Trnavská univerzita v Trnave

Pedagogická fakulta



Zuzana Hrdličková

English Lexicology – Linguistic Seminar 4

Trnavská univerzita v Trnave

2025

Trnavská univerzita v Trnave

Pedagogická fakulta



Zuzana Hrdličková

English Lexicology – Linguistic Seminar 4

Trnavská univerzita v Trnave

2025

Autor: ©
doc. PaedDr. Zuzana Hrdličková, Ph.D.

English Lexicology – Linguistic Seminar 4

Recenzenti:
prof. PhDr. Magdaléna Bilá, PhD.
PhDr. Jarmila Rusiňáková, PhD.

Za odbornú stránku textu, korektúru a konečnú verziu rukopisu zodpovedá autorka.

Schválené edičnou komisiou PdF TU v Trnave na rok 2025 ako vysokoškolská učebnica.

ISBN 978-80-568-0967-9
EAN 9788056809679

Table of contents

List of abbreviations 6
List of figures and tables 6
Introduction 7
1 Use of words – Geographical variations of English 9
1.1 Standard English and geographical varieties 10
1.2 British English and American English – differences in lexis 13
1.3 British and North American academic vocabulary 14
1.4 Regional variants and local dialects 16
1.5 Exercises 17
2 Compounds 19
2.1 Compounds – Putting roots together 19
2.2 Compounds and spelling 20
2.3 Compounds and headedness 21
2.4 Compounds in Czech, Slovak, and English 22
2.5 Exercises 23
3 Collocations 27
3.1 Strong, fixed, and weak collocations 28
3.2 Grammatical categories of collocation 30
3.3 Register and collocation 31
3.4 Academic collocations 32
3.5 Exercises 33
4 Idioms and other fixed word combinations 37
4.1 Different types of idioms 37
4.2 Paremiological expressions 38
4.3 Origin of idioms 40
4.4 Exercises 42
5 Dictionaries 46
5.1 Earliest dictionaries vs. today's dictionaries 46
5.2 Computer technology and dictionary-making 47
5.3 Electronic dictionaries 48
5.4 Exercises 51
6 Vocabulary and the Internet 52
6.1 Academic and specialized vocabulary 52

6.2 Digital and technological lexicon 53
6.3 Professional and communication vocabulary 54
6.4 Advanced and sophisticated vocabulary 55
6.5 Exercises 56
References 58

List of abbreviations

AmE	American English/North American English
AusE	Australian English
BrE	British English/Irish English
CanE	Canadian English
e.g.	for example (Latin: exempli gratia)
esp.	especially
etc.	and the rest or and other things (Latin: et cetera)
fml	formal
GA	General American
GE	General English
i.e.	that is (Latin: id est)
IndE	Indian English
infml	informal
IrE	Irish English
joc.	jocular
PK English	Pakistani English
RP	Received Pronunciation
sb	somebody, someone
ScoE	Scottish English
sl.	slang

List of figures and tables

Figure 1	Cambridge Dictionary
Figure 2	Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English Online
Figure 3	Collins Dictionary
Figure 4	Merriam-Webster Dictionary
Figure 5	Oxford English Dictionary
Figure 6	Oxford Collocation Dictionary

Table 1	Traditional British and American words and expressions
Table 2	Strong collocations
Table 3	Verb + Noun collocations
Table 4	Noun + Verb collocations
Table 5	Register and collocation

Introduction

To study any foreign language effectively, the learner needs to focus on mastering grammar, building a broad vocabulary, and developing receptive and productive skills. Words, the smallest independent meaningful units, are the substance, body, and material that give life to communication, just as flesh gives the form to a skeleton. English, due to its historical development, is considered to have one of the largest vocabularies of any language.

The textbook *English Lexicology – Linguistic Seminar 4* focuses on the most problematic areas for the learner of English. It aims to help learners produce natural English. To do this, they need to be aware of the nuances of a word. Apart from the stylistic use of words, the emotionally marked and emotionally neutral vocabulary, and the differentiation with respect to the time axis (topics studied in a course in *English Lexicology*), we put emphasis on the geographical variations of English. The learner needs to distinguish between terms such as "Standard English", "language variety", "geographical variety", "national standard", "American English", "British English", "regional variant", and "local dialect". Moreover, learners have great difficulty in identifying Briticisms or Americanisms (despite encountering some of them in primary school; A1 and A2 CEFR levels) and providing their corresponding regional equivalents.

In analyzing any type of literary text, the learner usually faces difficulty to distinguish between compounds and collocations. The second chapter explains compounding as one of the principal word-formation processes, it describes how compounds are created and spelled, and provides a classification of compounds. In addition, as many students of different nationalities are enrolled in the study program *English Language and Anglophone Cultures*, it may be useful not only for the Slovak students but also for them to compare some English, Czech, and Slovak compounds discussed by some prominent Czech and Slovak scholars.

Working with collocations will make any learner of English realize how much more they need to learn. Reaching native language speaker competence in a language is not just about learning lists of words and grammar. Making the connections between individual words of the language is equally important. The third chapter deals with a classification of collocations, describes grammatical categories of collocation, stresses the importance of register when using collocations, as well as provides short lists of general advanced collocations and academic collocations.

Idioms are commonly used in all types of language, informal and formal, spoken and written. One of the main problems the learner of English has with idioms is that it is often impossible to guess the meaning of an idiom from the words it contains. The learner's language skills will increase rapidly if they can understand idioms, proverbs and sayings and use them confidently and correctly. Therefore, this chapter discusses different types of idioms, as well as paremiological expressions, and looks briefly at the origin of idioms.

In the past, writing and editing a print dictionary was a painstaking job for lexicographers. Similarly, the use of print dictionaries was time-consuming for learners if they needed to consult a dictionary to check the meaning of a dictionary entry. They had to take different dictionaries from the shelf and look it up. However, computers changed all this. Dictionaries are now stored in complex, highly structured databases which enable learners to have access to their favorite one or multiple other dictionaries at the same time. Therefore, this chapter looks at the most frequently used dictionaries to help learners to overcome these problems.

In the digital era, the learner's vocabulary can be expanded greatly via the Internet that offers the Academic Word List and subject-specific terminology, a glossary that provides terminological overviews of key Internet-related terms. These tools help learners understand and make informed decisions about their daily online activities. Furthermore, the Internet provides professional and communication vocabulary related to remote work, collaboration terminology, as well as advanced, sophisticated vocabulary.

It is a well-known fact that the same idea may be expressed differently in different situations by different people. Also, restrictions in using vocabulary may be determined by social and academic settings. It is extremely important to pay more attention to these problematic areas to help learners of English produce more natural, appropriate, and professional written and spoken discourse.

1 Use of words – Geographical variations of English

English is used as the national or official language across the core Anglosphere. At the national level, Canada, Ireland, and New Zealand recognize English as a *de jure* (statutory) official language. In contrast, the United Kingdom (the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland), Australia, Antigua and Barbuda, and the United States (the United States of America) do not have English designated as a *de jure* official language, but it functions universally as the *de facto* working language for their governments.

English is the official or semi-official language of communication in many countries throughout the world, as it was gradually introduced to different parts of the world. As of 2025, there are 58 sovereign states and 28 non-sovereign entities where English is an official language. Many administrative divisions have declared English an official language at the local or regional level. Most states where English is an official language are former territories of the British Empire. Exceptions include Rwanda and Burundi, which were formerly German and then Belgian colonies; Cameroon, where only part of the country was under the British mandate; and Liberia, the Philippines, the Federated States of Micronesia, the Marshall Islands, and Palau, which were American territories.

In some countries of the following continents, English is the only and official language, or it is also accompanied with other official language(s), or it is used as a national language, e.g.: In **Africa**: Botswana, Cameroon (also French), Eritrea (no official language; 9 national languages; English and Arabic – as *de facto* working languages), The Gambia, Ghana, Kenya (also Swahili), Lesotho, Liberia, Malawi, Mauritius, Namibia, Nigeria, Rwanda (also French, Swahili), Seychelles (French, Seychellois Creole), Sierra Leone, South Africa (12 official languages), South Sudan, Sudan (also Arabic), Swaziland (or Eswatini; also Swati), Tanzania (also Swahili), Uganda (also Swahili), Zambia, and Zimbabwe (16 official languages).

In **America**: Antigua and Barbuda, The Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Canada (also French), Dominica, Grenada, Guyana, Jamaica, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia (English – an official language; vernacular languages: Saint Lucian French Creole), Saint Vincent and The Grenadines, Trinidad and Tobago, and The United States of America.

In **Oceania**: Australia (English – a national language), Fiji (also Fijian, Fiji Hindi), Kiribati (also Kiribati), The Marshall Islands (also Marshallese), The Federated States of Micronesia, Nauru, New Zealand (also Māori, New Zealand Sign Language), Palau (also Palauan), Papua New Guinea (also Hiri Motu, Tok Pisin, PNG Sign Language), Samoa (also Samoan), Solomon Islands (also Lingua franca – Pijin), Tonga (also Tongan), Tuvalu (also Tuvaluan), and Vanuatu (also French, Bislama).

In **Asia**: India (also Hindi), Pakistan (also Urdu), Philippines (also Filipino), and Singapore (also Malay, Tamil, Singaporean Mandarin; Malay – a national language).

In **Europe**: Ireland (also Irish – a national and first official language), Malta (also Maltese), The United Kingdom (English – the *de facto* official/main language), and Gibraltar.

It needs to be added that English as a "second official language" in countries like India and many others is one of the most commonly spoken languages, because it is spoken as the official language, the second official language (in the former British colonies), and as the foreign language having the status of "lingua franca".

English is the official working language of the Commonwealth of Nations and of the Association of South Asian Nations (ASEAN). It is also one of the official languages of the United Nations, the European Union, the African Union, the Organisation of Islamic

Cooperation, the Caribbean Community, the Union of South American Nations, and many other international organizations.

A closer look at English in these countries reveals that there are many regional differences, particularly in the area of pronunciation (e.g., *task* in RP: /tɑːsk/, in GA: /tæsk/). The differences also include vocabulary and grammar (BrE: *supervisor*, AmE: *adviser*, BrE: *I have got, be in hospital, go to university*, AmE: *I have gotten, be in the hospital, to/at a university*).

When discussing **geographical variations** of English, the learner needs to distinguish between these terms: "Standard English," "national standards," ("geographical varieties") "regional variants," and "local dialects".

1.1 Standard English and geographical varieties

Most words can be used in any variety of English, but some are limited to particular parts of the English-speaking world. With regard to orthography, word usage and grammatical forms, a variety of English that cuts across regional boundaries and embraces what is common in each – core of all varieties – is referred to as **Standard English** (General English, GE). This term refers to both an actual variety of language and an idealized norm of English acceptable in many social situations. As a **language variety**, it is the language used in most public discourse and in the regular operation of American social institutions. The news media, the government, the legal profession, as well as teachers, lecturers, academics, and researchers at schools and universities, all view Standard English as their proper mode of communication, primarily in expository and argumentative writing, but also in public speaking. Writers and editors look at standard English as a model in which they work.

"Standard English is thus different from what is normally thought of as speech in that Standard English must be taught, whereas children learn to speak naturally without being taught. Naturally, it shares with spoken English certain features common to all forms of language. It has rules for making grammatical sentences. The issues of pronunciation, for instance, involve how to pronounce specific written words or written letters, such as *ch* or *g*, in different words" (Berube, Pickett, & Leonesio, 2005, p. xiv).

We need to know Standard English, but we need to know it critically, analytically, and in the context of language history. We also need to understand the regularity of non-standard variants. If we approach good and bad grammar in this way, the study of language will be a liberating factor – not merely freeing learners from socially stigmatized usage by replacing that usage with new linguistic manners, but educating them in what language and linguistic manners are all about (Battistella, 2005).

Nonstandard English includes many expressions and grammatical constructions that are not normally used in Standard English. These include regional expressions, such as *might could*, and other usages, such as *ain't* and *it don't*, that are typically associated with varieties of English used by people belonging to less prestigious social groups. An expression labelled "non-standard" is thus inappropriate for ordinary usage in Standard English (Berube et al., 2005). Standard English is usually taught at schools and universities, used by the radio, television, and the press. It includes formal as well as informal variations of English, though the uniformity is most noticeable in neutral and more formal styles of written English.

Two main **geographical varieties** of English, sometimes called **national standards** (Quirk et al. 1972), are **British English** and **American English**. They are characterized by differences especially in vocabulary and usage (lexico-semantic features), grammar and spelling, as well

as in pronunciations, e.g., *lift* /lɪft/ (A2) – *elevator* /ˈel.ə.veɪ.ţə/ (A2), *lorry* /ˈlɒr.i/ (B1) – *truck* /trʌk/ (B1), *labour* /ˈleɪ.bər/ – *labor* /ˈleɪ.bə˞/, *centre* /ˈsen.tər/ (A2) – *center* /ˈsen.ţə˞/, *cheque* /tʃek/ (A2) – *check* /tʃek/. Thus, we distinguish between **Americanisms**, i.e., words, phrases, speech sounds, and grammatical forms of English as spoken in the United States (e.g., *baby carriage*, *streetcar*, *have a green thumb*), and **Briticisms**, i.e., words, phrases, speech sounds, and grammatical forms typical of the United Kingdom (e.g., *pram*, *tram*, *have green fingers*).

British English has traditionally influenced the character of the language in Australia, New Zealand, India, Pakistan, Africa, and the West Indies. Canada, even though in some respects the variety follows British English, is increasingly affected by American English. However, the influence of American English is very strong all over the English-speaking world.

If vocabulary and grammar are strictly limited to the usage in some other region than Great Britain and the United States, we speak of Australian, New Zealand, West Indian (Caribbean), and South African English (sometimes also West African English), and Indian and Pakistani English. Scholars also distinguish between Scottish, Irish (Hiberno-English, Anglo-Irish), and Welsh English. These varieties, however, are "less distinct and less institutionalized" (Quirk et al. 1972). However, nowadays, a pluricentric approach to language teaching recognizes and validates multiple varieties of a language rather than focusing on a single "native" form. It emphasizes communicative competence and international intelligibility, treating linguistic diversity as a resource rather than an obstacle.

Pidgin English is an auxiliary language, used among people who do not have a common language. It is a simplified form of English (vocabulary, grammar) mixed with local language(s). If it is used as the first or principal language in the community where it is spoken, it is called **creole**. There are two main groups of English-based pidgins and creoles: the Atlantic varieties (West Indies, West Africa) and the Pacific varieties (Southeast Asia, South Sea Islands). Creole languages emerge from the blending of a dominant colonial language (e.g., Portuguese, English, French) with indigenous African or Asian languages. They often evolve from a simplified contact language, pidgin, which is created for communication between groups with no shared language.

Examples of lexical differences (peculiarities) in individual geographical varieties are provided in alphabetical order.

Australian English (AusE):

- ***arvo*** (infml, 'afternoon', e.g., *See you at home this arvo*.), ***beanie*** ('a hat made from wool with a small round wool ball on top', e.g., *In autumn, Sarah usually wears a beige beanie, a brown jacket, blue jeans, and brown shoes*.), ***beaut*** (infml, 'beautiful or very good', e.g., *Wouldn't it be beaut if we went on holiday to Greece together?*, *That was a beaut lunch.*), ***bushed*** ('lost or confused', esp. in the context of the 'bush'), ***chook*** (infml, 'a chicken', e.g., *We feed chooks for fresh eggs*.), ***cobber*** (old-fashioned, infml, 'a friend', used esp. by a man speaking to/about another man), ***crook*** (infml, 'bad or ill', e.g., *I'm a bit crook right now*.), ***fair dinkum*** (infml, 'honest(ly) or real(ly)', e.g., *They beat us fair dinkum*.), ***paddock*** ('a field of any size that is used for farming', e.g., *Visitors do not have access to the paddocks and the fences prevent close contact between visitors and animals.*), ***pom*** (also ***pommy***, infml, 'an offensive word for an English person'), ***swagman*** ('sb who does not have a permanent home or job and who moves from one place to another or from one job to another', e.g., *I was afraid of wandering swagmen.*), ***tube*** (infml, 'for a can or bottle of beer', e.g., *a tube of lager*), ***tucker*** (infml, 'food', e.g., *Do you have any tucker, dear?*, *a tucker bag*), ***waddy*** ('a heavy stick', e.g., *A waddy is a heavy club constructed of carved timber*.).

Lexical differences are small, but numerous in colloquial (casual, everyday) speech, containing various borrowings from local native languages. Some words exist in British English as old forms, e.g., ***frock*** (‘a dress’, e.g., *a little girl in a very pretty frock*), ***good day*** (also ***g’day***, infml, ‘hello’ or ‘hi’, ‘used as a greeting or when saying goodbye during the day’).

Canadian English (CanE):

- ***bateau*** (‘a specific type of boat’), ***clumper*** (‘a chunk of floating ice’, e.g., *The early Newfoundlanders, most of whom were fishermen, fashioned such words as quarr, clumper, sish and slob to describe local ice conditions*. [Wren, 1986]), ***pogey*** (CanE sl., ‘financial or other relief given to unemployed people by the government’, ‘dole’), ***soya pea*** (‘a small bean grown originally in Asia, used as a food for people and animals’), ***tuque*** (‘a small wool hat, esp. one with a tassel’ [‘decoration made of a group of short threads’]), e.g., *Khrystyna wears a red tuque and loves to make faces as a way of getting attention*.).

Indian and Pakistani English (IndE, PK English):

- ***backside*** (IndE, ‘the back part of sth’, e.g., *The door can be found on the backside of this building*.), ***co-brother*** (IndE, ‘the husband of your wife’s sister’), ***cousin-brother*** (IndE, ‘a male cousin’), ***cousin-sister*** (IndE, ‘a female cousin’), ***crore*** (IndE, ‘ten million’, e.g., *Private airlines owe a total of Rs 14,573 crore to state-run banks*.), ***eve-teasing*** (‘the act of annoying a woman or women in a public place, for example, by making sexual comments’), ***lakh*** (IndE, ‘the number 100,000’, e.g., *The total cost of the project will be around 30 lakh rupees*.), ***lathi*** (IndE, ‘a long, heavy stick, esp. one used as a weapon by police officers’), ***peon*** (IndE, ‘sb whose job is to work in an office doing jobs that do not need any particular skill’).

Irish English (IrE):

- ***begorrah*** (also ***begorra***, old-fashioned, infml, ‘an expression of surprise or emphasis, sometimes used to suggest that sb sounds Irish’, e.g., *Faith, bejaysus, and begorrah, it was terrible!*), ***colleen*** (‘a girl or young woman’).

Jamaican English (creole) (JAM):

- ***I and I*** (‘we’, ‘us,’ or ‘I’), ***foot*** (‘the entire leg and foot’), ***go small-small*** (‘go very slow’), ***im guo*** (‘he/she/it is going’ or ‘he/she/it goes’), ***im bin guo*** (‘he/she/it went’), ***yu*** (singular ‘you’), ***uno*** (also ***unu***, ‘you all’).

New Zealand English (NZE):

- ***bush sickness*** (NZE and AusE, ‘an animal disease caused by a cobalt deficiency in old bush country’), ***chilly bin*** (infml, ‘a portable insulated container with provision for packing food and drink in ice’), ***chur*** (‘an expression of agreement’, ‘thanks, cool, awesome’), ***dairy*** (‘a shop that remains open outside normal trading hours’, ‘a corner shop’), ***g’day*** or ***gidday*** (also AusE, ‘an informal variant of good day’), ***hoon*** (also AusE, infml, ‘a hooligan’), ***hooroo*** (also AusE, ‘goodbye, cheerio’), ***hoot*** (also AusE, a slang word for money), ***Jandal*** (trademark, ‘a type of sandal with a strip of material between the big toe and the other toes and over the foot’), ***kia ora*** (a Māori phrase used ‘as a greeting, for thanking sb, or for saying goodbye’).

Nigerian Pidgin English (NPE):

- *Di papa bin tok se: “My pikin, yu sabi se dey wit mi eni dei eni dei, an ol ting a getam na yu on*. (“‘My son’, the father said, ‘you are always with me, and everything I have is yours.’”) (Luke 15:31, The Parable of the Lost Son).

Scottish English (ScoE):

- ***aye*** (old use or Northern English, 'yes', e.g., *all those who support us say 'aye'*), ***bairn*** (or Northern English, 'a child', e.g., *Those are the most important years in a bairn's life*.), ***burn*** ('a small stream'), ***dram*** ('a small amount of a strong alcoholic drink, esp. whisky'), ***kirk*** ('a church', e.g., *Hospitals, schools, post offices, and kirks are essential to maintain our communities*.), ***lass*** (also ***lassie***, or Northern English, 'a girl or young woman', e.g., *I was born in England, and married a lass from Scotland*.), ***outwith*** ('outside', e.g., *22 percent of the students are from outwith Scotland*), ***pinkie*** (or AmE, also ***pinky***, 'a little finger', e.g., *a pinkie ring, In some lands it is custom to raise the last finger on the hand, or pinkie when drinking from a tea cup*.).

South African English (SAfrE):

- ***biltong*** ('meat that has been cut into long pieces, flavored with spices, and dried', e.g., *It is sometimes referred to as fish biltong*.); ***braai*** ('a meal prepared on a barbecue and eaten outside'), ***brinjal*** (also IndE, 'aubergine'), ***dorp*** ('a small town or village'), ***howzit*** (infml, 'hello'), ***lekker*** ('tasting or smelling very good, very pleasant to eat'), ***takkies*** ('light, comfortable shoe suitable for playing sports').

Welsh English (WelshE):

- ***butty*** (infml, 'friend'), ***bore da*** ('good morning'), ***Caerdydd*** ('Cardiff'), ***croeso*** ('welcome'), ***Cymraeg*** ('Welsh'), ***Cymru*** ('Wales'), ***diolch*** ('to thank'), ***hwyl fawr*** ('goodbye'), ***llymru*** ('flummery').

West African English (WAfE):

- ***you kari, he kari*** ('you, he carries'), ***i bin kam*** ('he came'), ***im don kam*** ('he has come'), ***him go*** ('he goes'), ***him binna go*** ('he was going'), ***chop bar*** ('a local traditional restaurant'), ***smallboy*** ('a house servant'), ***watchnight*** ('a night-watchman').

1.2 British English and American English – differences in lexis

There are two main geographical varieties of English, namely British English and American English. **American English** (AmE) is not considered to be a separate language but a geographical variety of English used in the United States. Its grammar and vocabulary, including word-formation processes, are essentially the same as that of British English (BrE). It is not a dialect because it has a literary normalized form, sometimes called **Standard American** (Kvetko, 2005). The American national standard is a slight modification of norms accepted in the British Isles. It differs from British English in pronunciation and vocabulary, though less in spelling and grammar, for instance, significant differences in American English can be illustrated by the following examples of informal money words, e.g., 1,000$ – a *grand*, 100$ – a *century*, 5$ – a *fiver* (infml), a *fin* (sl.), 1$ – a *buck*, 25C – a *quarter*, 10C – a *dime*, 5C – a *nickel*, and 1C – a *penny*.

From the historical point of view, Americanisms have their origin in Britain or the United States, or they were borrowed from other languages. The English language was brought to America at the beginning of 17th century (the first colony was located at Jamestown in 1607) and for more than three centuries it has developed independently being influenced by new objects, surroundings, conditions, technological, and cultural developments, the influence of other languages, and independent linguistic change.

In general, it can be said that, at the beginning, there were diverging tendencies in the relation between British and American English. Many words used currently in the United States

were originally used in Britain but have become obsolescent, dated, or are at present used only in British English dialects or formal styles, e.g., *fall* (*autumn*), *to guess* (*to think*), *homely* (*ugly*), *to loan* (*to lend*), and *rooster* (*cock*). Certain words changed their meanings, or acquired new meanings, e.g., *corn* (*maize*), *turnpike* ('a motorway where you have to pay').

Nowadays converging tendencies prevail. In many cases it is difficult to speak of Americanism or Briticism, as Americanisms have penetrated into Standard English and are used in all varieties, e.g., *belittle* (Americanism, 'disparage'), *bike* (both Americanism and Briticism), *boom* (Americanism), *boss* (Americanism), *boost* (Americanism), *briefcase* (Americanism, commonly used in both AmE and BrE), *bulldozer* (Americanism, commonly used in BrE), *cafeteria* (Americanism, widely used in BrE), *know-how* (Americanism, used throughout the English-speaking world), *jazz* (Americanism), *lengthy* (Americanism, now used globally), *OK* (Americanism, now used globally), *supermarket* (Americanism, now used worldwide), *Wild West* (Americanism, popular in BrE), etc. On the other hand, some (new) Briticisms have come to be used in the American variety, as well, e.g., *bank holiday*, *brunch*, *butter up*, *cooper* (*cop*), *dinner jacket*, *luggage*, *smog*, *tabloid*, etc.

It can be said that in some respects American English is more "conservative" but, on the other hand, in others, it is more "progressive" than British English. Its "conservativism" can be seen in vocabulary and pronunciation (*fall* – autumn, *half* /haef/), its progress is noticeable in lexical **neologisms** and in the tendencies to simplify the system in orthography and grammar, e.g., *colorize* ('to prepare a video version of a black-and-white film in which color tones have been added by means of a computer program'), *humor*, *check* ('money'), *nite* ('another spelling of night, used in less formal written English', e.g., *$50 per nite*), *ax* (also *axe*), *donut* ('doughnut'), *tho* ('non-standard spelling of though'), *thru* ('non-standard spelling of through'). While never extremely common, *tho* and *thru* have a long history of occasional use as spelling variants of *though* and *through.* Their greatest popularity occurred in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, when their adoption was advocated by spelling reformers. Their current use occurs chiefly in informal writing (as in personal letters) and in some technical journals. Other neologisms are, e.g., *U* ('you', e.g., *Shoes Fixed While U Wait*), *Xing* ('crossing, used esp. on road signs', e.g., *Deer Xing*, *school Xing*), *sox* ('an informal spelling of "socks", used, e.g., in the names of some US baseball teams who wear socks of a particular color'), *quitted*, *wetted* ('regular forms of some verbs in the past tense, also past participle'), etc.

1.3 British and North American academic vocabulary

In the preceding subchapter, it is clear that there are numerous differences in vocabulary between the English of the United Kingdom and Ireland and the English of the United States and Canada – the two dominant areas that have historically influenced English in many other parts of the world. However, there is also a large amount of mixing, and Americans and Canadians are often familiar with British and Irish usages and vice versa. Also, nowadays, due to global media and the Internet, American vocabulary is increasingly influencing and being imported into British, Irish, and international English. Other important varieties of English, such as Indian, Australian, African, and Caribbean, also have their own words and phrases, but perhaps, for historical reasons, have had less influence overall on international or academic usage.

Table 1 shows words and phrases that are commonly used in North American English, but which are not used, or used to a far less extent, in British and Irish English, and which are likely

to occur in academic texts or in general university contexts and student life (AmE – North American English, BrE – British/Irish English; McCarthy & O'Dell, 2016). Here is a list of some traditional British and American expressions.

Table 1. Traditional British and American words and expressions

North American English	**British/Irish English**	**North American English**	**British/Irish English**
adviser (C1)	supervisor (C1)	jack	socket
airplane	aeroplane	kindergarten	nursery school
alternate (adj)	alternative	legal holiday	bank holiday
antenna	aerial	license plate/tag	number plate
apartment	flat	line	queue (B1)
apartment building	block of flats	locker room	changing room
attorney	lawyer	lunchroom	dining hall
ATM (automated teller machine) cashpoint	cash machine	mail	post
bill (B1)	note (B1)	mall	shopping centre
cafeteria (A2)	canteen (B1)	mass transit, public transportation	public transport (B1)
candy (A2)	sweet(s) (A2)	movie	film
cart (B2)	trolley	movie theater (A1)	cinema (A2)
cell phone (A1)	mobile phone (A1)	normalcy	normality (C2)
checking account	current account	operating room	operating theatre
chips	crisps	outlet	socket
coach class	economy class	overpass	flyover
condominium, condo (infml)	block of flats	parentheses	brackets
cookie (A2)	biscuit (A1)	parking garage	multi-storey car park
cord	lead, cable	parking lot (A2)	car park (A2)
co-worker	workmate	penitentiary	prison (B1)
crosswalk	pedestrian crossing	period	full stop (B1)
dirt road	unpaved road, track	petroleum	crude oil
district attorney	public prosecutor	prenatal	ante-natal
divided highway	dual carriageway	private school	private school, public school
doctor's office	surgery (B2)	railroad (A2)	railway (A2)
dormitory	hall of residence	recess, break	break
downtown	town centre, city centre	restroom (A2), bathroom, washroom (CanE)	toilet, loo (infml)
(the) draft	conscription	resumé	curriculum vitae (CV)
drug store (B1)	chemist's (A2), pharmacy	round-trip ticket	return (ticket)
eggplant	aubergine	running shoes, sneakers	trainers
elementary school (B1)	primary school	sales clerk	shop assistant (A2)
elevator	lift	sales tax	VAT (value added tax)
emergency room	A and E (accident and emergency)	schedule (B1)	timetable (for buses B1, for school A2)
eraser (A1)	rubber (A2)	Scotch tape	Sellotape
faculty (B2)	staff, teaching staff	sever	waiter, waitress

fall	autumn (A2)	senior	pensioner, senior citizen
faucet (B1)	tap	sidewalk (B1)	pavement, footpath
field (B1)	pitch (B2)	social security number	national insurance number
flashlight (B2)	torch (B2)	stop lights	traffic lights
freeway	motorway	store (B1)	shop (A1)
(French) fries	chips	subway	underground (railway)
freshman, frosh	fresher (infml)	takeout	takeaway
furnace	central heating boiler	teller	cashier
garbage (B1), trash	rubbish (B1, B2), refuse (fml)	thumbtack	drawing pin
gas (A2)	petrol (A2)	tractor-trailer	articulated lorry, juggernaut
graduate study	postgraduate study	trashcan	(dust)bin
grounded	earthed	truck (B1)	lorry (B1), truck, wagon (infml)
high school	secondary school	two weeks	fortnight
highway (A2)	main road	vacation (A1)	holiday
intersection	crossroads (B2)	zee	zed
intermission (B1)	interval	zucchini (B2)	courgette (B2)
interstate (highway)	main/major road, motorway (A2)	zip code	postcode

In addition to these words and expressions, others can be met in everyday life in English-speaking countries, e.g., *prawn* (BrE, B2) – *shrimp* (AmE, B1, 'a small sea animal with a shell and ten legs, that can be eaten'), *coffin* (BrE) – *casket* (AmE, 'a long box in which the body of a dead person is buried or burned'), *homeroom* (AmE) – *form room* (BrE), *necktie* (AmE, C2) – *tie* (A2), *crisp* (BrE, A2) – *chip*, *potato chip* (AmE, A2), *parcel* (BrE, B1) – *package* (AmE), *luggage* (BrE, A2) – *baggage* (AmE, B1), *billfold* (AmE) – *wallet* (BrE, A2), *tram* (AmE, A2) – *streetcar* (BrE), *freight car* (AmE) – *wagon* (BrE), *pants* (AmE, A1) – *trousers* (BrE, A1), *subway* (AmE, A1) – *underground* (BrE, A2, also *the tube*), *tuxedo* (AmE) – *dinner jacket* (BrE), *childminder* (BrE) – *babysitter* (AmE, B1), *one-way (ticket)* (AmE) – *single (ticket)* (BrE, B1), and so forth.

1.4 Regional variants and local dialects

The vocabulary of Standard English and geographical varieties is contrasted with dialect words or **dialectisms**, i.e., words belonging to the local speech of certain areas. **Local dialects** are varieties of English spoken in some districts and having no normalized literary form. Regional varieties possessing a literary form are called **variants**. In the United Kingdom, there are two main variants, Scottish English and Irish English. In England, the principal dialect regions traced back to Old English dialects, are **Northern**, **Western**, **Midland**, **Eastern**, and **Southern** (Gajdáčová Veselá, 2019; Kvetko, 2005). In every region there are several dialects.

Local dialects undergo rapid changes under the pressure of the media and Standard English taught at schools, and their boundaries are less stable than they used to be in the past. Traditional dialectisms are disappearing, as many of the words are connected with a life that is passing (Kvetko, 2005). As the result of migration and the influence of the media and urban life, the distinctive features of dialects have a tendency to disappear. Dialects are preserved mostly in

rural communities, in the speech of elderly people. Their vocabulary is rather conservative, with words that are considered obsolete in Standard English, e.g., *beck* (Northern English, 'a small river'), *nought* ('nothing'), *parky* (of weather, 'quite cold'), or semantic dialectisms, e.g., *butty* (infml, 'sandwich') (Kvetko, 2005). **Scottish English** uses a number of special dialect words, e.g., *aye* (old use, also in Northern English, 'yes'), *dram* ('a small amount of a strong alcoholic drink'), *lassie* ('a girl'). **Northern Irish** also uses typical vocabulary, with typical phrases, e.g., *are ya away?* ('are you leaving'), *afeard* ('scared'), *ah* ('me'), *bladdered* ('very drunk'), *chippie* ('a fish and chips shop'), *fillum* ('movie'), etc.

Dialects have enriched the general usage, e.g., *chatter*, *hubbub*, *hoot* ('to make a short loud high sound'), or *smash* ('to break noisily'). Some original dialectisms are still used in current English as **archaisms**, or **poetic words**, e.g., *fain* ('gladly'), *lad* ('a boy or young man'), *lass* (also *lassie*, 'a girl or young woman'), *yon* (also *yonder*, 'over there').

One of the most distinct and well-known regional variants of English in the United Kingdom is **Cockney**, the traditional working-class dialect of London's East End. Cockney vocabulary is lively and witty, imaginative, and colorful. Its most famous feature is **rhyming slang**, in which some words are substituted by rhyming phrases, often shortened over time. For example, *boots* are called *daisy roots*, a *hat* is *tit for tat*, a *head* is *a loaf of bread*, a *wife* is *trouble and strife*, and a *fart* is a *raspberry tart*. In recent decades, **Estuary English** has also come into widespread use. This London-based accent is spoken by people living along the Thames Estuary and throughout the southeast of England; it occupies a middle ground, being less formal than Received Pronunciation (RP) but more standard than Cockney. Further north, because Yorkshire is the largest historic county in England, the **Yorkshire dialect** is widely spoken and possesses a rich vocabulary, including words like *bairn* ('a child'), *brass* ('money'), *scran* ('food'), *jammy* ('lucky'), etc. Other prominent British urban dialects include **Brummie** (spoken in Birmingham), **Scouse** (spoken in Liverpool), and **Geordie** (spoken in Newcastle).

In the United States, linguists divide American English into four or five primary micro-regional dialects: **the North**, **the Midland**, **the South**, **the West**, and **the Mid-Atlantic**. In a more detailed regional breakdown, these are often categorized as **the North/Inland North** (eastern Boston, New England, Chicago, the Great Lakes region), **the Mid-Atlantic** and **the Midland** (New York City, Philadelphia, Columbus), **the South** (spanning from Atlanta, Georgia, across to Houston, Texas), and **the West** (Los Angeles, Phoenix, Seattle).

1.5 Exercises

Exercise 1. In line with CEFR, try to identify A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, and C2 language levels of the words and expressions included in the Table 1. Explain the meanings, as well.

Exercise 2. Identify Americanisms and give their British-English equivalents.

1 In the fall, she is joining the faculty of the University of Hartford in Connecticut.
2 Travelling in coach class is not a great way to spend our time.
3 Every thirty minutes the flight attendant would wheel the drinks cart down the aisle.
4 We drove up a narrow dirt road to their house.
5 How fast does water flow out of your kitchen faucet?
6 I left the car in the parking garage.
7 The clinic wants to build a new 24-hour emergency room.

8 Robert avoided the draft because of a foot injury.
9 They also offer a variety of tickets including one-way, ten-trip, and round-trip tickets.
10 Many vegetables are botanical fruits, including tomato, bell pepper, eggplant, okra, squash, pumpkin, green bean, cucumber, and zucchini.

Exercise 3. Identify Briticisms and give their American-English equivalents.

1 The nearest hall of residence of the university is about two kilometres away.
2 If you come to the surgery at 11:45, the doctor will see you then.
3 It's impossible to park in the city centre.
4 I transfer my mortgage repayments monthly from my current account.
5 The cash machines must still be able to distribute national currencies.
6 Potatoes, aubergines, green and red peppers, and green tomatoes contain glycoalkaloids.
7 Using our electric torch as little as possible so as not to disturb the sleepers, we came to the main dressing room.
8 A permanent flyover, whether built to last for 100 or 200 years, clearly has to be a very strong structure.
9 Bachelor's students choose to undertake their own thesis, refining the scope of their research during their fifth and sixth terms with their supervisor's assistance.
10 The second lorry drew alongside the first and they both moved over the crossroads.

Exercise 4. Try to find some collocations with some of these words.
Example: *current account* (n) – *open a current account, a current account holder/customer*

1 antenatal ……
2 bill ……
3 field ……
4 interstate ……
5 pitch ……
6 prenatal ……
7 prison ……
8 railway ……
9 resumé ……
10 traffic light ……

Exercise 5. Choose 10 words from Table 1 and use them in your own sentences.

1 ……
2 ……
3 ……
4 ……
5 ……
6 ……
7 ……
8 ……
9 ……
10 ……

2 Compounds

Compounding, derivation, and conversion are more frequent than other types of processes when creating new words from existing lexical items; they are considered as principal word-formation processes (Bérešová, 2017; Kvetko, 2006). **Compounding** is a process in which a new word is created from at least two single words to express a new meaning. It differs from both derivation and inflection in that it does not involve combinations of roots and affixes, but roots with roots. Linguists approach compounds in a different way. For instance, Gajdáčová Veselá (2019) provides four classifications of compounds: (a) a basic classification (i.e., endocentric, exocentric, dvandva, bahuvrihi, rhyme-motivated, ablaut-motivated, and pseudo-compounds), (b) a classification based on the type of composition (i.e., without a connecting element, with a vowel or consonant, and with a preposition or conjunction), (c) a classification based on the word class (i.e., compound nouns, compound adjectives, and compound verbs), and (d) a classification based on spelling (i.e., closed compounds, open compounds, and hyphenated compounds).

2.1 Compounds – Putting roots together

Anderson et al. (2022) define **compounds** as words built from more than one root, noting that they can also be formed from derived words. Like other Germanic languages such as German and Dutch, English creates compounds very freely. Consequently, English compounds exhibit a wide variety of structural combinations and lexical categories, e.g.:

- **Noun-Noun** compounds: *busybody*, *city-state*, *football*, *keyboard*, *lighthouse*, *mailbox*, *moonbeam*, *notebook*, *post office*, *rainbow*, *ski suit*, *suntan*; *beekeeper*, *housekeeper*;
- **Adjective-Noun** compounds: *blackboard*, *full moon*, *hardware*, *high-class*, *hotplate*, *medium-term*, *shortbread*, *worthwhile*, *worldwide*;
- **Verb-Noun** compounds: *breakfast*, *cry-baby*, *daredevil*, *flashlight*, *pickpocket*, *killjoy*, *scarecrow*, *swimsuit*, *watchdog*;
- **Noun-Adjective** compounds: *baby-blue*, *duty-free*, *headstrong*, *homesick*, *knee-deep*, *user-friendly*, *world-famous*;
- **Adjective-Adjective** compounds: *bittersweet*, *full-blooded*, *clean-shaven*, *ill-assorted*, *open-ended*, *red-hot*, *sweet-natured*, *white-hot*;
- **Noun-Verb** compounds: *baby-sit*, *bloodstain*, *cherry-pick*, *corkscrew*, *firefight*, *haircut*, *proofread*, *sunrise*, *sunset*, *thunderstruck*, *waterfall*;
- **Adjective-Verb** compounds: *blacklist*, *clear-cut*, *double-check*, *quick-freeze*, *whitewash*.

Concerning the type of composition, some compounds are created without a connecting element, e.g., *rainbow*, *corkscrew*, and *blacklist*. However, others can be created with a vowel or a consonant, e.g., *sport**s**man*, *now**a**days*, as well as with preposition or conjunction stems, e.g., *son-**in**-law*, and *salt-**and**-pepper*.

The most common type of compounds is **compound nouns**, i.e., a combination of two nouns and having a function of a noun, e.g., *eyewitness*, *keyboard*, and *city state*, or a combination of an adjective and a noun, e.g., *blackbird*, and *hotplate*. Also, they include compounds based on phrasal verbs, e.g., *check-in*, *setup*, and *turnover*.

Compound adjectives are usually written with a hyphen and their meaning is clear from the words they combine with, e.g., *brand-new* (car), *cardboard* (cut-out of the President), *cast-off* (furniture), *easy-going* (type of guy), *well-off* (neighborhood), *worn-out* (clothes), and *pay-per-view* (television/channels).

Most **compound verbs** are converted from nouns, e.g., *blackmail, hitchhike, honeymoon, nickname, whitewash*, and so on.

2.2 Compounds and spelling

In English, compounds are not spelled in a consistent way. Some compounds – typically older ones – are spelled with a space, while others are spelled with a hyphen, and many new compounds are spelled with spaces, as though they are separate words.

It can be said that some sequences of "words" are compounds, though, in a few different ways. First of all, there is a difference in **pronunciation**. Compounds are always stressed on their first member, while phrases get stress on their last member. So, the compounds *blackboard* /ˈblæk.bɔːd/, *greenhouse* /ˈgriːn.haʊs/, and *bluebird* /ˈbluː.bɜːd/ are pronounced differently than the corresponding phrases with adjectives followed by nouns *black board* /blækˈbɔːd/, *green house* /griːnˈhaʊs/, and *blue bird* /bluːˈbɜːd/.

Another difference is in the **interpretation**, for example, a *blackboard* does not need to be black, and a *greenhouse* usually is not green (even though green things are grown in it).

Finally, there is a **syntactic difference**. Something that can be seen is that there is no way to string nouns together in English syntax without connecting them with prepositions or verbs. So, any time a string of "words" can be seen in English that all look like nouns, the learner has to be dealing with a compound. English really likes building very long compounds out of nouns, despite the fact that this is something many English users associate with German where, unlike in English, compounds are always spelled as a single word or hyphenated without spaces. So, the learner gets words like the following example: *Donaudampfschiffahrtsgesellschaftskapitän*, *Donau-dampf-schiffahrts-gesellschafts-kapitän*, *'Danube steam shipping company captain'* (Anderson et al., 2022).

The second example inserts the hyphens in this German compound so that the learner can see the roots more clearly – but if one looks at the English translation, it actually tracks all the same nouns in the German example. English writing has just adopted the convention of writing long or novel compounds with spaces. Structurally, English compounds work just like their German counterparts.

Concerning the classification based on spelling (Gajdáčová Veselá, 2019), compounds are divided into **closed compounds**, i.e., those created by two words joined close together, e.g., *basketball*, *sometimes*, *sunflower*, etc. **Open compounds** are spelled with a space between the words; nevertheless, they are read together, and they create a new meaning, which is different from the meaning of the two words put next to each other, e.g., *full moon*, *middle class*, and *real estate*. Finally, **hyphenated compounds** are those whose two parts are connected with a hyphen, e.g., *half-brother*, *mother-in-law*, *well-being*, etc.

The rule for spelling compounds is not always clear. Moreover, the spelling may change with time, or it may depend on the variation of English. The only help then is to consult good dictionaries.

2.3 Compounds and headedness

If compounds include more than one root, one of them determines the category of the word. Most compounds – especially new ones that the learner might invent on the spot – have a **head**. The head of a compound determines its interpretation as well as its category, e.g., a *sunflower* (N-N) is a type of flower (interpretation) and it is a noun (category), so its head is *flower*; a *blackberry* (Adj-N) is a type of berry (interpretation), and it is a noun (category), so its head is *berry*. In English, the head of a compound is always on the right; English is a **right-headed** compound language.

Compounds that have a head are called **endocentric**. This is the same *endo-* morpheme one can find in *endoskeleton* ('a hard frame that supports the body of a vertebrate animal on the inside, made of bone or cartilage'). An animal with a skeleton inside of it is *endoskeletal*, and a compound with a head inside of it is endocentric. According to Gajdáčová Veselá (2019), in endocentric compounds, the two constituent elements are clearly the **determinant** (the part which modifies) and **determinatum** (the part that is being modified), e.g., *ashtray, mousetrap, stepladder*, etc.

On the other hand, *exoskeletal* animals, e.g., insects and crustaceans, have a carapace ('a hard outer layer that covers, supports, and protects the body of an invertebrate animal') instead of an internal skeleton. Compounds that do not have a head inside of them – i.e., they do not describe either of their members – are called **exocentric**. Gajdáčová Veselá (2019) says that in exocentric compounds, the determinatum is not expressed, e.g., *hangover*, or *killjoy*. Some exocentric compounds do not have an interpretive head, but still have what the learner might call a category head, in that the root on the right matches the category of the whole compound. For instance, a *redhead* ('a person whose hair is an orange-brown color') is often listed as an exocentric because it does not describe a type of head. A *spoilsport* ('a person who stops other people from enjoying themselves') is not a type of sport, but it is still a noun. These adjective-noun and verb-noun compounds are themselves nouns, so their right-hand member acts almost as a head.

However, other exocentric compounds do not even have a head in this sense. For example, *outcome* looks like a compound of a preposition and a verb, but it is a noun, *dust-up* is a compound of a noun and a preposition, but it is a noun, and *tell-all* is a compound of a verb and a determiner, but it is an adjective.

There is a special kind of compound usually called **dvandva compounds**. This term comes from Sanskrit, where *dvandva* means 'pair'. Dvandva compounds can be thought of as 'co-headed' – they can be paraphrased with an 'and' between the two members. Many dvandva compounds in English involve two roots that only occur in the compound, and that mirror each other's sounds. These are sometimes called reduplicatives, for instance, *zigzag, flip-flop, riff-raff, hocus-pocus*. But there are also some other dvandva compounds, e.g., *bittersweet, secretary-treasurer, parent-child* (as in 'a parent-child bond'), or *blue-green* (and many other terms for intermediate colors). Overall, dvandva compounds are less common than other types of compounds in English (Anderson et al., 2022).

Apart from dvandva compounds, e.g., *Coca-Cola, Marks and Spencer, Johnson and Johnson, cash and carry*, and *plug and play*, Gajdáčová Veselá (2019) also describes **bahuvrihi compounds**, where a person, an animal or a thing is metonymically named after some striking feature, e.g. *bigwig, skinhead*, and *white collar*; **rhyme-motivated compounds**, e.g., *helter-skelter, hurry-scurry*, and *teeny-weeny*; **ablaut (vowel change) motivated**, e.g., *mish-mash, shilly-shally*, and *tip-top*; and **pseudo-compounds**, e.g., *hamburger* and *mayday*, which are not

compounds at all; they were created by ‘folk etymology’; and the words created by **semi-affixes** which may be considered derivatives as well as compounds, since the full meaning of the affixoid is now considered to be weakened.

2.4 Compounds in Czech, Slovak, and English

Czech, Slovak, and English feature **Germanic**-style compounds in which the determining component precedes the determined component, e.g., *earthquake* and *waterfall*. They also feature **Romance**-style compounds in which the determined component precedes the determining component, e.g., *pickpocket* (‘thief’, ‘kapesní zloděj’, ‘vreckový zlodej’), *sawbones* (dated, joc., ‘surgeon’, ‘řezník’, ‘mäsiar’), and *scarecrow* (‘a model of a person dressed in old clothes and put in a field of growing crops to frighten birds away’, ‘strašiak do kapusty’) (Dušková a kol., 1991).

In English, compounds are often written as one word, e.g., *bedroom*, *bricklayer* (‘a person who builds walls or buildings using bricks, especially as a job’, ‘zedník’, ‘murár’), *airtight* (‘completely closed so that no air can get in or out’, ‘vzduchotěsný’), *drawbridge* (‘a bridge that can be raised or brought down to protect a castle from attack or to allow big boats to go under it’, ‘zdvíhací most’). The dependent form of the first component or the connecting vowel, characteristic of a flectional language (cf. *brat**o**vrah*, *šedomodrý*), occurs in English only in compounds containing foreign elements, e.g., *Anglo-Saxon* (adj), or *speed**o**meter* (‘a device in a vehicle that shows how fast the vehicle is moving’). However, the spelling of compounds varies, apart from being written as one word, e.g., *daylight*, *windmill*, and *headache*, there is also spelling with a **hyphen**, e.g., *by-stander*, *ice-cream*, and *socio-economic* (Bilá, Kačmárová, Kášová, et al., 2015), *self-esteem* (‘belief and confidence in your own ability and value’, ‘sebaúcta’), and moreover, some compounds are written in both ways, e.g., *head(-)master*, *frost(-)bite* (‘injury to sb caused by severe cold, usually to their toes, fingers, ears or nose, that causes permanent loss of tissue’), *flash(-)light* (BrE, ‘torch’). There is also a separate writing, and a hyphen is next to it (writing a hyphen is common in BrE, whereas in AmE it is more common to write them together or separately), e.g., *ice cream* / *ice-cream*, *frying pan* / *frying-pan* (often used in older texts or dictionaries) (Bilá, Kačmárová, Kášová et al., 2015), *washing machine* / *washing-machine*, *fire engine* / *fire-engine*, *waiting room* / *waiting-room*, *diving suit* / *diving-suit*. In these cases, the criterion for a composite is the stress structure (most often the unifying main stress on the first component) and a specialized meaning (the meaning of the composite is usually narrowed to special case(s) of the respective meaning). However, there is a smooth transition between composites and word combinations.

As the given examples and their equivalents show, individual compounds in English and Czech and Slovak do not correspond to each other, e.g., *lazy-bones* (compound: ‘sb who is lazy’, derived word: ‘lenoch’, ‘lenivec’, ‘povaľač’), *corn* (simple word: ‘a small, painful area of hard skin that forms on the foot, esp. on the toes’, fixed expression: ‘kuří oko’, ‘kurie oko’), and *warship* (compound: ‘a ship supplied with guns, for use in war’, fixed expression: ‘válečná loď’), etc.

In both languages, there are also **bahuvrihi compounds**, which name a whole by highlighting one of its parts, e.g., *Bluebeard* (‘a man who marries and kills one wife after another’, ‘Modrovous’, ‘Modrofúz’). Also, in this type, the individual cases in English and Czech do not often correspond to each other, compare, *hunchback* (‘a person who has back with a large, round lump on it, either because of illness or old age, or the lump itself’, ‘hrbáč’),

chatterbox (‘sb, esp. a child who talks a lot’, ‘žvanil’, ‘mluvka’), *redhead* (‘a person whose hair is an orange-brown color’, ‘zrzek’, ‘zrzka’).

In English, there are also two types of compounds that are rare in Czech or Slovak. On the one hand, there is the type based on **blending** – that is, a new word (**blend**, **portmanteau word**) is formed by omitting the end of the first component and the beginning of the second component, such as *brunch* (breakfast + lunch), *smog* (smoke + fog), *motel* (motorists’ hotel), *Eurovision* (European television), and *shamateur* (sham + amateur), etc. On the other hand, the second type is represented by the so-called **quotation compounds**, which arise by transferring part of a sentence to different syntactic environment, e.g., *What you need is a pick-me-up*. (‘sth that will make you feel better, often a drink or a tonic, ‘type of medicine’, ‘životabudič’), *a happy-go-lucky sort of attitude towards life* (‘a person that accepts what happens without becoming worried’, ‘bezstarostný’), *the diehards* (‘sb who is unwilling to change or give up their ideas or ways of behaving, even when there are good reasons to do so’), *hard-core* (‘extreme, hard-core conservatives’, ‘tvrdošijní konzervatívci’), *an out-of-the-way place* (‘far from places where many people live or usually go’, ‘a remote place’, ‘odľahlé miesto’), *a forget-me-not* (‘a small garden plant with blue or pink flowers that grows from seed every year’, ‘pomněnka’, ‘nezábudka’), *hard-to-find items* (‘goods and products that are difficult to acquire or buy’, ‘úzkoprofilový tovar’), etc. **Quotation compounds** are a very productive type and often arise *ad hoc*, e.g., *the swallowed-up-by-the-earth theory* (the theory that he sank into the ground), *the garden had that neglected, ‘somebody-else-can-do-it’ look so often found in communal property* (the garden looked neglected as is often the case with common property, because it can be done by sb else’ [Dušková a kol., 1991]).

2.5 Exercises

Exercise 1. You are provided with a list of words including the first component ‘*eye*’ and the second component, as well as a denotative meaning.

Firstly, identify if the following lexical units are compounds, if so, what kind, e.g., *compound noun*, *open*, *closed*, *endocentric*, *exocentric*, etc.

Secondly, identify all the collocations or idioms containing the element ‘*eye*’.

Thirdly, use five compounds or idioms from your list in your own sentences.

Example: *eyeball* (n) – 1. closed compound, consisting of N-N, ***eyeball*** (v) infml, e.g., *They **eyeballed** us suspiciously before speaking*; 2. ***eyeball to eyeball*** – if two people are eyeball to eyeball, they are directly facing each other, esp. in an angry or threatening way, *an **eyeball-to-eyeball** confrontation*

eyelet (n) – a hole surrounded by a metal ring that is put in leather or cloth so that a string can be passed through it (shoe) – the word is derived from ‘eye’ but it is a single morpheme, it is not a compound; it comes from the Old French word ‘oillet’ (‘little eye’).

eyelid (n) – is considered an **endocentric compound**, as its meaning is directly related to its individual parts, i.e., a ‘lid’ for the ‘eye’.

1 *eyebrow* (n) – 1. the line of hair above your eye, 2. …, 3. …
2 *eyebrow pencil* (n) – a special pencil you can use to make your eyebrows darker
3 *eye-catching* (adj) – sth that is eye-catching is unusual or attractive in a way that makes you notice it

4 *eyeglass* (n) – 1. a lens – for one eye, worn to help you see better with that eye; monocle, 2. eyeglasses BrE old-fashioned, or AmE – a pair of glasses
5 *eyelash* (n) – 1. one of the small hairs that grow along the edge of your eyelids, 2. …
6 *eyeful* – (n) – 1. an amount of liquid, dust, or sand that has got into sb's eye, 2. sl. …, 3. spoken esp. BrE
7 *eye level* (n) – a height equal to the level of your eyes
8 *eyelid* (n) – 1. the two pieces of skin that cover your eye when it is closed, 2. …
9 *eye-opener* (n) – 1. a situation, event, etc. from which you learn sth surprising, or sth that you did not know before, 2. …
10 *eye patch* (n) – a piece of material worn over one eye, usually because that eye has been damaged
11 *eye pencil* (n) – an eyeliner
12 *eye shadow* (n) – a colored substance that you put on your eyelids to make your eyes look more attractive
13 *eye strain* (n) – a pain you feel in your eyes, e.g., because you are tired or have been reading a lot
14 *eye tooth* (n) – one of the long-pointed teeth at the corner of your mouth, 2. spoken
15 *eye wash* (n) – 1. a special liquid used for washing your eyes when they are sore, 2. BrE spoken, old-fashioned ….

Exercise 2. Say whether these words are compounds or not.

paperback, paperboy, paper chase, paperclip, paper doll, paper fastener, paper girl, paperhanger, paper knife, paper money, paper-pusher, paper round, paper route, paper shop, paper-thin, paper towel, paperweight, paperwork

……
……
……
……
……
……
……

Exercise 3. Form as many compounds as you can with these roots.

1 mouth- e.g., mouth organ, mouthpiece, mouthwash, mouth-watering
……
……
……
2 mother-
……
……
……
3 steam-
……
……
……

4 -tree

……
……
……

5 -woman e.g., businesswoman, chairwoman

……
……
……

6 -boy

……
……
……

Exercise 4. Form compound adjectives based on the phrases below.

1 a girl with red hair ……
2 a bottle with a long neck ……
3 a man with a bald head ……
4 a table with three legs ……
5 a pullover with long sleeves ……
6 a rake with a long handle ……
7 a fellow with an open heart ……
8 hands as cold as stone ……
9 hair as grey as silver ……
10 a man who does most things with his left hand ……

Exercise 5. Analyze the structure of the following words. What types of compounds can you find?

1 seagull ……
2 stay-at-home ……
3 heartbroken ……
4 Anglo-Saxon ……
5 ladybird ……
6 father-in-law ……
7 up-to-date ……
8 daybreak ……
9 hot-blooded ……
10 good-for-nothing ……
11 undertaker ……
12 merry-go-round ……

Exercise 6. Fill in the gaps with an appropriate compound word.

1 *houseboat*, *boathouse*
His brother lives on a …… on the Thames.
The crew of eight carried their boat into the …… .
2 *bookcase*, *casebook*
The doctor wrote down the details of some of his most interesting cases in his ……
…… .

He kept his …… in his …… .

3 *basketwork*, *workbasket*
In some countries the blind are taught to do little else than …… .
She kept all her sewing and knitting material in a …… .

4 *housework*, *workhouse*
My mother has a woman to help her with the …… .
Others could not even gain admittance to the …… .

Exercise 7. Fill in the gap with an appropriate compound noun formed from a phrasal verb.

1 *build-up*, *getup*, *send-back*, *standby*
The patrol reported a big …… of forces on the border.

2 *blackout*, *hangover*, *mix-up*, *shout-down*
He awoke the morning after the wild party with a …… .

3 *sell-out*, *throwback*, *throughout*, *turnout*
There was a big …… at the station to welcome back the famous poet.

4 *go-between*, *play-off*, *roundup*, *write-up*
She acted as a …… for Peter and Ann and eventually arranged their meeting.

5 *breakdown*, *shakedown*, *smash-up*, *switchback*
The TV announcer apologized for the …… during the programme.

6 *blow-out*, *breakdown*, *go-by*, *showdown*
When it came to a …… she was not prepared to fight for what she believed in.

7 *getaway*, *run-off*, *turnout*, *walkout*
The thieves made a quick …… from the place in a fast car.

Exercise 8. Complete the following sentences with the correct option.

1 A stand-in is a person who …… .
   a is always one of the last to leave a party
   b serves as a substitute
   c keeps his clothes neat and tidy

2 A runner-up is …… .
   a a person who lives very expensively and has many debts
   b a person/team finishing second in a race
   c a kind of climbing plant

3 A warm-up is a period in which a person …… .
   a becomes more impatient
   b prepares a hot meal
   c prepares himself/herself actively for a game or performance

4 Mrs Greene gave her daughter a good dressing-down because …… .
   a she had been rude to her grandfather
   b she wanted her to look best for the party
   c her clothes were dirty

3 Collocations

Language is basically a "compositional" process in which many of its words occur together forming single units of meaning. Nattinger (in Carter & McCarthy, 1988, p. 76) calls them "lexical phrases" or "word combinations"; and "collocations" are among the other terms for lexical phrases. However, collocations themselves range from "lexico-grammatical units" to "free combinations". The term **collocation** is actually only one among other terms for a similar concept: "word combination." Nattinger and DeCarrico define collocations as "strings of words that seem to have a certain mutual expectancy, or a greater-than-chance likelihood that they will co-occur in any text" (Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992, p. 21). In addition, explanations provided by Benson and Ilson (1986, as cited in Bahns, 1993, p. 57), Bilá and Kačmárová (2016), Bilá, Kačmárová, Kášová et al. (2015) state that there are many fixed, identifiable, non-idiomatic phrases and constructions in English. Such groups of words are called recurrent combinations, or collocations.

The notion "collocation" was first brought into prominence by Firth (1957), and since then it has become increasingly important. Possibly the best place to start a discussion of collocation is with Sinclair's (1991) distinction between the open-choice principle and the idiom principle. The **open-choice principle** tries to cover the idea that language is creative, and, in most instances, there is a wide variety of possible words that could be put into any "slot." This is the traditional way of viewing language, and Sinclair states that "virtually all grammars are constructed on the open-choice principle" (Sinclair, 1991, p. 110). However, complementary to this freedom of choice, he notes that language also has a systematicity that constrains vocabulary choice in discourse, constraints that the open-choice principle does not capture. To some extent, this systematicity merely reflects real-world phenomena, e.g., *fishing* is often done in close physical proximity to a *lake*, so the words expressing these concepts will naturally co-occur, too. But much of the systematicity is strictly linguistic: there is no reason why we do not say **to put sth on fire*, but fluent members of the English-speaking community know that the appropriate phrase is *to set/start sth on fire*. The **idiom principle** highlights the fact that there are regularities in how words co-occur with each other; collocation is the term that covers this notion.

Two factors are key to the notion of collocation. The first is that words occur together and the second is that these relationships have varying degrees of exclusivity. A commonly given example of collocation involves the word *blonde* which occurs almost exclusively with the word *hair* and a few other animate nouns like *woman* or *lady*. But it never occurs with words such as *paint*, *wallpaper*, or *flowers*, even though there is no reason semantically why they should not fit together. Because *blonde* has such an exclusive relationship with *hair*, they are said to **collocate strongly**. Most words do not collocate thus robustly, however. Sometimes the collocation can be much weaker, as in the case of the word *nice* which commonly occurs with almost any noun that one would want to associate with pleasantness, such as a *nice view*, a *nice car*, or a *nice salary*. These combinations could be said to **collocate weakly**. Some words combine so indiscriminately that there is not enough exclusivity to warrant the notion of collocation. An example is the word *the*, which co-occurs with virtually every common noun. So, to collocate, words must co-occur in discourse, but there must also be an element of exclusiveness (Schmitt, 2000).

Collocations are not just a matter of how adjectives combine with nouns. They can refer to any kind of typical word combination, for example, **verb + noun** (e.g., *arouse sb's interest*,

lead a seminar), **adverb + adjective** (e.g., *fundamentally different*), **adverb + verb** (e.g., *flatly contradict*), **noun + noun** (e.g., *a lick of paint, a team of experts, words of wisdom*) (O'Dell & McCarthy, 2008).

Phrasal verbs (e.g., *come up with, run up, adhere to*) and compound nouns (e.g., *economy drive, stock market*) are sometimes described as types of collocations. However, O'Dell and McCarthy (2008) consider them as individual lexical items and so they include them in their book only in combination with something else, e.g., *come up with a suggestion, run up a bill, adhere to your principles, go on an economy drive, play the stock market*, etc.

3.1 Strong, fixed, and weak collocations

A **strong collocation** is one in which the words are very closely associated with each other. For instance, the adjective *mitigating* almost always collocates with *circumstances* or *factors*; it rarely collocates with any other word, e.g., Although she was found guilty, the jury felt there were *mitigating circumstances.* ('factors or circumstances that lessen the blame'). Here are some other examples of strong collocations.

Table 2. Strong collocations (Adapted from *O'Dell & McCarthy, 2008*)

Collocation	**Comment**
Inclement weather was expected.	(very formal) unpleasant weather; *inclement* collocates almost exclusively with *weather*
She has *auburn hair*.	*auburn* only collocates with words connected with hair (e.g., *curls, tresses, locks*)
I felt *deliriously happy*.	extremely happy; strongly associated with *happy*; not used with *glad, content, sad*, etc.
The chairperson *adjourned the meeting*.	have a pause or rest during a meeting/trial; *adjourn* is very strongly associated with *meeting, trial*

Fixed collocations are collocations so strong that they cannot be changed in any way. For example, you can say 'I was walking *to and fro*' ('in one direction and then in the opposite direction, a repeated number of times'). No other words can replace *to* or *fro*, or *and* in this collocation. It is completely fixed. The meaning of some fixed collocations cannot be guessed from the individual words. These collocations are called **idioms** and are focused on in the book *English Idioms in Use* (O'Dell & McCarthy, 2010).

Weak collocations are made up of words that collocate with a wide range of other words. For instance, you can say you are *in broad agreement* with someone ('generally in agreement with them'). However, *broad* can also be used with a number of other words – *a broad avenue, a broad smile, broad shoulders, a broad accent* ('a strong accent'), *a broad hint* ('a strong hint'), and so on. These are weak collocations, in the sense that *broad* collocates with *a broad range* of different nouns.

Strong collocations and weak collocations form a continuum, with stronger ones at one end and weaker ones at the other. Most collocations lie somewhere between the two. For example, the (formal) adjective *picturesque* collocates with *village, location,* and *town*, and so appears near the middle of the continuum.

stronger ← ---------- → weaker

inclement weather	*picturesque village*	*broad hint*
	picturesque location	*broad accent*
		broad smile

(Adapted from *O'Dell & McCarthy, 2008, p. 8*)

The collocations included in this chapter are all frequently used in modern English. All of them will be useful to the student as an advanced learner. Most attention is paid to those that are not predictable. For instance, *broad avenue* would be predictable by any student who knows *broad* and *avenue*. However, the use of broad to mean *strong* as in a *broad accent* is more difficult to predict. In their book, O'Dell & McCarthy (2008) provide lists of advanced collocations, discussing the following topics: 1. Work and study – Working life, New employment, Thoughts and ideas, Business reports, Customer services, Student life, Writing essays, assignments, and reports; 2. Leisure and lifestyle – Social life, Talking, News, Current affairs, Festivals and celebrations, Advertisements and fashion, Traffic and driving, Travel and adventure, Sport, Plans and decisions, Film and book reviews; 3. The modern world – Regulations and authority, The environment, Town and country life, Personal finance, The economy, Social issues, Science and technology, Health and medicine, Criminal justice, War and peace; 4. People – Friendship, Youth and age, Celebrities and heroes, Criticizing people, References, Appearance and personality; 5. Basic concepts – Time and space, Sound, Making things easier, Difficulty, Quantity and size, Change; and 6. Functions – Stopping and starting, Cause and effect, Describing groups and amounts, Comparing and contrasting, Making an effort, Social English, Discussing issues, Negative situations and feelings, Positive situations and feelings.

As can be seen, the following topics are only a fraction of topics that introduce advanced collocations. They have been chosen to study further and practice them in context.

Social life: *attend a formal function, call for a celebration, a convivial atmosphere, a family gathering, find time to pay sb a visit, a flying visit, girls' night out, go clubbing, go out for a meal, join the festivities, make sb welcome, the perfect venue, play host to, put in an appearance, social whirl, a special occasion, spend quality time, stick to diet, spring a surprise on, a surprise party, throw a party, a whirlwind visit, wine and dine*;

Student life: *acquire knowledge, attend school, sb's attention wanders, sb's concentration wavers, demonstrate an ability, a distinguished scholar, enroll on a course, formal education, full marks, a gifted child, graduate from university, learn sth by heart, a marked improvement, a mature student, meet the entry requirements, mental agility, a natural talent for sth, seats of learning, play truant, a proven ability, a quick learner, room for improvement, secure a place, show initiative, sign up for a course, straight A student, a thirst for knowledge, win a scholarship*;

Working life: *aspects of the job, be open to offers, carve a niche for oneself, do a job-share, earn a good living, a fast-track scheme, get one's priorities right, go freelance, go part-time, hand in one's resignation, have a change of heart, hold a position, join the staff, lay off staff, make a living, maternity leave, members of staff, move up the ladder, a network of contacts, one's opposite number, practice medicine, put together one's CV, take priority over sth, take up the post, a tempting offer, a volume of work.*

3.2 Grammatical categories of collocation

Most authors agree that there are two basic kinds of collocations: grammatical/syntactic collocations and semantic/lexical collocations (Benson, 1985; Biskup, 1992; Bahns, 1993; Moehkardi, 2002). **Grammatical collocations** are the type in which a dominant word "fits together" with a grammatical word, typically a noun, verb, or adjective followed by a preposition, e.g., *abide by*, *access to*, *acquainted with*, etc. **Lexical collocations**, on the other hand, normally consist of combinations of two basically "equal" words, such as noun + verb, e.g., *ball bounces*, verb + noun, e.g., *spend money*, and adjective + noun, e.g., *cheerful expression*, in which both words contribute to the meaning (Benson, 1985). In addition to these two basic categories, Allerton (1984) proposes a third type, consisting of collocations that are not based on grammatical or semantic patterning. The relatively arbitrary prepositions attached to "time" fit in this category, because there does not seem to be any logical reason why we should say *at* six o'clock, but *on* Monday.

However, it is becoming quite clear that more than just single words collocate; strings of words do, as well. Research by Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) and Sinclair (1991) suggests that there is much more lexical patterning and widespread collocation in language than has been realized before, and when one word is selected, it can constrain lexical choice several words away. Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992), for example, believe that one must look more than five words away to find every collocational relationship. In fact, the realization that words act less as individual units and more as part of lexical phrases in interconnected discourse is one of the most important new trends in vocabulary studies. These lexical phrases in language reflect the way the mind tends to "chunk" language in order to make it easier to process (Schmitt, 2000).

According to Benson, Benson, and Ilson (1986) in their introduction to their *BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English*, grammatical collocations fall into the following combinations: noun + preposition, noun + to-infinitive, noun + that-clause, preposition + noun, adjective + preposition, predicate adjective + to-infinitive, adjective + that-clause, and the English 19 verb patterns.

Table 3. Verb + Noun collocations

Verb	**Noun**	**Example**	**Meaning of verb**
draw up	a list a contract	Our lawyer *drew up a contract* for us to sign.	prepare sth, usually official, in writing
pass up	a chance an opportunity	I didn't want *to pass up the chance* of seeing Hong Kong, so I agreed to go on the trip.	fail to take advantage of sth
withstand	pressure the impact	The police officer's vest *can withstand the impact* of a bullet.	bear

Table 4. Noun + Verb collocations

Noun	**Verb**	**Example**
opportunity	arise	An *opportunity arose* for me to work in China, so I went and spent a year there.
standards	slip	People feel educational *standards slipped* when the government cut finances.

Noun + noun

Noun + noun collocations used to describe groups or sets:

There has been *a spate of attacks/thefts* in our area recently. (‘usually large number happening in close succession’)

The minister had to put up with *a barrage of questions/insults* from the angry audience. (‘unusually large number, happening at the same time’)

Noun + noun collocations used with uncountable nouns:

By *a stroke of luck* I found my keys in the rubbish bin! (‘sudden, unexpected piece of luck’)

She gave me *a snippet of information* which is top secret. (‘small piece of information’)

Adjective + noun

This is not an *idle threat*; I will call the police if this happens again! (‘simply a threat’)

He waited in the *vain hope* that the minister would meet him. (‘unlikely to be fulfilled hope’)

There is *mounting concern/criticism/fury* over the decision. (‘growing concern, etc.’)

The *simple/plain truth* is that no one was aware of the problem.

Adverb + adjective

The article provides an *intensely personal* account of the writer’s relationship with his sons.

Joe’s sister was a *stunningly attractive* woman.

Verb + adverb or prepositional phrase

The teenager tried to persuade his mother that he was innocent but he *failed miserably*.

I don’t like to travel with my brother because he *drives recklessly*. (‘wildly, without care’)

As soon as the singer came on stage she *burst into song*.

If your dog starts to *foam at the mouth*, you should take it to the vet immediately.

More complex collocations

Mary was looking forward to retiring and *taking it easy for a while*.

It’s time you *put the past behind you* and started focusing on the future.

3.3 Register and collocation

Our use of language changes according to the situation that we are in. If your close friend hosts a party, you could say, ‘Thanks for the party. It was a blast.’ (very infml). However, if your boss was the host, you would probably say, ‘Thanks for the party. I really enjoyed it.’ (neutral). In this example, *neutral* and *very informal* are both examples of **register**.

The register of most language is neutral; however, it can also be formal, informal, characteristic of a certain professional field (e.g., legal, journalistic, media), or specific to official notices and forms.

Our choice of register depends on **what** we are talking about (business, the news, the neighbors), **who** we are talking to (friends, strangers, figures of authority), and **how** we are talking to them (in a letter, in an email, in public, in private).

Table 5 shows how different words and phrases are used to describe the same situation.

Table 5. Register and collocation (Adapted from *O'Dell & McCarthy, 2008, p. 16*)

Example	Register	Comment
The police are *investigating/ looking into* the arms deal.	neutral	either version would not seem out of place in any spoken or written contexts
The cops are trying to *dig out info about* the arms deal.	informal	phrasal verbs are often an informal alternative – although some are neutral
The police are *conducting an investigation into* the arms deal.	formal	longer words of Latin or Greek origin often indicate more formal language
Police to *probe* arms deal.	neutral, journalistic	*probe* is typical of newspaper headline style
The arms deal may be *subject to police investigation*.	formal, legal, and official	*subject to investigation* is typical of a bureaucratic or legal style

You should not think of formal language as written and informal language as spoken. There is a lot of overlap. For instance, markedly formal language is most typical of official or academic writing, and official legal or bureaucratic speech. Informal language is typical of conversation, personal letters and emails, and some journalism. Here are some examples:

Formal vs. neutral collocations:

Students must *submit* their *assignments* by 15 April. (fml, from official documents)

You have to *hand in* your *assignments* by 15 April. (neutral, spoken)

Students may *request an extension* after *consulting their lecturer*. (fml, from official documents)

You can *ask for an extension* after you've talked to/*had a word with* your lecturer. (neutral, spoken)

Informal vs. neutral collocations:

That film was *totally awesome!* (esp. used by teenagers, predominantly AmE; neutral equivalent: 'absolutely amazing/fantastic')

That party was well good! (*well* used to mean 'very'/'really', esp. by younger speakers)

I *haven't a clue/the foggiest idea* what you mean. (neutral equivalent: 'I have no idea')

We can *grab a snack* before the meeting if you're hungry. (neutral equivalent: 'have a snack').

3.4 Academic collocations

For many years, teachers and students have acknowledged the benefits of learning a language in "chunks" rather than as individual words. By having access to ready-made chunks of language, learners are able to retrieve language more quickly and accurately and this, in turn, improves fluency. At the same time, collocations are often difficult to guess in a foreign language. They might be easy to understand, but trying to produce accurate collocations based on translation from one's own language is often not successful. Collocations need to be learned as a single unit of information to ensure that they are always produced accurately. Many learners know this to be true for phrasal verbs (e.g., *take up*), and the same is true for collocations (e.g., *significant contribution*).

As more and more students continue into further education, and increasing numbers decide to continue their studies in English, so the need to broaden one's knowledge of vocabulary in

academic registers also increases. A major step forward was made in 2000 when research into academic vocabulary resulted in the creation of the **Academic Word List** (Coxhead, 2000). The **Academic Collocation List** builds on this early research to include the most frequent collocations found across a range of academic disciplines – offering learners further support in their academic studies of English. The list of just over 2,400 collocations was created as part of a research project involving Longman Dictionaries, Pearson Language Testing and a team of corpus linguists led by Professor Douglas Biber from Northern Arizona University.

Here are some examples of academic collocations:

Adjective + noun: *convincing evidence/proof, an eloquent appeal/plea, household expenditure, personal taste/preference, a preliminary investigation, strict/heavy censorship*;

Noun + verb: *the difficulty lies in sth, sb's luck runs out, money goes on sth, profits soar/leap/surge, the rule says/stipulates (that), silence reigns, a story goes around*;

Verb + noun: *cross/transcend barriers, encourage/stimulate/promote trade, gather intelligence, repay sb's kindness, raise awareness, trace the history of sth, win a nomination*;

Verb + adverb: *complain bitterly, deal with sth speedily/promptly, miss sb dearly, open sth at random, rely heavily (on), respect sb greatly, settle sth amicably, vary wildly*;

Adverb + adjective: *adamantly/resolutely opposed, delightfully/wonderfully witty, downright/thoroughly nasty, mind-numbingly boring, well/beautifully/perfectly preserved.*

3.5 Exercises

Exercise 1. Rewrite each sentence using a strong collocation.

1 If you don't understand a conversation you overhear in the street, those people have a strong Scottish accent or they may not be speaking English at all.
2 South African residents were urged to be safe amid bad weather. (SABC)
3 I did for a number of years, for a few troubled years, very happy years, and Marshall and wife Shellie became dear friends, a dynamic duo that inspired my wife and I, inspired us how to live, how to be happy. (Dissent Magazine)
4 The village lies in a very pretty location on a hillside overlooking a deep valley. (Collins)
5 But it seems clear there were no worrying circumstances and we're left with a hollow feeling. (The Guardian, 2018)
6 A meeting had been summoned for tomorrow but, at the request of both sides, it stands stopped for some little time.
7 Mrs White entered the room with a big smile on her face.
8 Harry, their son, is a little boy with beautiful reddish-brown curls.
9 The questionnaire and interview data presented in this study is in big agreement with other pieces of empirical research in this field.
10 Aggravating factors are conditions related to a crime that do not absolve the defendant of guilt.

Exercise 2. Think of as many collocations as you can for each word. Then look in a dictionary for other suitable words. Write W (weak) or S (strong) next to each group depending on how many words you found. Example: *deliver a blow, deliver a verdict, deliver on something*, etc.

1 extremely ……
2 …… an effort
3 cancel ……..
4 deliver …….
5 …… a living

Exercise 3. Write F (formal), I (informal), or N (neutral) in the brackets at the end of each sentence. Underline the collocations which indicate register. Then rewrite the formal and informal sentences to make them neutral. Example: Do not alight from the bus until it stops. (F). *Do not get off the bus until it stops*.

1 I feel dead tired all the time. ( )
2 We were all bored stupid by the poetry reading. ( )
3 Currency exchange offices are located in the arrivals lounge. ( )
4 She conducted a study of single-parent family units. ( )
5 She did her degree in London and found work there in 2001. ( )
6 I just got the latest software so my computer is bang up-to-date. ( )
7 Affix a passport-size photograph to the application form. ( )
8 Jake asked his tutor for an extension to complete his dissertation. ( )

Exercise 4a. "Student life" collocations. **Match the beginning of each sentence with its ending.**

1	We were all very impressed by the student's mental	marks.
2	My grandmother is very intelligent but she's had little formal	place.
3	I've never found it easy to learn scientific formulae by	education.
4	I'd love to study medicine there but it's very hard to get a	heart.
5	For the first year Shakespeare exam we had to read six set	requirements.
6	I am so proud of you for managing to get full	agility.
7	Your work is not too bad but there is certainly still room for	learner.
8	Your little girl has shown herself to be a very quick	ability.
9	The test has been designed to enable pupils to demonstrate their	texts.
10	I hope to study there but I may not be able to meet the entry	improvement.

Exercise 4b. "Student life" collocations. Complete this teacher's letter to the parents of a problem pupil.

Dear Mr and Mrs Wolf,

We are very concerned about Peter's behaviour. He has played (1) …… from school three times this month and has been seen in town in school hours. When he does come to class, his attention (2) …… and he does not seem able to concentrate on his lessons. He does not seem to understand the work and yet he never asks any questions or requests any help. The only time he (3) …… any initiative is in devising excuses for not having done his homework. Although he has a (4) …… talent for art, he is not even taking any interest in art lessons.

This is disappointing, as last year there was a (5) …… improvement in Peter's work and we hoped he might (6) …… a scholarship. However, unless he starts to (7) …… school regularly and to put more effort into his studies, he will certainly not

even meet the (8) …… for the college course he has plans to (9) …… on next year.

I would be grateful if you could come into school to discuss this situation further.

Yours sincerely,
Thomas Chips
(Headteacher)

Exercise 5a. "Working life" collocations. Match the beginning of each sentence with its ending.

1	My husband and I do	of contacts.
2	Circulate the report to all members	the staff in our company.
3	Kazuki has been happier since he went	of work this month.
4	I hope it won't be necessary to lay	of staff.
5	It's not easy to make	part-time.
6	Meeting people is the best aspect	a job-share.
7	Marian was the last person to join	off many of our staff.
8	Anna will be going on maternity	of the job.
9	Try to build up a good network	a living as an actor.
10	We've had a ridiculous volume	leave next month.

Exercise 5b. "Working life" collocations. Complete the conversation using appropriate words.

Meg: Did you know my son's in Australia at the moment? He's doing a job swap with his opposite (1) ……, the person who (2) …… a similar position to his in the company's Sydney office.
José: Wow, that's good! But I thought he wanted to go to the States this year?
Meg: Well, yes. He did have a very tempting (3) …… from a company in New York and he was about to accept, but then he had a (4) …… of heart.
José: So, have you met the exchange person from Sydney?
Meg: Yes, he's been to dinner a couple of times. He'd like to settle here in fact and has asked us to tell everyone he's (5) …… to offers from any companies that might be interested. Maybe your firm might be interested?
José: Perhaps. We could do with someone with good Australian contacts. But we could really do with someone who would (6) …… a post before the end of the year.
Meg: That could work out perhaps. He certainly seems very nice. And he'd be motivated to do well for you because he's so keen to stay there.
José: And do you think your son will stay in Australia?
Meg: I hope not. I've told him to get his priorities (7) …… . Being near his mum should (8) …… priority over Australian beaches and sunshine!

Exercise 6a. "Social life" collocations. Choose the correct collocation.

1 My parents have always *gave* / *made* / *had* my friends feel very welcome.
2 My aunt came on a *quality* / *whirling* / *flying* visit last week.
3 It's quite difficult to *hold on* / *keep with* / *stick to* a diet when you're eating out with friends.
4 You've passed your exam! Well, that *takes* / *gives* / *calls* for a celebration!

5 We hope you will *give* / *find* / *spend* time to visit our exhibition of students' artwork.
6 It's important to try to spend plenty of *welcome* / *convivial* / *quality* time with your family.
7 My sister's life is a constant *special* / *active* / *social* whirl.
8 I recommend you *pay* / *spend* / *go* a visit to the folk museum while you are in Deoksu.
9 Athens *threw* / *gave* / *played* host to the first modern Olympic Games in 1896.

Exercise 6b. "Social life" collocations. Complete a conversation with appropriate words.

Lucy: How was Bill's (1) …… retirement party?
Dave: Great. You should have seen his face; he really had no idea about it and he was so moved. It was a really nice gesture for the company to (2) …… a party for him like that. They really wined and (3) …… us. And even the MD put in an (4) ……! What happened to you? I was surprised not to see you there.
Lucy: Oh, well I was planning to come, but then my friends (5) …… a surprise on me too that same night.
Dave: Was it a (6) …… occasion?
Lucy: Yes, it was my birthday and my friends had arranged a girls' (7) …… out and invited lots of friends that I hadn't seen for ages.
Dave: Sounds great. Happy Birthday, by the way.

Exercise 7. Which do you prefer? Make notes and then have a discussion with your classmate.

1 when you're too tired to cook, ordering a takeaway or eating out
2 plain food or rich food
3 having a family gathering or having a barbeque with friends
4 giving a dinner party or going out for a meal
5 paying your friends a visit or playing host to friends at your own home
6 a whirlwind visit from a friend, or a relative who stays for a week

……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……

4 Idioms and other fixed word combinations

An **idiom** is usually defined as a fixed word combination whose meaning cannot be inferred from, or is not the sum of, the meanings of its component words. Furthermore, the idiom is usually regarded not as an instance of the syntagmatic properties of one of its components but as an independent lexical item. It has also been asserted to constitute one single linguistic sign, as opposed to, for example, a collocation, which usually consists of two linguistic signs (Svensén, 2009). According to Bilá and Kačmárová (2016) and Bérešová (2017), there are many definitions of multi-word lexical units that operate as single semantic units. These are relatively fixed combinations of words and have a non-literal, but fully or partially figurative meaning. While some linguists prefer to use the terms **phraseme** or **phraseological unit**, English linguists prefer the term **idiom**. Since the term "phraseological unit" is not consistently used historically neither in geographical distribution, Kálaziová and Gajdáčová Veselá (2020) offer a brief overview of terminological diversity in defining this concept.

Idioms, described by Kvetko (2006) as those types of prefabricated multi-word units that are well-established, relatively fixed combinations of more than one word with more or less unpredictable meanings, are briefly described in this chapter. In addition, it discusses the origin of idioms.

4.1 Different types of idioms

In its broadest uses, the term "idiom" includes different types of multi-word expressions. Individual types of expressions range from relatively transparent to semi-transparent, to almost completely opaque expressions. Different linguists have termed them "proverbs," "sayings," "idioms proper," "similes," "binomials," "phrasal verbs," "social formulae," etc. (Bilá & Kačmárová, 2015), traditionally dividing them into paremiological and non-paremiological multi-word sets of expressions (Kvetko, 2006). Bérešová (2017) discusses multi-word lexical items – collocations, colligations, and chunks; multi-word verbs – phrasal verbs, prepositional verbs, and phrasal-prepositional verbs; idioms; idiomatic multi-word expressions – proverbs and sayings, quotations, similes, binomials and trinomials, and compounds. Moreover, besides idioms, there are other types of fixed word combinations that are usually treated in dictionaries in the same way as the idioms. These are, on the one hand, "routine formulas," and, on the other hand, proverbs and similes (Svensén, 2009). Despite different classifications of multi-word expressions/lexical items or phraseological units and specific groups and variations of phraseological units (Bilá & Kačmárová, 2016; Kálaziová & Gajdáčová Veselá, 2020), this subchapter briefly describes them and provides a number of examples (Eoghan, 2023; O'Dell & McCarthy, 2010; Svensén, 2009).

Similes are, in short, fixed word combinations which compare two things by means of the words ***as*** or ***like***, e.g., *as thin as a rake* ('extremely thin'), *as silent as the grave* ('completely silent'), *fit like a glove* ('be the perfect size and shape for sb'), etc. They are often used in everyday conversation and informal writing, e.g., *have a face like thunder* ('look extremely angry'), *as keen as mustard* ('very enthusiastic, eager, and excited'). Similes have strong meanings and are often used in a humorous or sarcastic way, e.g., *as clear as mud* ('not clear at all').

Binomials are a type of idiom in which two words are joined by a conjunction, and usually ***and*** (Sauer & Schwan, 2017). The order of the two words is fixed, e.g., *black and white*

('separate and clear'), *neck and neck* (C2, 'equal'), *bumper to bumper* ('very heavy traffic'), and *little by little* (B2, 'slowly or gradually'). **Trinomials** are a similar type of idiom in which three words are joined, e.g., *here, there and everywhere* ('everywhere'). Other examples include *at sixes and sevens* (infml, 'in a state of confusion'), *be all fingers and thumbs* (infml, 'to move your hands in an awkward way, unable to do what you want to do'), *time after time* (C2, phrase, 'many times [usually suggests irritation]'), and *every nook and cranny* ('every part of a place').

Proverbs are short sentences that refer to something most people have experienced and which give advice or warnings. Like idioms, their form is fixed, and it is not always possible to guess the meaning from looking at the individual words in the proverb. For positive situations, the following proverbs can be used, e.g., *variety is the spice of life* ('change makes life interesting'), *necessity is the mother of invention* ('if people really need to do sth, they will find a way to do it'). For negative situations, these proverbs can be used, e.g., *it never rains but it pours* ('problems always happen together'), *it takes two to tango* ('two people are equally responsible'). Other popular proverbs are, e.g., *better safe than sorry* ('it is best not to take risks, even if it seems boring or hard work'), *no pain, no gain* ('there must be some suffering in order to succeed'), and so on.

Euphemisms are a type of idiom used to avoid saying words which may offend or be considered unpleasant. They can help interlocutors communicate using language which is appropriate for the situation they are in, e.g., *in your birthday suit* (humorous, 'not wearing any clothes'), *powder your nose* (polite, humorous, 'go to the toilet'), *make the ultimate/supreme sacrifice* (fml, 'die while fighting for a principle'), *have a bun in the oven* (old-fashioned, humorous, 'be pregnant'), etc.

Clichés and **fixed statements** are often used in everyday conversation. A cliché is a comment that is often used in certain common, everyday situations. It is a comment that most people are familiar with and is therefore not original. Clichés are also frequently played with in advertising slogans and newspaper headlines, e.g., *enough is as good as a feast* (BrE, old-fashioned, 'there is no point in having more of something than you need or want'), *truth will out* ('the truth will always become known'), etc. As regards fixed statements, one can often hear and use these expressions in everyday conversation, e.g., *give me a break!* (infml, 'stop criticizing me'), *good riddance!* ('be happy sth/sb is gone'), *get/put your skates on* (BrE, infml, 'hurry up'), etc.

Routine formulas are stereotyped word combinations whose function is mainly pragmatic, i.e., they are used when dealing with frequently occurring communication situations.

English also includes many **idiomatic expressions of foreign origin**, or from other languages such as French, Latin, Greek, Italian, German, Chinese, and so on, e.g., *non sequitur* ('a statement which does not seem to be connected with what was said before'), *a fait accompli* ('a decision that has been made or a completed action that cannot be changed'), *plus ça change* ('the more things change, the more they stay the same'), and so forth.

4.2 Paremiological expressions

Paremiological expressions (proverbs, sayings, adages, saws, aphorisms, etc.), in addition to their sentence structure and other linguistic features, are on the whole similar to those of idioms proper; however, they also hold distinct socio-cultural value and are often studied within folklore studies, ethnography, etc. The most frequently used terms are "proverbs" and

"sayings." The meaning and the use of these two terms in English frequently overlap. They are used to name commonly known expressions with a general truth (Kvetko, 2006).

Speake (2015) defines a **proverb** as a traditional saying which offers advice or presents a moral in a short and pithy manner. Proverbs fall readily into three main categories. Those of the first type take the form of abstract statements expressing general truths, e.g., *absence makes the heart grow fonder* and *nature abhors a vacuum*. Proverbs of the second type, which include many of the more colorful examples, use specific observations from everyday experience to make a point which is general, e.g., *you can take a horse to water, but you can't make him drink* and *don't put all your eggs in one basket*. The third type of proverb comprises sayings from particular areas of traditional wisdom and folklore. In this category are found, for example, the health proverbs *after dinner rest a while, after supper walk a mile* and *feed a cold and starve a fever*. These are frequently classical maxims rendered into the vernacular. In addition, there are traditional country proverbs which relate to husbandry, the seasons, and the weather, e.g., *red sky at night, shepherd's delight*; *red sky in the morning, shepherd's warning* and *when the wind is in the east, 'tis neither good for man nor beast*.

According to Kvetko (2006), the term **proverb** in its more general sense includes both types of expressions or is used interchangeably with the term **saying**. On the other hand, "saying" is also used in a broader sense (including both types) and frequently not as a technical term. Since the borderline between them is not always very clear, these terms are frequently used together ("proverbs and sayings"). Similarly, the meanings of the following terms – "adage," "saw," "maxim," "truism," "platitude," "aphorism," etc. – frequently overlap, **adage** ('a wise saying'), **saw** (old-fashioned, 'a short sentence that states sth that is generally thought to be true, or that gives useful advice'), **maxim** ('a short statement of a general truth, principle, or rule for behavior'), **truism** ('a statement that is so obviously true that it is almost not worth saying'), **platitude** (disapproving, 'a remark or statement that may be true but is boring and has no meaning because it has been said so many times before'), and **aphorism** ('a short clever saying that is intended to express a general truth').

Narrower uses restrict the term **proverb** to a traditional fixed expression, usually used in the simple present and having a two-part sentence structure (statement) and different relation to context, e.g., *all that glitters is not gold* ('sth that seems to be good on the surface, but might not be when you look at it more closely', e.g., *All that glitters is not gold. … Every bird who calls himself an American doesn't happen to be one*. [Black, 1933]), *when the cat's away, the mice will play* ('in the absence of anyone to assert authority or instill respect, people run riot', e.g., *It's a good job she has to be so often away, for when the cat's away, the mice can play!* [O'Casey, 1925]), *out of sight, out of mind* ('people and things that are absent will not be thought about', e.g., *He was working on the principle 'out of sight, out of mind*.' [Woods, 1979]).

Proverbs express truth, wisdom, and explicit didactic meaning, for example, *strike while the iron is hot*, *what goes around comes around*, etc. They may be metaphorical or non-metaphorical, for instance, *still waters run deep* ('said about a person who says little, but who might in fact know a lot', e.g., *As for her, still waters run deep, it seems. She always looked so solemn. … Fancy her shooting him!* [Underwood, 1979]), *pride comes/goes before the fall* ('said to emphasize that if you are too confident about your abilities, sth bad will happen that shows that you are not as good as you think', e.g., *Millicent had disagreed. Vanity, pure and simple. Pride goeth before a fall. It was one of the maxims by which Millicent lived*. [Hall Page, 2001]), *opportunity makes a thief*, e.g., *Opportunity, which makes thieves, makes lovers also, and is the greatest of all match-makers, opportunity makes a thief*. (Southey, 1853).

Among further examples can be mentioned, e.g., *it's an ill wind that blows nobody any good*, *birds of a feather flock together* (saying), *a burnt child dreads the fire*, *a stitch in time saves nine* (saying), *blood is thicker than water* (saying), *hunger is the best sauce*, *it's an ill bird that fouls its own nest*; *if you can't stand the heat, get out of the kitchen* (saying); *a penny saved is a penny earned* (saying).

The term **saying** is restricted to expressions without this explicit didactic aim and wisdom, e.g., *the apple never falls far from the tree*, *every cloud has a silver lining* (saying), *the coast is clear, the boot/shoe is on the other foot, put/stick that in your pipe and smoke it!*, *it goes without saying* (B2, used to mean that sth is obvious), *what's your game?* (BrE, infml, 'sth that you ask when you want to know what sb is doing or secretly planning to do'), *take it easy* (rest, relax, or be calm) (Kvetko, 2006).

Some popular **quotations**, i.e., expressions originally said or written by a person, may become proverbs/sayings or may become clichés in the course of time, e.g., *The die is cast*. (Latin: Alea iacta est.; [J. Caesar, 49 BC]), *One swallow doesn't make a summer*. (Aristotle), *To err is human (to forgive is divine).* (Latin: Errare humanum est; [A. Pope, 1711]), or *The buck stops here.* (H. S. Truman).

4.3 Origin of idioms

Language is a very creative phenomenon, and it is constantly changing and the process has been going on for centuries. New idioms are coming into existence all the time, however, some of them may be falling out of use. Individual idioms have different origins and they are formed in different ways, e.g., the idiomatization of free word groups and fixed-word combinations, idiomatic derivation from the existing idioms, or by borrowing (Kvetko, 2006).

Idiomatization is a process of lexicalization of free expressions combined with re-evaluation of their meaning. It means that in most cases idioms are the result of the gradual process in which, for example, initially *ad hoc* (free, variable) word groups become fixed combinations and acquire a new sense, i.e., they fully or partially "undergo figurative extension." (Cowie, Mackin, & McCaig, 1993).

Idiomatization (institutionalization) of **free combinations** is a process of lexicalization and re-evaluation of free word groups, which is mainly inspired by people, their lives and nature. Particularly, English sources include house and home, farming, animals, sports and games, activities and life at/by the sea, business, and music (Kvetko, 2006), etc., e.g., *bite the hand that feeds you* ('to act badly towards the person who is helping or has helped you'), *play the game* ('to behave fairly'), *be in the same boat* (C2, 'to be in the same unpleasant situation as other people'), *fight like cat and dog* (BrE, infml, AmE: cats and dogs, 'to have angry arguments all the time'), *as old as the hills* ('very old'), *hold/control the purse strings* ('to make the decisions about how money is spent'), *be in the red* (C2, infml, 'if you or your bank account are in the red, you owe money to the bank'), *(as) fit as a fiddle* (infml, 'in good physical condition, very healthy and strong'). Some more examples are included from other areas, e.g.:

Sports and games: *two can play at that game* (infml, 'sth that you say when you intend to harm sb in the same way as they harmed you'), *throw in the towel* (C2, 'to stop trying to do sth because you have realized that that you cannot succeed'), *below the belt* (infml, 'if a remark is below the belt, it is very insulting and unfair'), *the ball is in your court* ('if the ball is in sb's court, they have to do sth before any progress can be made in a situation'), *keep the ball rolling* (infml, 'to cause an activity or process to continue'), *move the goalposts* (infml, disapproving,

‘to change the rules while sb is trying to do sth in order to make it more difficult for them’), *below par* (‘worse than expected; not very good’), *hit/knock (sb) for six* (BrE, infml, ‘to have an unpleasant and shocking effect on (sb)’).

Activities at/by the sea: *miss the boat* (C2, ‘to lose an opportunity to do sth by being slow to act’), *rock the boat* (C2, infml, ‘if you rock the boat, you do or say sth that will upset people or cause problems’), *keep your head above water* (C2, ‘to just be able to manage, esp. when you have financial difficulties’), *be on the rocks* (infml, ‘likely to fail soon’), *the coast is clear* (‘it is safe to do sth or go somewhere because no one is watching or listening who would prevent you or catch you’), *know/learn the ropes* (C2, ‘to learn/know how to do a job or activity’), *be on one’s beam ends* (old-fashioned, infml, ‘to be close to complete failure or destruction’), *take the wind out of sb’s sails* (‘to make sb feel less confident or less determined to do sth, usually by saying or doing sth that they are not expecting’), etc.

Idiomatization is the process of extending the meaning of the non-idiomatic **set/fixed expressions** or **terms** beyond their technical fields into more general usage. Examples of this include expressions like *carbon copy* (n), *the acid test* (n), *gold mine* (n), *face value* (n), *blind alley* (n), *rough diamond* (n), *litmus test* (n), and so forth.

Idiomatization of **citations** is the institutionalization of quotations of well-known persons, books, works, etc., e.g., *cast pearls before swine* (‘to offer sth valuable or good to sb who does not know its value’, e.g., *I think of myself as a very, very rich woman! But I have been foolish – casting my pearls before swine!* [Williams, 1947]), *an eye for an eye* (‘an idea that a person who causes another person to suffer should suffer in an equal amount’), *a wolf in sheep’s clothing* (‘a person with a pleasant and friendly appearance that hides the fact that they are evil’), *be no/without rhyme or reason* (‘to be without any obvious reasonable explanation’), *to your heart’s content* (‘if you do sth to your heart’s content, you do sth enjoyable for as long as you want to do it’), *gild the lily* (disapproving, ‘to improve or decorate sth that is already perfect and therefore spoil it’), *in your salad days* (old-fashioned, ‘during the period of time when you were a young person and had little experience’), *as good as one’s word* (W. Shakespeare), *the die is cast* (J. Caesar, ‘said when a situation is certain to develop in a particular way because decisions have been taken that cannot be changed’, e.g., *Upon this, Caesar exclaimed: “Let us go whither the omens of the gods and the iniquity of our enemies call us. The Die Is Cast*.”), *rain cats and dogs* (J. Swift, ‘to rain very heavily’), *the buck stops here* (H. S. Truman, idiom, ‘said by sb who is responsible for making decisions and who will be blamed if things go wrong’).

Idiomatic derivation is a process of forming new idioms from existing ones. This is most commonly achieved by **shortening**, **extension**, **conversion**, and **analogous formation**, e.g., *birds of a feather flock together* (saying, ‘said about people who have similar characters or interests, esp. ones of which you disapprove, and who often spend time with each other’) can be shortened to *birds of a feather* (often disapproving, ‘people who are similar in character’). Other examples include *the green light* becoming *give sb the green light*, *a stab in the back* turning into *to stab in the back* (*stab sb in the back* ‘to do sth harmful to sb who trusted you’), and *pink-collar worker* (cf. *white-collar worker*, *blue-collar worker*).

Borrowing is a process of taking over or translating idioms from foreign languages. We distinguish borrowing from the **original phrases** from other or **different languages**, esp. from Latin and French, e.g., *alma mater* (Latin), *persona non grata* (Latin), *viva voce* (Latin), *enfant terrible* (French), *tour de force* (French), *faux pas* (French), and *prima donna* (Italian), etc.

A **loan translation** is a literal translation of a foreign expression that retains the structure of the original while following the rules of the target language. For example, English idiom

blue blood and Slovak *modrá krv* come from Spanish *sangre azul*, *castes in Spain* ('a visionary project, vague imagination of possible wealth') and *a white night* come from the French *châteaux en Espagne* and *nuit blanche*, to take something *with a grain of salt* ('accept with a certain amount of reserve') from Modern Latin *cum grano salis*, to *lose face* (collocation, 'lose prestige', from Chinese *diū liǎn*, and *fifth column* from Spanish *quinta columna* (coined in 1936, from Gen. Emilio Mola's comment at the siege of Madrid during the Spanish Civil War that he would take the city with his four columns of troops outside it and his 'fifth column' in the city).

4.4 Exercises

Exercise 1. Write at least three idioms (altogether 15) coming from the topic area of … and explain their meaning. Example: Animals: *has the cat got your tongue?* (infml, 'sth you say to sb when you are annoyed because they will not speak').

1 sailing …….
2 war and conflict ……..
3 transport ……..
4 parts of the body …….
5 animals (pets, farm animals, wild animals) ……

Exercise 2. Which sport do you think the following expressions come from? Explain the meaning of these idioms.

horse racing	golf	cricket	football	wrestling	hockey	swimming	boxing	baseball

1 knock sb for six ……
……..
2 move the goalposts …….…….
……...
3 out of your depth ……..……
……...
4 no holds barred ……..
……...
5 par for the course …….
……..
6 touch base ……
……..
7 champ at the bit ……
……..
8 on the ropes ……..
……...

Exercise 3. Fill in the gap with the name of an animal.

1 We can do the shopping when we pick up the children from school and kindergarten and *kill two …… with one stone*.

2 A: ‘All right, I’ve been reading it. So what?’ B: ‘*Curiosity killed the* ……, that’s what.’
3 Er*, hold your* …… there, sonny.
4 I’ve told him that he’s heading for trouble, but he doesn’t listen – it’s *like water off a* ……*’s back.*
5 Mr Black accused his former colleagues of *throwing him to the* …… .
6 A long queue had formed, ……*ing its way* downstairs and out into the street.
7 I’ve been waiting for a long time for success – nine years – but *every* …… *has its day*.
8 I don’t want to ask the question, but it is *the* big …… *in the room*.
9 Why should I *do all the* …… *work* while you sit around doing nothing?
10 Why don’t you *take the* …… *by the horns* and tell him to leave?

Exercise 4. English includes many idiomatic expressions that come from other languages. Identify the origin and meaning of the following idioms and use them in context.
Example: *ad hoc* (Latin; ‘not planned but arranged or done when needed’), *He was paid on an* ***ad hoc*** *basis*.

ad infinitum	compos mentis	de facto	non sequitur	status quo	au fait with	bête noire	crème de la crème	c’est la vie	a fait accompli	laissez-faire	plus ça change

1 ……
2 ……
3 ……
4 ……
5 ……
6 ……
7 ……
8 ……
9 ……
10 ……
11 ……
12 ……

Exercise 5. The following sentences contain different types of idioms. If necessary, consult a dictionary to decide what kind of idiom is used in a sentence.
Example: *Mrs Taylor thinks she would* ***lose face*** *if she admitted her mistake*. (collocation, ‘to make yourself seem stupid or cause other people to stop respecting you’)

1 The broken trust was *the last straw*; she finally decided to leave the relationship.
2 Now comes “*Talk of the Devil*,” a collection of Fleming’s journalism and occasional writing. (O’Donnell, 2025)
3 Mr Taylor has always been drawn to other men’s wives – the *forbidden fruit*.
4 But that shouldn’t blind you to the fact that it’s *fresh as a daisy* – a thrilling book about the power of boredom. (Lea, 2018)

5 The owner of a family-run restaurant in Shropshire said a *Good Samaritan* inadvertently saved her business. (Green, 2025)

Exercise 6. Distinguish between proverbs and sayings. Translate them into Slovak.

1 This misfortune of hers had done wonders for our up and down relationship – all clouds have a silver lining, don't they say. (Mo, 1991)
2 At this juncture, another, more recent, adage springs to mind: What goes around comes around. It is, all in all, a terrific statement, and I know a lot of people who would turn handsprings if only they could be assured it was true. (Stein, 1982)
3 As a … farmer remarked, 'If you breed a pa'tridge, you'll git a pa'tridge.' Another way of setting that truth forth is, … 'An apple never falls far from the tree.' (Thompson, 1939)
4 'Excellent!' I replied. 'Let us take up the invitation this very weekend: strike while the iron is hot.' (Williams, 2000)
5 Miriam cleared her throat. 'It's an ill bird that fouls its own nest, dear. If you ask me, it's about time you dumped him.' (Goff, 2000)
6 I like Jack a lot, but blood is thicker than water and even, I suppose, whisky. (Larson, 2011)
7 They'd quote Ben Franklin: "A penny saved is a penny earned." But I'd still put a dollar in a Starbucks tip jar after paying $4 for a cup of coffee. (The Washington Post, 2008)
8 'During that time a lot of water's flowed under the bridge, and one of the things that we have come floating along on it is…' (Bolt, 1960)
9 'The gravy is extra good too.' 'Hunger is the best sauce,' Ma replied modestly. (Wilder, 1939)
10 'No, by dad, we don't tell liars what they know already. – So put that in your pipe and smoke it!' (Richardson, 1910)

Exercise 7. Fill in the appropriate phrasal verb.

1 knuckle down, knuckle in on, knuckle under
If we're going to meet this deadline, we're really going to have to …… .
2 run on, run out, run out on, run over
Her husband …… her when the kids were very young.
3 double back, double for, double up, double up as
Our spare bedroom …… a study.
4 settle down, settle for, settle into, settle on, settle up
Have they …… a name for the baby yet?
5 tie back, tie down, tie in, tie in with, tie up, tie up with
I …… the dog …… while I went into the shop.
6 marry above, marry beneath, marry into, marry up
I listened to the film in German whilst reading the English subtitles, but the two versions didn't seem to …… .
7 dig in, dig into, dig out, dig over, dig up
I had to …… information for my dissertation from old manuscripts.
8 bring along, bring around, bring back, bring back to, bring before, bring down
This talk of holidays …… me …… my original question, which was what are we doing this summer?
9 hit back, hit for, hit off, hit on

In tonight's speech, he is expected to …… at critics who have attacked his handling of the crisis.

10 zoom in, zoom off, zoom out
The camera suddenly …… on to show the whole of the desert stretching away to the horizon.

Exercise 8. Combine the words into pairs, using conjunctions *and* or *or.* Use them in your own sentences.

1	fair	(a) scrape	……
2	bow	(b) easy	……
3	thick	(c) swim	……
4	cut	(d) square	……
5	trick	(e) fast	……
6	free	(f) dried	……
7	high	(g) ruin	……
8	hue	(h) simple	……
9	sink	(i) cry	……
10	do	(j) treat	……
11	pure	(k) dry	……
12	rack	(l) die	……

5 Dictionaries

Dictionaries are a cultural phenomenon. It is a commonplace to say that a dictionary is a product of the culture in which it has come into being; it is less common to say that it plays an important part in the development of that culture. Different dictionaries have different purposes. They are produced in order to meet either the individual's needs for information, or the needs of a community – national, political, scientific, etc. – to preserve information for the future (Svensén, 2009).

Lexicography can be defined as an activity which consists of "observing, collecting, selecting, analyzing and describing, in a dictionary, a number of lexical items (words, word elements and word combinations) belonging to one or more languages" (Svensén, 2009, p. 2). In cases where two or more languages are involved simultaneously, the description takes on the nature of a comparison between the items that have been selected from the vocabularies of the languages in question. This part of the subject, the compilation of dictionaries, is called practical lexicography, or simply **dictionary-making**. Thus, a **dictionary** can be defined as "a reference book that lists and explains words of a language (or the terms of a particular subject/field), or gives equivalents in one or more languages" (Kvetko, 2005, p. 110).

5.1 Earliest dictionaries vs. today's dictionaries

The very earliest dictionaries of English were, in fact, **glossaries** that translated Latin words into Old English, the form of English spoken before about 1100 AD.

The **monolingual dictionary**, i.e., one that lists English words and gives definitions in English, did not appear until 1600 – so William Shakespeare did much of his work without even the possibility of looking anything up. For the first century or so, these dictionaries only defined **hard words**, i.e., vocabulary that is difficult to spell, pronounce, or understand, often long, technical, or uncommon, but it can also refer to a harsh or unkind remark, a secret tip (in some dialects), or a persistent request for money (British or Australian slang). The meaning depends heavily on context, ranging from academic vocabulary to colloquialisms. It was not until the 18th century that dictionaries grew and included most meanings of common, everyday words; during that century most of the features we associate with dictionaries first appeared, such as **pronunciations**, **etymologies**, and **parts of speech**.

In the 19th century, dictionaries of English began to attempt to cover the whole vocabulary of the language and in the 20th century they became still more inclusive, covering types of language that had not previously been considered appropriate; for example, **slang**, **regional words**, or **technical jargon**. Collections of word usage were built up, largely on paper slips or index cards, as the basis for revising existing dictionary entries or creating new ones.

With the arrival of computer technology, it became possible to use electronic databases as the source of language evidence, rather than piles of **index cards** or slips. Dictionaries are now based on the close analysis of how words behave in real, natural language: behind every Oxford Dictionary entry, for instance, are genuine examples of the word in use – often hundreds and thousands of them – which have been analyzed by lexicographers using specially developed software in order to find out information about the typical behavior of the word in question. Print dictionaries have been joined by dictionaries in electronic form; these are often enriched with many additional features, such as sound recordings or **sophisticated links** to other related material.

It seems likely that by the middle of this century, if not before, all dictionaries will be in electronic form. This means that space limitations, which have always been a serious issue for lexicographers and dictionary publishers, will be far less restrictive, allowing dictionaries to include more words, definitions, interactive features, and **multimedia content** like **images**, **sound**, and **video**. They will also be updated much more rapidly than ever before. But the general idea of a dictionary – a resource that provides explanations of words and how they are used – will probably remain the same.

5.2 Computer technology and dictionary-making

In the days before computers, writing a dictionary was a laborious job. **Lexicographers** worked from boxes of **handwritten paper slips** on which were written suggestions for revising existing definitions, adding new entries or senses, or making corrections. If they needed to consult a dictionary in order to check some information, they had to get different dictionaries off the shelf and look it up.

Computers changed all this. Dictionaries are now stored in **complex, highly structured databases** which enable lexicographers to work much more quickly and efficiently, with access not only to the text on which they are working, but to multiple other dictionaries at the same time.

Oxford software also allows editors to **work remotely** – an editor in the United States, for example, can make changes to definitions which are instantly accessible to colleagues in the United Kingdom. And as well as the actual words and definitions, modern dictionaries contain other electronic data which a reader does not see – data which enables the dictionary content to be developed in many different ways, for example, as a download for a **handheld application**, or as a basis for the word suggestions in predictive texting on mobile phones.

Computers have also changed the way language research is conducted. Anyone now has access to vast electronic databases of real English, known as **corpora**, which enable them to see how the language is actually being used by people in all parts of the English-speaking world. Oxford's analysis of these databases forms the basis of all its dictionary writing today. It allows the company to track the emergence of new words, shows how patterns of use are changing and developing, and provides evidence about the currency of words – whether they are becoming more or less popular, for instance, or whether they are used **predominantly** in one particular variety of English.

More and more dictionaries are being offered in electronic form, either online or as downloads for handheld devices. This will remove one of the constraints on dictionary writing in the past – that of size. Dictionary makers will be able to include more words, phrases, and senses and they will be able to add them more frequently. They can also add other features, for example, sound recordings of words being pronounced, links to other texts, such as thesauruses, or lists of words related to a main entry. They can also build in sophisticated searching facilities which allow users to browse within specific **linguistic** or **semantic categories** or personalize their experience by creating "subdictionaries" (www.oxford.com).

5.3 Electronic dictionaries

The most commonly used electronic dictionaries include the Cambridge Dictionary, Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, Collins, and Merriam-Webster. This subchapter quickly considers some of them to show the student of English what exactly they can offer.

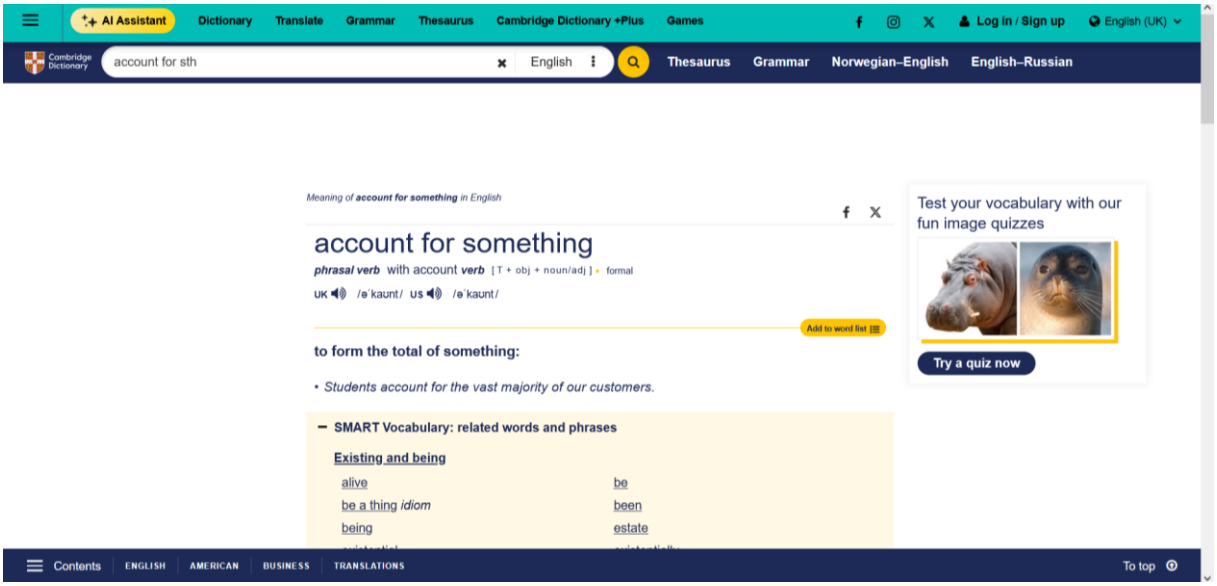


Figure 1. Cambridge Dictionary (https://dictionary.cambridge.org)

The *Cambridge Dictionary* includes four dictionaries. Each is briefly described below. First, the **English Dictionary** offers clear definitions and audio pronunciations of words, phrases, and idioms in British and American English from the three most popular Cambridge dictionaries of English: the *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, the *Cambridge Academic Content Dictionary*, and the *Cambridge Business English Dictionary*.

The **Cambridge Learner's Dictionary** includes the words, phrases, and collocations that intermediate learners of British English need to know. Clear and simple definitions and audio pronunciations, with carefully chosen example sentences from the Cambridge English Corpus, help students write and speak English more naturally.

Both the **Cambridge Essential British English Dictionary** and the **Cambridge Essential American English Dictionary** are recommended for learners of English who want to build confidence in using an English-only dictionary. They include the words, phrases, and collocations that beginning learners of British English and American English need to know, with easy-to-understand definitions and audio pronunciations, and many carefully chosen example sentences from the Cambridge English Corpus.

The learner of English can explore the **English grammar** and get clear explanations with many examples of how grammar is used in natural written and spoken English. It considers adjectives and adverbs; easily confused words; noun, pronouns, and determiners; prepositions and particles; using English verbs; words, sentences, and clauses.

The learner can explore the **English Thesaurus** and get clear explanations and examples of the differences between synonyms and antonyms, in both British and American English.

The learner of English can explore **English Pronunciation** and get pronunciations of the words in British and American English from the Cambridge English Dictionary with phonetic transcriptions and audio recordings of real people. To listen to a word, they simply need to click on the icon for British English or American English. Furthermore, the pronunciation symbols are included.

Learners can also work with **translation dictionaries**. It is also possible to click on the red arrows to change the translation direction: English–Chinese (Simplified), English–Chinese (Traditional), English–Danish, English–Dutch, English–French, English–German, and others.

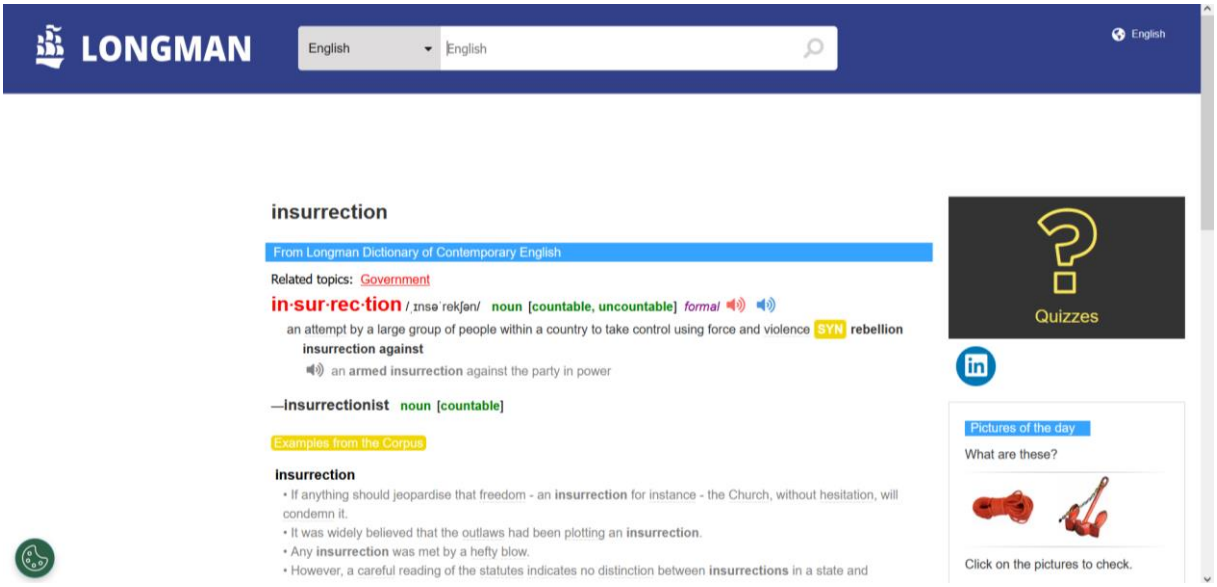


Figure 2. Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (https://www.ldoceonline.com/)

Collins Online Dictionary and reference resources draw on the wealth of reliable and authoritative information about language, thanks to the extensive use of their corpora – vast language databases – both in English and in other languages.

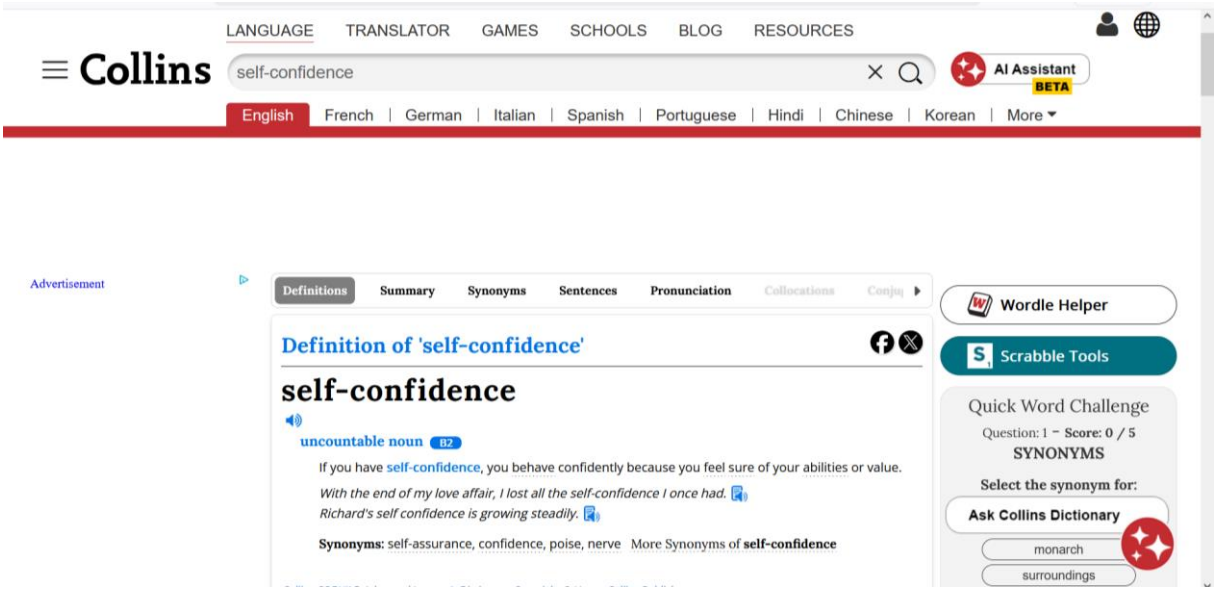


Figure 3. Collins Dictionary (https://www.collinsdictionary.com)



Figure 4. Merriam-Webster Dictionary (https://www.merriam-webster.com/)

Merriam-Webster has been America's leading provider of language information for nearly 200 years. Each month their award-winning websites, applications, and social media channels offer guidance to millions of visitors. In print, their publications include **Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary** and dictionaries for English-language learners.

All Merriam-Webster products and services are backed by the largest team of professional dictionary editors and writers in the United States.

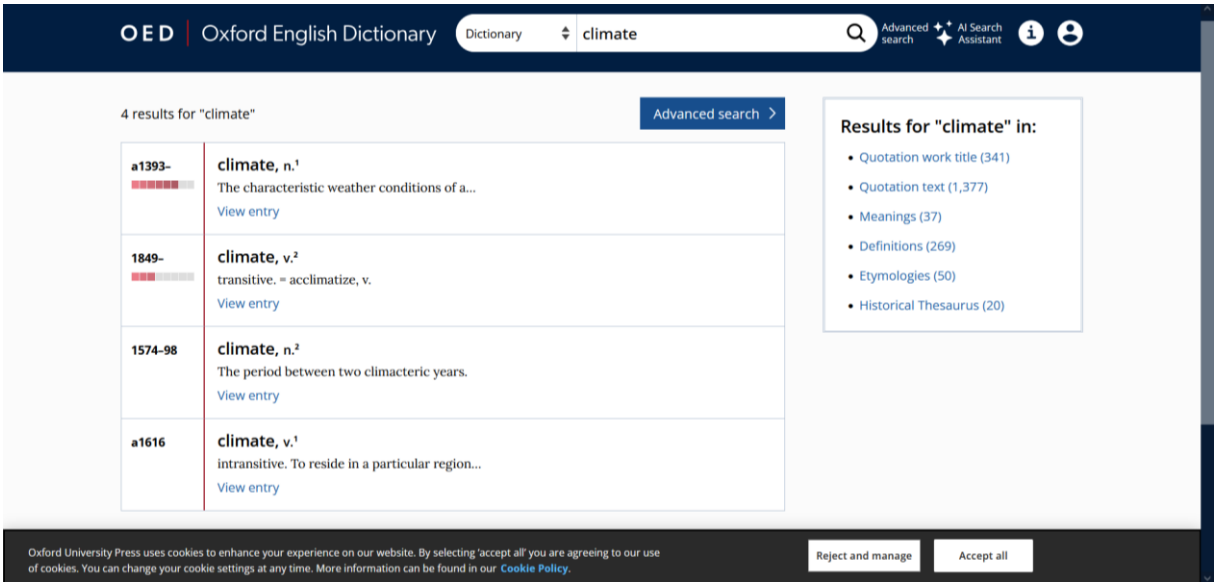


Figure 5. Oxford English Dictionary (https://www.oed.com/)

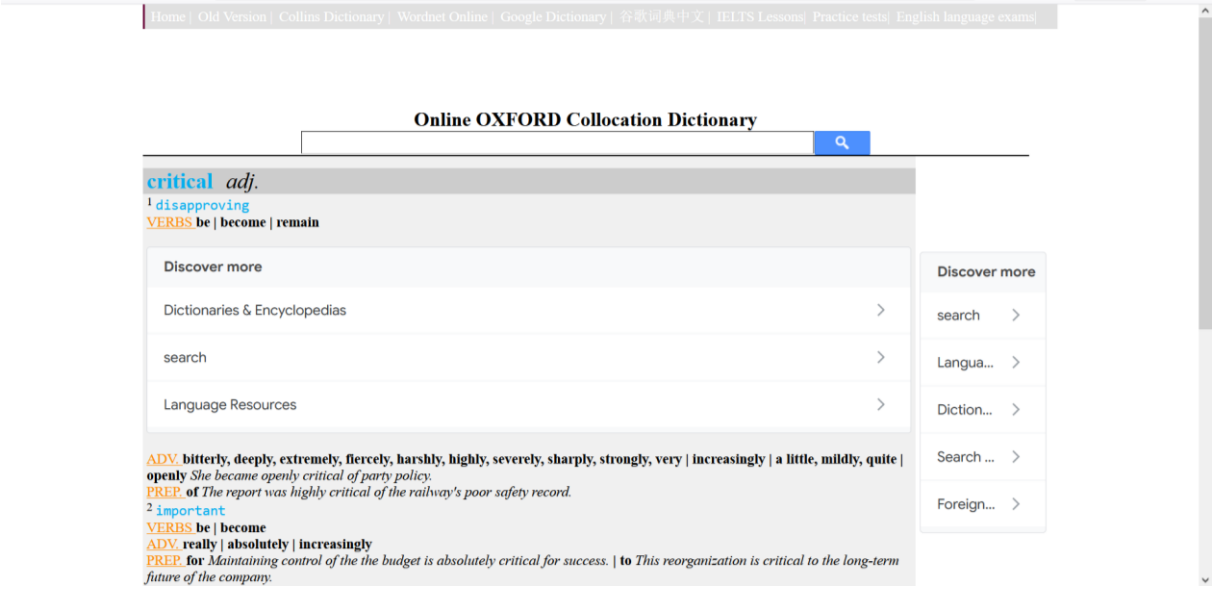


Figure 6. Oxford Collocation Dictionary (https://www.freecollocation.com/)

5.4 Exercises

Exercise 1. Choose three English monolingual electronic dictionaries and analyze their core aspects or features to decide which one is the best. Give evidence.

……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……

Exercise 2. Choose two bilingual electronic dictionaries (e.g., English–German, English–French, English–Russian, etc.) and find the differences between them.

……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……

6 Vocabulary and the Internet

The Internet has become an invaluable source of information for learners and teachers, and some of the features of the Internet that make it such a useful source of information can also serve to support the learning of vocabulary. Vocabulary acquisition is not a one-off event. Understanding the nuances of a word, as with all understanding, is a matter of degree and requires multiple encounters with that word in varied contexts.

Ebner and Ehri (2013) believe that the Internet environment, where learners can search for vocabulary items on Google or other search engines, look them up on websites, such as Dictionary.com, or click on hyperlinks from one webpage to another, can support vocabulary learning by allowing learners to encounter the word in a variety of contexts. The support of graphics, audio, or video information, often found on websites, can further deepen their understanding of the word. However, the Internet is also a place where learners can become easily distracted and lose sight of the goal they are working towards.

To overcome this challenge, they propose using protocols that support the development of metacognitive strategies in learners that help keep them focused on their goals (Ibid).

The Internet provides university students with a diverse, dynamic, and specialized vocabulary that spans academic, technical, and contemporary social contexts, accessible through interactive and multimedia platforms. It acts as a vast, constantly updated, and authentic digital repository that supports both formal academic studies and informal, rapid communication. The types of vocabulary the Internet provides for university students include: (a) academic and specialized vocabulary, (b) digital and technological lexicon, (c) professional and communication vocabulary, (d) advanced and sophisticated vocabulary, and (e) key online resources for vocabulary.

6.1 Academic and specialized vocabulary

Online tools provide access to academic English, including the word families frequently found in university textbooks. **The Academic Word List** (AWL) is a 570-word family list essential for students in English-medium higher education, covering 10% of academic texts. Compiled by Coxhead (2000), it features high-frequency words used across disciplines, e.g., *analyze*, *approach*, *constitute*, *data*, *establish*, *formula*, *indicate*, *occur*, etc. that are not part of the basic 2,000-word General Service List.

Key aspects of the AWL are (a) structure – the list is divided into 10 sublists ordered by frequency (Sublist 1 has the most common words), (b) word families – each of the 570 items is a headword representing a word family (e.g., *consume*, *consumer*, *consumption*, *consuming*), (c) coverage – it includes 570 headwords, with 60 in each sublist (except Sublist 10, which has 30), (d) purpose – the AWL is crucial for improving reading comprehension of textbooks and enhancing writing, speaking, and listening in academic contexts, particularly for IELTS and TOEFL tests, and (e) benefits – learning these words increases academic vocabulary, making it easier for learners to understand complex, non-technical texts in any subject area.

Sublist examples include: **Sublist 1 (Highest frequency)** – *approach*, *assess*, *concept*, *context*, *major*, *method*, *percent*, *policy*; and **Sublist 10 (Lowest frequency)** – *adjacent*, *beneficiary*, *identical*, *invoke*, *ongoing*, *quota*, *rational*, etc.

The AWL is highly recommended for academic English learners to move beyond general English and improve their university-level proficiency (https://www.eapfoundation.com).

Through online journals, databases (e.g., PubMed or Google Scholar), and educational sites, students encounter precise **jargon** for fields like medicine, law, engineering, and social sciences. **Subject-specific terminology** and controlled vocabularies are best found within specialized subject-focused databases, often located under the library's "A-Z Databases" list. Key resources include databases by subject: **Medical and Health Sciences** – PubMed (MeSH), CINAHL (EBSCO), and PsycINFO (APA); **Education and Social Sciences** – ERIC, ASSIA; and **Sociological Abstracts**, and **Humanities and Science** – **JSTOR** (excellent for academic terminology in humanities and social sciences), **ScienceDirect** (covers science, technology and medical literature), **Web of Science** (uses indexed keywords to identify terminology), and **AnthroSource** (specific to anthropology).

6.2 Digital and technological lexicon

Students acquire the **Internet** and **web terminology** related to digital infrastructure, such as *browser, URL, server, database, cache,* and *algorithm.* The Internet is used all the time for various reasons; and therefore learners should to be familiar with what is going on under the surface. The Internet is for everyone, and it should be understandable for everyone. If learners are not familiar with the terminology used to discuss the Internet, it can be easy to gloss over conversations or news stories about Internet topics that could greatly impact their daily lives.

This glossary provides terminological overviews of 91 key Internet-related terms that will help learners understand and make informed decisions about their daily online activities.

As the Internet of tomorrow faces many challenges, now is time to understand it better. Being better informed means being equipped to make the right choices on how one uses, experiences, and influences the Internet of our future. The Internet is for everyone, and it is up to all people to preserve and care for it (Internet Society, 2025).

The key terms are as follows: *access, alternative access solutions, archiving, asymmetric digital subscriber line (ADSL), autonomous system (AS), autonomous system number (ASN), application service provider (ASP), asynchronous transfer mode (ATM), backdoor access, bandwidth, big data, border gateway protocol (BGP), client-side scanning (CSS), community networks, content blocking, content delivery network (CDN), content provider, content regulation, cookies, country code top-level domain (ccTLD), customer-provided equipment (CPE), cybersecurity, data center, data privacy, data security, digital divide, digital equity, digital inclusion, digital footprint, digital literacy, disinformation, distributed denial of service (DDoS), domain name system (DNS), domain name system security extensions (DNSSEC), encryption, end-to-end encryption (E2EE), fragmentation, freemium, file transfer protocol (FTP), 'ghost protocol' proposal, hypertext transfer protocol secure (HTTPS), innovative access solution, internet, internet engineering task force (IETF), internet ecosystem, internet exchange point (IXP), internet governance, internet service provider (ISP), internet shutdown, internet society (ISOC), internet standards organization, internet of things (IoT), internet protocol (IP), internet way of networking (IWN), IP address spoofing, latency, low earth orbit (LEO) satellite, local content, local internet registry (LIR), machine-in-the-middle attacks (MITM), malware, (mandatory) data localization, mass surveillance, measuring the internet, misinformation, multi-stakeholder approach, mutually agreed norms for routing security (MANRS), open source, open systems interconnection (OSI), peering, peer-to-peer, personal data, phishing, point of presence (POP), public-key infrastructure (PKI), pulse, ransomware, right to be forgotten, router, satellite internet, spam, surfing, top-level domains (TLDs),*

transport layer security (TLS), universal access, universal acceptance, voice over internet protocol (VoIP), virtual private network (VPN), wireless local area network (WLAN), world wide web consortium (W3C), wireless personal area network (WPAN) (Source: Internet Society).

The Internet also provides terms concerning **cybersecurity** and **data**, e.g., *data privacy*, *encryption*, *firewall*, *phishing*, *malware*, etc. Regarding **social media** and **digital culture**, terms that have evolved with social media, include, e.g., *clickbait*, *crowdfunding*, *cyberbullying*, *hashtag*, *influencer*, *thread*, *viral*, etc.

6.3 Professional and communication vocabulary

In the age of digital learning, the learner of English can acquire **remote work** and **collaboration terminology**, e.g., *all-remote*, *annualized hours*, *asynchronous communication*, *blended team*, *brick-and-mortar business*, *cloud storage*, *co-located team*, *co-location*, *co-working*, *co-working space*, *compressed working week*, *conference call*, *conference room*, *dematerialization*, *digital nomad*, *digital work*, *digital workplace*, *digital workspace*, *dispersed team*, *distance work*, *distributed company*, *distributed team*, *distributed teamwork*, *distributed work*, *distributed workforce*, *explicit communication*, *face to face meeting* (*F2F meeting*), *flex time/flexible hours*, *freelance work*, *freelancer*, *future of work*, *garden office*, *gig economy*, *global employer*, *home office*, *hybrid company*, *hybrid teams*, *hybrid-remote*, *implicit communication*, *in-person meeting*, *instant message*, *internet of things* (IoT), *knowledge worker*, *live receptionist*, *netiquette*, *off-site meeting*, *office environment*, *offshoring*, *on-site meeting*, *online password vaults*, *online storage*, *outsourcing*, *real-time communication apps*, *remote desktop*, *remote employee*, *remote hiring*, *remote OK*, *remote work*, *remote worker* (also *free-range worker*), *remote-first*, *remote-friendly*, *retreat*, *satellite office*, *screen sharing*, *single source of truth* (SSoT), *software as a service* (SaaS), *solopreneur*, *staying in the loop*, *synchronous communication*, *team retreat*, *telecommute*, *telecommuting*, *telework*, *time management apps*, *video chat*, *virtual assistant*, *virtual machine* (VM), *virtual meeting*, *virtual office*, *virtual phone system*, *virtual private network* (VPN), *virtual collaboration*, *virtual receptionist*, *VoIP*, *work from home*, *work management software*, *workation* (https://www.wrike.com/remote-work-guide/glossary/).

Social media and the Internet, in general, provide a wealth of informal **idioms** and **phrasal verbs**, such as *log in/off*, *sign up*, *drop out*, *catch up*, or *follow up*. General social media vocabulary includes, e.g., *blog*, *clickbait*, *crowdfunding*, *cyberbullying*, *data privacy*, *ecommerce*, *hacker*, *influencer*, *meme*, *phishing*, *premium content*, *sensationalism*, *streaming*, *to block*, *to browse*, *to follow*, *to scroll*, *to swipe*, *trending*, *troll*, *tweet* (v), *tweeter* (n), *viral*, etc. Social media idioms, phrasal verbs, and collocations include, e.g., *add a friend*, *alternative media*, *come across*, *get hooked on*, *internet/online safety*, *jump on the bandwagon*, *killing time*, *log on*/*in*, *see eye to eye*, *send an attachment*, *spread the word*, *take by storm*, *take off*, *to crash*, *unfriend*, *update your status*, *virtual friends* (https://edubenchmark.com/blog/vocabulary-topic-social-media/).

Digital communication shorthand is abbreviations and acronyms used in professional digital communication, e.g., *DM* (direct message), *TL;DR* ('too long, didn't read'), *IRL* ('in real life'), and *BRB* ('be right back').

Business text abbreviations. When employees are texting co-workers or other businesses, they can rely on most people to recognize the following common abbreviations. Some of these

abbreviations are also fairly well-known among average consumers. Here is a list of text abbreviations with the most popular business acronyms: *BAU* ('business as usual'), *DND* ('do not disturb'), *EOD* ('end of day'), *ETA* ('estimated time of arrival'), *ICYMI* ('in case you missed it'), *OOH* ('out of hours'), *OOO* ('out of office'), *T&C* ('terms and conditions'), TBA/TBD ('to be announced/to be decided'), WIP ('work in progress'), and so forth.

Common text abbreviations. The following text abbreviations are not specific to business use, but they can be useful to communicate more casually with both customers and his or her team members. These will almost certainly appear in an employee's incoming texts at some point, and he or she can safely use them in text conversations without setting the wrong tone, e.g., AFK ('away from keyboard'), AKA ('also known as'), ASAP ('as soon as possible'), FYI ('for your information'), LMGTFY ('let me Google that for you'), N/A ('not applicable or not available'), NRN ('no reply necessary'), TIA ('thanks in advance').

Casual text abbreviations. Most of the following abbreviations are too informal or open to misinterpretation for one to use, but there is still value in knowing them. They might still appear in texts sent to one's business, and also in social media posts or reviews online.

Here are common text abbreviations: AFAIK ('as far as I know'), BBL ('be back later'), BC ('because'), BRB ('be right back'), BTW ('by the way'), CYA ('see ya!'), DM ('direct message'), FWIW ('for what it's worth'), GN ('goodnight!'), GTG ('got to go'), IDC ('I don't care'), IDK ('I don't know'), IIRC ('if I remember correctly'), ILY ('I love you'), IMO/IMHO ('in my opinion/in my humble opinion'), IRL ('in real life'), JK ('just kidding'), LMK ('let me know'), NBD ('no big deal'), NGL ('not gonna lie'), NP ('no problem'), NVM ('never mind'), OIC ('oh, I see!'), OMW ('on my way!'), OT ('off-topic'), RN ('right now'), SMH ('shaking my head'), SO ('significant other'), TBC ('to be continued'), TBH ('to be honest'), THX ('thanks!'), TL;DR ('too long; didn't read'), TMI ('too much information'), TTYL ('talk to you later'), TY ('thank you'), TYSM ('thank you so much'), W/O ('without').

Knowing the common text abbreviations is a necessary part of being able to talk easily over text. Approximately 64% of Baby Boomers and 83% of Generation Z want businesses to text more, so an employee cannot afford to be out of touch with everyday acronyms. These text message abbreviations will help employees understand clients and communicate better with their team. Text abbreviations and text slang words are a part of everyday conversation, and as a result, it is important to understand how to use them appropriately in order to avoid giving the wrong impression. Following these tips will enable employees to better connect with customers and their team via text messaging (https://www.textmagic.com/blog/text-abbreviations-and-how-to-use-them/#business-text-abbreviations).

6.4 Advanced and sophisticated vocabulary

High-level collocations. The Internet facilitates learning advanced phrase structures (collocations), e.g., *digital disruption*, *exponential growth*, *paradigm shift*, *disruptive innovation*, *information overload*, etc.

Rather than just lists, tools like Vocabulary.com and WordUp provide vocabulary within context, using examples from literature or media to ensure words are learned for life, not just for tests. Key online resources for vocabulary include: (a) dictionary/thesaurus sites, e.g., Vocabulary.com, Merriam-Webster, Reference.com., (b) visual/interactive tools, e.g., Visuwords (visual dictionaries), WordHippo (thesaurus on steroids), Quizlet (digital flashcards), (c) Educational platforms, e.g., Membean (personalized, adaptive learning),

Knoword (game-based vocabulary), and (d) AI tools, e.g., ChatGPT (explaining, translating, generating academic vocabulary).

These resources allow students to move beyond simple definitions to understanding the nuanced use of words, enhancing both their reading comprehension and writing proficiency.

6.5 Exercises

Exercise 1. Say if you have any experience with using applications for learning vocabulary, such as Quizlet, Memrise, Vocabulary.com, Duolingo, WordUp, etc., or AI tools, like ChatGPT, Gemini, or Copilot. Describe which one is of the greatest help. Give evidence.

……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……

Exercise 2. On the basis of a list of academic collocations, finish the sentences with the correct collocation.

Adjective + noun: *convincing evidence/proof, an eloquent appeal/plea, household expenditure, personal taste/preference, a preliminary investigation, strict/heavy censorship*

Noun + verb: *the difficulty lies in sth, sb's luck runs out, profits soar/leap/surge, the rule says/stipulates (that), silence reigns, a story goes around*

Verb + noun: *cross/transcend barriers, encourage/stimulate/promote investment, gather intelligence, repay sb's kindness, trace the history of sth, win a nomination*

1 …… around that he had been having an affair.
2 In the waiting room, tense …… .
3 The …… you must be standing inside the line.
4 Music is very much a matter of …… .
5 Music has this wonderful ability to …… cultural …… .
6 The figures show that …… on fuel has risen.
7 There was …… of all letters sent by prisoners.
8 …… showed the man was hit by two bullets fired at close range.
9 There is now …… that the Earth's climate is changing.
10 …… heating the fuel to a high enough temperature.
11 The head of the Red Cross made …… for aid to help the survivors.
12 Do you think she has enough votes to …… ?
13 The government introduced new tax incentives to …… in renewable energy.
14 They were attempting to …… on US military operations.
15 He …… the game back to the late 1700s.
16 He wondered how he would ever be able to …… .

17 Finally, …… and they caught me.
18 The supermarket's net …… by 32% to £148 million.

Exercise 3. On the basis of a list of academic collocations, finish the sentences with the correct collocation.

Verb + adverb: *complain bitterly, deal with sth speedily/promptly, miss sb dearly, open sth at random, respect sb greatly, settle sth amicably, vary wildly*

Adverb + adjective: *adamantly/resolutely opposed, delightfully/wonderfully witty, downright/thoroughly nasty, mind-numbingly boring, well/beautifully/perfectly preserved*

1 Prices …… from store to store.
2 She …… her brother …… .
3 The dispute was …… .
4 The meeting was …… and I fell asleep halfway through.
5 The palace is …… and looks just like it did when the king lived there.
6 Her family was …… to the marriage.
7 My grandfather's always …… about how expressive things are.
8 The organization …… complaints very …… .
9 Some of the comments were …… .
10 I admire her and …… her …… .
11 He …… the book ……, and began reading.
12 John Betjeman wrote some ……. poems about the British way of life.

Exercise 4. Choose ten terms concerning "remote work and collaboration terminology" and use them in context.

……
……
……
……
……
……
……

Exercise 5. Discuss the key terms concerning "the Internet and web terminology."

……
……
……
……
……
……
……

References

Tea Academic Word List (AWL). EAPFOUNDATION. Retrieved 9 November 2025 from https://www.eapfoundation.com/vocab/academic/awllists/

Anderson, C., Bjorkman, B., Denis, D., Doner, J., Grant, M., Sanders, N., & Taniguchi, A. (2022). *Essentials of Linguistics*. (2nd ed.). Hamilton, Ontario: eCampusOntario.

Battistella, E. L. (2005). *Bad Language: Are Some Words Better than Others?* New York, New York: Oxford University Press.

Benchmark Education Solutions. IELTS Vocabulary – Social Media. Retrieved 25 November 2025 from https://edubenchmark.com/ blog/vocabulary-topic-social-media/

Berube, M. S., Pickett, J. P., & Leonesio, Ch. (Eds.). (2005). *The American Heritage® Guide to Contemporary Usage and Style*. Boston, New York: Houghton Mifflin Company. https://zourpri.wordpress.com/wp-content/uploads/2014/01/the-american-heritage-guide-to-contemporary-usage-and-style-2005.pdf

Bérešová, J. (2017). *A Course in English Lexicology*. Trnava: TYPI, Trnavská univerzita v Trnave.

Bilá, M., & Kačmárová, A. (2016). Multi-word Lexical Units in English and Slovak Linguistic Terminology. *Russian Journal of Linguistics*, *20*(3), 164-175.

Bilá, M., Kačmárová, A., Kášová, M., Tomášiková, S., Vojtek, D., & Koželová, A. (2015). Výskum viacslovných pomenovaní v germánskych jazykoch (angličtina, nemčina) a v románskych jazykoch (francúzština, španielčina). In *Viacslovné pomenovania v slovenčine*. In M. Ološtiak (Ed.), *Viacslovné pomenovania v slovenčine*. Prešov, Slovensko: Filozofická fakulta PU v Prešove, 2015.

Black, E. B. (1933). *The Ravenelle Riddle*. First Edition. New York, New York: Loring & Mussey.

Bolt, R. (1960). *A Man for All Seasons*. London, England: William Heinemann Ltd.

Cambridge Idioms Dictionary. (2006). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Cambridge Dictionary. https://dictionary.cambrigde.org

Cambridge Phrasal Verbs Dictionary. (2006). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Collins Dictionary. www.collinsdictionary.com

Council of Europe. (2020). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment – Companion volume*. Council of Europe, Strasbourg. Retrieved 10 November 2024 from www.coe.int/lang-cefr

Cowie, A. P., Mackin, R., & McCaig, I. R. (1993). *Oxford Dictionary of English Idioms*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Coxhead, A. (2000). A New Academic Word List. *TESOL Quarterly*, *34*(2), 213-238. https://doi.org/10.2307/3587951

Dušková, L. a kol. (1991). *Mluvnice současné angličtiny na pozadí češtiny* (6. opravené vydání). Praha, Česká republika: Akademie věd České republiky.

Ebner, R. J., & Ehri, L. C. (2013). Vocabulary Learning on the Internet: Using a Structured Think-Aloud Procedure. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 56(6), 480-489. https://doi.org/10.1002/JAAL.169

Eoghan, R. (2023, August 12). *What is Simile? Meaning, Definition and Examples*. Scribbr. https://www.scribbr.com/rhetoric/simile/

Etymology dictionary. www.etymonline.com

Firth, J. R. (1957). *Papers in linguistics 1934-1951*. London, England: Oxford University Press.

Fronek, J., & Mokráň, P. (2006). Rozsiahly prehľadný Anglicko-slovenský slovník. Bratislava, Slovensko: Nová práca, spol. s r. o.

Green, A. (2025, July 30). *Good Samaritan praised after fire at restaurant*. BBC. https://www.bbc.com/news/articles/c5y0x87g137o

Hall Page, K. (2001). *The Body in the Moonlight: A Faith Fairchild Mystery*. New York City, New York: HaperCollins Publishers.

Kálaziová, I., & Gajdáčová Veselá, K. (2020). *Contrastive Phraseology*. Nitra, Slovensko: Pedagogická fakulta Univerzity Konštantína Filozofa v Nitre.

Kvetko, P. (2005). *English Lexicology: In Theory and Practice*. Trnava, Slovakia: Univerzita sv. Cyrila a Metoda v Trnave.

Kvetko, P. (2006). *An Outline of English Phraseology* (2nd Revised ed.). Trnava, Slovensko: Univerzita sv. Cyrila a Metoda v Trnave.

Larson, R. (2011). *Gabriel's Insurrection: A Full Length Historical Drama*. Bloomington, Indiana: iUniverse.

Lea, R. (2018, July 13). *Stig of the Dump author Clive King dies aged 94*. The Guardian. https://www.theguardian.com/books/2018/jul/13/stig-of-the-dump-author-clive-king-dies-aged-94

A list of countries and territories where English is an official language. Retrieved 25 November from https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_countries_and_territories_where_English_is_an_official_language

Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English Online. www.ldoceonline.com

McCarthy, M., & O'Dell, F. (2016). *Academic Vocabulary in Use*. (2nd ed.). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Merrifield, A. *Remembering Marshall Berman*. (2013, September 17). https://dissentmagazine.org/blog/remembering-marshall-berman/

Merriam-Webster Dictionary. www.merriam-webster.com

Mo, T. (1991). *The Redundancy of Courage*. London, England: Chatto & Windus.

Moehkardi, R. R. D. (2022). Grammatical and Lexical English Collocations: Some Possible Problems to Indonesian Learners of English. *Humaniora*, *14*(1), 53-62. https://media.neliti.com/media/publications/12012-grammatical-and-lexical-english-collocat-553b2dbb.pdf

Nattinger, J. R., & DeCarrico, J. S. (1992). *Lexical Phrases and Language Teaching*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

O'Casey, S. (1925). Juno and the Paycock. Act I. https://archive.org/details/in.ernet.dli.2015.475732/page/n13/mode/2up

O'Dell, F., & McCarthy, M. (2008). *English Collocations in Use. Advanced*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

O'Dell, F., & McCarthy, M. (2010). *English Idioms in Use. Advanced*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

O'Donnell, M. (2025, May 20). '*Talk of the Devil' Review: Ian Fleming's Ink-Stained Life*. BBC. The Wall Street Journal. https://www.wsj.com/arts-culture/books/talk-of-the-devil-review-ian-flemings-ink-stained-life-ac4dc63d

Richardson, H. H. (1910). *The Getting of Wisdom*. London, England William Heinemann.

SABC. (2025, December 31). *Limpopo residents urged to be safe amid inclement weather*. SABC NEWS. https://www.sabcnews.com/sabcnews/limpopo-residents-urged-to-be-safe-amid-inclement-weather/

Sauer, H., & Schwan, B. (2017). Heaven and Earth, Good and Bad, Answered and Said: A Survey of English Binomials and Multinomials (Part I). *Studia Linguistica Universitatis Iagellonicae Cracoviensis*, *134*(1), 83-96. https://doi.org/10.4467/20834624SL.17.007.6922

Schmitt, N. (2000). *Vocabulary in Language Teaching*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Sinclair, J. (1991). *Corpus, Concordance, Collocation*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Southey, R. (1853). *The doctor, &c.*, Vol. 3. London: Longman, Brown, Green, and Longmans. [eBook #70104]. https://www.gutenberg.org/cache/epub/70104/pg70104-images.html

Speake, J. (Ed.). (2015). *Oxford Dictionary of Proverbs*. (6th ed.). Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Stein, H. (19820. *Ethics (and Other Liabilities): Trying to live right in an amoral world*. New York City, New York: St. Martin's Press.

Svensén, B. (2009). *A Handbook of Lexicography: The Theory and Practice of Dictionary-Making*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
Thompson, H. W. (1939). *Body, Boots & Britches*. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: J. B. Lippincott Company.
Underwood, M. (1979). *Victim of Circumstance*. (1st ed.). London, England: Macmillan.
Wilder, L. I. (1939). *By the Shores of Silver Lake*. New York, New York: Harper & Brothers.
Williams, G. (2000). *Dr. Mortimer and the Aldgate Mystery*. London, England: Constable.
Williams, T. (1947). *A Streetcar Named Desire*. New York, New York: The New American Library, Inc.
Woods, S. (1979). *This Fatal Writ*. New York, New York: St. Martin's Press.
Wren, C. S. (1986, January 3). *Newfoundland nurtures its outlandish old nouns*. The New York Times. Retrieved 14 January 2026 from https://www.nytimes.com/1986/01/03/world/newfoundland-nurtures-its-outlandish-old-nouns.html

Title: **English Lexicology – Linguistic Seminar 4**

Author: doc. PaedDr. Zuzana Hrdličková, Ph.D.

Reviewers: prof. PhDr. Magdaléna Bilá, PhD.
PhDr. Jarmila Rusiňáková, PhD.

Publisher: Faculty of Education, Trnava University in Trnava

Edition: First edition

Published in: 2025

ISBN 978-80-568-0967-9
EAN 9788056809679