do words typically have multiple meanings? How do we decide what constitutes 'a meaning'? Is there a finite number of such meanings? How are the meanings related to one another?

► *The examples of 'bank' show a clear separation of meanings. What is this called, and how can the separation be demonstrated?*

► *The differences in the meaning of 'school' have come about through applying a rule which derives one meaning ('people in a building') from another ('the building itself') on the basis of 'connection'. What is this process called? Provide further examples.*

1.2. Word-formation

Text 4

Text 2 listed the conditions a coinage usually had to meet before entering the vocabulary. The present passage describes some of the word-formation processes that are involved, including some of the most irregular and bizarre.

We can analyse words, but once in a while the process is set in reverse and we create one, whether by accident or by design. The raw material generally conforms to the morphemes that can be discovered by analysing words that already exist – practically all words that are not imported bodily from some other language are made up of old words or modifications using standard affixes like *-ness* or *un-*. The less accidental the coinage the more respect it shows toward existing formative elements. This is especially true of scientific terms: *decompression, polystyrene, perosis, cacogenesis* – old morphemes are re-used in systematic ways. But no etymological pedigree is required. The coiner may mix elements of diverse origins – as in *monolingual*, half Greek and half Latin, or in *atonement*, with its two English words at and one tagged with a Latin suffix – or even carry over a whole phrase or sentence as in *touch-me-not*, *what-you-may-call-it*, or *IOU*. And a speaker may ignore the official roster and patch something up with splinters, as with *bumber*, altered from *umbr-* in *umbrella,* and *-shoot*, based on the *-chute* of *parachute*, that form the word *bumbershoot.* In between are fragments of all degrees of standardized efficiency and junkyard irregularity. *Hamburger* yields *-burger*, which is reattached in *nutburger*, *Gainesburger,* and *cheeseburger*. *Cafeteria* yields *-teria*, which is reattached in *carpeteria, groceteria*, and *washateria.* Trade names make easy use of almost any fragment, like the *-roni* of *macaroni* that is reattached in *Rice-a-Roni* and *Noodle-Roni.* Recently *alcoholic* has given part of itself to the creation of *workaholic.* The fabrication may re-use elements that have been re-used many times, or it may be a one-shot affair such as the punning reference to being a member of the

lowerarchy, with - *archy* extracted from hierarchy. The principle is the same. The only thing a morpheme is good for is to be melted down and recast in a word.

The elements that are re-used most freely are called *productive*, the others *unproductive*, though both terms are relative. The suffix *-ate* is a Latinism that can hardly be used to make new words – but then some wag thinks up *discombobulate* and people accept it. At the other extreme the suffix *-er* looks as if we ought to be able to attach it to any verb and make a noun meaning 'one who performs the action': *worker, player, murderer, digger, eater*. Yet a glance at anomalies such as the following shows that we are less free than we think:

<div align="center">

They accused him – they were his accusers.

*They blamed him – they were his blamers.

They admire him – they are his admirers.

*They loathe him – they are his loathers.

She robs banks – she is a robber.

*She steals things – she is a stealer.

</div>

These examples suggest why *-er* varies so in productivity. It is not that the language cannot form the noun **loather* but simply that we have no use for it. What retinue of people would it designate?

► *The authors say here that 'once in a while' we create a new word 'whether by accident or design'. How do you think new words might be created by accident?*

► *One picturesque process is known as 'clipping'—the cutting away of one or more syllables from a word (e.g "teria' from 'cafeteria'). What are the full words of which these are the clippings: 'decaf', 'fridge', 'memo', 'pram'?*

Text 5

'Combining forms' (CFs) have certain features in common with the affixes usted to form derivatives and compounds. Like prefixes they occur before (and like suffixes after) another element to form a word (e.g. 'Euro + sceptic', "futur + ology'). Moreover, two CFs can come together to form a word ('bibliography') just as two simple words can be joined to form a compound ('headache').

Straddling affixation and compounding are processes involving combining forms. Combining forms are segments that do not occur as separate words in the language and like affixes they are attached before or after another segment to constitute a word. They are usually neo-classical; that is to say, they are mostly segments originating from Latin and Greek that are used to form words in English. Examples of initial combining forms are *Anglo-, astro-, bio-, electro-, Euro-, psycho-, tele-;* examples of final combining forms are *-cide, -cracy, -gram, -graph, -logy, -phile, -phobe.* These may be combined with established English words: *biochemistry, electromagnetism, psychotherapy, Eurosceptic, teleconference, meritocracy, futurology, escapologist.* In this way, elements from the classical languages enjoy a new life in English, forming words that did not exist in the original languages. Apart from their use in non-specialized language, combining forms are a common feature of scientific terminology, particularly in chemistry and pharmacology.

Initial combining forms generally end in a vowel, mostly o, though other vowels are also found, e. g. *agriculture, docudrama.* When a new initial combining form is created, it tends to end in 0. It may be shortened for that purpose from a longer word: *eco-*, from *ecology* and *ecological*, provides the first segment of *ecosystem* and *ecocentric, Euro-,* from *Europe* and *European*, yields *Eurocrat* and *Eurospeak.* If that possibility is not 'avail-able, the combining vowel o is added to convert the first segment into a combining form, as in *speedometer, futurology, meritocracy, Francophone.*)

Combining forms resemble affixes in being initial or final segments of words. However, two combining forms can be joined to form a word (*psychology, homophobe, Eurocrat, astronaut*), just as two bases can be conjoined in a compound word, whereas it is not possible to have a word consisting of just a prefix and a suffix. Indeed, final combining forms regularly combine only with initial combining forms: *-logy*, for example, requires an initial combining form such as *psycho-, socio-, anthropo-, futuro-, escapo-*. Hence, *pigeoncide* (attested in a news item in the British daily *The Independent,* 2 January 1991, p. 1) is irregular, though intelligible, as would be *spacenaut* in place of *astronaut.*

► *The author points out that CFs are widely used to form scientific terms. Give examples of these using the initial CFs 'electro-' and "psycho-', and the final CFs '-graph' and '-logy'.*

► *What is meant by saying that, through the use of CFs, 'elements from the classical languages enjoy a new life in English'?*

Text 6

The writer of this excerpt asks how we can distinguish, in terms of meaning and form, between compounds and syntactic constructions. The difficulty is that it is often hard to find a set of criteria all of which point in the same direction.

Policeman and *postman* originate, at least, in compounds with the second member *man*. But phonetically they have lost the full vowel: [pə'liːsmən] not -[mæn]. Moreover, there is another class of forms which do have [mæn], such as insurance man or (in my speech) *gas man*, Has the - [mən] then broken away from *man,* becoming a lexical formative on its own? There are two possible objections. Firstly, the Plural (also [mən]) would be slightly puzzling. As a reduced form of *men* it is what one expects; but if it has no synchronic connection with men, why do we not find regular Plurals (*'policemans'*, etc.) beginning to develop? One might hear such forms from children {along with: *singed* for *sang*

and other hyper-regularities), but they do not become established. The second and more important objection lies in the opposition between *policeman* and *policewoman.* In meaning, one is to the other as *man* is to *woman,* and the latter is a more recent form which takes the former as a model. Nor would postwoman be unexpected, provided that *'postwomen'* existed. The form in -*woman* suggests that those in [mən] also retain their character as compounds. But the case has to be argued.

   In a language such as English there are also serious problems in determining the boundary between compounds and syntactic constructions. The definition itself is clear: a compound (such as *madman*) is 'one word', and a construction (such as [*a*] *mad man*) two or more separate 'words'. But in practice what are the criteria for distinguishing them? 'Girl-friend', for example, could be written in any of three ways: as two words (*girl friend*), as one word hyphenated (*girl-friend*), or unhyphenated. We have used other examples, like *fish farm* or *safety pin*, which are usually, if not always, written as two words. Clearly, we cannot take the spelling conventions as our guide. Any printer or typist knows that they are not consistent. But by what criterion have we in fact decided that these and other forms are one lexeme and not two? Criteria may be sought at every level: from morphology and semantics, from phonology and syntax. Where a morphological criterion is available it may, of course, be decisive. *Socio-economic* is certainly a compound, because its first member is a stem or stem-variant plus suffix (compare *soci-al, soci-o-logy*, etc.) which cannot form a word on its own. The same is true of the type *Anglo-American, Franco-Chinese, Italo- Celtic,* etc. On the other hand, *beir apparent* is not a compound, because in the Plural (*heirs apparent)* heir is still inflected as a separate unit. Such tests are largely sufficient in languages where most words are inflected. Take, for example, the Latin Verb *liguefacio* 'make liquid'. This has a compound stem whose first member, *ligne*, is in turn a bare stem of the simple *liguet* 'be liquid'. *benedico* (*bless' in Church Latin) is a compound whose first member is the Adverb *bene* 'well'. This cannot be replaced by its Comparative or Superlative (say, *optimedico* 'bless especially'). But in English there is generally no

positive test. *Social Democratic* may be a compound, in that Social is not inflected separately; but then how could it be? Equally, it may NOT be a compound, in that *Social* can appear independently; but then so can *mad* in *madman, girl* in *girlfriend* and so on. The types which do allow positive results (*socio-economic or beir apparent*) are only the extreme cases. The test for *heir apparent* will also reveal uncertainties. In *solicitor general*, the first member is not usually inflected (e. g. *the solicitor generals in the last three governments*). But perhaps a pedant will insist that it should be, and there are certainly styles in which *solicitors general* would be more normal. Turning to a more ordinary situation, could three people in a restaurant *order three prunes and custards or three tournedo Rossini's*? For the authors, at least, both are more acceptable than *three apple-pie and creams* or *three sole bonne-femme's.* There are several factors at work, and it is not easy to be sure of the facts.

Semantic criteria have often been emphasized. The phrases *a black bird* and *a blue jay* have meanings predictable from the individual words and their construction: the former refers to any 'bird' which is 'black' (e.g. a rook), and the latter to a 'jay' which is 'blue' (whatever that means, a European reader may say!). But the compounds *blackbird* and *bluejay* have meanings which are not predictable; the latter too is the name of a particular (North American) species.

► *Consider 'soup spoon' and "tea spoon'. It is easy to work out their meanings from those of their components. Yet, despite their 'transparency' they are often referred to as compounds, and both appear in various dictionaries. How can this be explained?*

► *The author cites 'three prunes and custards' (with final *-s') as an indication that the whole expression is inflected, prunes and custard' by this criterion being a compound, But isn't the meaning of the whole predictable from the meanings of the individual words?*

1.3. Multiple meaning

Text 7

Metaphor is a basic process in the development of lexical items and their meanings. Many meanings of polysemous words are metaphors, and many idioms originate as metaphors.

Moreover, we may use metaphors to explain more precisely what a thing is like, or to convey what we feel about it.

Metaphor is pervasive in language, and there are two principal ways in which it is important.

First, in relation to individual words: metaphor is a basic process in the formarion of words and word meanings. Concepts and meanings are lexicalized, or expressed in words, through metaphor. Many senses of multi-sense words are metaphors of different kinds, as in the meanings of *field, hurt,* and *dark* in the following Bank of English (BoE) examples:

She has published extensively in the **field** of psychology.

The failure has **hurt** him deeply.

...the end of a long tale, full of **dark** hints and unspeakable innuendos.

Similarly, the names of many new concepts or devices are metaphorical or extended uses of pre-existing words: for example, computer terms such as *web, bug,* and *virus*. Many compound words encapsulate metaphors: *browbeat, foot- hill, pigeonhole.* Idioms and proverbs are often metaphorical in origin: *don't put all your eggs in one basket, miss the boat, rattle someone's cage*, and, more obscurely, *kick the bucket* and *a red herring*. These are mainly conventional metaphors.

Second, in relation to discourse: metaphor is important because of its functions – explaining, clarifying, describing, expressing, evaluating, entertaining. There are many reasons *why* we use metaphors in speech or writing: not least, because there is sometimes no other word to refer to a particular thing. But where we have a choice, we choose metaphors in order to communicate what we think or how we feel about

something; to explain what a particular thing is like; to convey a meaning in a more interesting or creative way; or to do all of these. We will look at examples later. Significantly, a lot of our understanding of things is mediated through metaphor. That is, we might well not understand them except with the help of metaphorical models or analogies, and our understanding is itself conditioned by the metaphor. For example, the cells in our bodies react biologically in complex ways to infection: we can understand the process more easily through a metaphor of was, thinking of it in terms of fighting and invasion, as in

Scientists believe stress may suppress development of T-cells, the white blood cells which help to **fight off invading** micro- organisms. (BoE).

Other metaphors might have been used, but this is the dominant, most familiar one, and the way in which we now conceptualize the biological process is determined by it. Similarly with the example *throughout the whole range*, from earlier in this chapter: we represent diversity as physical space. It is typical that metaphors use concrete images to convey something abstract, helping to communicate what is hard to explain.

► *What is meant by calling the idioms 'miss the boat' and 'rattle someone's cage' 'conventional' metaphors? What term would you use to describe metaphors that are the opposite of conventional, Give examples.*

► *The authors suggest that it is quite common to use concrete images to convey abstract concepts. How is the concept of 'imagination' represented by being associated with specific verbs, as follows: 'capture the imagination', 'grip the imagination', 'grasp the imagination'?*

Text 8

English bas many uncreative, everyday phrases describing love as stages on a journey. To find a general principle explaining how these phrases about journeys are used to characterize love, the writer invokes a metaphorical scenario. One domain of experience, love, is being explained, metaphorically, in terms of a different domain of experience, a journey.

Imagine a love relationship described as follows.

Our relationship has hit a *dead-end street.*

Here love is being conceptualized as a journey, with the implication that the relationship is *stalled*, that the lovers cannot *keep going the way they've been going*, that they must *turn back,* or abandon the relationship altogether. This is not an isolated case. English has many everyday expressions that are based on a conceptualization of love as a journey, and they are used not just for talking about love, but for reasoning about it as well. Some are necessarily about love; others can be understood that way:

Look *how far we've come.* It's been a *long, bumpy road.* We can't *turn back* now. We're at a *crossroads*. We may have to *go our separate ways*. The relationship isn't *going anywhere*. We're *spinning our wheels*. Our relationship is *off the track*. The marriage *is on the rocks*. We may have to *bail out* of this relationship.

These are ordinary, everyday English expressions. They are not poetic, nor are they necessarily used for special rhetorical effect. Those like *look how far we've come*, which aren't necessarily about love, can readily be understood as being about love.

As a linguist and a cognitive scientist, I ask two commonplace questions:

- Is there a general principle governing how these linguistic expressions about journeys are used to characterize love?
- Is there a general principle governing how our patterns of inference about journeys are used to reason about love when expressions such as these are used?

The answer to both is yes. Indeed, there is a single general principle that answers both questions, but it is a general principle that is neither part of the grammar of English, nor the English lexicon. Rather, it is part of the conceptual system underlying English. It is a principle for understanding the domain of love in terms of the domain of journeys.

The principle can be stated informally as a metaphorical scenario.

The lovers are travelers on a journey together, with their common life goals seen as destinations to be reached. The relationship is their vehicle, and it allows them to pursue those common goals together. The relationship is seen as fulfilling its purpose as long as it allows them to make progress toward their common goals, The journey isn't easy. There are impediments, and there are places (crossroads) where a decision has to be made about which direction to go in and whether to keep traveling together.

The. metaphor involves understanding one domain of experience, love, in terms of a very different domain of experience, journeys. More technically, the metaphor can be understood as a mapping (in the mathematical sense) from a source domain (in this case, journeys) to a target domain (in this case, love). The mapping is tightly structured. There are ontological correspondences, according to which entities in the domain of love (e.g., the lovers, their common goals, their difficulties, the love relationship, etc.) correspond systematically to entities in the domain of a journey (the travelers, the vehicle, destinations, etc.).

To make it easier to remember what mappings there are in the conceptual system, Johnson and I adopted a strategy for naming such mappings, using mnemonics which suggest the mapping. Mnemonic names typically {though not always) have the form: target-domain is source-domain, or alter- natively, target-domain as source-domain. In this case, the name of the mapping is love is a journey, When I speak of the *love is a journey* metaphor, I am using a mnemonic for a set of ontological correspondences that characterize a mapping, namely:

The love-as-journey mapping.
The lovers correspond to travelers.
The love relationship corresponds to the vehicle.

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The lovers' common goals correspond to their common destinations on the journey.

Difficulties in the relationship correspond to impediments to travel. It is a common mistake to confuse the name of the mapping, love is a journey, for the mapping itself. The mapping is the set of correspondences. Thus, whenever I refer to a metaphor by a mnemonic like Jove is a journey; 1 will be referring to such a set of correspondences.

► *Which of the expressions quoted in the first four paragraphs are necessarily about love and which could be understood in that way?*

► *The author stresses that he is talking about ordinary, everyday expressions, not phrases used creatively or for special effect. What does this tell us about the approach to metaphor being presented here?*

Text 9

We often find, when speaking in a specialized context, that there are some meanings which are so clearly implied that there is no need to spell them out. Take 'race meeting', and 'court action'. Professionals in these spheres see no need for a modifying word; they simply say 'meeting' or 'action'. Later, either of these general words may acquire other specialized senses, only one of which will be applicable in any given situation.

Specialization in a social milien. – Michel Bréal drew attention to the fact that polysemy often arises through a kind of verbal shorthand. 'In every situation, in every trade or profession', he wrote, 'there is a certain idea which is so much present to one's mind, so clearly implied, that it seems unnecessary to state it when speaking'. For a lawyer, *action* will naturally mean 'legal action'; for the soldier it will mean a military operation, without any need for a qualifying epithet. In this way the same word may acquire a number of specialized senses only one of which will be applicable in a given milieu. We have already seen an example of this

process in the polysemy of the word *style*. Similarly, *paper* can refer not only to the material in general but to a variety of other things: legal or official documents; a newspaper; a set of examination questions; a communication read or sent to a learned society; in the plural it can also denote identity documents; certificates accompanying the resignation of an officer; documents showing the ownership, nationality and destination of a ship, etc. In the past there were also some other specialized uses; the word could mean, for example, a note fastened on the back of a criminal, specifying his offence:

> Methinks I should not thus be led along.
> Mail'd up in shame, with *papers* on my back.
> *King Henry the Sixth, Part Two*, Act 11, scene 4.

One could indefinitely multiply examples of words which have a general meaning in ordinary language and specialized senses in more restricted spheres: *company, interest, security, share in commerce; overture, key, score* in music; *signature* in music and printing; *stage, pit, curtain in the theatre; screen in the cinema; broadcasting* in radio; *viewing* in television; *score, goal, back, centre, bat, century* in various sports, to mention only a few.

The extreme form of specialization is reached when a common noun virtually becomes a proper name denoting a single object in a particular environment. This has happened in the case of some famous London districts and landmarks: the *City, the House, the Abbey, the Tower, the Yard*. The name *Provence* is the regular French continuation of the Latin *provincia,* as if that region were the province *par excellence*; the ordinary French word, province, which has been taken over into English, is a learned borrowing from Latin.

► *What other meanings of 'action' appear to have developed in a specialized milieu?*

► *In the case of 'City', House', etc., a common noun has become a proper noun referring to a single place. Which of the names listed in the text have taken the further step of denoting the people who regularly work in the places in question?*

1.4. Set phrases

Text 10

This passage deals with 'truncation', a process by which a longer expression is reduced from its original full form to a grammatically shorter one. A truncated form can evoke the complete expression, with its original meaning, but at the same time may come to have an independent life of its own.

Amplification and truncation are two sides of the same coin, but in the majority of cases listed below, the fuller versions are fairly clearly attested as the original forms. Many are traditional proverbs and sayings, downgraded from their canonical or earliest forms to lower-level grammatical units: a compound sentence to a single clause, or a clause to a group:

a bird in the hand {is worth two in the bush);

birds of a feather (flock together);

don't count one's chickens {before they're hatched);

he who pays the piper calls the tune, call the tune;

let the cobbler stick to his last, stick to one's last;

make hay (while the sun shines);

(sow the wind and) reap the whirlwind.

The reduced forms can be seen in terms of ellipsis, since in many cases an allusion to the original and fuller form remains. However, they are institutionalized, and many can be regarded as lexical items in their own right. *A rolling stone gathers no moss* is complicated in that both the nominal *rolling stone* and the verb phrase gather moss are institutionalized as individual items. In

a drowning man will clutch at a straw

clutch/grasp at straws

it's the (last) straw that breaks the camel's back

the last straw/final straw

the truncated forms themselves have variations.

In a few cases, the original fuller form has almost disappeared from the lexicon:

> Finders keepers (losers weepers)
>
> happy the bride that the sun shines on (and blessed are the dead that the rain falls on)
>
> (speech is silver but) silence is golden
>
> butter wouldn't melt in her mouth (but cheese wouldn't choke her).

In the above cases, the reduced forms have become fossilized as the canonical forms. Truncation can also occur on an ad hoc basis:

> My mother was hysterical and my father called me a lot of unpleasant names. I stood it for a bit and then I'm afraid I said to him **that what was sauce for the goose** and at least I wasn't married. {OHPC: fiction)

In one audacious move, D & B sent a questionnaire to Geoff Croughton, secretary of the Bank of England. After all, nothing ventured and all that. (OHPC: journalism)

► *It may be more common, especially in informal English, to use the truncated rather than the full forms. Suggest reasons for this.*

► *Various reduced forms are described as being 'institutionalized'. What does this mean?*

Text 11

Two groups of informants, one made up of native speakers, the other of non-natives, were asked to choose what for them were the acceptable adjective collocates of 11 amplifiers (i.e. of words such as wholly'). They were also asked to mark any adjective that collocated more frequently than all the others. The foreign learners marked far fewer collocations than natives, failing to recognize such collocations as 'bitterly cold' and 'readily available'.

We have established that learners are using collocations, but that they underuse native-like collocations and use atypical word-combinations. The results of an independent study I carried out suggest that this is probably due to an underdeveloped sense of salience and of what constitutes a significant collocation. The aim of this study was to extract introspective data on collocations and involved submitting a word-combination test to 1x2 informants, 56 French learners of English and 56 native-speak-ers of English.! Informants were asked to choose, from a list of 15 adjectives in each case, the acceptable collocates of 11 amplifiers, by circling all the adjectives which in their opinion collocated with the amplifier. If they were unsure about a particular adjective, they were instructed to underline it and if they felt that one adjective was more frequently associated with the amplifier than all the others, they were requested to mark it with an asterisk.

It was the comparison of the forms marked with an asterisk by the learners and the natives, and which therefore indicated those combinations which were particularly salient in the subjects' minds, that yielded particularly interesting results. All in all, the learners marked with an asterisk over 100 fewer combinations than the natives (280 vs. 384). Table 1 gives clear evidence of the learners' weak sense of salience. *Readily available*, for instance, was asterisked by 43 native speakers but by a mere 8 learners. *Bitterly cold* was selected by 40 native speakers but only 7 learners. For *blissfully*, the native speaker selections were evenly distributed between *blissfully happy* and *blissfully ignorant*, asterisked by 19 and 20 informants respectively, while not one single learner marked the latter combination and only 4 selected the former.)

Amplifiers	Native-speaker responses	Learner responses
readily	readily available (43)	readily available (8)
bitterly	bitterly cold (40)	bitterly cold (7) bitterly aware (3) bitterly miserable (2)
blissfully	blissfully happy (19) blissfully ignorant (20)	blissfully happy (4)
fully	fully aware (33) fully reliable (3)	fully aware (21) fully reliable (15) fully different (6) fully significant (5) fully impossible (3) fully available (2)
highly	highly significant (33) highly reliable (3) highly important (2) highly aware (3)	highly significant (15) highly reliable (7) highly important (6) highly impossible (6) highly difficult (5) highly essential (4) highly different (2)

TABLE 1. *Native-speaker and learner responses to word-combining test.*

On balance, the learners marked a greater number of types of combinations than the natives, indicating that the learners' sense of salience is not only weak, but also partly misguided. Although there was evidence of a good sense of salience among a significant number of learners for some combinations, such as *fully aware*, and *fully reliable*, the learners also considered four other combinations to be significant collocations, none of which was selected by the native speakers, thus: *fully different/significant/ impossible/available.* Besides selecting *highly significant*, learners also marked six other combinations with *highly,* four of which were not marked by native speakers. In fact, *highly impossible/ difficult/essential/different* were together selected more often than *highly significant*. This is somewhat paradoxical when considered in the light of evidence that learners underuse highly in their

writing, but this could perhaps be put down to the production reception distinction.

The eleven amplifiers presented were: *highly, seriously, readily, blissfully, vitally, fully, perfectly, heavily, bitterly, absolutely, utterly.* The format of the test was as follows:

readily significant reliable ill different essential aware miserable available clear happy difficult ignorant impossible cold important,

bitterly significant reliable ill different essential aware miserable available clear happy difficult ignorant impossible cold important.

► *Using the lists of amplifiers and adjectives set out in the footnotes and the instructions provided in the passage, repeat the experiment for yourself. Compare your results with those given in the table.*

► *The term 'sense of salience' is used in the passage but not defined. Provide a definition.*

Text 12

The author argues that there is too much freedom of choice in a model of language which regards a text as a series of slots which have to be filled, with almost any word being able to fill each place. The "idiom principle', by contrast, assumes that a speaker bas available many partly ready-made phrases. These represent single choices, even though it may seem possible to analyse them into smaller elements.

It is clear that words do not occur at random in a text, and that the open-choice principle does not provide for substantial enough restraints on consecutive choices. We would not produce normal text simply by operating the open-choice principle.

To some extent, the nature of the world around us is reflected in the organization of language and contributes to the unrandomness. Things which occur physically together have a stronger chance of being mentioned together; also concepts in the same philosophical area, and the results of exercising a number of organizing features such as contrasts or series. But even allowing for these, there are many ways

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of saying things, many choices within language that have little or nothing to do with the world outside.

There are sets of linguistic choices which come under the heading of register, and which can be seen as large-scale conditioning choices. Once a register choice is made, and these are normally social choices, then all the slot-by-slot choices are massively reduced in scope or even, in some cases, pre-empted.

Allowing for register as well, there is still far too much opportunity for choice in the model, and the principle of idiom is put forward to account for the restraints that are not captured by the open-choice model.

The principle of idiom is that a language user has available to him or her a large number of semi-preconstructed phrases that constitute single choices, even though they might appear to be analysable into segments. To some extent, this may reflect the recurrence of similar situations in human affairs; it may illustrate a natural tendency to economy of effort; or it may be motivated in part by the exigencies of real-time conversation. However it arises, it has been relegated to an inferior position in most current linguistics, because it does not fit the open-choice model.

At its simplest, the principle of idiom can be seen in the apparently simultaneous choice of two words, for example, of course. This phrase operates effectively as a single word, and the word space, which is structurally bogus, may disappear in time, as we see in *maybe, anyway*, and *another.*

Where there is no variation in the phrase, we are dealing with a fairly trivial mismatch between the writing system and the grammar. *The of in of course* is not the preposition of that is found in grammar books. The preposition of is normally found after the noun head of a nominal group, or in a quantifier like *a pint of* ... In an open-choice model, of can be followed by any nominal group. Similarly, course is not the countable noun that dictionaries mention; its meaning is not a property of the word, but of the phrase. If it were a countable noun

in the singular it would have to be preceded by a determiner to be grammatical, so it clearly is not.

It would be reasonable to add phrases like of *course* to the list of compounds, like *cupboard,* whose elements have lost their semantic identity, and make allowance for the intrusive word space. The same treatment could be given to hundreds of similar phrases – any occasion where one decision leads to more than one word in text. Idioms, proverbs, clichés, technical terms, jargon expressions, phrasal verbs, and the like could all be covered by a fairly simple statement.

However, the principle of idiom is far more pervasive and elusive than we have allowed so far. It has been noted by many writers on language, but its importance has been largely neglected.

Some features of the idiom principle follow:

a. Many phrases have an indeterminate extent. As an example, consider *set eyes on*. This seems to attract a pronoun subject, and either *never* or a temporal conjunction like *the moment, the first time*, and the word *has* as an auxiliary to *set*. How much of this is integral to the phrase, and how much is in the nature of collocational attraction?

b. Many phrases allow internal lexical variation. For example, there seems to be little to choose *between in some cases* and *in some instances*; or *between set x on fire and set fire to x.*

c. Many phrases allow internal lexical syntactic variation. Consider the phrase *it's not in his nature to...* The word it is part of the phrase, and so is the verb is—though this verb can vary to was and perhaps can include modals. *Not* can be replaced by any 'broad' negative, including *hardly, scarcely,* etc. *In* is fixed, but *his* can be replaced by any possessive pronoun and perhaps by some names with 's. *Nature* is fixed.

d. Many phrases allow some some variation in word order. Continuing the last example, we can postulate to recriminate *is not in his nature, or it is not in the nature of an academic to...*

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e. Many uses of words and phrases attract other words in strong collocation; for example, *hard work, bard luck, bard facts, hard evidence.*

f. Many uses of words and phrases show a tendency to co-occur with certain grammatical choices. For example, it has been pointed out that the phrasal verb set about, in its meaning of something like 'inaugurate', is closely associated with a following verb in the *-ing* form, for example, *set about leaving…* What is more, the second verb is usually transitive, for example, *set about testing it.* Very often, set will be found in co-occurrence patterns.

g. Many uses of words and phrases show a tendency to occur in a certain semantic environment. For example, the verb *happen* is associated with unpleasant things – accidents and the like.

The overwhelming nature of this evidence leads us to elevate the principle of idiom from being a rather minor feature, compared with grammar, to being at least as important as grammar in the explanation of how meaning arises in text.

► *The idiomatic character of some phrasal verbs (e.g. 'give up') ties in with the choice of a following verb in the '-ing' form. What other evidence does the extract provide of grammatical and lexical choices interacting with each other?*

► *Note the suggestion that 'happen' is associated with unpleasant things. Is this true of all the dictionary meanings of the verb?*

1.5. Semantics and the dictionary

Text 13

This passage deals with the impact of corpus data on learners' dictionaries (MLDs), and especially the influence of corpus-based examples. Ideally, examples should appear uncontrived and natural, and convey a range of grammatical and contextual information.

Probably the most visible way in which dictionaries have changed under the impact of corpus data is the arrival of the corpus-derived dictionary example. There is a certain tension here between the desirability of showing authentic instances of language in use, and the need for examples that work as hard as possible for the user, A. S. Hornby long ago recognized that an invented example could include a range of information types, and pressure on space often requires that a given example sentence should fulfil several functions simultaneously. On the other hand, critics of this approach can point with some justification to the many contrived, unnatural sounding examples that littered pre-corpus MLDs and could not be seen as reliable models for students to emulate. Despite a certain amount of research into the issue, the jury is still out on the relative merits of corpus-based and lexicographer-produced examples. But it is really no longer relevant to characterize the argument as concerning a simple choice between the authentic and the invented. All reputable MLDs now base every aspect of their text on corpus data, so the differences now lie in the degree to which corpus material is 'processed' on its way into the examples. Compare the following examples for the core meaning of *kill*:

(I) *Careless driving kills. | He was killed with a knife.\ Cancer kills thousands of people every year. | We need something to kill the weeds. (ALDs)*
More than 1,000 people have been killed by the armed forces.
| Cattle should be killed cleanly and humanely. | The earth- quake killed 62 people. | Heroin can kill. (COBUILDz)

Producing successful examples is a deceptively difficult skill, and both sets here do an excellent job. In a necessarily short space, they reveal (among other things):

- grammatical information: kill can be transitive or intransitive, and it is often used passively, in which case the agent is marked by *by*, the instrument by *with;*
- selectional restrictions: the subject of *kill* is often a human agent, but it can also be an illness, an event, a dangerous drug, or a type of behaviour; the object can be human, animal, or even vegetable;
- a range of very typical contexts.

There is not a great deal to choose between these accounts: the *COBUILD* examples have, characteristically, slightly more of the whiff of the corpus about them, but certainly not in a way that could cause any problems for users. Most lexicographers would probably now agree that, where the corpus provides natural and typical examples that clearly illustrate the points that need to be made, there is no conceivable reason for not using them. The risk here, illustrated rather too often in *COBUILD₁* but only very occasionally in *COBUILD₂*, is that wholly authentic examples can sometimes show mystifyingly irretrievable contexts (for example in *COBUILD₁'s* example at gravitate: *He gravitated, naturally, to Newmarket*), or too much irrelevant and – to the learner – distracting material.

► *The author claims that 'all reputable MLDs [monolingual learners' dictionaries] now base every aspect of their text on corpus data'. In what ways other than by providing authentic examples do corpora improve learners' dictionaries?*

► *In the original dictionary entry from which the first block of examples was drawn, verb-pattern 'codes' were placed before the examples, like this: V Careless driving kills./Vnpr He was killed with a knife./Vn Cancer kills thousands of people every year. (Where "V' stood for verb, 'n' for noun object, and 'pr' for preposition.) Do these codes convey information about verb patterns over and above what the examples convey?*

Dictionary-makers are now generally careful not to offend groups of people who are sensitive to particular names or terms of address. Especially offensive are terms used when addressing or referring to members of particular religious or ethnic groups.

Special awareness and sensitivity needed to be shown when dealing with words or phrases which imply a disapproving or offensive attitude towards the person or thing denoted. Precise guidance had to be given so that students could avoid: giving unnecessary offence through the choice of unsuitable terms. Three categories of words that needed to be labelled with particular care were those designated in ALD_4 as *derogatory, offensive,* and *sexist.* Derogatory words are those which imply disapproval or scorn of the person or action referred to (e. g. *slob, slug, smarmy, swagger*). When used as terms of address (as *slob* and *slug can be*), they can of course give offence. Particularly offensive, however, are words such as *dago* or *wop*, used to refer to or address people, often with the intention of casting a slur on their religion or ethnic background. These were additionally marked in ALD_4 with a 'danger' sign, as follows:

(41) dago ... (! s! offensive)

The label sexist was introduced for the first time in ALD_4 as a means of encouraging greater awareness of the offence which words such as *bimbo* or *Girl Friday* can cause to women. Its use went hand in hand with the attempt to be more even-handed in referring to women in the dictionary and in portraying women in the full range of occupations and roles which they now fill in advanced societies. This policy met with some success. As a comparative analysis of feminine and masculine nouns and pronouns in examples in parallel sections of ALD_1 and ALD_4 has shown, references to females in the fourth edition exceed references to males by a ratio of 7 to 6'—and a similar balance is maintained in the fifth.

[1]The ratio was 2 to 1 in favour of males in the first edition.

► *The labels used in the text are associated with dictionaries for foreign learners specifically the Advanced Learner's Dictionary (4th edn.). What approach should be adopted when considering their inclusion and labelling in a mother tongue dictionary?*

► *Consider the label 'taboo' as a possible addition to the above set. Again, take account of the type of dictionary when making recommendations.*

Text 15

This extract considers the implications for lexicography of ideason 'independent' and 'delexical' meaning. It shows that though a word such as 'time' in its 'independent' meaning is relatively infrequent in a large corpus, it will nevertheless tend to be entered before the 'delexical' (and frequent) meanings in many widely used dictionaries.

Sinclair remarks that the most frequent meaning of a polysemous word is very often not an 'independent' meaning, but one which is typically context-bound. For example, the word *time* is relatively infrequent in its 'central' sense in the Birmingham corpus, and most uses of *time* are in more or less petrified expressions ... The most frequent meaning of the form *back* ('in, to, or towards the original starting point, place, or condition') is defined in the *Collins English Dictionary (CED)* at no. 47, whereas no. I in the same dictionary ('the posterior part of the human body extending from the neck to the pelvis') is rare in the corpus. Similarly, the most frequent meaning of the verb *pursue* ('to apply oneself to {one's studies, hobbies, interests, etc.)') is no. 5 in *CED*, where no. 1 is 'to follow (a fugitive) in order to capture or overtake', which seems to be much less frequent in discourse. Yet, Sinclair argues, the ordering of meanings in *CED* is not particularly objectionable. It is probably the ordering that any literate native speaker would propose intuitively – and virtually all dictionaries have the same.

The most frequent meanings tend to be more delexicalized than the less frequent ones, just as are the more frequent words compared with the less frequent. The preposition *back* certainly does not have as clear a semantic content as the noun *back.* The verb *pursue* in *pursue one's studies* is strongly delexicalized; the whole phrase is virtually the equivalent (semantically if not stylistically) of *to study*. *Pursue* is a supportive verb just like take in take a look. All this points towards the following conclusions: the most frequent words, and the most frequent uses of polysemous words, whatever their frequency, seem to tend to have meanings that are less clear, less independent than rarer words, or rarer uses of the same words: meanings tend to lose their autonomy over time and as frequency increases. The highly frequent words like *give, head, heavy, place, time*, etc. are often difficult, or impossible, to define out of the typical contexts in which they occur idiomatically. But when the language users think of a word out of context, it cannot be the delexicalized meaning that comes to their minds first, so that the 'foremost' meaning cannot be the most frequent. Sinclair hypothesizes that it could be 'the most frequent independent sense'.

► *The passage suggests that 'meanings tend to lose their autonomy over time and as frequency increases'. What else, in the words themselves and in their contexts, tends to become fixed as time passes and frequency increases?*

► *The verb in 'pursue one's studies' is said to be 'strongly delexicalized'. Does this mean that 'pursue' in this sense will collocate very infrequently with other nouns?*

Glossary

Allolex, a word as a member of speech, i. e. a variant of a lexeme in a given utterance.

Antonymy, a type of oppositeness, often involving adjectives and adverbs, whereby if I say 'Mary is older than Jill', I imply 'Jill is younger than Mary'.

Antonyms, (a) words which have in their meaning a qualitative feature and can therefore be regarded as semantically opposite; (b) words contrasted as correlated pairs.

Archaism, a word or an expression out of use but still understood by the speakers of the language (e. g. Russian «очи, чело»).

Back-formation, formation of a new lexical item by the deletion of a suffix (or supposed suffix) from an apparently complex word; so 'enthuse' comes by back-formation from 'enthusiasm', and 'burgle' from 'burglar'.

Barbarism, a foreign word or expression used in some social groups instead of native words as a fashion.

Blending, the joining together of two words or word-parts, the latter usually being produced by clipping, for example, 'cavalcade' is clipped to '-cade' and then blended with 'motor' to form 'motorcade'. See **clipping.**

Blocking, said of an existing simple or complex word which, by its existence prevents a synonym from being formed; for example, the prior existence of the verb 'enlist' blocks the use of 'list' as a verb.

Borrowing, resorting to the word-stock of other languages for words to express new concepts, name new objects, phenomena, etc.

Branching hierarchy, an arrangement in which hyponyms ('potato', 'cassava') form the lowest level, while at the intermediate level 'tuber' acts as superordinate to those items and, at the highest level, as hyponym to 'vegetable'. See **non-branchlng hierarchy.**

Chain, a linear arrangement of words (or words with particular meanings) with a fixed sequence and a first and last item; as in the sections of a symphonic movement ('exposition', 'development', 'recapitulation', 'coda').

Clipping, the cutting away of part of an existing word, for example, 'para-' from 'parachute', which is then blended with an existing word, here 'troops', to form 'paratroops'. See **blendIng**.

Collocation, (i) a combination, usually of two lexical items in a grammatical pattern, in which one is used in a literal sense and the other in a figurative sense; (ii) the occurrence of two or more words within a short space of each other in a text.

Collocation, such a combination of words which conditions the realization of a certain meaning.

Colligation, morphosyntactically conditioned combinability of words as a means of realization of their polysemy.

Context, (a) the linguistic environment of a unit of language which reveals the conditions and the characteristic features of its usage in speech; (b) the semantically complete passage of written speech sufficient to establish the meaning of a given word (phrase); (c) context of situation, the extralinguistic situation which enables to understand the meaning of a word or phrase.

Complex word, a derivative or compound; also a product of **conversion**.

Componential analysis, an approach to semantic analysis based on abstract contrastive features, such as 'male', 'female" 'animate, inanimate', etc.

Compound, a complex word formed by adding one simple word to another.

Complementarity, a type of oppositeness which has to do with mutual exclusiveness within a single group or area of activity; In the game of chess, the pieces are complementaries because they are either black or white.

Concept, a generalized reverberation in the human consciousness of the properties of objective reality.

Connotation, the associative, figurative level of language as opposed to the basic conceptual, figurative level. **See denotation**.

Converseness, a type of oppositeness, often involving professional roles or family relationships, whereby if I say 'I am John's tutor', I imply 'John is my student'.

Conversion, the process by which a lexical item becomes a member of another word-class without the use of a prefix or suffix; also called zero-derivation.

Corpus, a large body of texts (usually written) stored on a computer.

Cycle, an arrangement of a set of words in which there is no beginning and no end; every member of the set is arranged between two others, as in the simplest colour circle.

Denotation, the basic conceptual level of meaning as distinct from the associative level. See **connotation.**

Denotation, the expression of the main meaning, meaning proper of a linguistic unit in contrast to its connotation.

Derivative, a complex word formed by adding an affix (i.e. a **prefix** or **suffix**) to a simple word.

Diachrony, the historical development of the system of language as the object of linguistic investigation.

Enantiosemy, polarization of meaning, the ability of a word (a morpheme, etc.) to express opposite meanings (e. g. 'bad' to say 'good").

Established, acceptance by a speech community that a word or phrase is the appropriate one to use when referring to some object or process. See **lexicalization**.

Euphemism, a word or expression which refers to the taboo topic in a vague or indirect way (e.g. 'adult video' for 'pornography', or 'after a long illness' for 'cancer").

Etymology, the study of the origins and history of words.

Etymological doublet, one of a pair of (or more) words borrowed from the same language (origin of borrowing) at different times.

Gradable, a quality or process that can be described in terms of 'more' or 'less'; not clear-cut.

Gradation, a difference between a set of meaning or set phrases, which is not clear-cut but gradual. See **scale**.

Grammatical Item, a word belonging to one of the small, finite, and stable classes, such as pronouns and determiners, which interact with lexical items in the construction of sentences. See **lexical Item**.

Grammatical meaning, the meaning of the formal membership of a word in the grammatical system of a language (is expressed in the word's form).

Ground, in metaphor, the perceived similarity between the tenor and vehicle which provides the basis for a comparison (regular backward and forward movement in the case of the 'shuttle' metaphor). See **tenor, vehicle**.

Headword, the word, usually in bold print, which stands at the beginning of an entry and is 'looked up' by dictionary users.

Historism, a word that got out of use because the object it denotes disappeared from modern life (e. g. Russian «батоги»).

Homonymy, the existence for a given form of two or more quite separate meanings.

Homonymy, the coincidence in the same sound form and the orthographic complex of two, or more, different linguistic units.

Homophones, words with different meanings but the same sound form.

Homographs, different words coinciding in their orthographic expression.

Hybrid, a word different elements of which are of etymologically different origin.

Hyponymy, a semantic relationship of one-to-many, whereby if you say Bill is a spaniel you imply he is a dog (although. you don't imply by saying he is a dog that he is necessarily a spaniel). In that example, 'spaniel' is a **hyponym** of 'dog', and' dog' the superordinate of spaniel. Two or more hyponyms (say, 'spaniel', 'collie') of the same superordinate are its **co-hyponyms**.

Idiom, a combination of two or more words whose structure is firmly fixed and whose meaning is difficult to determine. See **fixed phrase, collocation**.

Inflectional form, a modification of form made to a verb, noun, etc., which serves to indicate differences of tense, aspect, number.

Jargon, (a) the technical vocabulary or idiom of a special activity or group; (b) obscure and often pretentious language marked by a roundabout way of expression and use of long words.

Lexical set, 1) a group of words more or less corresponding in their main semantic component, i. e. belonging to the same semantic field; 2) a group of words having the same generic meaning.

Kinship group, a family, clan, or other group based on blood relationship.

Language, a semiological system of a special type serving as the main means of human communication.

Level of formality, the extent to which a piece of written or spoken language indicates closeness or distance between the interlocutors.

Lexeme, a word in all its meanings and forms, i.e. a word as a structural element of language (invariant).

Lexical field, a group of items all of which have a small number of features in common but otherwise have more less unrelated features. See **matrix**.

Lexical Item, a simple word, a derivative, or a compound word. See **grammatical Item**.

Lexical meaning, the material meaning of a word as distinct from its formal, grammatical meaning, which reflects the concept the word expresses.

Lexicalization, the acquisition by a lexical item of a form or meaning which it could not have developed through the application of general rules, for example, the acquisition of the meaning 'designed to carry small children' by the noun 'push-chair'.

Loan translations, (calques) borrowing by means of literally translating words or word-combinations by modeling their foreign patterns.

Main entry, one of the divisions of a dictionary, introduced by a **headword** which determines its alphabetical order and containing sub-sections devoted to pronunciation, one or more definitions, examples, etc.

Main nominative meaning of a word, direct meaning of a word, immediately referring to objects, phenomena, actions, and qualities in extralinguistic reality (referent).

Marked, one of a pair of contrasting words, *say, vixen, fox,* can be said to be marked if it is more restricted in its use; as male vixen is unacceptable, but male fox acceptable, vixen is marked. See **unmarked**.

Matrix, a grid used in lexical analysis, with the lexical items arranged down one side and the semantic components arranged across the top.

Meaning, the reverberation in the human consciousness of an object of extralinguistic reality (a phenomenon, a relationship, a quality, a process) which becomes a fact of language because of its constant indissoluble association with a definite linguistic expression.

Metaphor, a figure of speech that consists of combining features of one thing (the 'vehicle') with features of another (the 'tenor') which it resembles in some respect (the 'ground').

Metonymy, a figure of speech that consists of using the name of one thing for the name of something else with which it is connected in some respect, for example, 'crown' for 'monarch', 'sail' for 'ship').

Microstructure, the internal breakdown of a dictionary entry into definition, examples, etc. See **main entry**.

Monosemy, the existence of only one meaning within one word.

Narrowing of meaning, a) the restriction of the semantic capacity of a word in the course of its historical development; b) the shrinking of meaning.

Neologism, a word or a word combination that is specially coined to name a new object or express a new concept.

Node, the central point in a line of text being examined during an analysis using corpus data.

Non-branching hierarchy, a linear arrangement of items with a fixed sequence and a first and last item. See **branching hierarchy**.

Noinative-derivative meaning, other meanings in a polyse-mantic word which are characterized by free combinability and are connected with the main nominative meaning.

Obsolete word, a word that is out of use at present but is recognized by the speakers of the language.

Occasional word, a word formed after existing patterns as an individual innovation for a special occasion but not in current use.

Onomatopoeic word, a word which, like 'shatter' and 'smash', is formed from sounds associated with the thing or action it refers to.

Open, of the spelling of a compound with the components separated, as in 'town' 'hall'. See **solid**.

Origin of borrowing, the language to which the word may be traced.

Parts of speech, classes of words according to their (a) general categoric meaning; (b) system of grammatical categories; (c) specific syntactic functions; (d) special types (patterns) of form-building and word-formation.

Paronyms, words which by virtue of partial homonymy may be either erroneously or for stylistic purposes be used one instead of the other in speech.

Paradigm, the system of grammatical forms of a word.

Paradigmatics, associative (non-simultaneous) relationship of words in language as distinct from linear (simultaneous) relationship of words in speech (syntagmatics).

Phraseology, that part of the vocabulary of a language which consists of set phrases (i. e. idioms and collocations) and set sentences.

Phraseological unit, a word combination in which semantic unity (non-separability) prevails over structural separability, or in which global nomination is expressed in a combination of different units.

Polysemy, diversity of meanings; the existence within one word of several connected meanings as the result of the development and changes of its original meaning.

Polysemy, the existence for a given form of two or more different but related meanings; also multiple meaning. See **homonymy**.

Prefix, a small, meaningful element that cannot occur alone but is attached to the front of a simple word. See **suffix**.

Productivity, the capacity that certain simple words and affixes, and certain rules have to produce a very large number of new items or senses.

Rank, the way in which positions on a seniority 'ladder', say in the armed forces, are described relative to each other. See 'immediately below X', 'two ranks above Y'.

Reproducibility, regular use in speech ready-made (a condition sine qua non of a word as a linguistic unit).

Root, the semantic nucleus of a word which doesn't express any grammatical properties.

Run-ons, a derivative or compound that is positioned inside the entry for its chief component (simple word) and usually not defined.

Scale, a difference between a set of meanings, grammatical classes, etc., which is not clear-cut but gradual. See **gradation**.

Scale or idiomaticity, the gradation along which set phrases are said to be spread out, with fixed and 'opaque' idioms at one end and free and 'transparent' combinations at the other.

Semasiology, the branch of linguistics which studies the semantics of linguistic units.

Semantics, the meaning of words, expressions or grammatical forms.

Semantic field, part of reality singled out in human experience and, theoretically, covered in language by a more or less autonomous lexical microsystem.

Semantic extension, a) the extension of the semantic capacity of a word (the development of polysemy); b) widening of meaning.

Semantic feature, one of a set of abstract elements, used systematically in various combinations to define individual meanings or sets of meanings.

Sense relations, the relationships of oppositeness, identity, etc. which exist between specific pairs of items. See **antonymy, converseness, complementarity**.

Set phrase, a combination of two or more words that is more or less fixed in structure and more or less difficult to interpret; set phrases can be divided into **idioms** and **collocations**.

Set sentence, an expression, usually a sentence in length and more or less fixed in structure; the category includes such traditional types as proverbs and catchphrases.

Simple word, a lexical item that can stand alone and that consists, of only one meaningful part. See **free morpheme**.

Slang, a special vocabulary used to identify members of a social, or professional group and to encourage in them a sense of community.

Slang, language of a highly colloquial type, considered as below the level of educated standard speech and consisting either of new words or of current words employed in some special sense.

Solid, of the spelling of a compound with the components joined together, as in lampsbade. See **open**.

Source of borrowing, the language from which the borrowing came into English.

Specialization of meaning, a shift of meaning as a result of which a word focuses on one particular aspect of an activity or object (as when smoke comes to refer to the habitual aspect of smoking, Of its dangers, rather than the activity itself).

Speech, the activity of man using language to communicate with other people (the use of linguistic means to convey certain content).

Speech formula, an expression used to convey one's assessment of other speakers and their messages.

Spiral, a sequence of events (say, the four seasons) with a first word and a last word, and a fixed order, but where after the completion of one circuit, we move forward into the next.

Stem, the part of a word which remains unchanged throughout its paradigm and to which grammatical affixes and inflections are added.

Suffix, a small, meaningful element that cannot occur alone but is attached to the end of a simple word. See **prefix**.

Superordinate, a word which stands in a relationship of general word to one or more specific words; thus 'dog' is the superordinate of which 'collie' and 'spaniel' are the hyponyms.

Synchrony, a conventional isolation of a certain stage in the development of language as the object of linguistic investigation. Synchronic, representing one historical stage in the development of language.

Synonymy, a sameness of meaning; note that two or more words may refer to the same object, process, etc. but differ in style, speaker's attitude: for example, 'thin', 'slender', 'skinny'; also, that words are less likely to be synonymous as wholes than in relation to some of their meanings.

Synonyms, two or ore words belonging to the same part of speech and possessing one or more identical or nearly identical denotational meanings, interchangeable in some contexts. These words are distinguished by different shades of meanings (ideographic synonyms) or stylistic features (stylistic synonyms).

Tenor, the thing or process which, in a metaphor, takes on the characteristics of the vehicle; in the 'caterpillar' metaphor, 'track' is the tenor. See **vehicle, ground**.

Term, a word or a word combination of a special (technical, scientific) language used for definition of specific objects and concepts. Usually monosemantic.

Terminology the sum total of terms for a specific branch of science, technology, industry, etc., forming a special layer in the word-stock of a language.

Tree diagram, a diagram with a structure of branching, connected lines, representing various objects and relationships.

Unmarked, one of a pair of contrasting words, say, 'lion', 'lioness', can be said to be unmarked if it is less restricted in its use; as 'male lion' is acceptable, but 'male lioness' not 'lion' is unmarked. See **marked**.

Vehicle, the thing or process which, in a metaphor, is the image chosen to represent and transform the tenor; in the case of the 'shuttle' metaphor, the 'weaver's shuttle' is the vehicle. See **tenor, ground**.

Vocabulary, the lexical corpus of a language, all the words of a language as distinct from sounds, grammar, and other aspects of linguistic investigation.

Word, the basic unit of language. It corresponds to the concept of thing meant and names it.

Word-form, a modification of form made to a verb, noun, enabling it to indicate differences of tense, aspect, number, etc.; See **inflectional form**.

Word-formation, the production of complex words (chiefly derivatives and compounds).

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Part 2. Tests

2.1. Single answer choice

Question	Answer

1. What does lexicology study:
   A. word only and its development throughout the form;
   B. morphemes, lexical items, variable word-groups and phraseological units;
   C. the purposes of human communication;
   D. linguistic and paralinguistic analysis of utterances.	

2. Choose the right definition for "lexicography":
   A. is the scholarly discipline of analyzing and describing the semantic, syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships within the lexicon of a language;
   B. is the art or craft of compiling, writing and editing dictionaries;
   C. is the art or craft of developing theories of dictionary components and structures linking the data in dictionaries, the needs for information by users in specific types of situations;
   D. is how users may best access the data incorporated in printed and electronic dictionaries.	

3. What words are supposed to be monosemantic:
   A. words having only one meaning, are comparatively few in number;
   B. synonyms;
   C. paronyms;
   D. the word which keeps its previous meaning.	

4. Choose the right definition for «political correctness»:	
A. using expressions or actions that can be perceived to exclude or marginalize or insult groups who are socially disadvantaged or discriminated against;	
B. avoidance of expressions or actions that can be perceived to exclude or marginalize or insult members of particular groups in government;	
C. using expressions or actions that can be perceived to exclude or marginalize or insult groups who are socially advantaged;	
D. avoidance of expressions or actions that can be perceived to exclude or marginalize or insult members of particular groups in society.	
5. What types of informal communication are presented in the passage below? "You're at *some sort* of technical college?" she said to Leo, not looking at him… "Yes. I hate it though. I'm *not good enough at maths*. There's a *chap* there *just down from* Cambridge who *puts us through* it. I can't *keep up*. Were you good at maths?" "Not bad. But I imagine school maths are different." "Well, yes, they are. I can't *cope with* this *stuff* at all, it's the whole way of thinking that's beyond me… I think I'm going to *chuck it* and take a job. (The Time of the Angels by I. Murdoch) A. Slang B. Dialect words C. Colloquial words	

6. Where are formal words usually used?	
A. Professional communication	
B. Everyday speech	
C. Fiction literature	
7. Which one of the following examples of communication can be attributed to the informal type of communication?	
A. A lecture	
B. A speech in court	
C. An intimate letter	
8. What types of informal communication are presented in the following extract? "They could *gi' theesummat* worth watching then. Nah, it's all *nowt,* like *t' ale an' baccy* they ask so *mich* for — money fair thrawn away, ah calls it. Well, we *mun* 'a' wer teas and get ower it. *Behave thi-sen* Jess!" And he turned away, for that final word of caution was only one of Bruddersford's familiar good-byes. "*Ay*, replied Mr. Oakroyd dispiritedly. 'So long, Jim!'"	
A. Slang	
B. Dialect words	
C. Colloquial words	
9. What is a word or a word combination of a special (technical, scientific) language used for definition of specific objects and concepts?	
A. Term	
B. Terminology	
10. Choose the right definition for "term":	
A. the body of terms used with a particular technical application in a subject of study, profession;	

B. a statement of the exact meaning of a word, especially in a dictionary; C. a word or phrase used to describe a thing or to express a concept, especially in a particular kind of language or branch of study; D. a single distinct meaningful element of speech or writing, used with others (or sometimes alone) to form a sentence and typically shown with a space on either side when written or printed.	

11. Which of the following words is an obsolete term for learned words?
    A. Bookish
    B. Officialese
    C. Printed	

12. What is the difference between learned words and archaic words?
    A. Archaic words are not used in speech.
    B. Learned words are more connected with poetry.
    C. Archaic words are mostly associated with the printed page.	

13. Are the archaic and obsolete words the same?
    A. Yes, they are the same.
    B. No, archaic words have completely gone out of use, unlike obsolete words.
    C. No, obsolete words have completely gone out of use, unlike archaic words.	

14. Paradigm is the system of…
    A. semantical forms of a word;
    B. grammatical forms of a word;
    C. morphological variety of the word.	

15. What is a word as a member of speech, i. e. a variant of a lexeme in a given utterance.
    A. Lexeme
    B. Allolex	

16. Which definition is not lexical set?
    A. A group of words more or less corresponding in their main semantic component, i. e. belonging to the same semantic field;
    B. A combination of words which conditions the realization of a certain meaning;
    C. A group of words having the same generic meaning.	

17. What is the difference in meaning between "black bird" and "blackbird"?
    A. There is no difference, because these words have the same meaning.
    B. The first one conveys separate concepts, but the second one conveys just one concept.
    C. These are different types of birds.	

18. What do general categorical meaning, system of grammatical categories, specific syntactic functions, special types of form-building and word-formation form?
    A. Part of speech
    B. Semantic field
    C. Paradigm
    D. Synonyms	

19. What is a branch of lexicology specializing in word-groups which characterized by stability of structure and transferred meaning?
    A. Semasiology
    B. Onomastics
    C. Phraseology	

20. Which term refers to the definition: a word combination in which semantic unity prevails over structural separability.
    A. Phraseological unit
    B. Paradigmatics
    C. Monosemy	

21. Choose two major criteria for distinguishing between phraseological units and free word groups:
    A. semantic and structural;
    B. rhyme and imagery;
    C. idioms and sayings;
    D. the lexical components and grammatical structures.	

22. Which one of the following phrases is a phraseological unit?
    A. To take the bull by the horns.
    B. To do the dishes.
    C. From beginning to end.	

23. Which word completes each set of collocations or fixed phrases?
an instrument _____
a _____ of experts
a control _____
a wooden _____
 	
    A. panel
    B. secret
    C. stock	

24. Which word completes each set of collocations or fixed phrases?
 	
a _____ ballot
a _____ agent
keep it a _____
meet in _____
the _____ of success
 	
    A. panel
    B. secret
    C. stock	

25. Which word completes each set of collocations or fixed phrases?
 	
take of _____ the situation
it's out of _____
the _____ exchange
the _____ market
 	
    A. panel
    B. secret
    C. stock	

26. The language from which the borrowing came into English is…
 	
    A. origin of borrowing;
    B. source of borrowing.	

27. Etymological doublet is one of a pair (or more) of words borrowed from...
 	
    A. different languages at the same time;
    B. the same language at different times.	

28. What is the semantic nucleus of a word which doesn't express any grammatical properties?
 	
    A. Branch
    B. Root
    C. Lexeme	

29. How is it called when words are produced by imitating different kinds of sounds of, for example, animal, birds or insects?
 	
    A. Onomatopoeia
    B. Homonyms
    C. Homophones
    D. Paronyms	

30. Which term refers to the definition: morpho-syntactically conditioned combinability of words as means of realization of their polysemy?
 	
    A. Collocation
    B. Connotation
    C. Denotation
    D. Colligation	

31. Which word in a synonymic group is considered to be the dominant synonym?
 	
    A. pretty
    B. good-looking
    C. handsome
    D. beautiful	

32. Which word in a synonymic group is considered to be the dominant synonym?
 	
    A. powder room
    B. washroom
    C. restroom
    D. retiring room
    E. toilet
    F. (public) comfort station
    G. ladies' (room)
    H. gentlemen's (room)
    I. water-closet
    J. w.c.	

33. Police, routine, technique. Based on these words, which language of one of the major European countries of the Renaissance brought a significant amount of borrowings into the English language?
    A. Italian
    B. French
    C. German	

34. M.P., V-Day, lab. What way of word-building these words are produced by?
    A. Composition
    B. Conversion
    C. Contraction	

35. The verb to beg was made from the French borrowing beggar, as well as to burgle from burglar. What is this type of word-building?
    A. Contraction
    B. Reduplication
    C. Reversion	

36. Which word is produced by reduplication?
    A. seaman
    B. slowcoach
    C. cock-a-doodle-doo
    D. riff-raff	

37. The word *'thee'* is...
    A. archaism
    B. historism
    C. obsolete	

38. Choose the verb-forming suffix
    A. -ion
    B. -ent
    C. -ate
    D. -ar	

39. Which affixes are non-productive
 	
    A. -ly, -some, -hood
    B. -ly. -th, -ness, -able
    C. -ing, un-, dis-	

40. Which group of words doesn't have the Germanic element?
 	
    A. Animals
    B. Seasons of the year
    C. Numbers
    D. Plants	

2.2. Multiple choice

Question	Answer

1. What definitions are appropriate to describe *'the word''*?
 	
   A. The word is a unit of speech which serves a purpose of human communication.
   B. The word is the total of the sounds which comprise it.
   C. The word is a unit of speech, a specific realization of a phoneme, the result of sound activity, which has certain articulatory, perceptual and acoustic properties.	

2. Which is not main nominative meaning of *'a word'*?
 	
   A. Meaning in polysemantic word which is characterized by free combinability and is connected with paradigmatics.
   B. The existence of only one meaning within one word.
   C. Polarization of meaning or the ability of a word to express opposite meanings.
   D. Direct meaning of a word, immediately referring to objects, phenomena, actions, and qualities in extralinguistic reality.	

3. What definitions do not apply to *'semasiology'*?
 	
   A. The branch of linguistics which studies the semantics of linguistic units.
   B. The meaning of words, expressions or grammatical forms.
   C. The reverberation in the human consciousness of an object of extralinguistic reality which becomes a fact of language.	

4. Which meanings do the semantics include?
   A. Vocabulary
   B. Grammatical forms
   C. Synchrony
   D. Words
   E. Expressions
   F. Languages	

5. Which kinds of collocations exist?
   A. Adjective-noun
   B. Noun + noun
   C. Adverb-adverb	

6. Which phrases aren't collocations?
   A. Social class
   B. Social mobility
   C. Financial risks
   D. Social crisis
   E. Political burden	

7. Find the sentences with wrong collocations.
   A. Transport infrastructure is a major theme in business development seminars these days.
   B. Russia still has considerable weight on the independent states of Central Asia.
   C. Small businesses have a significant source on a country's economy prosperity.	

8. Find the collocations with the wrong definition.
   A. Falsely accused = incorrectly accused.
   B. Justifiably proud = proud with no reasons.
   C. Evenly matched = two sides in a contest, argument, etc.
   D. Casually employed = given a permanent contract of work.	

9. What are two important differences between slang and colloquial words?
    A. Slang is short-lived, unlike colloquial words.
    B. Slang contains more rude words, unlike colloquial words.
    C. Slang is considered to be jocular and metaphorical, unlike colloquial words.	

10. Why do people usually use slang?
    A. to be picturesque and to different from others.
    B. to avoid the radium of outmoded hackneyed words.
    C. to demonstrate one's spiritual independence and daring.	

11. Choose the informal equivalents for 'to begin'.
    A. be through
    B. proceed
    C. commence
    D. start off
    E. get started
    F. kick off	

12. Choose the informal and formal equivalents for *'to continue'*.
    A. beam
    B. get on
    C. proceed
    D. terminate	

13. Why do writers typically use learned words?
    A. for comic effect;
    B. to express sophistication;
    C. to emphasize severity and restraint.	

14. What are the out-of-date terms for the learned words?
    A. Officialese
    B. Bookish
    C. Book-learned
    D. Obsolete	

15. What definitions do not apply to *'vocabulary'*?
    A. The basic unit of language, which corresponds to the concept of thing means and names it.
    B. The activity of man using language to communicate with other people.
    C. The lexical corpus of a language, all the words of a language as distinct from sounds, grammar, and other aspects of linguistic investigation.
    D. A semiological system of a special type serving as the main means of human communication.	

16. What definitions do not apply to *'borrowing'*?
    A. A word or a word combination that is specially coined to name a new object or express a new concept.
    B. Borrowing by means of literally translating words or word-combinations by modeling their foreign patterns.
    C. Sorting to the word-stock of other languages for words to express new concepts, name new objects, phenomena.
    D. The extension of the semantic capacity of a word.	

17. What definitions do not apply to *'loan translations (calques)'*?

    A. A word or a word combination that is specially coined to name a new object or express a new concept.

    B. Borrowing by means of literally translating words or word-combinations by modeling their foreign patterns.

    C. Sorting to the word-stock of other languages for words to express new concepts, name new objects, phenomena.

    D. The extension of the semantic capacity of a word.

18. What definitions do not apply to *'neologism'*?

    A. A word or a word combination that is specially coined to name a new object or express a new concept.

    B. A word formed after existing patterns as an individual innovation for a special occasion but not in current use.

    C. A word that is out of use at present but is recognizes by the speakers of the language.

    D. Language of a highly colloquial type, considered as below the level of educated standard speech and consisting either of new words or of current words employed in some special sense.

19. All morphemes are subdivided into two large classes:

    A. roots

    B. prepositions

    C. affixes

20. From the etymological point of view affixes are classified into the same two large groups as words:
   A. borrowed
   B. native
   C. new	

21. Which words are produced by conversion?
   A. to elbow
   B. to nose
   C. sunflower
   D. tallboy	

22. Which words are produced by contraction?
   A. U.N.O
   B. prof
   C. trustworthy
   D. policeman	

23. Find the sentences where '*in-*' is used correctly.
   A. Why are you so *insensitive* to other people's problems?
   B. The garden is divided into two *inequal* parts.
   C. I think you were *injustified* in punishing both boys.
   D. I am afraid that the world is full of *injustice*.	

24. Find the sentences where '*un-*' is used correctly.
   A. This ticket is *unvalid*. You haven't stamped it in the machine.
   B. Thank you for your help. It was *unvaluable*.
   C. Quite honestly, I find that argument *untenable*.
   D. Her remarks were so rude they were frankly *unprintable*.	

25. Find the sentences where '-*able*' is used correctly.
    A. Skateboarding is no longer very *fashionable* in this country.
    B. Helen's uncle turned out to be a really *remarkable* person.
    C. We have not yet received *confirmable* of your telephone booking.
    D. We decided to go to watch some *traditionable* dances in the next village.	

26. Find the sentences where '-*less*' is used correctly.
    A. Don't touch that glass vase?! It's absolutely *priceless*!
    B. Driving on these mountain roads in winter is a bit *hazardless*.
    C. The doctor will be available for a *consultless* on Thursday morning.
    D. I just couldn't put up with his *relentless* nagging.	

27. A phrasal verb consists of…
    A. a verb and a preposition;
    B. a verb and an adverb.	

28. What are the meanings of the phrasal verb *'stand by'*?
    A. not to do anything to stop something;
    B. to think about a situation;
    C. to support (anyone in difficulty).	

29. In which sentences do we need the preposition *'out'*?
 	
    A. The deal we were offered wasn't good enough. We are holding ___ for something better.
    B. Sorry I'm late. I was held ___ in the traffic.
    C. He tried not to show that he was in pain, but he couldn't hold ___ any longer.	

30. In which sentences do we need the preposition *'off'*?
 	
    A. She started to speak, then broke ___ while a waitress served us coffee.
    B. Luckily, the rain held ___ and we had the party in the garden as planned.
    C. He had broken ___ his family long before.	

31. In which sentences do we need the preposition *'up'*?
 	
    A. Karen's parents didn't allow her to go out. She held it ___ them.
    B. He held ___ a bank with a gun.
    C. The grey clouds had begun to break ___.
    D. Break ___ the chocolate and place it in a bowl.	

32. Which words are produced by composition?
    A. lady-killer
    B. to house
    C. to dog
    D. newcomer	

33. Which words are produced by semi-affixes?
    A. classroom
    B. Scotland
    C. unladylike
    D. gentleman	

34. How "central" words of a synonymic group are not called?
- A. Codominant synonyms
- B. Superior synonyms
- C. Suppressive synonyms
- D. Dominant synonyms
- E. Oppressive synonyms

35. Find synonymous idioms.
- A. Miss the boat.
- B. To be in the blue.
- C. To get into hot water.

36. Find synonyms for the word *good/great/cool*.
- A. Lit
- B. Sick
- C. Gucci

37. Which phrase is synonymous with the word '*gossip'*?
- A. Spill tea
- B. Ship
- C. Dirty wash
- D. tittle-tattle

38. What definitions do not apply to *'antonyms'*?
- A. A group of words more or less corresponding in their main semantic component.
- B. Words contrasted as correlated pairs.
- C. The expression of the main meaning, meaning proper of a linguistic unit in contrast to its connotation.
- D. Words which have in their meaning a qualitative feature and can therefore be regarded as semantically opposite.
- E. Other meanings in a polysemantic word.

39. What idioms can you use to describe *hard-working people*?
    A. be full of beans;
    B. tough cookie;
    C. be as busy as a bee.	

40. What idioms can you use to describe *lazy people*?
    A. couch potato;
    B. chew the fat;
    C. hot potato.	

41. What words can you use to name a *friend*?
    A. Bestie
    B. Fam
    C. Babe	

42. In which sentences is omitted the same word?
    A. Let's go down to the river. It's a really nice ____ for a picnic.
    B. The evening in Blackpool was the only bright ____. In an otherwise disappointing holiday.
    C. My daughter is very ill, so I've got a lot on my ____ right now.	

43. In which sentences is omitted the same word?
    A. I'm so tired I'm finding it difficult to keep my_____ on my work.
    B. It's very upsetting news, as she was a very _____ friend.
    C. If you can cast your_____ back to lesson two, you'll remember we were talking about body posture.
    D. Police suspect that the shopkeeper had a _____ in the robbery.	

44. In which sentences is omitted the same word?
 	
  A. The evening in Blackpool was the only_____ in an otherwise disappointing holiday.
 	
  B. Dealing with problems like that is all just a _____ of being firm.
 	
  C. It's very upsetting news, as she was a very _____ friend.
 	
  D. It's rather _____for me – haven't you got anything cheaper?
 	
  E. As the boat lurched from side to side, we held on for _____ life.	

45. Find the sentences with the same missing words.
 	
  A. The poor guy has a ____only a mother could love.
 	
  B. You'll recognize him — he's tall and thin, with a ___that would stop a clock!
 	
  C. Amanda is always impeccable — never a ___out of place!	

46. Which sentences are correct?
 	
  A. Most fruit pickers are deeply employed, and are sometimes offered basic accommodation.
 	
  B. It was proved on appeal that all three men had been wrongfully imprisoned.
 	
  C. Some critics attacked the TV program, describing it as casually offensive.
 	
  D. The work carried out by Grigson on artificial intelligence was mainly theoretical.	

47. What can you use with *'deal with'*?

    A. The evidence

    B. The options

    C. An issue

    D. A situation

    E. A problem

48. Decide which of the following uses of odd are correct.

    A. You come across some very odd characters over here.

    B. Come on Jack, one odd glass of beer before you leave!

    C. It's odd to think that this time yesterday we were on the other side of the world.

    D. I think this software is odd with my computer.

    E. I'm getting an odd wind about this – it's all very suspicious.

    F. Look I can't wear odd socks – everyone will laugh at me.

    G. The match was mediocre – apart from the odd flash of genius from Lupeto.

    H. Put your odd finger over the hole as you blow.

    I. Try not to be so odd with your steps – it's supposed to be a slow dance.

    J. The question master tells you three things, and you have to say which is the odd one out.

49. Decide in which of the following sentences the verb run fits correctly.

    A. I'll run your message to John and see what he thinks.

    B. Would you like me to run you to the bus station?

    C. I can't stand all chlorine in the pool – it makes my eyes run.

D. Your home address isn't run correctly in our records. E. They sometimes run an extra train if they know it's going to be busy. F. It is thought that the total cost will run 50 % higher than the estimate. G. Well I'm extremely busy, but, at a run, I might be able to do it for you. H. The run of the matter is, we've decided to get married in August. I. My contract still has six months to run. J. Karen hasn't decided yet if she wants to run for the Presidency again this year.	

2.3. Matching

Question	Answer
1. Match terms with their definitions.	

1. Concept
   2. Word
 	
  A. A generalized reverberation in the human consciousness of the properties of objective reality.
  B. The basic unit of language. It corresponds to the concept of thing meant and names it.	

2. Match types of structures (1-2) with their meanings (a-b).	

1. external structure of the word
   2. internal structure of the word
 	
  A. the word semantic structure
  B. its morphological structure	

3. Match the numbers (1-3) with the letters (a-c).	

1. Semantic change
   2. Extension of meaning
   3. Narrowing of meaning
 	
  A. a pen 'any instrument for writing' <Lat. penna 'a feather of a bird;
  B. "salary" < Lat. "solarium", = "money given to Roman soldiers to buy salt with";
  C. "glass" – for a drinking vessel; a mirror.	

4. Fill in the gaps in the sentences.	

Semantic field, part of reality singled out in human (1)___ and, theoretically, covered in language by a more or less (2)___ lexical (3)___ .
 	
  A. autonomous
  B. microsystem
  C. nominal
  D. existence	

E. sovereign F. sphere of usage G. macrosystem H. experience	

5. Match the types of the dictionary entry (1-3) with their meanings (a-c).
   1. definitional phrase
   2. philological phrase
   3. illustrative phrases
 	
   A. are mainly presented by ready-made and idiomatic expressions, proverbs, sayings and quotations;
   B. are created in order to show how the word in this or that meaning actually functions in speech;
   C. means those that are created by the lexicographer for the purpose of explaining the meanings of a given word.	

6. Fill in the gaps in the sentences.
   Terminology, the sum total of (1)___ for a (2)___ branch of science, technology, industry, etc., forming a special layer in the word-stock of a (3)___ .
   A. stages
   B. definitions
   C. specific
   D. sentence
   E. language
   F. common
   G. text
   H. terms
   I. medium	

7. Choose the formal and inform equivalents for some words from basic vocabulary.
    1. begin
    2. continue
    3. child, baby
    4. end
 	
    A. commence
    B. infant
    C. proceed
    D. terminate
    E. beam
    F. be through
    G. get started
    H. get on	

8. Using your knowledge of the language and "linguistic intuition", determine which affixes refer to which borrowed language.
    1. French
    2. Latin
 	
    A. -ate
    B. -ence
    C. -or
    D. -ar
    E. -ess
    F. -age
    G. -ous	

9. Match the features of terms (1- 4) with their meanings (a-d).
    1. monosemantic
    2. connected with their subject-fields
    3. initially been introduced as individual names
    4. international	

A. the specialized definitions in dictionaries reflect their semantic relationships with other notions and concepts of a given system of co-ordinates;
B. associated with a certain scientific concept;
C. terminology for implementing and strengthening international relations in the field of science, politics and technology;
D. one and the same word is a term of different areas of knowledge.

10. Fill in the gaps in the sentences.

Paradigmatics, associative (1)___ relationship of words in language as distinct from linear (2)___ relationship of words in speech.

A. non-spontaneous
B. expressive
C. simultaneous
D. non-expressive
E. non-simultaneous
F. conclusive
G. spontaneous
H. non-conclusive

11. Match the numbers (1-3) with the letters (a-c).

1. Shortening of idiom
2. Proverb
3. Opaque idioms

A. "Man proposes, but God disposes";
B. "a bird in the hand (is worth two in the bush)";
C. "to know the rope".

12. Fill in the gaps in the sentences.
 	
   Polysemy, the existence within (1)___ of (2)___ as the result of the development and changes of its original (3)___
 	
   A. group of words
   B. several connected meanings
   C. form
   D. linguistical pair of words
   E. semasiology unit
   F. language
   G. one word
   H. meaning	

13. Match terms with their definitions.
   1. Euphemism
   2. Jargon
   3. Slang
   4. Archaism
 	
   A. A word or an expression out of use but still understood by the speakers of the language (e.g. Russian 'очи, чело').
   B. Language of a highly colloquial type, considered as below the level of educated standard speech and consisting either of new words or of current words employed in some special sense.
   C. A word or expression which refers to the taboo topic in a vague or indirect way (e. g. 'adult video' for 'pornography', or 'after a long illness' for cancer').
   D. A technical vocabulary or idiom of a special activity or group; (b) obscure and often pretentious language marked by a roundabout way of expression and use of long words.	

14. Match the numbers (1-3) with the letters (a-c).
   1. Blending Words
   2. Transferred Words
   3. Derived Words
 	
   A. Latin "villa" ->en. "village"
   B. Spoon + fork = spork
   C. fr.Herbes -> en. herbs	

15. Match terms with their definitions.
   1. Homonymy
   2. Homophones
 	
   A. Words with different meanings but the same sound form.
   B. The coincidence in the same sound form and the orthographic complex of two, or more, different linguistic units.	

16. Match the sources of synonyms (1-6) with the examples (a-f). 1. The formation of phrasal verbs 2. Borrowings 3. American or British English 4. Euphemisms 5. Shortening 6. Register A. "line" = "queue" B. "to investigate/to look into" (neutral) = "to dig out info about" (informal) = "to conduct an investigation" (formal) C. "heaven" = "sky" D. "laboratory" –> "lab" E. "fireman" –> "firefighter" F. "to work out" = "to exercise"	

17. Fill in the gaps in the sentences.

Connotation, supplementary (1)___ and/or stylistic shade added to the word's main meaning and expressing additional (2)___, expressive, and evaluative (3)___ .

   A. sensitive
   B. semantic
   C. supportive
   D. overtones
   E. linguistic
   F. meanings
   G. emotional
   H. concepts

18. Match the words (1-4) with their euphemisms mitigating other types of discrimination (a-d).

   1. the poor
   2. cripple
   3. to die
   4. to kill

   A. to neutralize
   B. to pass away
   C. physically different
   D. low income people

19. Match the numbers (1-2) with the letters (a-b).

1. Phraseological units in which one of the components preserves its current meaning and the other is used in a transferred meaning.	A. to skate on thin ice; to wear one's heart on one's sleeve; to have one's heart in one's boots.
2. Phraseological unit in which one of the components preserves its "completely or partially transferred meaning".	B. to lose (keep) one's temper, to fly into a temper, to fall ill, to fall in love (out of love).

20. Match the differences between American and British English (1-5) with the examples (a-e).

1. cases where different words are used for the same denotatum;
2. cases where the semantic structure of a partially equivalent word is different;
3. cases where otherwise equivalent words are different in distribution;
4. it sometimes happens that the same word is used in American English with some difference in emotional and stylistic colouring;
5. difference in frequency characteristics.

A. "pavement" (Br) – "the roadway" (Am);
B. "can" (Br) – "tin" (Am); "candy" – "sweets"; "movie" – "film";
C. "nasty" is a much milder expression of disapproval in England than in the States;
D. Br: ride + horse, bicycle
   Am: ride + train, boat (sounds unnatural for Br);
E. "time-table" (Am) yielded its place to "schedule" (Br) in both languages.

21. Replace the words underlined by using the most appropriate expression from the box.

1. get you down
2. get your own back
3. got the sack
4. get up speed
5. there's no getting away from it

A. If you're not careful, you're going to be <u>dismissed</u>.
B. Doesn't this gloomy winter weather <u>depress you</u>?
C. You're going to grow old one day. <u>You can't ignore it</u>.
D. Willie treated you really badly. How are you going to <u>take revenge</u>?
E. These trains start very slowly but they soon <u>accelerate</u>.

22. Match phrasal verbs with their meanings.
 	
1. hold something back
2. hold off
3. hold out
4. hold something against somebody
 	
  A. to feel angry towards someone because of something;
  B. to not do something immediately;
  C. to stop yourself from showing something;
  D. to continue to defend yourself against an enemy or attack without being defeated.	

23. Match phrasal verbs with their meanings.
 	
1. hold up
2. hold out for something
3. hold someone/something down
4. hold something up
 	
  A. to rob with a weapon;
  B. to keep someone or something in a particular place or position and to stop him, her, or it from moving;
  C. to wait for something better to come;
  D. to delay somebody.	

24. Which verbs could replace the verbs in *italics* in the sentences?
 	
1. Surprisingly, when the dentist *pulled out* my tooth, I didn't feel a thing.
2. I think it's amazing that Jack *pulled it off* – I never thought he'd do it.
3. The United Nations *pulled out* their troops from the capital.
4. Mike was *pulled up* by his boss for making a joke about the Chairman.
 	
  A. told off
  B. withdrew
  C. extracted
  D. succeeded	

25. Which verbs could replace the verbs in *italics* in the sentences?

1. The lorry *pulled away* very slowly because of its heavy load.
2. I think I must have *pulled* a muscle.
3. The man *pulled out* a gun and aimed it at the bank clerk.
4. It was still dark when I *pulled back* the curtains.

A. opened
B. produced
C. damaged
D. started moving

26. Match each sentence with an appropriate preposition.

1. Harry last appeared ___the role of King Lear at the National Theatre.
2. Have you got any tickets left ___the front stalls, please?
3. Alex accompanied Helen's singing ___the piano.
4. The play was so bad that the actors were booed ___the stage.
5. David challenged Cathy ___a game of chess.

A. For
B. In
C. Off/From
D. On
E. To

27. Match each sentence with an appropriate preposition.

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5. David challenged Cathy ___a game of chess.

F. For
G. In
H. Off/From
I. On
J. To

28. Match each sentence with an appropriate preposition.

1. The clowns walked into the ring ___ stilts, looking about three metres tall!

2. The stadium was packed ___ people for the athletics meeting.

3. Janet holds the word record ___ long distance cycling.

4. During the match, a message came ___ the loudspeakers.

A. For
B. On
C. Over
D. With

29. Complete the word in each sentence by adding an appropriate prefix.

1. When the cassette finishes, don't forget to ___wind it.

2. I thought the effects in the film were rather ___done.

3. The rumours about the minister's death were completely ___founded.

4. Anyone with a ___ability may qualify for a special pension.

A. over-
B. un-
C. dis-
D. re-

30. Complete the word in each sentence by adding an appropriate prefix.
 	
1. I am ___debted to you for all the help you have given me.
2. When a currency is ___valued, it is worth less internationally.
3. I found the instructions you gave us very ___leading.
4. John rents the house and I ___let a room from him.
 	
  A. mis-
  B. in-
  C. sub-
  D. de-	

31. Match the sentences and words that can replace the words in *italics*.
 	
1. The country imports *every year* over two million tons of rice.
2. Harry's work has improved *a great deal*.
3. *By coincidence*. I'm driving there myself tomorrow.
4. I'll be with you *straight* away.
 	
  A. coincidentally
  B. considerably
  C. directly
  D. annually	

32. Match the sentences and words that can replace the words in *italics*.
 	
1. The two sisters were dressed *in exactly the same way*.
2. I'm afraid that Carol's writing is *quite* illegible.
3. The passengers *only just* escaped with their lives.
4. I think that this plan is *downright* ridiculous!
 	
  A. absolutely
  B. totally
  C. identically
  D. barely	

33. Match words with their definitions.

   1. Swanning

   2. Hotshot

   3. Backfill

   4. Pass the buck

  A. replacing a fired employee.

  B. to shift the responsibility for something to someone else.

  C. to go roaming around the workplace, typically aimlessly or to see friends.

  D. a person of impressive skill and daring, especially one who is highly successful and self-assured.

34. Match phrases with their definitions.

   1. Office Squid

   2. Cubicle monkey

   3. Beeting

   4. Vontae

  A. The act of quitting or giving up.

  B. A work meeting where the manager gives a verbal beating to employees.

  C. An anonymous, soulless white-collar cubicle dweller.

  D. Someone who travels around an office by propelling themselves backward in an office chair instead of walking.

35. Match phrases with their definitions.

   1. Uptight

   2. A-game

   3. Hit the books

   4. Wing it

  A. to improvise, to do something without proper preparation or time to rehearse.

  B. to do your best possible in any endeavor; not just in sports.

C. to be uptight is to be tense. When you're uptight, you're stressed out and anxious. D. to study, especially with intensity.	
36. Match phrases with their definitions. 1. Are you though? 2. Get that bread! 3. Bully 4. BOI A. This phrase is normally said after someone says something that's very doubtable. B. It is said when you are super excited about doing something. C. When you are amazed by someone's awesomeness. D. It is an expression of frustration towards someone or something when someone did something unwise.	
37. Match phrases with their definitions. 1. Hate to see it 2. Sick 3. Big oof 4. Off the record A. This is a statement of sympathy that you say when something has gone terribly wrong for someone. B. An all-encompassing phrase consisting of anything you dislike to observe. C. It means something is confidential, not to be repeated or quoted. D. It's used to describe something cool, crazy or insane.	
38. Match phrases with their definitions. 1. Can't even 2. Literally 3. Throw Shade 4. You bet	

A. Means to publicly criticize or express contempt for someone. B. It is an emotional exclamation in response to an event. C. Is defined as something that is actually true, or exactly what you are saying word for word. D. Means "you may be sure", "certainly".	
39. Match phrases with their definitions. 1. Lit 2. Internet genius 3. Slide into your DMs 4. Phubbing A. When you get snubbed by somebody you're trying to talk to because they're preoccupied with their phone. B. When you don't have somebody's number, but you'd like to get to know them better by referring to direct messages on social media. C. It is commonly used to praise someone or something, signifying that a person, object, album, movie, or so on. D. Somebody who feigns expertise in a subject by using Google, Wikipedia, or other internet sources, without citing them.	
40. Match words with their meanings. 1. Snack 2. Drop-dead gorgeous 3. Creep 4. Stalker 5. Pushover A. A detestable, weird person. B. A person who is easy to overcome or influence. C. An attractive person.	

D. Someone is so gorgeous that people cannot fail to notice them. E. A person who illegally follows and watches someone over a period of time.	

41. Match words with their meanings.
   1. Show off
   2. Full of crap
   3. Extra
   4. Train wreck
   5. FYA
 	
    A. Something is amazing, extremely good, or on point, especially said of how someone feels or looks.
    B. A person who acts pretentiously or who publicly parades themselves, their possessions, or their accomplishments.
    C. A person who has experienced a personal failure, disaster.
    D. When you're trying a little too hard or being a little too over-the-top.
    E. Someone who speaks or writes nonsense or untruths.	

42. Which word completes this set of collocations or fixed phrases?
   1. behaving like a …
   2. a control …
   3. only … will tell
   4. the … of success
 	
    A. time
    B. secret
    C. child
    D. panel	

43. Replace the words in *italics* with one word which fits.
 	
1. I find his views on foreigners very hard to *accept*.
2. The pullover *expanded* when I washed it.
3. There's a large storage *area* under the stairs.
4. At the last *minute*, they decided to pull out of the competition.
 	
  A. stretched
  B. space
  C. moment
  D. take	

44. Match words with their meanings.
 	
1. Acrobat
2. Cast
3. Conductor
4. Juggler
5. Understudy
 	
  A. Someone who is a member of this is an actor.
  B. Someone who tells an orchestra what to do.
  C. Someone who entertains others by throwing and catching things.
  D. Someone who takes an actor's place in an emergency.
  E. Someone who entertains others by performing gymnastics.	

45. Match words with their meanings.
 	
1. Ballerina
2. Clown
3. Stuntman
4. Vocalist
 	
  A. Someone who performs dangerous actions in place of an actor.
  B. Someone who dances gracefully in a leading role.
  C. Someone who sings.
  D. Someone who makes people laugh at the circus.	

46. Complete each sentence with one of the words.

1. The ___ section of the orchestra needs a new violinist.
2. Keith wanted to learn a ___instrument so took up the clarinet.
3. Their music is really great, but I can't understand the ___ .
4. As we entered the church, the ___ began playing a solemn tune.
5. I went to a rock ____ held in a large football stadium.

A. Lyrics
B. Concert
C. Organist
D. Woodwind
E. String

47. Complete each sentence with one of the words.

1. I used to play the trumpet in the local ___ band.
2. You need a good voice and acting ability to perform in a/an ___ .
3. I'll sing the first verse, and everyone will join in for the ___ .
4. Nowadays it is possible to simulate most ___instruments electronically, so drums are not always needed.

A. Chorus
B. Opera
C. Percussion
D. Brass

48. Match each activity with one of the sentences.

1. If you look at the picture on the box it's easier to decide where the pieces go.
2. Whenever you deal you seem to get at least three aces.
3. The white ball hit the red ball and went into the corner pocket.

4. I took all of his pieces in one move! I swept the board!

5. Pass the remote control – I want to get the weather report.

   A. Billiards
   B. Draughts
   C. Cards
   D. Television
   E. Jigsaw puzzle

49. Match each activity with one of the sentences.

1. Throw the dice twice and then pick up a card.

2. The bulls-eye is worth fifty, but it's a bit hard to hit.

3. If the ball hits the net when you serve, it doesn't count.

4. You can easily put her in check if you make the next move with your queen.

5. Don't forget to rewind it when it finishes and put it back in the box.

   A. Darts
   B. Board game
   C. Chess
   D. Video
   E. Table tennis

50. Complete each sentence with one of the words.

1. If you are ___, you are tactful when dealing with people.

2. If you are ___, you have a good reputation in your community.

3. If you are ___, you are polite.

4. If you are ___, you have extreme or very strong views.

5. If you are ___, you are being ruled unjustly or cruelly.

   A. Respectable
   B. Courteous
   C. Radical
   D. Diplomatic
   E. Oppressed

51. Complete each sentence with one of the words.

1. If you are ___, you behave just like everyone else, perhaps too much so.

2. If you are ___, you are against authority and hard to control.

3. If you are ___, you have more advantages than other people.

4. If you are ___, you have gained a bad reputation.

5. If you are ___, you are in favour of new ideas.

  A. Privileged
  B. Notorious
  C. Rebellious
  D. Conventional
  E. Progressive

52. Complete each sentence with one of the words.

1. Mr. Bradly has been elected ___ of Greenswold for the third time.

2. The government has introduced a ___ outlining its plans for the coal industry.

3. Hello, I'm conducting a ___ about leisure habits.

4. According to the latest opinion ___ , the National Party are well ahead of their nearest rivals, the Co-operative Party.

5. Although there is an elected assembly, it is generally recognized that General Domenico wields the real ___ .

  A. Survey
  B. Poll
  C. Bill
  D. Mayor
  E. Power

53. Complete each sentence with one of the words.

1. There is a locally elected ___which has responsibility for roads, street lighting, and other facilities.

2. The king enjoyed a long ___, and was eventually succeeded by his son, George.

3. The ___were slow to take control of the situation after the earthquake.

4. The Leader of the Opposition proposed a ___of no confidence in the government.

5. The Prime Minister called a top-level meeting with the Finance Minister, the Foreign Minister, and other members of the ___ .

 A. Council
 B. Motion
 C. Reign
 D. Cabinet
 E. Authorities

54. Match words with their meanings.

1. This person may be the elected head of state.

2. This person is responsible for a government department.

3. This person leads others to make trouble.

4. This person represents their country abroad.

 A. Ringleader
 B. Minister
 C. President
 D. Ambassador

55. Match words with their meanings.

1. This person loves their country.

2. This person represents others at a meeting or conference.

3. This person may be the head of state by birth.

 A. Patriot
 B. Sovereign
 C. Delegate

56. Match words with their meanings.
 	
1. This person betrays their country.
2. This person is the head of a formal meeting.
3. This person uses violence rather than the political system for political ends.
 	
  A. Terrorist
  B. Traitor
  C. Chairperson	

57. Replace the underlined words with the most appropriate word.
 	
1. The proprietor is <u>officially allowed</u> to sell alcohol.
2. The sale of drugs is <u>controlled by law</u> in most countries.
3. Education from the age of five is <u>obligatory</u> in Britain.
4. Students have been <u>banned</u> from using local pubs since the incident.
 	
  A. Licensed
  B. Compulsory
  C. Restricted
  D. Barred	

58. Replace the underlined words with the most appropriate word.
 	
1. The law prohibiting the sale of fruit in the street has been <u>done away with</u>.
2. Smoking is not <u>allowed</u> in the classroom.
3. You don't have to stay after school to help<u>; it's your own decision.</u>
4. Parking in this street is <u>not allowed</u> on weekdays at certain times.
5. With the application, a passport-sized photograph is <u>necessary</u>.
 	
  A. Required
  B. Abolished
  C. Illegal	

D. Permitted E. Voluntary	
59. Match each sentence with an explanation. 1. I moved my eyebrows together to show disapproval. 2. I laughed uncontrollably, in a silly way. 3. I looked with wide-open eyes at the same place for. 4. I opened my mouth uncontrollably to show boredom or tiredness. A. I giggled B. I yawned C. I frowned D. I stared	
60. Match each sentence with an explanation. 1. I gave a large smile. 2. I moved my head from side to side meaning 'no'. 3. I made a threatening expression with my lips. 4. I moved my head up and down meaning 'yes'. 5. I had trouble breathing because my throat was blocked. A. I nodded B. I choked C. I grinned D. I shook head E. I scowled	
61. Replace the words underlined with the most appropriate word. 1. I really enjoy <u>walking</u> for pleasure in the countryside. 2. After about six months babies start <u>moving about on their hands and knees.</u> 3. My sister was <u>walking on the front part of her foot so as to make no noise</u> along the corridor. 4. The injured player began <u>walking with one leg more easily than the other</u> off the pitch.	

A. Crawling
B. Tiptoeing
C. Limping
D. Rambling

62. Replace the words underlined with the most appropriate word.

1. The drunken man was <u>moving unsteadily</u> from one side of the street to the other.
2. Nowadays soldiers have motorized transport and do little <u>moving on foot.</u>
3. There is nothing more pleasant than <u>walking in a leisurely manner</u> along the sea front.

A. Marching
B. Staggering
C. Strolling

63. Replace the words underlined with the most appropriate word.

1. I've been <u>moving very rapidly</u> backwards and forwards all day and I'm exhausted.
2. When I visit a new town I like <u>walking with no particular purpose</u> around looking at the sights.
3. I wasn't used to so much walking, and ended up <u>moving with difficulty</u> home, with blisters on both feet.

A. Hobbling
B. Dashing
C. Wandering

64. Replace the words underlined in each sentence with the adjectives.

1. Poor immigrants often end up living in shanty towns in <u>city</u> area.
2. In <u>thickly</u> populated areas, unemployment may be a cause of poverty.
3. The diet of most children in this area is <u>poor</u>.

A. Densely B. Inadequate C. Urban	
65. Replace the words underlined in each sentence with the adjectives. 1.<u>Rich</u> people often find it hard to understand how the poor become poor. 2. The mountain region of the country is <u>thinly</u> populated. 3. Many <u>poor</u> nations can no longer afford to run schools and hospitals. A. Sparsely B. Wealthy C. Impoverished	
66. Replace the words underlined in each sentence with the adjectives. 1. In many countries, there is a drift of population from <u>country</u> areas to the cities. 2. Education is desperately needed in many countries where a high percentage of the population is <u>unable to read and write</u>. 3. Remote villages usually lack <u>basic</u> services such as piped water and electricity. A. Essential B. Illiterate C. Rural	
67. Match the words with the explanation. 1. This is the settling of a dispute through discussion. 2. This is the ability of a country or person to support themselves without outside help. 3. This is a means of protecting people against some diseases. 4. This is food that is grown without the use of chemical fertilizers.	

A. Organic B. Negotiation C. Self-sufficiency D. Immunisation	
68. Match the words with the explanation. 1. This is the collection of raw materials so that they can be used again. 2. This is money used by a government to lower the prices of e.g. basic foods. 3. This is a system of distributing water to places which need it for agriculture. 4. This is an organisation which collects money from the public and uses it to help people in need. A. Recycling B. Charity C. Irrigation D. Subsidy	
69. Complete the extracts from the school report. 'Tracey has made a big (1)___this term, showing herself to be very (2) ___ for her age. She (3) ___ herself well and (4) ___ fully to class discussions. She shows a lot of (5) ___ towards her teachers.' A. effort B. applies C. respect D. mature E. contributes	

70. Complete each space with a suitable word.
 	
'I left school without any (1) ___, and with no real job (2) ___. But then I started doing (3___classes at the local (4) ___education college. And now I'm a mechanic, and delighted with my job!'
 	
    A. further
    B. prospects
    C. evening
    D. qualifications	

71. Complete each space with a suitable word.
 	
'I've just finished university, although I'll have to go back for my (1) ___ceremony in October. So now I'm the proud possessor of a (2) ___in Modern Languages. At last I can get down to earning some money and paying back my (3) ___from the government. My friend is luckier than me in this respect – she's off to the States. She has a (4) ___to study at Yale University.'
 	
    A. scholarship
    B. loan
    C. graduation
    D. degree	

72. Complete the extracts from the school report.
 	
'On one occasion Derek was sent home for being (1) ___ to a teacher. In terms of effort, his work can sometimes be rather (2) ___.He is easily (3) ___and finds it hard to (4) ___ in class. Also, he has not (5) ___ in group work as well as he should.'
 	
    A. half-hearted
    B. distracted
    C. insolent
    D. concentrate
    E. participated	

73. Complete each space with a suitable word.
 	
    'I was known as a rather naughty, mischievous pupil, and I often used to get (1) ___out of the lesson or put in (2) ___after school. Little did the school know, however, that dad was actually paying me to have extra maths lessons at home with a private (3) ___.And it paid off, for in my maths exam, I surprised everyone by getting the top (4) ___in the class.'
 	
  A. sent
  B. detention
  C. tutor
  D. mark	

74. Complete each sentence with a colour, in an appropriate form of the word.
 	
  1. red
  2. green
  3. blue
  4. white
  5. browned
 	
  A. When Bill saw my new car, he was _____ with envy.
  B. Tina never comes here now. We only see her once in a _____ moon.
  C. When the visitors from Japan arrived, the company gave them the _____ carpet treatment.
  D. I'm fed-up with this job. I feel completely _____ off.
  E. The _____ -collar workers received a rise, but the workers on the shop floor were told they had to wait.	

75. Complete each sentence with a colour, in an appropriate form of the word.

   1. green

   2. blue

   3. red

  A. They fell deeper and deeper into the _____ and then went bankrupt.

  B. You can talk until you're _____ in the face, but he still won't listen.

  C. Tony can't be trusted yet with too much responsibility, he's still _____.

76. Rewrite each sentence beginning as shown, so that it contains a form of the word underlined ending in -ful.

   1. am doubtful about this plan

   2. is fanciful

   3. were not very tactful, were you

   4. a meaningful relationship

   5. was a dutiful son

   6. your directions weren't very helpful

   7. is disrespectful towards his teachers

   8. useful to know what they intend to do

   9. is definitely harmful to the health

   10. was pitiful, I'm afraid

  A. Martin did his duty as a son.
    Martin

    _____.

  B. You didn't show much tact, did you?
    You _____?

  C. I think the whole idea is a flight of fancy.
    I think the whole idea

    _____.

  D. We have a relationship which means something.
    We have _____.

E. I have my doubts about this plan. I _____. F. I can only pity his performance, I'm afraid. His performance _____. G. Smoking definitely harms the health. Smoking _____. H. It would be of some use to know what they intend to do. It would be _____. I. Jim doesn't show any respect to his teachers. Jim _____. J. I'm afraid your directions weren't much help. I'm afraid _____.	

77. Underline the most suitable word or phrase in each sentence.
 	
    1. She A. noticed / B. watched / C. eyed her daughter's boyfriend up and down, and then asked him in.
    2. Jack A. stared / B. glimpsed / C. glanced at the map for a while, unable to believe his eyes.
    3. Would you like to A. regard / B. observe / C. view the house that is for sale this afternoon?
    4. Police A. faced / B. gazed / C. spotted the wanted man in the crowd outside a football ground.
    5. I A. checked / B. glanced / C. faced at my watch. It was already well after three.
    6. The burglar turned to A. view / B. regard / C. face me and said, 'Don't you recognize me?'
    7. I only A. beheld / B. witnessed / C. noticed we were running low on petrol after we had passed the last filling station.
    8. Tony was A. noticing / B. glimpsing / C. scanning the page, looking for his name in print.	

9. I only A. peered / B. glimpsed / C. squinted the Queen from a distance before her car drove away.

10. Sally was sitting by the sea, A. glanding / B. gazing / C. fading at the shape of the distant island.

78. Choose the most suitable word in each sentence.

1. The drunken soldier was A. marching / B. staggering/ C. scrambling crazily from one side of the street to the other.

2. George suddenly A. dashed / B. slunk / C. rambled into the room waving a telegram.

3. Sue found it very difficult to A. pass / B. overtake / C. cross the busy street.

4. Passengers who wish to A. alight / B. leave / C. descend at the next station should travel in the front four coaches.

5. The runner with the injured foot A. flashed / B. limped / C. trundled across the finishing line.

6. Kate spent the morning A. rambling / B. strolling / C. crawling along the sea-front.

7. Harry A. strode / B. tiptoed / C. trudged along the landing, trying not to make any noise.

8. The road was icy, and I A. skidded / B. skated / C. slipped over.

9. I managed to A. creep / B. slink / C. strut up to the burglar before he noticed me.

10. After the meal we A. lounged / B. loitered / C. lingered over our coffees for an hour or so.

79. Choose the most appropriate word or phrase in each sentence.

1. A bee was A. humming / B. buzzing / C. crashing angrily against the window pane, unable to get out.

2. The crowd A. banged / B. rustled / C. booed in disagreement as the politician left the platform.

3. The bus stopped at the traffic lights with a A. screech / B. howl / C. grind of brakes.

4. I had to put some oil on the hinges to stop the door A. whining / B. squeaking / C. whimpering.

5. The sack of potatoes fell from the lorry with a heavy A. crunch / B. splash / C. thud.

6. The helicopter passed overhead with a A. grinding / B. chirping / C. whirring sound, like a giant insect.

7. The mirror fell from the wall with a A. whoosh / B. crash / C. screech.

8. Air was escaping from the punctured tyre with a A. hissing / B. bubbling / C. puffing sound.

9. The tiny bells on the Christmas tree were A. clanging / B. ringing / C. tinkling in the draught.

10. The saucepans fell onto the floor with a great A. clatter / B. crunch / C. ping.

2.4. True or False statements

Question	Answer

1. The semantic structure of a word is an internal structure.
        True
        False	

2. The morphological structure of a word is an internal structure.
        True
        False	

3. Semantics is the area of lexicology specializing in the semantic studies of the word.
        True
        False	

4. Synchrony is a conventional isolation of a certain stage in the development of language as the object of linguistic investigation?
        True
        False	

5. Synchrony represents one historical stage in the development of language.
        True
        False	

6. There is clear border between archaisms and historisms.
        True
        False	

7. Bilingual, labialization, glottal stop are terms of theoretical grammar.
        True
        False	

8. Context helps to avoid misunderstandings in situations where one word can mean different things (polysemic) and interfere with understanding the conversation?
       True
       False	

9. Homographs are different words coinciding in their orthographic expression.
       True
       False	

10. Denotative components describe only partially and incompletely the meanings of their corresponding words? For example, to shiver and to tremble (denot. comp.).
       True
       False	

2.5. Definitions

Question	Answer
1. What is a word?	
2. What is stem?	
3. What is lexicology?	
4. Which is lexeme?	
5. What is terminology?	
6. Lexical meaning is…	
7. Etymological doublets are…	
8. What is hybrid?	
9. International words are…	
10. Grammatical meaning is…	
11. What is language?	
12. What is diachrony?	
13. Give the definition of vocabulary.	
14. What is synchrony?	
15. What is semantic extension?	

16. What is narrowing of meaning?	
17. What is borrowing?	
18. What is loan translation?	
19. Give the definition of origin of borrowing.	
20. What is neologism?	
21. Give the definition of source of borrowing.	
22. What is occasional word?	
23. Give the definition of term.	
24. What is obsolete word?	
25. What is speech?	
26. What is concept?	
27. Give the definition of paradigm.	
28. What is root?	
29. What is connotation?	
30. Give the definition of allolex.	
31. What is barbarism?	

32. What is enantiosemy?	
33. Synonyms are...	
34. Ideographic synonyms are distinguished by…	
35. Stylistic synonyms are distinguished by…	
36. Which is the context?	
37. What is euphemism?	
38. Name the parts of speech.	
39. What is semantic field?	
40. What is lexical set?	
41. Give the definition of antonyms.	
42. What is jargon?	
43. What is slang?	
44. What is archaism?	
45. What is historism?	
46. Which are paronyms?	
47. What is monosemy?	

48. What is polysemy?	
49. Collocation is…	
50. What is denotation?	
51. What is connotation?	
52. Nominative-derivative meaning is…	
53. Give the definition of the semasiology.	
54. What is semantics?	
55. What is meaning?	
56. Give the definition of the paradigmatics.	
57. What is main nominative meaning of a word?	
58. What is colligation?	
59. What are homographs?	
60. Give the definition of the homophones.	
61. What is phraseological unit?	
62. Give the definition of the homonyms.	
63. What is word-formation (word-building)?	

64. Give the definition of the word-forming patterns.	
65. What is word changing?	
66. What is derivation?	
67. What is composition?	
68. What is morpheme?	
69. Give the definition of the lexical morpheme.	
70. Give the definition of the root morpheme.	
71. Give the definition of the derivational morpheme.	
72. What is morphological segmentation?	
73. What is conversion?	
74. What is back-formation?	
75. Give the definition of the productivity.	
76. What is abbreviation?	
77. What is clipping?	
78. What is blending?	
79. Give the definition of the onomatopoeia.	
80. What is shortening?	

Keys

2.1 Single answer choice

1-B	9-A	17-B	25-C	33-B
2-B	10-C	18-A	26-B	34-C
3-A	11-A	19-C	27-B	35-C
4-D	12-A	20-A	28-B	36-D
5-C	13-C	21-A	29-A	37-A
6-A	14-B	22-A	30-D	38-C
7-C	15-B	23-A	31-B	39-A
8-B	16-B	24-B	32-E	40-C

2.2 Multiple answer choice

1-AB	11-DEF	21-AB	31-BCD	41-AB
2-ABC	12-BC	22-AB	32-AD	42-AB
3-BC	13-ABC	23-AD	33-BCD	43-AC
4-BDE	14-BC	24-CD	34-ABCE	44-CDE
5-AB	15-ABD	25-AB	35-BC	45-AB
6-DE	16-ABD	26-AD	36-ABC	46-BD
7-BC	17-ABD	27-AB	37-ACD	47-CDE
8-BD	18-BCD	28-AC	38-ACE	48-ACFGJ
9-AC	19-AC	29-AC	39-AC	49-BCEIJ
10-ABC	20-AB	30-AB	40-AB	

2.3 Matching

1-1A2B	21-1B2D3A4E5C	41-1B2E3D4C5A	61-1D2A3B4C
2-1B2A	22-1C2B3D4A	42-1C2D3A4B	62-1B2A3C
3-1A2B3C	23-1D2C3B4A	43-1D2A3B4C	63-1B2C3A
4-1H2A3B	24-1C2D3B4A	44-1E2A3B4C5D	64-1C2A3B
5-1C2A3B	25-1D2C3B4A	45-1B2D3A4C	65-1B2A3C

6-1H2C3E

7-1AG2CH3BE4DF

8-1BEFG 2ACD

9-1D2A3B4C

10-1E2C

11-1B2A3C

12-1G2B3H

13-1C2D3B4A

14-1B2C3A

15-1B2A

16-1F2C3A4E5D6B

17-1B2G3D

18-1D2C3B4A

19-1B2A

20-1B2A3D4C5E

26-1B2A3D4C5E

27-1B2A3D4C5E

28-1B2D3A4C

29-1D2A3B4C

30-1B2D3A4C

31-1D2B3A4C

32-1C2A3D4B

33-1C2D3A4B

34-1D2C3B4A

35-1C2B3D4A

36-1A2B3C4D

37-1B2D3A4C

38-1B2C3A4D

39-1C2D3B4A

40-1C2D3A4E5B

46-1E2D3A4C5B

47-1D2B3A4C

48-1E2C3A4B5D

49-1B2A3E4C5D

50-1D2A3B4C5E

51-1D2C3A4B5E

52-1D2C3A4B5E

53-1A2C3E4B5D

54-1C2B3A4D

55-1A2C3B

56-1B2C3A

57-1A2C3B4D

58-1B2D3E4C5A

59-1C2A3D4B

60-1C2D3E4A5B

66-1C2B3A

67-1B2C3D4A

68-1A2D3C4B

69-1A2D3B4E5C

70-1D2B3C4A

71-1C2D3B4A

72-1C2A3B4D5E

73-1A2B3C4D

74-1C2A3B4E5D

75-1C2A3B

76-1E2C3B4D5A 6J7I8H9G10F

77-1C2A3C4C5B 6C7C8C9B10B

78-1B2A3C4A5B 6B7B8C9A10C

79-1B2C3A4B5C 6C7B8A9C10A

2.4 True or False

1-True   6-True

2-False   7-False

3-True   8-True

4-True   9-True

5-False   10-True

2.5 Definition

1 – It is a unit of speech which serves a purpose of human communication.

2 – It is the part of a word which remains unchanged throughout its paradigm and to which grammatical affixes and inflection are added.

3 – Lexicology is a branch of linguistics which deals with the study of words.

4 – A word in all its meanings and forms, i.e. a word as a structural element of language (invariant).

5 – A set of terms of a particular branch of knowledge or production, as well as the study of its formation, composition and functioning.

6 – Lexical meaning is the material meaning of a word as distinct from its formal, grammatical meaning, which reflects the concept the word expresses.

7 – Words that have different phonological forms but the same etymological root.

8 – Hybrid is a word the different elements of which are of etymologically different origin.

9 – Words and phrases, terms and terminological combinations that have a similar form and the same meaning in different languages.

10 – Grammatical meaning is the meaning of the formal membership of a word in the grammatical system of a language (is expressed in the word's form).

11 – A semiological system of a special type serving as the main means of human communication.

12 – The historical development of the system of language as the object of linguistic investigation.

13 – The lexical corpus of a language, all the words of a language as distinct from sounds, grammar, and other aspects of linguistic investigation.

14 – A conventional isolation of a certain stage in the development of language as the object of linguistic investigation.

15 – The extension of the semantic capacity of a word (the development of polysemy).

16 – The restriction of the semantic capacity of a word in the course of its historical development.

17 – Resorting to the word-stock of other languages for words to express new concepts, name new objects, phenomena, etc.

18 – Borrowing by means of literally translating words or word-combinations by modeling their foreign patterns.

19 – The language to which the word may be traced.

20 – A word or a word combination that is specially coined to name a new object or express a new concept.

21 – The language from which the borrowing came into English.

22 – A word formed after existing patterns as an individual innovation for a special occasion but not in current use.

23 – A word or a word combination of a special language used for definition of specific objects and concepts.

24 – A word that is out of use at present but is recognized
by the speakers of the language.

25 – The activity of man using language to communicate with other
people.

26 – A generalized reverberation in the human consciousness
of the properties of objective reality.

27 – The system of grammatical forms of a word.

28 – The semantic nucleus of a word which doesn't express any
grammatical properties.

29 – Supplementary semantic or stylistic shade added to the word's
main meaning and expressing additional emotional, expressive and
evaluative overtones.

30 – A word as a member of speech, i. e. a variant of a lexeme
in a given utterance.

31 – It's a foreign word or expression used in some social groups
instead of native words as a fashion.

32 – Polarization of meaning, the ability of a word (a morpheme, etc.)
to express opposite meanings.

33 – Two or more words belonging to the same part of speech and
possessing one or more identical or nearly identical denotational
meanings, interchangeable in some contexts.

34 – Different shades of meanings or stylistic features.

35 – Different stylistic features.

36 – The linguistic environment of a unit of language which reveals
the conditions and the characteristic features of its usage in speech.

37 – A source of synonyms in which by a shift of meaning a word of more or less pleasant or at least inoffensive connotation becomes synonymous to one that is harsh, obscene, indelicate or otherwise unpleasant.

38 – Parts of speech are classes of words according to their:
(a) general categoric meaning;
(b) system of grammatical categories;
(c) specific syntactic functions;
(d) special types (patterns) of form-building and word-formation.

39 – Part of reality singled out in human experience and, theoretically, covered in language by a more or less autonomous lexical microsystem.

40 – A group of words more or less corresponding in their main semantic component, i. e. belonging to the same semantic field.

41 – Words which have in their meaning a qualitative feature and can therefore be regarded as semantically opposite.

42 – Obscure and often pretentious language marked by a roundabout way of expression and use of long words.

43 – Language of a highly colloquial type, considered as below the level of educated standard speech and consisting either of new words or of current words employed in some special sense.

44 – A word or an expression out of use but still understood by the speakers of the language.

45 – A word that got out of use because the object it denotes disappeared from modern life.

46 – Words which by virtue of partial homonymy may be either erroneously or for stylistic purposes be used one instead of the other in speech.

47 – It is the existence of only one meaning within one word.

48 – The ability of words to have more than one meaning.

49 – Such a combination of words which conditions the realization of a certain meaning.

50 – It is the expression of the main meaning, meaning proper of a linguistic unit in contrast to its connotation.

51 – Supplementary semantic or stylistic shade added to the word's main meaning and expressing additional.

52 – Other meanings in a polysemantic word which are characterized by free combinability and are connected with the main nominative meaning.

53 – Semasiology is the branch of linguistics which studies the semantics of linguistic units.

54 – It is the meaning of words, expressions or grammatical forms.

55 – The reverberation in the human consciousness of an object of extralinguistic which becomes a fact of language because of its constant indissoluble association with a definite linguistic expression.

56 – It is the associative (non-simultaneous) relationship of words in language as distinct from linear (simultaneous) relationship of words in speech (syntagmatics).

57 – Direct meaning of a word, immediately referring to objects, phenomena, actions, and qualities in extralinguistic reality.

58 – Morphosyntactically conditioned combinability of words as a means of realization of their polysemy.

59 – Different words coinciding in their orthographic expression.

60 – Words with different meanings but the same sound form.

61 – It is a word combination in which semantic unity (non-separability) prevails over structural separability, or in which global nomination is expressed in a combination of different units.

62 – The coincidence in the same sound form and the orthographic complex of two, or more, different linguistic units.

63 – The process of forming words according to certain patterns specific for the language.

64 – A structural and semantic formula, displaying a sequence of elements which is regularly reproduced in speech.

65 – The changing of a word form according to its paradigm.

66 – Word-formation through combining a stem and affixes.

67 – Word-formation through combining two or more stems or roots.

68 – The smallest recurrent unit of language directly related to meaning.

69 – Generalized term for root and derivational morphemes, as expressing lexical meanings in contrast to flexional morphemes that express grammatical meanings.

70 – The semantic nucleus of a word with which no grammatical properties of the word are connected.

71 – An affixal morpheme which, when added to the stem modifies the lexical meaning of the root and forms a new word.

72 – The ability of a word to be divided into such elements as root, stem, and affixes.

73 – A special type of derivation where the word-forming means is the paradigm of the word itself.

74 – Forming the allegedly original stem from a supposed derivative on the analogy of the existing pairs, i. e. the singling-out of a stem from a word which is wrongly regarded as a derivative.

75 – The ability of being used to form new words which are readily understood by the speakers of a language.

76 – The process and the result of forming a word out of the initial elements of a word combination.

77 – The process and the result of curtailing off a word to one or two, usually initial, syllables.

78 – The process of fusing two words, often with a letter or syllable in common.

79 – Formation of words from sounds that resemble those associated with the object or action to be named, or that seem suggestive of its qualities.

80 – A productive way of word-building typical of both British and American English. This type of word structure seems to be especially characteristic for American word-building, e.g. 'dorm' – 'dormitory', 'mo' – 'moment', 'cert' – 'certainty'.

Seminar questions

1 семинар

1. The word as the main unit of language and speech.
2. The concept and word.
3. The principle characteristics of the word.
4. The word as a dialectical unity of form and meaning.
5. Lexical and grammatical meaning.
6. Different types of words: morphological; semantical; stylistic etymological; differentiation.

2 семинар

1. The diachronic and the synchronic approaches to the study of vocabulary.
2. Semantic change (extension and narrowing of meaning).
3. Borrowings and loan translations.
4. Hybrids and etymological doublets.
5. International words and "false friends".
6. The sociolinguistic aspect of vocabulary changes. American English.
7. Neologisms and occasional words.

3 семинар

1. Part-of-speech (lexico-grammatical) classification.
2. Stylistic stratification of vocabulary (neutral, literary-bookish, colloquial: literary colloquial, non-literary colloquial).
3. Archaisms, historisms, barbarisms, jargonisms, slang.
4. Logical and thematic classifications.
5. The theory of the semantic field.
6. Synonymy and synonymic sets.

4 семинар

1. Monosemantic and polysemantic words. Puns.
2. V.V. Vinogradov's theory of the main types of lexical meanings.
3. Meaning and usage.
4. Denotation and connotation.
5. Homonymy as the limit of semantic variation (polysemy).
6. Metaphoric transference of meaning.

Examination questions

1. Lexicology as a branch of linguistics.
2. General characteristic of modern English vocabulary.
3. Ways to enlarge the word-stock of modern English.
4. Synonymy in language and speech. Synonymic condensation.
5. Metaphor and its role in the development of the semantic structure of the word.
6. The influence of American English on the development of the language.
7. Semantic change. Extension and narrowing of meaning.
8. Collocation and its patterns.
9. The word as the main unit of language and speech.
10. Non-morphological type of word building. Conversion.
11. Word-building. Non-productive models.
12. Terminology and terminography.
13. Idioms proper and their stylistic peculiarities. The deformation of idioms.
14. The history of English lexicography. Dictionary entry.
15. Word-building. Productive models.
16. The semantic analysis of words. Types of meaning in Russian and foreign linguistic tradition.
17. The influence of extra-linguistic phenomena on the development of vocabulary.
18. Historical development of the English vocabulary.
19. Denotative and connotative meanings.
20. The development of polysemy. Meaning and Context.
21. Applied Lexicology. Types of dictionaries.
22. Semantic variation. Homonyms as the limit of semantic variation.
23. Free and bound word combinations.
24. Different types of words (morphological, semantical, stylistic, etymological, differentiation).
25. International words and "false friends".
26. Different types of grouping. Part-of-speech classification.