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**COMMUNICATIVE LEXICOLOGY**  
*(for first-year undergraduate students majoring in  
English philology and language teaching)*

**Methodological guide**

**Toshkent  
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*This methodological guide is designed for second-year full-time students of Philology and Language Teaching and supports the effective teaching of the course “Communicative Lexicology.” It aims to develop students’ understanding of word meanings, the role of lexical units in communication, and their correct use in real speech situations. The guide is based on modern linguistic approaches, including communicative competence, contextual analysis, interactive methods, and CEFR requirements. It covers denotative, connotative, and pragmatic meanings, as well as key lexical phenomena such as synonymy, antonymy, and polysemy through practical exercises.*

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The practical- methodical manual entitled “Communicative Lexicology”, prepared by K.F.Gulamjanova, senior teacher of the department of languages-2 at Oriental University, is intended for second-year students of the Philology and Teaching of Languages (Oriental Languages) program.

The manual has been reviewed and approved by the Scientific-Methodological Council of Oriental University and is recommended for use in the educational process.

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## ANNOTATION

*This methodological guide is intended for second-year full-time undergraduate students majoring in Philology and Language Teaching and is designed to support the effective organization of the teaching process for the course Communicative Lexicology. The guide aims to develop students' ability to deeply understand word meanings, comprehend the role of lexical units in the communicative process, and apply them correctly in real speech situations.*

*The guide is based on modern linguistic approaches, including communicative competence-oriented teaching, a differential approach, contextual analysis, interactive methods, and the requirements of the CEFR. It presents a comprehensive system of tasks and exercises focused on studying denotative, connotative, and pragmatic meanings of words, as well as on the practical use of lexical phenomena such as synonymy, antonymy, and polysemy in spoken and written communication.*

*The content of the guide outlines the aims and objectives of the course, effective teaching methods used in the instructional process, stages of lesson planning, various types of classes, communicatively oriented lexical exercises, and assessment criteria in detail. It also includes methodological recommendations for designing tasks appropriate to students' language proficiency levels, developing skills for identifying meaning through context, and organizing pair and group work.*

*The guide contributes to the development of competencies such as appropriate word choice in communication, understanding contextual variation of meaning, producing coherent and meaningful speech, and expressing ideas clearly and precisely. This methodological guide enables instructors to plan lessons effectively, organize classes in a logical sequence, monitor and assess learning activities, and systematically develop students' communicative lexical knowledge and skills.*

## INTRODUCTION

The course *Communicative Lexicology* serves as an essential theoretical and practical foundation for second-year students majoring in Philology and Language Teaching. This discipline is aimed at developing students' deep understanding of the semantic system of language units, enabling them to distinguish between the denotative, connotative, and pragmatic layers of word meaning, and equipping them with the skills to use lexical units accurately, appropriately, and purposefully in real communicative situations. In addition, the course trains students to analyze the role of lexical units in the process of communication, their function in shaping discourse meaning, and the semantic shifts that occur depending on context.

This methodological guide is designed to provide both theoretical support and practical assistance for teachers, novice specialists, and students in organizing the teaching and learning process effectively. The guide presents key sections of lexicology, types of word meaning, methods for teaching communicatively oriented lexical units, principles of lesson structuring, task design, and assessment criteria. Each component is accompanied by practical recommendations that facilitate the systematic development of students' lexical and communicative competence<sup>1</sup>.

The main objective of the *Communicative Lexicology* course is to develop students' ability to select appropriate lexical means in speech, apply them in accordance with communicative intent and situational context, determine word meaning contextually, and express ideas fluently, clearly, and precisely. To achieve this goal, the guide extensively incorporates interactive teaching methods, pair and group work formats, communication-enhancing tasks, and exercises based on real-life communicative situations. Through these activities, students learn to work with lexical units in practice and to apply lexical phenomena such as synonymy, antonymy, polysemy, stylistic variation, and other aspects of vocabulary use within authentic communicative contexts.

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<sup>1</sup> 27. Sinclair, J. (1991). *Corpus, concordance, collocation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

The methodological guide is grounded in CEFR requirements, a competency-based approach, integrative teaching principles, and differentiated instruction. Taking into account the diversity of students' linguistic backgrounds and proficiency levels, the exercises are structured according to the principle of progression from simple to complex. Furthermore, additional communicative tasks adapted to the B1 level are included. These tasks encourage active thinking, foster learners' confidence in communication, and promote effective and conscious use of lexical units in speech.<sup>2</sup>

This methodological guide enables instructors to:

- plan lessons effectively and purposefully;
- organize classes on a sound scientific and methodological basis;
- actively engage students in communicative activities;
- explain lexical units and demonstrate their contextual use;
- monitor and assess learning activities systematically;
- develop students' speech and communicative competence in a consistent manner.

By integrating the theoretical foundations of *Communicative Lexicology* with carefully designed practical exercises, this guide contributes to students' ability to use language consciously, actively, and effectively in real communicative situations. It supports the formation of lexical awareness, contextual sensitivity, and communicative confidence, which are essential components of professional linguistic training in modern philological education.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>2</sup> 4. Arnold, I. V. (1986). *Leksikologiya sovremennogo angliyskogo yazyka*. Moscow: Vysshaya shkola.

<sup>3</sup> 6. Bauer, L. (1983). *English word-formation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

## **THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL RECOMMENDATIONS FOR TEACHERS**

When teaching the course *Communicative Lexicology*, the instructor must possess a solid understanding of the theoretical foundations of lexicology and be able to guide students toward the correct and purposeful use of lexical units in real communicative contexts. The content of the course is based on developing an awareness of the denotative, connotative, and pragmatic layers of word meaning, analyzing semantic variation depending on context, and demonstrating the communicative significance of lexical phenomena such as synonymy, antonymy, polysemy, and related lexical relations. These theoretical concepts should be presented through clear explanations supported by simple examples, contextual analyses, and communication-oriented tasks that make abstract notions accessible and practical for learners.

In every topic, the role of context should be emphasized as a central element, since the actual meaning of a word is determined by the text, the communicative situation, and the speaker's intention. Therefore, teachers should consistently train students to infer meaning from context, distinguish subtle semantic nuances, and develop an appropriate sense of lexical choice in situational communication. In this process, CEFR principles and the development of communicative, sociolinguistic, and pragmatic competences serve as an essential theoretical framework guiding instruction and classroom practice.<sup>4</sup>

Practical classes should focus on active student participation, purposeful lexical usage in communication, and the application of vocabulary in realistic situations. For this reason, it is recommended that each lesson incorporate interactive methods such as pair and group work, mini-dialogues, discussions, question-and-answer activities, role plays, and work with lexical cards. Tasks that involve finding synonyms and antonyms, constructing sentences, identifying active vocabulary in texts, and reusing lexical

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<sup>4</sup> Lakoff, R. (1975). *Language and women's place*. New York: Harper & Row.

units in new contexts significantly enhance lesson effectiveness and student engagement.

Text-based work also constitutes a core component of the course. Text analysis should proceed through several stages: identifying key lexical units, determining their meanings based on context, recognizing collocations, and modeling communicative situations using these lexical items. This approach helps students develop not only lexical knowledge but also broader communicative and discourse competence, enabling them to transfer vocabulary knowledge into meaningful speech production.<sup>5</sup>

Assessment should be based on a criterion-referenced approach, where students' lexical range, semantic accuracy, ability to produce context-appropriate speech, communicative participation, and reduction of lexical errors are considered key indicators of progress. For evaluating oral speech, the use of rubrics is recommended, as they ensure transparency, objectivity, and consistency in assessment while providing constructive feedback to learners.<sup>6</sup>

Encouraging students' independent learning is another important responsibility of the teacher. Useful strategies include maintaining thematic vocabulary notebooks, recording new words with contextual examples, using online dictionaries and collocation databases, preparing mini-presentations, and completing daily lexical practice tasks. These activities foster learner autonomy and support continuous vocabulary development beyond the classroom.

To organize the teaching process effectively, it is advisable to begin each lesson with a real or simulated communicative situation, reinforce the theoretical component with clear and relevant examples, design exercises following the principle of progression from simple to complex, and conclude the lesson with reflection. Additionally, instead of directly criticizing errors, teachers are encouraged to model correct usage and guide students toward self-correction through examples and reformulation.

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<sup>5</sup> McCarthy, M., & O'Dell, F. (2002). *English idioms in use*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

<sup>6</sup> Trask, R. L. (2007). *Language and linguistics: The key concepts*. London: Routledge.

These theoretical and practical recommendations enable teachers of *Communicative Lexicology* to design meaningful and engaging lessons, motivate students toward active participation, and systematically develop their lexical and communicative competence. Ultimately, such an approach supports the formation of confident language users who can consciously and effectively employ lexical resources in authentic communicative contexts.

Communicative lexicology is a linguistic discipline that examines vocabulary not as an abstract system of words, but as a dynamic and functional resource used by speakers to achieve communicative goals. It goes beyond traditional lexicology by focusing on how lexical units operate in real-life communication, where meaning is shaped by context, intention, social relations, and cultural norms. The theoretical foundations of communicative lexicology draw on several interrelated linguistic frameworks, including communicative theory, lexical semantics, pragmatics, discourse analysis, and communicative competence.<sup>7</sup>

At the core of communicative lexicology lies the communicative approach to language, which conceptualizes language primarily as a system of social interaction rather than merely a formal arrangement of grammatical and lexical structures. From this perspective, language is understood as purposeful action, and lexical choice is inseparable from the communicative intentions of the speaker and the interpretive processes of the listener.

Within this framework, words are not treated as neutral carriers of dictionary meaning, but as context-sensitive linguistic units whose meaning and function are realized in discourse. Lexical items are selected and interpreted in relation to pragmatic factors such as illocutionary force, speaker intention, and anticipated perlocutionary effect. Consequently, the same lexical unit may perform different communicative functions depending on contextual parameters, including time, place, participants, and communicative goals.

Speakers' lexical choices are governed by a complex interaction of sociolinguistic and pragmatic variables, such as register, degree

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<sup>7</sup> World Animal Protection. (2020). Global Animal Welfare Report 2020. <https://www.worldanimalprotection.org>

of formality, power relations, social distance between interlocutors, and cultural conventions. For example, the selection between synonymous lexical items<sup>8</sup> (e.g., ask vs. request, help vs. assist) reflects sensitivity to institutional context, discourse type, and norms of politeness. In this sense, vocabulary functions as a marker of social identity, stance, and interpersonal alignment.

Furthermore, communicative lexicology emphasizes the role of lexical pragmatics, where meaning is dynamically constructed through processes such as implicature, inference, and contextual enrichment. Words often convey meanings that extend beyond their semantic core, allowing speakers to express evaluation, attitude, modality, and emotional stance. This highlights the strategic use of lexis in managing face, mitigating or intensifying speech acts, and negotiating meaning in interaction.<sup>9</sup>

Thus, within the communicative approach, vocabulary is viewed as a functional and strategic resource rather than a static inventory. Lexical competence involves not only knowledge of word meanings but also the ability to deploy lexical items appropriately and effectively in discourse. Through strategic lexical selection, speakers are able to realize communicative intentions, regulate interpersonal relationships, and achieve specific rhetorical and pragmatic effects, underscoring the central role of lexis in successful communication.

A central theoretical component of communicative lexicology is lexical semantics, with particular emphasis on the distinction and interaction between denotative, connotative, and pragmatic meaning. This tripartite model of meaning allows for a more comprehensive understanding of how words function in real communication, moving beyond static definitions toward dynamic meaning construction in discourse.

Denotative meaning refers to the core, referential meaning of a lexical unit, that is, the basic concept or object a word designates in the external world. It is the most stable and context-independent layer of meaning and is typically codified in dictionaries. In communicative lexicology, denotative meaning serves as the

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<sup>8</sup> Humane Society International. (2021). Animal Welfare and Ethics Overview. <https://www.hsi.org>

<sup>9</sup> Sinclair, J. (1991). *Corpus, concordance, collocation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

semantic foundation upon which other layers of meaning are built. However, while denotation provides essential reference, it alone is insufficient for explaining how words operate in actual communicative situations.<sup>10</sup>

Connotative meaning encompasses the additional semantic components that reflect speakers' emotional attitudes, evaluations, stylistic coloring, and cultural associations. These meanings are often subjective and socially conditioned, varying across cultures, communities, and historical periods. Connotation plays a crucial role in shaping the expressive and persuasive power of lexical choices.<sup>11</sup> For instance, words with similar denotative meanings may differ significantly in connotation, allowing speakers to signal approval, disapproval, irony, or solidarity. Communicative lexicology examines how speakers consciously or unconsciously exploit connotative meaning to express stance, construct identity, and influence the listener.

Pragmatic meaning arises from the interaction between the lexical unit, the communicative context, and the speaker's intention. It is highly context-dependent and cannot be fully predicted from dictionary meaning alone. Pragmatic meaning is closely linked to factors such as discourse situation, shared knowledge, presuppositions, and communicative goals. A word or expression may acquire additional implied meanings through processes such as implicature, politeness strategies, or indirectness. From a communicative lexicology perspective, pragmatic meaning is essential for understanding how lexical items function as tools for performing speech acts and managing interpersonal relations.<sup>12</sup>

Communicative lexicology investigates how these three layers of meaning are not isolated, but interact dynamically in discourse. In real communication, speakers strategically combine denotative precision, connotative nuance, and pragmatic appropriateness to produce messages that are both meaningful and effective. By

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<sup>10</sup>Lehrer, A. (1974). *Semantic fields and lexical structure*. Amsterdam: North-Holland.

<sup>11</sup> Fromkin, V., Rodman, R., & Hyams, N. (2013). *An introduction to language* (10th ed.). Boston: Cengage Learning.

<sup>12</sup> Abdurahmonov, G., & Mengliyev, B. (2010). *Umumiy tilshunoslik*. Tashkent: Fan.

analyzing this interaction, communicative lexicology explains how lexical choices contribute to subtle meaning distinctions, contextual adaptability, and communicative success.<sup>13</sup>

Closely related to this is pragmatics, which studies meaning in use. Speech act theory, developed by J. L. Austin and J. Searle, plays a significant role in communicative lexicology. According to this theory, utterances perform actions such as requesting, promising, apologizing, or advising. Lexical choices directly contribute to the illocutionary force of an utterance, determining how it is interpreted by the listener. For example, the selection of polite forms, hedges, or modal verbs can soften a request or express respect, highlighting the pragmatic power of vocabulary in communication.

Another important foundation is discourse analysis, which examines how lexical units function beyond individual sentences in coherent texts and conversations. Communicative lexicology explores how vocabulary contributes to textual cohesion, coherence, and thematic development. Phenomena such as collocation, lexical repetition, synonymy, and semantic fields are analyzed in relation to how they structure discourse and guide interpretation. From this perspective, words are not isolated items but elements of larger communicative patterns.<sup>14</sup>

The concept of communicative competence, introduced by Dell Hymes, is also fundamental. Communicative competence includes lexical knowledge, grammatical accuracy, sociolinguistic appropriateness, and pragmatic effectiveness. Communicative lexicology emphasizes the lexical component of this competence, focusing on the ability to select appropriate words according to social roles, cultural norms, and communicative situations. This includes sensitivity to register, politeness strategies, idiomatic usage, and culturally bound expressions.

In addition, communicative lexicology is influenced by functional linguistics, which views language as a system shaped by its functions in social interaction. From this perspective, lexical choices reflect the speaker's communicative needs and the

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<sup>13</sup> Akhmanova, O. S. (1966). *Slovar lingvisticheskikh terminov*. Moscow: Sovetskaya entsiklopediya.

<sup>14</sup> Cruse, D. A. (1986). *Lexical semantics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

functional demands of discourse. Vocabulary is seen as adaptable and context-dependent, constantly shaped by use rather than fixed rules.

In conclusion, the theoretical foundations of communicative lexicology are interdisciplinary in nature, combining insights from lexical semantics, pragmatics, discourse analysis, functional linguistics, and communicative competence theory. Together, these frameworks explain how lexical units function in real communication, how meaning is negotiated between speakers, and how effective lexical choice contributes to successful, appropriate, and meaningful interaction.

## METHODOLOGY OF COMMUNICATIVE LEXICOLOGY

The methodology of *Communicative Lexicology* is grounded in the communicative approach to language, which considers vocabulary not merely as a list of words with fixed meanings, but as a flexible and dynamic system that functions within real acts of communication. In this perspective, lexical competence is inseparable from communicative competence, and vocabulary learning is viewed as a process of acquiring the ability to use words meaningfully, appropriately, and strategically in different social, cultural, and situational contexts.

A central methodological principle of communicative lexicology is the **integration of lexical semantics and discourse**. Learners are taught to analyze words at multiple levels: denotative meaning (core, referential meaning), connotative meaning (emotional, evaluative, and cultural associations), and pragmatic meaning (speaker intention and contextual use). This layered approach enables students to understand not only what a word means, but also how and why it is used in a particular communicative situation. As a result, learners develop sensitivity to meaning variation, register, and stylistic choice.<sup>15</sup>

Another key aspect of the methodology is **contextualization**. Vocabulary is introduced and practiced within authentic or semi-authentic contexts such as texts, dialogues, situational descriptions, and discourse fragments. Students are encouraged to infer meaning from context rather than relying solely on dictionary definitions. Contextual analysis tasks help learners identify semantic nuances, collocations, idiomatic expressions, and patterns of lexical co-occurrence. This approach reflects natural language processing and supports deeper lexical retention and transfer to active use.

**Interaction and communication-based activities** form the methodological core of classroom practice. Pair work, group discussions, role plays, simulations, debates, and problem-solving tasks provide opportunities for learners to actively use lexical

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<sup>15</sup> Brown, P., & Levinson, S. C. (1987). *Politeness: Some universals in language usage*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

items to express meaning, negotiate understanding, and achieve communicative goals. Through interaction, students test lexical hypotheses, refine word choice, and receive immediate feedback, which contributes to the development of lexical fluency and confidence in communication.

The methodology also places strong emphasis on the **systematic study of lexical relations and structures**. Learners explore synonymy, antonymy, polysemy, homonymy, hyponymy, collocation, and stylistic stratification of vocabulary. Activities such as paraphrasing, lexical substitution, semantic mapping, and contrastive analysis help students understand how different lexical choices influence meaning, tone, and communicative impact. This analytical dimension strengthens learners' lexical awareness and expressive precision.<sup>16</sup>

A further methodological principle is **progression and differentiation**. Vocabulary instruction is organized according to the principle of moving from simple to complex, from controlled practice to free production. Tasks are adapted to learners' proficiency levels and aligned with CEFR descriptors. At lower levels, emphasis is placed on recognition, comprehension, and guided use of lexical units, while at higher levels learners engage in discourse-based tasks, creative language use, and critical analysis of lexical choices. Differentiated instruction ensures that learners with varying linguistic backgrounds can progress effectively.

**Assessment within communicative lexicology** is competency-based and criterion-referenced. Evaluation focuses not only on the quantity of vocabulary knowledge, but also on the quality of lexical use: accuracy, appropriateness, fluency, and contextual relevance. Both formative and summative assessment methods are employed, including observation, oral performance, written tasks, portfolios, self-assessment, and peer assessment. Rubrics and clear descriptors are used to provide transparent and constructive feedback, supporting learners' awareness of their progress.

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<sup>16</sup> Crystal, D. (2008). A dictionary of linguistics and phonetics. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.

An essential component of the methodology is the development of **learner autonomy and reflective skills**. Students are encouraged to take responsibility for their own vocabulary learning by maintaining lexical journals, creating thematic word lists, recording examples of authentic usage, and using digital resources such as online dictionaries and collocation databases. Reflection on lexical choices and communicative effectiveness helps learners develop metalinguistic awareness and long-term learning strategies.<sup>17</sup>

Finally, the methodology of communicative lexicology is **integrative in nature**, linking vocabulary learning with speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills. Lexical instruction is embedded within broader communicative tasks and discourse practices, ensuring that vocabulary is learned as a functional tool for meaning-making rather than as isolated items. This integrative approach prepares learners to participate effectively in real-life communication and academic discourse.

In conclusion, the methodology of *Communicative Lexicology* combines linguistic theory with modern pedagogical principles to develop learners' lexical and communicative competence holistically. By emphasizing context, interaction, semantic depth, learner autonomy, and competency-based assessment, it equips students with the skills necessary to use lexical resources consciously, flexibly, and effectively in diverse communicative situations.

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<sup>17</sup> Bauer, L. (1983). *English word-formation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

## INTRODUCTION TO COMMUNICATIVE LEXICOLOGY

### Introduce the Topic of Semantic Fields:

- **Definition:** Explain that a **semantic field** is a set of words grouped together because they share a common aspect of meaning. Words within a semantic field are often related in a way that they cover different aspects of the same concept or topic.

- **Examples:** For instance, words related to "**colors**" (red, blue, green), "**emotions**" (happiness, sadness, joy, anger), or "**foods**" (fruit, vegetables, meat, dairy).<sup>18</sup>

### Lexical Relations:

Introduce the students to key lexical relations that occur within semantic fields.

- **Synonyms:** Words with similar meanings (e.g., **happy – joyful**). Discuss how even synonyms can have slightly different connotations and how context determines which one is used.

- **Antonyms:** Words with opposite meanings (e.g., **hot – cold**). Emphasize **gradable antonyms** (hot/cold) vs. **complementary antonyms** (alive/dead).

- **Hyponyms:** More specific words under a general term (e.g., **rose** and **daisy** are hyponyms of **flower**).

- **Hypernyms:** General terms under which more specific words fall (e.g., **animal** as a hypernym for **dog, cat, bird**).

### Examples and Practice:

Use examples of semantic fields like **transportation** (bus, car, train, airplane), **technology** (phone, tablet, laptop, computer), or **weather** (sunny, rainy, cloudy, windy). Ask students to identify relationships between words in these fields.

### Interactive Exercise:

Have the students create their own semantic fields in groups. Provide them with categories like **emotions, places, or foods**, and ask them to list as many related words as they can. Then, they should identify which words are synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms, or hypernyms.<sup>19</sup>

### Conclusion

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<sup>18</sup> Bauer, L. (1983). English word-formation. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

<sup>19</sup> Aitchison, J. (2012). Words in the mind: An introduction to the mental lexicon. Oxford: Blackwell.

1. **Discussion:**

Have a brief discussion on how **semantic fields** and **lexical relations** are used in language for effective communication. Ask students to share any new insights or questions they might have.

2. **Closing Activity:**

Ask students to write a short paragraph using a specific semantic field. They should try to use at least two synonyms, one antonym, one hyponym, and one hypernym in their writing. This will test their understanding of lexical relations in context.<sup>20</sup>

**Homework Assignment:**

1. **Research and Presentation:**

Assign each student or group a semantic field (e.g., sports, professions, emotions). They will research the related words, identify the lexical relations, and give a short presentation on how these words interact within their respective field.

2. **Reflection:**

Ask students to write a reflection on how semantic fields and lexical relations influence the meanings of words in everyday communication. How do these relationships help in understanding the nuances of language?

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<sup>20</sup> Brown, P., & Levinson, S. C. (1987). *Politeness: Some universals in language usage*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

## THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEXICOLOGY AND COMMUNICATIO

Objective: To help students understand how words with similar or opposite meanings function in different contexts.

Instructions:

1. Preparation: Write a list of 10 words (both common and slightly advanced) on the board. Examples: big, happy, fast, good, sad, loud, etc.

2. Task:

- Divide the class into two teams. One team will be responsible for providing synonyms, and the other for antonyms.

- Call out each word one by one, and one member from each team must quickly give either a synonym or antonym of the word.

- If they give the correct answer, they earn a point for their team.

Example Words:

- Happy (synonym: joyful, antonym: sad)

- Big (synonym: large, antonym: small)

- Fast (synonym: quick, antonym: slow)

- Loud (synonym: noisy, antonym: quiet)<sup>21</sup>

3. Variation: You can make it more challenging by adding contextual sentences, so they must find a synonym/antonym that fits the context<sup>22</sup>. Example:

- "The movie was really \_\_\_\_\_."

- Synonym: entertaining, antonym: boring.

Goal:

- This activity encourages quick thinking, improves vocabulary recall, and helps students see how synonyms and antonyms fit into different contexts.

### Activity 2: Polysemy Puzzle

Objective: To explore how a single word can have multiple meanings based on context (polysemy).

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<sup>21</sup> Yo'ldoshev, M. (2008). *Tilshunoslik nazariyasi*. Toshkent: Universitet

<sup>22</sup> Yule, G. (1996). *Pragmatics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Instructions:

1. Preparation: Choose 5–6 polysemous words (words with multiple meanings) for this activity. For example:
  - "Light" (can mean something not heavy, or something that illuminates)
  - "Bank" (can mean a financial institution or the side of a river)
  - "Run" (can mean to move quickly on foot or to manage something like a business)
  - "Bat" (can mean an animal or a piece of sports equipment)
  - "Match" (can refer to a competition or something that starts a fire)
2. Task:
  - Write the words on the board and divide students into pairs or small groups.
  - Give each group a word and ask them to write two or more meanings of that word based on different contexts. For example, "bank" can be a place to keep money or the side of a river.
3. Sharing: After 5 minutes, each group will present their word and meanings to the class. For each meaning, they must create a contextual sentence.

Example Sentences for "Bat":

- "He swung the bat and hit the ball."
- "A bat flew out of the cave at dusk."

4. Discussion: Discuss how these polysemous words can lead to ambiguity and how context is key in determining meaning.
  - This activity helps students understand how context impacts word meaning and how polysemy works in real communication.

Activity 3: Neologism Creation

Objective: To encourage creativity in language and understand the process of creating new words (neologisms) in contemporary society.

Instructions:

1. Preparation: Briefly explain what neologisms are – newly coined words or expressions that reflect the changing

nature of language, especially with technology, culture, and society.<sup>23</sup>

Examples of Neologisms:

- "Selfie" (a self-taken photo)
  - "Emoji" (a digital icon expressing emotions)
  - "Binge-watch" (to watch multiple episodes of a TV series in one sitting)
  - "Hangry" (a combination of hungry and angry)
2. Task:
- Divide the class into small groups and assign them the task of creating their own neologism. They should:
    - Choose a topic from modern life (e.g., social media, technology, food trends, environmental issues).
    - Invent a new word that reflects a concept or phenomenon related to that topic.
    - Define the word and use it in a sentence.
3. Sharing: After 10 minutes, each group will present their neologism, its meaning, and an example sentence to the class.
4. Reflection: After the presentations, have a short discussion on the process of creating neologisms, how new words become popular, and why some neologisms are adopted into everyday language while others fade away.

Goal:

- This activity helps students understand how language evolves and how neologisms often come from the changing needs of society. It also encourages creativity and deeper thinking about language.

Activity 3: Synonym & Antonym Storytelling

Objective: To practice using synonyms and antonyms in a contextual narrative.

Instructions:

1. Preparation: Write down a simple sentence on the board, such as:
  - "The car was fast."
2. Task:

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<sup>23</sup>TED-Ed – Animal Behavior Videos  
[https://www.youtube.com/playlist?list=PLJicmE8fK0EiG70JHbA\\_Exgkt1PyfuzMd](https://www.youtube.com/playlist?list=PLJicmE8fK0EiG70JHbA_Exgkt1PyfuzMd)

- In pairs or small groups, ask students to rewrite the sentence using at least 3 synonyms for different words in the sentence and 1 antonym.
- For example:
  - "The car was quick, sleek, and speedy, but it wasn't as fast as I expected."

3. Story Creation: After students complete this, ask them to expand their sentences into a short narrative or story. Encourage them to be creative and use as many synonyms and antonyms as possible.

4. Sharing: Have a few students share their stories with the class.

Goal:

- This activity emphasizes the practical use of synonyms and antonyms in context and helps students develop their storytelling skills using varied vocabulary.

Activity 5: Speed Round: Polysemy and Neologism Quiz

Objective: To test students' understanding of polysemy and neologisms through quick thinking and application.<sup>24</sup>

Instructions:

1. Prepare a list of polysemous words and recent neologisms.
2. Ask questions rapidly (like a speed round), and students must answer whether the word has multiple meanings or is a neologism, and if so, give its meanings or context.

Example Questions:

- "Text": Neologism or polysemy? (Answer: Polysemy – to send a message, or written words in a document)
- "Bae": Neologism or not? (Answer: Neologism – a term of endearment)
- 3. Award points for quick and correct responses.

Goal:

- This final activity helps quickly reinforce students' understanding and test their knowledge in a fun, competitive way.<sup>25</sup>

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<sup>24</sup> Plag, I. (2003). Word-formation in English. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

<sup>25</sup> Qodirov, B. (2019). Pragmatika asoslari. Toshkent: Yangi asr avlodi.

## LEXICAL UNITS: WORDS, COLLOCATIONS, AND IDIOMS

### Lesson Goals

By the end of the lesson, students will be able to:

1. Define lexical units and differentiate words, collocations, and idioms.
2. Identify collocations and idioms in authentic texts.
3. Explain how idioms differ in meaning from literal words.
4. Apply knowledge by producing original sentences with words, collocations, and idioms.
5. Reflect on cultural aspects of idiomatic expressions.

#### 1. Warm-up (10 min) – *Lexical Treasure Hunt*

- Write 3 sentences on the board containing one word, one collocation, and one idiom (e.g., *take a photo, heavy rain, break the ice*).

- Students in pairs try to guess which part is just a word, a collocation, or an idiom.

- Quick feedback: clarify definitions.

#### 2. Input & Explanation (20 min)

- Mini-lecture with visuals:

- Word – smallest independent unit with meaning.

- Collocation – typical combination (e.g., *strong tea*, not *powerful tea*).

- Idiom – meaning not deducible from words (e.g., *spill the beans* = reveal a secret).

What is a Collocation?

A collocation is a natural combination of words that native speakers often use together.

Even though other combinations may be grammatically correct, they sound strange or “unnatural.”<sup>26</sup>

Definition for students:

*A collocation is two or more words that usually go together in English, sounding natural to native speakers.*

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<sup>26</sup> Mengliyev, B. (2012). *Tilshunoslikka kirish*. Toshkent: Universitet nashriyoti.

## Common Collocations List

1. Verb + Noun	2. Adjective + Noun	3. Noun + Noun
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• make a mistake</li> <li>• make a decision</li> <li>• make progress</li> <li>• do homework</li> <li>• do research</li> <li>• do business</li> <li>• take a photo</li> <li>• take a break</li> <li>• take responsibility</li> <li>• catch a bus/train</li> <li>• catch a cold</li> <li>• catch someone's attention</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• heavy rain</li> <li>• strong tea/coffee</li> <li>• fast food</li> <li>• hard work</li> <li>• deep sleep</li> <li>• high price</li> <li>• rich vocabulary</li> <li>• great importance</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• traffic jam</li> <li>• language barrier</li> <li>• customer service</li> <li>• job opportunity</li> <li>• human rights</li> <li>• crime rate</li> <li>• peace agreement</li> </ul>
4. Adverb + Adjective	5. Verb + Preposition	6. Common Expressions (Chunks)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• deeply concerned</li> <li>• highly successful</li> <li>• strongly recommended</li> <li>• fully aware</li> <li>• terribly sorry</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• depend on</li> <li>• believe in</li> <li>• focus on</li> <li>• deal with</li> <li>• belong to</li> <li>• listen to</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• pay attention</li> <li>• keep in touch</li> <li>• lose weight</li> <li>• gain experience</li> <li>• save time</li> <li>• tell the truth</li> </ul>

What is an Idiom?

Simple definition for students:

An idiom is a group of words with a special meaning that is different from the literal meaning of the individual words.

So, if you translate the words one by one, the meaning will not make sense. You must understand it as a whole.<sup>27</sup>

### Examples of Idioms

1. Break the ice → to make people feel more comfortable in a new situation.

○ *The teacher told a joke to break the ice.*

2. Once in a blue moon → very rarely.

○ *She eats fast food once in a blue moon.*

3. Hit the books → to start studying hard.

○ *I need to hit the books for tomorrow's exam.*

4. Spill the beans → reveal a secret.

○ *He accidentally spilled the beans about the surprise party.*

5. Under the weather → feeling sick or not well.

○ *I can't come to class today. I'm under the weather.*

### Difference between Collocation and Idiom

• Collocation = words that go naturally together (*make a mistake, heavy rain*).

• Idiom = words that together mean something different from their literal meaning (*break the ice* = not about real ice).

### Common Idioms for Students

1. Break the ice  
Make people feel more comfortable in a new situation.  
*The teacher told a funny story to break the ice.*

2. Once in a blue moon  
Something that happens very rarely.  
*She eats pizza once in a blue moon.*

3. Hit the books  
Start studying seriously.  
*I have an exam tomorrow — time to hit the books.*

4. Spill the beans  
Reveal a secret.  
*He spilled the beans about the surprise party.*

5. Under the weather  
Feeling unwell or sick.  
*I can't come today, I feel under the weather.*

6. Piece of cake  
Something very easy.  
*The test was a piece of cake.*

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<sup>27</sup> McCarthy, M., & O'Dell, F. (2005). English collocations in use. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

7. Cost an arm and a leg  
Very expensive.  
*That phone costs an arm and a leg.*
8. Burn the midnight oil  
Work late into the night.  
*She's burning the midnight oil to finish her project.*
9. Hit the sack  
Go to bed.  
*I'm so tired, I'll hit the sack early tonight.*
10. Break a leg  
Good luck (especially before a performance).  
*"You're on stage next — break a leg!"*
11. The ball is in your court  
It's your turn to make a decision.  
*I've done all I can — now the ball is in your court.*
12. Bite your tongue  
Stop yourself from saying something.  
*I had to bite my tongue not to argue.*
13. Cry over spilt milk  
Worry about something that cannot be changed.  
*It was a mistake, but don't cry over spilt milk.*
14. Sit on the fence  
To avoid making a decision.  
*He's still sitting on the fence about which course to choose.*
15. A blessing in disguise  
Something that seems bad but has a good result.  
*Losing that job was a blessing in disguise.*
16. In hot water  
In trouble.  
*He forgot the homework and got into hot water.*
17. Pull someone's leg  
To joke with someone.  
*Relax, I'm just pulling your leg.*
18. Miss the boat  
To lose an opportunity.  
*I didn't apply on time, so I missed the boat.*
19. On cloud nine  
Extremely happy.  
*She was on cloud nine after passing her exam.*
20. Kill two birds with one stone  
Do two things at the same time with one action.  
*By studying on the train, I killed two birds with one stone<sup>28</sup>.*

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<sup>28</sup> Humane Society International. (2021). Animal Welfare and Ethics Overview. <https://www.hsi.org>

### 3. Guided Practice (20 min) – *Collocation Dominoes*

- Prepare cards: one half contains verbs/adjectives (*make, do, heavy, strong*), the other half nouns (*a decision, homework, rain, tea*).

- Students in groups match cards to form correct collocations.
- Discuss why some combinations are acceptable and others are odd.

### 4. Idiom Activity (20 min) – *Guess the Idiom*

- Show short dialogues or memes with idioms missing.

Example:

- "I was so nervous, but his joke really \_\_\_\_." (→ *broke the ice*).

- Students guess the idiom. Then, they act out 1–2 idioms in role-plays.

- Reflection: Discuss cultural differences (English idioms vs. Uzbek/Turkish equivalents).

#### 1. Idiom Charades (10–15 min)

- Write idioms on slips of paper (e.g., *spill the beans, hit the sack, on cloud nine*).

- One student picks a slip and acts out the idiom without speaking.

- The class guesses the idiom.

- The student who guesses correctly explains its meaning in a sentence.

*Fun because students get to laugh at the dramatizations and learn idioms visually.*

#### 2. Idiom Picture Match (15 min)

- Prepare pictures or memes that illustrate idioms literally (*cats and dogs falling from the sky for "raining cats and dogs"*).

- Students in pairs must match the picture to the idiom and then explain the *real meaning*.

*This makes idioms memorable because students see how funny literal meanings are.*

#### 3. Idiom Speed Dating (15–20 min)

- Each student gets an idiom card with meaning on one side and idiom on the other.

- Students stand in 2 circles (inside & outside).

- They “speed date”: explain their idiom to a partner, then switch after 1 minute.
- By the end, each student hears and practices 10–12 idioms quickly.

*Fast-paced, lots of talking, and students repeat idioms many times in context.*

#### 5. Production (15 min) – *Mini-Story Challenge*

- In pairs, students create a short story (5–6 sentences) using:
  - 2 single words,
  - 2 collocations,
  - 1 idiom.

Collocations - Details - Kahoot!

Work & Education verbs (collocations) - Details - Kahoot!

Funny Idioms Review - Details - Kahoot!

## WORD FORMATION PROCESSES

Short explanation (with examples for each):

1. Derivation (happy → happiness, unhappy)
2. Compounding (blackboard, babysitter)
3. Conversion (to email → an email)
4. Clipping (advertisement → ad)
5. Blending (smoke + fog = smog)
6. Acronyms/Initialisms (UNESCO, FBI)
7. Back-formation (editor → edit)
8. Reduplication (ping-pong, wishy-washy)<sup>29</sup>

### 1) Derivation (affixation)

What it is: Creating a new lexeme by adding prefixes (un-, re-, over-) or suffixes (-ness, -able, -ology) to a base.

Key point: Derivation often changes word class and/or core meaning.

### Examples

- *happy* → unhappy (prefix, meaning reversal)
- *happy* → happiness (suffix, adjective → noun)
- *friend* → friendship, friendless
- *Google* → deGoogleize (playful; shows productivity)

### Productivity notes

- Prefixes are generally more semantically predictable (un-, re-, pre-).

- Suffixes carry category information: -er (agent noun), -able (adjectival), -ize/ise (verb), -ness/ity (abstract nouns).

### Orthography & phonology

- Base spelling may shift: *happy* → *happi-ness*.
- Stress can shift with certain suffixes: *PHOTO* → *phoTOgraphy*.

### Common pitfalls to flag

- Derivation vs. inflection: *walk* → *walks* (inflection, not new lexeme); *walk* → *walker* (derivation).

- Overgeneralization: *unsincere* (X) vs *insincere* (✓) — teach negative prefix selection (un-/in-/im-/il-/ir-).

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<sup>29</sup> World Animal Protection. (2020). Global Animal Welfare Report 2020.  
<https://www.worldanimalprotection.org>

Micro-task (1 min): Give *kind, manage, legal, cycle* → make two derived forms each and label POS.

## 2) Compounding

What it is: Combining two (or more) free morphemes to form a single word/lexeme.

Types & examples

- N+N: *blackboard, babysitter, data center, coffee cup*
- Adj+N: *blackbird, smart home*
- V+N/N+V: *pickpocket, stir-fry*
- Phrase compounds: *over-the-counter, do-it-yourself*

Semantics

• Meaning is not always strictly compositional: *blackboard* isn't necessarily black; *butterfly* isn't butter + fly literally.

Orthography

• Three patterns: solid (*notebook*), hyphenated (*dry-run*), open (*ice cream*). Conventions vary across time and dialect.

Stress

• English compounds often have left-headed stress: BLACKbird (compound) vs black BIRD (phrase). Good for a pronunciation demo.

Pitfalls

• Compound vs. phrase ambiguity: *high school teacher* → [[high school] teacher] (compound modifier), not [high] [school teacher].

Quick activity: Show pairs like *blackbird / black bird, greenhouse / green house* → students decide “compound or phrase?” using stress and meaning.

## 3) Conversion (zero-derivation)

What it is: Changing word class without overt affixation (form stays the same).

Patterns

- N→V: *to google, to table (a motion), to chair (a meeting)*
- V→N: *a run, a guess, a reply*
- Adj→N: *the poor, the unknown*
- Interjection→V: *to wow, to huh?* (colloquial)

Why it matters communicatively

• It's a rapid, productive way to coin verbs in tech/business: *to DM, to sandbox, to green-light*.<sup>30</sup>

#### Pitfalls

• Learners may force an affix: *to make a discuss (X)* instead of *to discuss (✓)*—but *a discuss (X)* vs *a discussion (✓)*.

Task: Give nouns (*email, impact, friend*) → students create verbs in context sentences.

#### 4) Clipping

What it is: Shortening a longer word without changing meaning or class (usually).

##### Types & examples

• Back clipping: *advertisement* → *ad*, *influenza* → *flu*

• Fore clipping: *telephone* → *phone* (also seen as back clipping of *tele-phone* historically)

• Middle clipping: *refrigerator* → *fridge*

• Complex/clipped compounds: *sci-fi* (*science fiction*)

##### Register

• Often informal; some clippings become standard: *plane, photo, fax, exam*.

##### Orthographic quirks

• Spelling may adjust to preserve pronunciation: *refrigerator* → *fridge* (adds d).

Task: Give *laboratory, veterinarian, gymnasium, situation comedy* → students propose common clippings.

#### 5) Blending

What it is: Fusing parts of two words, typically the beginning of one and the end of another.

##### Examples

• *smoke + fog* → *smog*

• *breakfast + lunch* → *brunch*

• *motor + hotel* → *motel*

• *emotion + icon* → *emoji* (via Japanese; useful to discuss cross-linguistic flow)

• *binary + digit* → *bit*

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<sup>30</sup> Marchand, H. (1969). The categories and types of present-day English word-formation. München: Beck.

## Semantics & branding

- Highly productive in pop culture and marketing:

*edutainment, infotainment, cosplay, frenemy.*

### Pitfall

• Don't confuse with compounding. *smartphone* is a compound, not a blend (both full words remain).

Task: Give pairs (*work + vacation, fan + magazine, pandemic + economy*) → students coin *workation, fanzine, pandemiconomy* and justify.

## 6) Acronyms & Initialisms

What it is: Words formed from initial letters of a multi-word name/phrase.

Acronyms (pronounced as words)

• *UNESCO, NASA, UNESCO, radar* (originally *RADio Detection And Ranging*)

• *SCUBA* (*Self-Contained Underwater Breathing Apparatus*) → now lowercase *scuba*

Initialisms (spelled out)

• *FBI, BBC, DIY, ETA*

Mixed/variable

• *SQL* (ess-cue-ell vs *sequel*), *GIF* (hard vs soft g; debate is useful for class chat)

Grammaticalization

• Many become common nouns/verbs: *to laser* (rare), *a scuba diver*. Lowercasing signals lexicalization: *radar, laser*.

Pitfalls

• Article choice often follows pronunciation: *an* FBI agent (starts with vowel sound), *a* UNESCO official (starts with consonant sound "yoo-").

Task: Students list 5 abbreviations they use daily; classify as acronym vs initialism; make one sentence each.<sup>31</sup>

## 7) Back-formation

What it is: Creating a new base by removing a real or imagined affix from an existing word.

Examples

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<sup>31</sup> Plag, I. (2003). *Word-formation in English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- *editor* → *edit*
- *burglar* → *burgle* (BrE)
- *television* → *televise*
- *donation* → *donate*; *orientation* → *orientate* (BrE)

Why it's tricky

- Speakers reinterpret morphology: from *babysitter* (N), learners back-form to *babysit* (V).
- Not the same as clipping: meaning/function changes and class often shifts.

Task: Give nouns *sculptor*, *liaison*, *surveillance*, *enthusiasm* → can we (sensibly) back-form verbs? (*sculpt* ✓, *liaise* ✓, *surveil* ✓ (now used), *enthuse* ✓ (informal)).

## 8) Reduplication

What it is: Repetition (exact or with variation) of a syllable/word for phonesthetic or semantic effect.

Types & examples

- Exact: *bye-bye*, *goody-goody*
- Ablaut (vowel change): *zig-zag*, *flip-flop*, *tick-tock* (vowel order often i → a → o)
- Rhyming: *wishy-washy*, *hocus-pocus*, *super-duper*

Semantics

- Can imply iteration, informality, diminution, emphasis, or disparagement (*teeny-weeny*, *arty-farty*). Useful to discuss pragmatics and tone.

Cross-linguistic note

- Many languages use reduplication productively (great comparative discussion point for philology students).

Task: Give base words *tiny*, *messy*, *fancy* → students suggest playful reduplicatives and explain tone (*itsy-bitsy*, *messy-wessy*, *fancy-schmancy*).

## 1. Derivation

Process: Adding prefixes or suffixes to a root word to form a new word.

Examples:

- Friend → Friendship (Noun formed from Noun + Suffix *-ship*)
- Eat → Eatable (Adjective formed from Verb + Suffix *-able*)
- Happy → Unhappy (Adjective formed by Prefix *un-*).

- Create → Creation (Noun formed from Verb + Suffix *-tion*)
- Comfort → Comfortable (Adjective formed by adding *-able* to the noun).

## 2. Compounding

Process: Combining two or more words to form a new word.

Examples:

- Smart + phone → Smartphone (Noun formed by combining Adjective + Noun)
- Book + store → Bookstore (Noun formed by combining two Nouns)
- Baby + sitter → Babysitter (Noun formed by combining Noun + Noun)
- Green + house → Greenhouse (Noun formed by combining Adjective + Noun)
- Rain + coat → Raincoat (Noun formed by combining Noun + Noun)

## 3. Conversion (Zero Derivation)

Process: Changing the word class without adding affixes.

Examples:

- Google → To Google (Verb from Noun, Example: *I googled it*)
- Email → To email (Verb from Noun, Example: *I'll email you the file*)
- Impact → To impact (Verb from Noun, Example: *The decision will impact us*)
- Text → To text (Verb from Noun, Example: *I'll text you the details*)
- Google → Google it (Verb from Noun).

## 4. Clipping

Process: Shortening a longer word to create a more convenient term.

Examples:

- Telephone → Phone (Clipping of the whole word)
- Refrigerator → Fridge (Clipping of the middle part)
- Advertisement → Ad (Clipping of the beginning)
- Photograph → Photo (Clipping of the first part)
- Gymnasium → Gym (Clipping of the beginning).

## 5. Blending

Process: Combining parts of two words to create a new one.<sup>32</sup>

Examples:

- Breakfast + Lunch → Brunch (Blending of the first part of each word)
- Smoke + Fog → Smog (Blending of the middle parts of each word)
- Motor + Hotel → Motel (Blending of the first part of each word)
- Science + Fiction → Sci-fi (Blending of the first part of each word)
- Fiction + Documentary → Mockumentary (Blending of each word's first part)

#### 6. Acronyms/Initialisms

Process: Forming a word from the initial letters of a longer phrase.

Examples:

- NASA → National Aeronautics and Space Administration (Acronym)
- FBI → Federal Bureau of Investigation (Initialism)
- UNESCO → United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (Acronym)
- ATM → Automated Teller Machine (Initialism)
- URL → Uniform Resource Locator (Initialism)

#### 7. Back-formation<sup>33</sup>

Process: Creating a new word by removing an affix (often mistakenly or creatively).

Examples:

- Editor → Edit (Verb from Noun by removing the *-or*)
- Baker → Bake (Verb from Noun by removing the *-er*)
- Writer → Write (Verb from Noun by removing the *-er*)
- Actor → Act (Verb from Noun by removing the *-or*)
- Donation → Donate (Verb from Noun by removing the *-ion*)

#### 8. Reduplication

Process: Repeating a word or part of a word for emphasis, often with playful or informal connotations.

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<sup>32</sup> McCarthy, M., & O'Dell, F. (2002). English idioms in use. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

<sup>33</sup> Lyons, J. (1995). Semantics. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Examples:

- Ping-pong (Exact repetition, used for the sport and its sound)
- Wishy-washy (Exact repetition to convey indecisiveness)
- Hodge-podge (Exact repetition to convey something mixed or confused)
- Boogie-woogie (Exact repetition, used for a type of music or dance)
- Chit-chat (Exact repetition to convey light conversation)
- Roly-poly (Exact repetition to describe something round or playful).

Example Words & Their Processes:

1. Brunch
  - Process: Blending
  - Explanation: A combination of *breakfast* + *lunch*.
2. Motel
  - Process: Blending
  - Explanation: A combination of *motor* + *hotel*.
3. Hangry
  - Process: Blending
  - Explanation: A combination of *hungry* + *angry*.
4. Glamping
  - Process: Blending
  - Explanation: A combination of *glamorous* + *camping*.
5. Blog
  - Process: Clipping (from *weblog*)
  - Explanation: Shortened form of *weblog*.
6. Email
  - Process: Conversion (Zero Derivation)
  - Explanation: *Email* is both a noun and a verb.
7. Selfie
  - Process: Derivation
  - Explanation: Formed by adding the suffix *-ie* to *self*.
8. Text
  - Process: Back-formation
  - Explanation: *Text* is formed from *text message*.
9. Twerk

- Process: Back-formation
- Explanation: Derived from *twerking* (originally used as a dance).

10. FOMO

- Process: Acronym
- Explanation: *Fear Of Missing Out*.

11. GIF

- Process: Acronym
- Explanation: *Graphics Interchange Format*.

12. Chillax

- Process: Blending + Compounding
- Explanation: A combination of *chill* + *relax*.

13. Smog

- Process: Blending
- Explanation: A combination of *smoke* + *fog*.

14. Brangelina

- Process: Blending
- Explanation: A combination of *Brad Pitt* + *Angelina Jolie* (celebrity couple).

15. Bromance

- Process: Compounding
- Explanation: A combination of *bro* + *romance*.

16. Emoji

- Process: Blending
- Explanation: A combination of *emotion* + *icon*.

17. Google

- Process: Conversion (Zero Derivation)
- Explanation: From a noun to a verb (e.g., *to Google something*).

18. Podcast

- Process: Compounding
- Explanation: A combination of *iPod* + *broadcast*.

19. Texting

- Process: Back-formation
- Explanation: Derived from *text message*.

20. Cyberbullying

- Process: Compounding

◦Explanation: A combination of *cyber* + *bullying*.

Additional Fun Examples (for inspiration):

1. App

◦Process: Clipping

◦Explanation: Shortened form of *application*.

2. Ginormous

◦Process: Blending

◦Explanation: A blend of *gigantic* + *enormous*.

3. Frenemy

◦Process: Blending

◦Explanation: A blend of *friend* + *enemy*.

4. Webinar

◦Process: Blending

◦Explanation: A blend of *web* + *seminar*.

5. Blogosphere

◦Process: Compounding

◦Explanation: A combination of *blog* + *sphere*.

6. Mockumentary

◦Process: Blending

◦Explanation: A combination of *mock* + *documentary*.

7. Uberize

◦Process: Back-formation

◦Explanation: Derived from *Uber* (the company) to mean *to provide a service like Uber*.

8. Cray-cray

◦Process: Reduplication

◦Explanation: Repeating for emphasis, used to mean “crazy”.

## SPEECH ACTS AND THEIR LEXICAL IMPLICATIONS

### Types of Speech Acts

Speech Act Theory (J. L. Austin, later J. Searle) explains that every time we speak, three levels of meaning can happen at once:

#### 1. Locutionary Act

This is the literal meaning of the words you say (dictionary meaning). It's simply the *act of producing sounds, words, and sentences*.

Example:

- *"The door is open."* → just describing a fact.
- *"I like coffee."* → only stating preference.

#### 2. Illocutionary Act

This is the intended meaning of the speaker: what you really want to achieve by saying those words.

This is where speech becomes an action (requesting, promising, warning, apologizing, etc.).

Example:

- *"The door is open."* → could mean *"Please close it."* (request).
- *"I like coffee."* (in a café) → could mean *"Please bring me coffee."* (order/request).

So, the illocutionary force = the function of the utterance.<sup>34</sup>

### Categories of Illocutionary Speech Acts

Type	What it does	Examples
1. Assertives (or Representatives)	The speaker states or describes something as true/false.	<i>"The Earth is round." / "She lives in Tashkent."</i>
2. Directives	The speaker tries to make the listener do something.	<i>"Close the window." / "Please sit down." / "Could you help me?"</i>
3. Commissives	The speaker commits to a future action.	<i>"I promise to call you." / "I will help you with your homework."</i>
4. Expressives	The speaker expresses feelings or emotions.	<i>"I'm sorry for being late." / "Congratulations!" / "Thank you so much."</i>

<sup>34</sup> Lehrer, A. (1974). *Semantic fields and lexical structure*. Amsterdam: North-Holland.

5. Declarations	The speaker's words change reality immediately (only in special institutional contexts).	<i>"I now pronounce you husband and wife." / "You are fired." / "The meeting is closed."</i>
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### Quick Reminders for Students:

- Assertives → "This is true/false."
- Directives → "Do this."
- Commissives → "I will do this."
- Expressives → "I feel this."
- Declarations → "Now it is so because I said it."

This is very useful in *Communicative Lexicology*, because it shows how lexical choices (like *promise, request, apologize, declare*) carry illocutionary force.

### 3. Perlocutionary Act

This is the effect the utterance has on the listener.

It's not just what you say or intend, but how it influences others.

Example:

• *"The door is open."* → listener actually gets up and closes the door.

• *"I like coffee."* → the waiter brings coffee.

Simple Summary

- Locutionary → *What is said* (literal words).
- Illocutionary → *What is meant* (intention/function).
- Perlocutionary → *What happens* (effect/result).

Mini Example with One Sentence:

Sentence: *"Can you open the window?"*

- Locutionary: Asking about ability (literal).
- Illocutionary: Making a polite request.
- Perlocutionary: Listener actually opens the window.

Speech act types - Details - Kahoot!

## Worksheet: Writing Speech Acts in Context

### Instructions

Choose one of the situations below. Write a short dialogue or diary entry (8–10 sentences).

Make sure your text includes all five types of speech acts:

1. Assertive (state a fact)
2. Directive (request/order)
3. Commissive (promise)
4. Expressive (feeling)
5. Declaration (official act)<sup>35</sup>

After writing, exchange your work with a partner. Your partner will underline the sentences and label the speech act type.

### Situations / Prompts

<p>1. At a Birthday Party 🎂</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• You congratulate your friend.</li> <li>• You promise to give them a gift tomorrow.</li> <li>• You ask them to dance.</li> <li>• You state that the cake is delicious.</li> <li>• Someone declares the party open/finished.</li> </ul>	<p>2. At the Doctor's Office 🏥</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• You describe your symptoms.</li> <li>• You ask the doctor for advice.</li> <li>• The doctor promises to help.</li> <li>• You thank the doctor.</li> <li>• The doctor declares: "You are healthy / You need rest."</li> </ul>
<p>3. At a University Exam 📖</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• You state that the exam is difficult.</li> <li>• You ask your classmate for a pen.</li> <li>• You promise to help your friend study next time.</li> <li>• You apologize for disturbing them.</li> <li>• The teacher declares: "Time is up."</li> </ul>	<p>4. At a Wedding Ceremony 💍</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• You say how beautiful the bride looks.</li> <li>• You ask for a photo.</li> <li>• You promise to keep a secret.</li> <li>• You congratulate the couple.</li> <li>• The officiant declares: "I now pronounce you husband and wife."</li> </ul>
<p>5. At the Airport ✈️</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• You state the flight is delayed.</li> <li>• You ask for directions to the gate.</li> </ul>	<p>At the Hospital 🏥</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• You state that you feel unwell.</li> <li>• You ask the doctor for help.</li> </ul>

<sup>35</sup> Leech, G. (1983). Principles of pragmatics. London: Longman.

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• You promise to call your family when you arrive.</li> <li>• You express frustration or excitement.</li> <li>• The airline staff declares: "Boarding is now open."</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• You promise to take the prescribed medicine.</li> <li>• You express gratitude or fear.</li> <li>• The doctor declares: "<i>You are now discharged.</i>"</li> </ul>
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## Worksheet 2: Complete the Dialogue with Speech Acts

### Instructions

Fill in the blanks with sentences that match the speech act type given in brackets.

Be creative, but make sure your sentence shows the correct function (assertive, directive, commissive, expressive, declarative).

### 1. In the Classroom 🏫

Teacher: "*Good morning, everyone.*" (Assertive)

Student: \_\_\_\_\_ (Directive)

Teacher: \_\_\_\_\_ (Commissive)

Student: \_\_\_\_\_ (Expressive)

Teacher: \_\_\_\_\_ (Declaration)

### 2. At the Restaurant 🍴

Customer: "*This soup tastes strange.*" (Assertive)

Waiter: \_\_\_\_\_ (Expressive)

Customer: \_\_\_\_\_ (Directive)

Waiter: \_\_\_\_\_ (Commissive)

Manager: \_\_\_\_\_ (Declaration)

### 3. At the Airport ✈️

Passenger: *"The flight is three hours late."* (Assertive)

Passenger: \_\_\_\_\_ (Expressive)

Staff member: \_\_\_\_\_ (Directive)

Passenger: \_\_\_\_\_ (Commissive)

Staff member: \_\_\_\_\_ (Declaration)

### 4. At a Birthday Party 🎉

Guest: *"Your dress looks amazing!"* (Expressive)

Birthday girl: \_\_\_\_\_ (Assertive)

Guest: \_\_\_\_\_ (Directive)

Birthday girl: \_\_\_\_\_ (Commissive)

Friend: \_\_\_\_\_ (Declaration)

### 5. At a Wedding 💍

Bride: *"I'm so happy today."* (Expressive)

Groom: \_\_\_\_\_ (Assertive)

Friend: \_\_\_\_\_ (Directive)

Groom: \_\_\_\_\_ (Commissive)

Officiant: \_\_\_\_\_ (Declaration)

### 1. In the Classroom 🏫

Teacher: *"Good morning, everyone."* (Assertive)

Student: *"Could you please explain yesterday's homework again?"*  
(Directive)

Teacher: *"I will give you extra examples today."* (Commissive)

Student: *"Thank you, that really helps!"* (Expressive)

Teacher: *"The class is now starting."* (Declaration)

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### 2. At the Restaurant 🍴

Customer: *"This soup tastes strange."* (Assertive)

Waiter: *"Oh, I'm really sorry about that."* (Expressive)

Customer: *"Please bring me another bowl."* (Directive)

Waiter: *"I promise it will be fresh this time."* (Commissive)

Manager: *"This dish will be removed from your bill."* (Declaration)

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### 3. At the Airport ✈️

Passenger: *"The flight is three hours late."* (Assertive)

Passenger: *"I'm so frustrated!"* (Expressive)

Staff member: *"Please wait near Gate 12."* (Directive)

Passenger: *"I'll call my family to let them know."* (Commissive)

Staff member: *"Boarding is now open for Flight 215."* (Declaration)

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### 4. At a Birthday Party 🎉

Guest: *"Your dress looks amazing!"* (Expressive)

Birthday girl: *"I got it as a gift from my aunt."* (Assertive)

Guest: *"Open your present from me now, please!"* (Directive)

Birthday girl: *"I'll wear it tomorrow."* (Commissive)

Friend: *"Let's start singing 'Happy Birthday!'"* (Declaration)

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### 5. At a Wedding 💍

Bride: *"I'm so happy today."* (Expressive)

Groom: *"The weather is perfect for our wedding."* (Assertive)

Friend: *"Please take a picture with us!"* (Directive)

Groom: *"I promise to love you forever."* (Commissive)

Officiant: *"I now pronounce you husband and wife."* (Declaration)

## POLITENESS STRATEGIES IN LEXICAL CHOICES

### 1. Politeness in Communication

- Definition: Politeness is the use of language strategies to show respect, maintain harmony, and avoid conflict in interaction.

- Why it matters: The same message can sound rude or respectful depending on lexical choices. For example:

- *"Close the window."* (direct, less polite)
- *"Could you please close the window?"* (polite, respectful)

### 2. Politeness Theory (Brown & Levinson, 1987)

Brown & Levinson identified two main kinds of politeness:

- Positive Politeness → emphasizes closeness, friendliness, solidarity.

- Lexical features: compliments, friendly forms of address, inclusive pronouns (*we, let's*), informal but warm vocabulary.

- Example: *"Let's sit down together and solve this problem."*

- Negative Politeness → shows respect for personal space, avoids imposing.

- Lexical features: hedges (*maybe, possibly*), indirectness, modal verbs (*could, might, would*), honorifics.

- Example: *"I was wondering if you could help me with this issue."*<sup>36</sup>

### 3. Lexical Choices as Politeness Markers

Politeness is often reflected in the choice of words (lexis), not just tone. Some important strategies:

- ☒ Direct vs. indirect requests
- ☒ Euphemisms and softeners
- ☒ Formal/informal synonyms
- ☒ Politeness markers (please, kindly, would you).

#### 1. Direct vs. Indirect Requests

- Direct requests use imperative or blunt forms. They are efficient but can sound rude if no politeness marker is added.

- Example: *"Give me your notes."*

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<sup>36</sup> RSPCA. (2022). Animal Welfare Standards. <https://www.rspca.org.uk>

- Indirect requests use modal verbs (*could, would, might*), questions, or polite framing to reduce imposition.

- Example: *"Would you mind sharing your notes with me?"*

- Example: *"Could I borrow your notes, please?"*

Explanation for students: The meaning is the same (you want the notes), but the lexical structure signals either authority (direct) or respect (indirect).

## 2. Euphemisms and Softeners

- Euphemism: A polite or mild word used instead of a harsh or direct one.

- *"Old people" → "Senior citizens"*

- *"Died" → "Passed away"*

- *"Poor" → "Economically disadvantaged"*

- Softeners/Hedges: Words that make statements less absolute, reducing face-threat.

- Instead of *"You are wrong."* → *"I think you might be mistaken."*

- Instead of *"That's impossible."* → *"That may be a bit difficult."*

Explanation for students: Euphemisms avoid offending, while hedges/softeners protect the listener's "face" and make disagreement less aggressive.

## 3. Formal vs. Informal Synonyms

- English often has two (or more) lexical choices for the same action, one more formal/polite, the other more informal/direct.<sup>37</sup>

- Examples:

- *"Help" → "Assist"*

- *"Ask" → "Request" / "Inquire"*

- *"Tell" → "Inform"*

- *"Buy" → "Purchase"*

- *"Job" → "Occupation / Profession"*

Explanation for students: In everyday speech, informal words are fine with friends, but in professional, academic, or respectful settings, formal synonyms are expected. Lexical choice signals respect for context and audience.

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<sup>37</sup> Marchand, H. (1969). The categories and types of present-day English word-formation. München: Beck.

#### 4. Politeness Markers

- Specific words and expressions that signal politeness directly.
- Common markers: *please, thank you, excuse me, sorry, kindly, would you mind...*
- Examples:
  - “Close the window.” → “Could you close the window, please?”
  - “Give me some water.” → “Could you kindly give me some water?”
  - “What?” → “Excuse me?”

Explanation for students: Politeness markers are simple lexical additions, but they completely change tone. Without them, even a neutral request can sound like an order.

#### 5. Sample Sentences (Illustration)

- Direct → Polite
  - “Give me your notes.” → “Would you mind sharing your notes with me?”
- Harsh → Euphemistic
  - “Old people” → “Senior citizens”
- Informal → Formal
  - “Buy” → “Purchase”
- Without Marker → With Marker
  - “Shut the door.” → “Please shut the door.”

#### 4. Cross-Cultural Politeness

- What is “polite” in one culture may not be in another.
- Example: Directness is seen as honesty in some cultures (e.g., Germany), but impolite in others (e.g., Japan, UK).
- Lexical politeness must therefore be taught with cultural awareness.

#### 5. Pragmatic Function of Politeness

- Face-saving: Lexical politeness protects the “face” (public image) of both speaker and listener.
- Maintains relationships: Choice of polite words builds trust and respect.
- Social hierarchy: Lexical choices often reflect status and power differences (e.g., student → teacher vs. friend → friend).

## Politeness Strategies in Lexical Choices – Vocabulary List<sup>38</sup>

### 1. Requests

- Impolite / Direct:

- Give me...
- I need...
- Do this.

- Polite Alternatives:

- Could you (please)...?
- Would you mind...?
- I was wondering if you could...

### 2. Offers

- Impolite / Blunt:

- Take it.
- Do you want this?

- Polite Alternatives:

- Would you like...?
- May I offer you...?
- Can I get you...?

### 3. Giving Opinions

- Impolite / Strong:

- That's stupid.
- You're wrong.
- I don't like it.

- Polite Alternatives:

- I see your point, but...
- I'm not sure I agree.
- Personally, I would prefer...

### 4. Talking About People

- Impolite / Harsh:

- Old man / Old woman
- Fat
- Poor
- Disabled

- Polite Alternatives:

- Senior citizen / Elderly person

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<sup>38</sup> Fromkin, V., Rodman, R., & Hyams, N. (2013). An introduction to language (10th ed.). Boston: Cengage Learning.

- Overweight / Full-figured
- Economically disadvantaged
- Person with a disability

#### 5. Common Politeness Markers

- Please
- Thank you
- Excuse me
- Sorry
- I'd appreciate it if...
- That would be great

#### 6. Formal vs. Informal Lexical Pairs

- Help → Assist
- Ask → Request / Inquire
- Tell → Inform
- Boss → Employer / Manager
- Buy → Purchase

## PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE AND ITS ROLE IN DISCOURSE

What is Pragmatic Competence?

Pragmatic competence is the ability to use language appropriately in real-life situations, depending on *who* you are speaking to, *where* you are, and *why* you are communicating.

It is not only about knowing grammar and vocabulary (that's linguistic competence). It's about knowing how to choose the right words, tone, and style in context so that your message is understood correctly and politely.

Key Aspects of Pragmatic Competence<sup>39</sup>

1. Speech Acts – knowing how to perform functions like requesting, apologizing, refusing, complimenting.

○ Example: *“Can you pass the salt?”* (actually a request, not a question).

2. Politeness Strategies – knowing when to be formal or informal, direct or indirect.

○ Example: Talking to a friend: *“Close the door.”*

Talking to a professor: *“Would you mind closing the door, please?”*

3. Implicature (Hidden Meaning) – understanding what people *mean*, not just what they *say*.

○ Example: If someone says *“It’s cold in here”*, they might be *asking you to close the window*.

4. Context Sensitivity – adapting language to social roles, relationships, and culture.

○ Example: In some cultures being direct is polite; in others, indirectness shows respect.

Why is Pragmatic Competence Important?

• Prevents misunderstanding (literal meaning vs intended meaning).

• Helps maintain good relationships in communication.

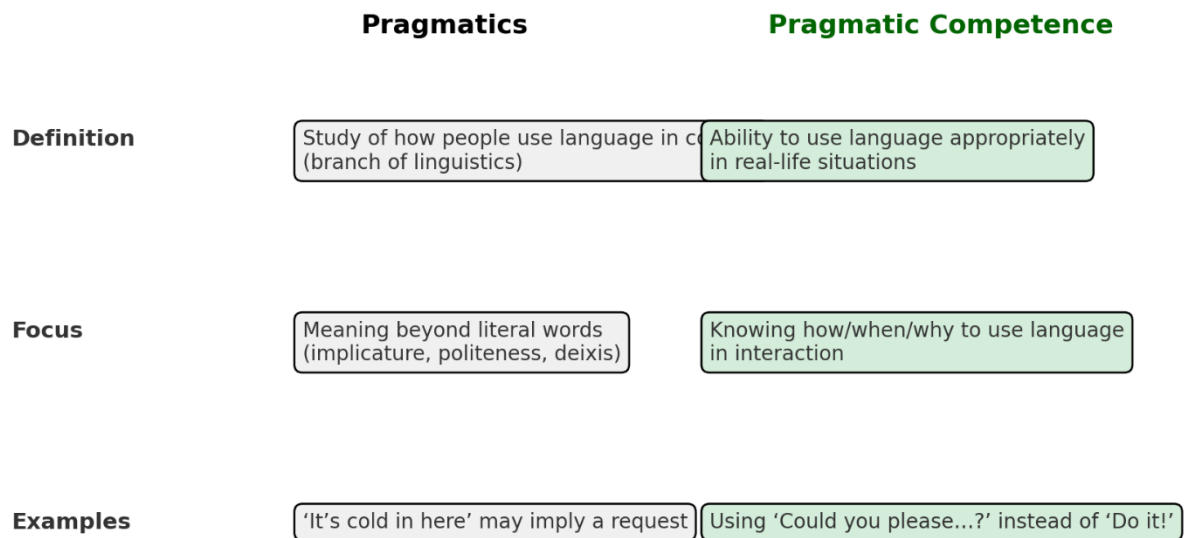
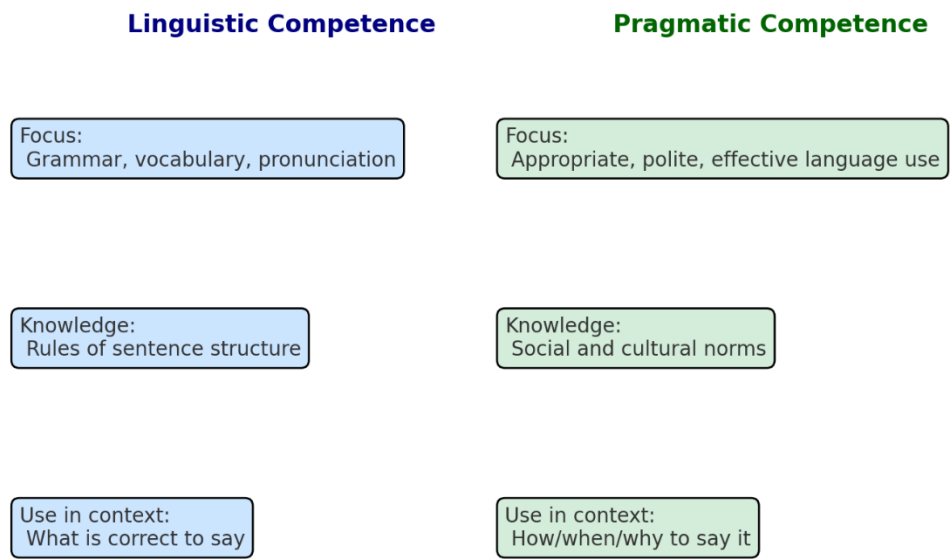
• Ensures effective discourse (conversations flow smoothly).

• Shows cultural awareness and respect for social norms.

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<sup>39</sup> Cruse, D. A. (1986). *Lexical semantics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

In short:  
 Pragmatic competence = knowing not only what to say, but also *how, when, and to whom* to say it.



### Guided Practice: Identifying Pragmatic Elements

Instructions:

Read each dialogue carefully. Then underline or label the following elements:

1. Requests

2. Politeness markers (please, modal verbs, hedges)
3. Implied meanings (unstated assumptions)

Work in pairs or small groups, then discuss as a class.

Dialogue 1: Workplace Collaboration

Manager: *“I was wondering if you might be able to finalize the slides before the client meeting tomorrow.”*

Employee: *“I’ll do my best, but since the data report isn’t ready yet, maybe it would make more sense if I focused on the visuals first?”*

Manager: *“That works. I’ll ask John to handle the data.”<sup>40</sup>*

Requests	
Politeness Markers	
Implied Meanings	

Dialogue 2: Family Planning a Trip

Mother: *“Do you think it’s possible for you to drive us to the train station on Saturday morning?”*

Son: *“I can, but I’ve got a late shift on Friday, so I’ll probably be really tired.”*

Mother: *“Well, we’d really appreciate it. Maybe your sister could help with the luggage.”*

Requests	
Politeness Markers	
Implied Meanings	

Dialogue 3: University Group Project

Student A: *“Could we possibly meet earlier next week to rehearse the presentation? I’m a bit worried we’re not fully prepared.”*

Student B: *“Earlier might be tricky—I’ve got lectures till five. But if it’s urgent, I can skip my gym session.”*

Student A: *“That would be great, thank you. I’ll bring printed copies of the slides.”*

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<sup>40</sup> Brown, P., & Levinson, S. C. (1987). *Politeness: Some universals in language usage*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Requests	
Politeness Markers	
Implied Meanings	

Procedure:

- Write on the board:

Car → ? (Students say: wheel, engine, window...)

Body → ? (Students: arm, leg, head...)

- Continue with 3–4 examples: house, tree, computer, book
- Ask:

☞ “What do these examples have in common?”

→ Lead them to the concept of part–whole relationship.

Transition:

“Today we’ll learn how linguists describe this relationship — it’s called meronymy.”

2. Presentation (15 min) — Mini Lecture + Discovery

Aim: Introduce and clarify the concept of meronymy.

Procedure:

1. Present the definition:

Meronymy is the lexical relationship between a word that names a whole (the holonym) and a word that names a part of that whole (the meronym).

Example:

- Wheel is a meronym of car.
  - Car is a holonym of wheel.
2. Compare briefly with other relations:
- Hyponymy: type-of (e.g., rose – flower)
  - Meronymy: part-of (e.g., wheel – car)

3. Draw a simple diagram on board:

Car

├— Wheel

├— Door

├— Engine

└— Seat

4. Ask students to give examples from nature, human body, and technology.<sup>41</sup>

3. Interactive Group Activity 1 (15 min) — “Build the Whole”

Aim: Practice recognizing meronymic relationships.

Procedure:

- Divide class into 4 groups.
- Give each group 5 cards with meronyms (e.g., “leaf,” “root,” “trunk,” “branch,” “bark”).
- Task: Identify the holonym and explain the logic.
- Examples:
  - leaf, root, trunk → tree
  - keyboard, screen, mouse → computer
  - handle, blade → knife

Encourage them to draw a mini lexical map on A3 paper.

Follow-up: Groups present and other groups guess the holonym.

4. Interactive Group Activity 2 (15 min) — “Reverse Engineer”

Aim: Deepen understanding through production.

Procedure:

- Each group receives 3 holonyms (e.g., house, train, human body).
- They must write at least 5 meronyms for each, but include 1 “fake” meronym (one that doesn’t belong).
- Then, groups swap lists and guess which word doesn’t belong and why.

Example:

Holonym Meronyms

Human body arm, leg, head, window, heart

→ window doesn’t belong.

5. Mini Lecture & Analysis (10 min) — “Types of Meronymy”

Aim: Expand conceptual knowledge.

Explain briefly the types of meronymic relations linguists identify:

Type	Example	Description
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<sup>41</sup> Levinson, S. C. (1983). *Pragmatics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Member–collection soldier–army members forming a collective

Part–object wheel–car physical part of an object

Portion–mass slice–cake portion of a whole mass

Stuff–object steel–car substance from which something is made

Ask: “Can you think of your own examples of each type?”

#### 1. Component–Integral Object Meronymy

• Definition: The part is a functional component of a larger physical whole.

• Example:

- *engine* → *car*
- *keyboard* → *computer*
- *page* → *book*

• Explanation: Each part has a specific function that contributes to the operation or structure of the whole.

#### 2. Member–Collection Meronymy

• Definition: The part is an individual member of a group or collection.

• Example:

- *tree* → *forest*
- *soldier* → *army*
- *sheep* → *flock*

• Explanation: The whole is a collective noun or group consisting of similar members.

#### 3. Portion–Mass Meronymy

• Definition: The part is a portion or quantity of a homogeneous substance or mass.

• Example:

- *slice* → *bread*
- *drop* → *water*
- *grain* → *rice*

• Explanation: The parts are not functionally different—they’re just smaller quantities of the same substance.

#### 4. Material–Object Meronymy

• Definition: The part denotes the material or substance that makes up the whole.

- Example:

- *wood* → *table*
- *steel* → *bridge*
- *glass* → *window*

- Explanation: The relationship is about composition rather than physical parts.

#### 5. Feature–Activity Meronymy

- Definition: The part is a sub-event or stage of a larger activity.

- Example:

- *buying* → *shopping*
- *training* → *working out*
- *drafting* → *writing a paper*

- Explanation: The whole is a complex event consisting of smaller sequential actions.

#### 6. Place–Area Meronymy

- Definition: The part is a smaller region or area within a larger one.

- Example:

- *room* → *house*
- *city* → *country*
- *corner* → *street*

- Explanation: Spatial containment or geographic part–whole relationship.

### Summary Table

Type	Relation	Example	Description
Component–Integral	Part of a physical object	<i>wheel</i> → <i>car</i>	Functional component
Member–Collection	Member of a group	<i>soldier</i> → <i>army</i>	Individual in a group
Portion–Mass	Portion of substance	<i>slice</i> → <i>bread</i>	Quantity of material
Material–Object	Made of	<i>wood</i> → <i>table</i>	Substance composition
Feature–Activity	Step of activity	<i>training</i> → <i>working out</i>	Sub-event of an event
Place–Area	Part of space	<i>room</i> → <i>house</i>	Spatial inclusion

## CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the methodological guide on *Communicative Lexicology* represents a coherent, well-structured, and pedagogically grounded framework for teaching vocabulary as an essential component of communicative competence. The guide demonstrates that lexis is not merely a supplementary element of language learning, but a central mechanism through which meaning is created, negotiated, and interpreted in discourse. By foregrounding the communicative function of lexical units, the guide aligns lexicological theory with the real needs of language learners in academic, professional, and everyday contexts.<sup>42</sup>

A key contribution of this guide lies in its consistent emphasis on the dynamic and context-dependent nature of word meaning. Through the systematic exploration of denotative, connotative, and pragmatic meanings, students are guided to understand how lexical items function beyond static dictionary definitions. This multidimensional perspective enables learners to recognize semantic nuance, stylistic variation, and pragmatic intention, thereby fostering more accurate, expressive, and context-appropriate language use. Such awareness is crucial for avoiding miscommunication and achieving communicative effectiveness.

The guide also successfully integrates major lexical phenomena—such as synonymy, antonymy, polysemy, collocation, idiomatic expressions, word-formation processes, speech acts, politeness strategies, and pragmatic competence—into a unified communicative framework. Rather than treating these topics as isolated theoretical constructs, the guide embeds them within interactive tasks, authentic texts, and real-life communicative situations. This integration helps students perceive vocabulary as an interconnected system and strengthens their ability to transfer lexical knowledge into active speech and writing.<sup>43</sup>

From a methodological perspective, the guide reflects contemporary principles of language education, including the

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<sup>42</sup> Marchand, H. (1969). *The categories and types of present-day English word-formation*. München: Beck.

<sup>43</sup> Mengliyev, B. (2012). *Tilshunoslikka kirish*. Toshkent: Universitet nashriyoti.

communicative approach, competency-based learning, CEFR alignment, differentiation, and learner-centered instruction. The use of interactive methods—such as pair and group work, role plays, discussions, simulations, and problem-solving tasks—creates an engaging learning environment that encourages active participation and collaboration. These practices not only enhance lexical acquisition but also promote critical thinking, learner autonomy, and communicative confidence.

Assessment is approached as a supportive and developmental process, focusing on qualitative aspects of lexical use such as accuracy, appropriateness, fluency, and pragmatic effectiveness. Criterion-referenced evaluation and the use of rubrics ensure transparency and objectivity, while formative feedback helps learners reflect on their progress and refine their communicative strategies. This approach reinforces the idea that lexical competence develops gradually through meaningful use and reflection.

Ultimately, this methodological guide serves as a valuable resource for instructors seeking to design effective, modern, and communicatively oriented lexicology courses, as well as for students aiming to develop a deeper and more functional command of vocabulary. By harmonizing linguistic theory with practical application, the guide contributes to the formation of linguistically competent, pragmatically aware, and socially sensitive language users. It prepares learners to engage confidently in diverse communicative situations, demonstrating conscious lexical choice, contextual adaptability, and communicative precision—skills that are fundamental to successful language use in the contemporary world.

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<https://www.youtube.com/c/BBCEarth>

7. TED-Ed – Animal Behavior Videos  
<https://www.youtube.com/playlist?list=PLJicmE8fK0EiG7OJHbAExgkt1PyfuzMd>

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**K.F.Gulamjanova**

# **COMMUNICATIVE LEXICOLOGY**

*for first-year undergraduate students majoring in  
(English philology and language teaching)*

**Methodological guide**

**Toshkent: “METHODIST NASHRIYOTI” - 2026**

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