CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0. PRELIMINARIES:

This chapter deals with a survey and review of the related literature regarding the teaching of vocabulary and the importance of the processes of word-formation in acquiring EFL, with a special focus on the processes of prefixation and suffixation. It provides a theoretical framework of the previous studies of the relevant literature. It gives the background information and reviews of the relevant research and studies. The chapter throws light on the definition of the concepts of vocabulary, word, word-formation, prefixation, suffixation and other related concepts. It also explains the prominent problems that the EFL learners might encounter in the area of the processes of word-formation, affixes.

2.1. DEFINITION OF WORD-FORMATION

Word-formation is such a confused area of study at the moment that it would be necessary to explain the definition of the concept of WF to clarify the meaning of WF. The study of WF offers many puzzles to present-day students of language. A major problem and much of the confusion in the study of WF is terminological because of the lack of uniformity in the terminologies used by different scholars. One of the major issues in modern linguistics is that of providing an account of the PWF. There is at the moment no single theory of WF nor even agreement on the kind of the data that are relevant for the construction of such a theory.

Different linguists have defined and described WF. For example, Mc Arthur (1992: 1122-23) suggests the following points to give a comprehensive definition of the term WF:

(1) The formation of longer, more complex words from shorter, simple words. (2) The formation of all words, simple or composite, from more basic elements of language. (3) The study of the formation of words through different processes.
According to Crystal (1985: 421):

In its most general sense, the term refers to the whole processes of morphological variation in the constitution of words, i.e., including the two main divisions of inflection (word variations signaling grammatical relationships) and derivation (word variations signaling lexical relationships). In a more restricted sense, word formation refers to the latter processes only, these being sub classified into such types of “compositional” or “compound” (e.g. “blackbird” from the free elements “black + bird”), and “derivational” (e.g., “national”, “nationalize”, etc. from the addition of the bound elements “-al”, “-ize”, etc.).

Matthews (1997: 405) defines it as:

(1) The formation of words in general. (2) The formation of words as lexical units, subsuming compounding and derivational morphology. (3) =derivational morphology.

Marchand (1969:2) defines WF as:

Word-Formation is that branch of the science of language which studies the patterns on which a language forms new lexical units, i.e. words. Word-formation can only be concerned with composites, which are analyzable both formally and semantically. By this token, do-er, un-do, rain-bow are relevant to word-formation, but do, rain, bow are not.

2.2. A BRIEF HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY OF WORD-FORMATION

The study of the formation of words and their analysis began in ancient Greece and passed in due course to Rome. Philosophers including Plato and Aristotle and grammarians including Dionysins Thrax and Terentius Varro developed the study of the ways in which words were formed as a part of grammar, founding a long and subtle tradition that was inherited and extended by 19th century comparative philology and 20th century linguistics.

The classical study was based only on Greek and Latin words, and divided words into simple words and complex words. The simple word was discussed either in terms of root or as a root word, consisting of a root, stem and inflection.
The complex word was discussed in terms of two processes or categories: (1) Derivation, (2) Composition.

In the contemporary terms the classical description was somewhat modified when transferred to English. The concept root has continued in use, but in the 20th century has been increasingly replaced by base when discussing non-historical processes. The classical complex forms are divided into complex words and compound words. The formation of complex words was derivation and that of compound words was formerly called composition but now usually called compounding.

Although derivation and compounding account for a large number of the composite word forms of English. They do not cover everything. As a result, at various times further descriptive categories have been added, such as conversion, backformation, blend and acronym (Mc Arthur, 1992: 1122-23).

2.3. WORD-FORMATION AND LINGUISTICS

The subject of WF has not received due attention of scholars in the field of general linguistics. It appeared in the books of linguistics very briefly, and it was considered as a subordinate topic. At the moment, there is no single theory of WF. There is not even agreement on the kind of data that is relevant for the construction of such a theory (Bauer, 1983:1).

Interest in WF and language in general has always been probably gone hand in hand. There are scattered comments and works on the subject of WF from the time of Panini, who provided a detailed description of Sanskrit WF. To support this idea, it may be noted that questions that are still posing difficulties today were asked by scholars in the 17th, 18th and 19th centuries (Bauer, 1983: 2).

Though there was a shift from historical studies of linguistics to its descriptive studies, WF was not paid much systematic attention. American structuralism had not been interested in WF because its major interest had been in units smaller than the word: the morphemes and the word had not been given theoretical prominence in structuralism theory (Adams, 1973:5).

Transformational Generative Grammar, on the other hand, was not interested in WF because its major interest was in units larger than, the word: the structure of phrases and sentences. Sentences were assumed to be made up not of
words, but of morphemes, and here the TGG shows clearly its American Structuralism background. Words as such thus played no real role (Bauer, 1983: 3).

The major change of emphasis in linguistics was marked by the ‘Chomskyan Revolution’ in his book *Syntactic Structures* (1957). Chomsky stated that the aim of linguistics was not seen to be:

*To make grammatical explanations parallel in achievement to the behavior of the speaker who, on the basis of a finite and accidental experience with language, can produce and understand an indefinite number of new sentences (p. 15).* The idea of productivity, or creativity, previously excluded from linguistics, was seen to be of central importance (See Adams, 1973:5).

But still WF remained a topic neglected by linguists, because the Chomskyan Revolution, too, was focused on the centrality of syntax. The ability to make and understand new words is obviously as much a part of the speaker’s linguistic competence as the ability to make and understand new sentences. As Pennanen (1972) has rightly pointed out:

*It is an obvious gap in transformational grammars not to have made provision for treating word-formation (p. 293).* And even when Lees (1960) worked within a Transformational Generative Grammar, he treated the words he generated not as a separate type of unit, but as a special kind of embedded sentence. (Adams, 1973:6).

The other aspect of language that T.G.G. paid particular attention to, especially from about 1962 onwards, was phonology. Chomsky and Halley dealt with culmination of the work on Generative Phonology called *The Sound Pattern of English* in 1968. It has never been concerned with the generation of appropriate strings of morphemes and boundaries to provide the input to the phonological rules; it has always been assumed that this was a problem which the syntactic component would eventually account for. The study of WF became important within the T.G.G. paradigm with the publication of Chomsky’s paper titled as *Remarks on Nominalization* in 1970. (Bauer, 1983:4-5).

2.4. STATUS OF WORD-FORMATION IN TLEFL

The status of the WF in TLEFL classrooms and teaching materials can be traced as the following:

2.4.1. NEGLIGENCE OF WORD-FORMATION AS A RESULT OF NEGLIGENCE OF VOCABULARY AS A TEACHING AND LEARNING ITEM IN THE CURRICULUM

No one can deny that PWF is very important aspect as mastery of vocabulary is essential and needed in the processes of communication. Despite their importance to the foreign learner, PWF are often neglected in TLEFL classrooms and teaching materials. Moreover, very little research has been done on the pedagogic side of the PWF. This is a result of negligence of vocabulary as a teaching item and because priority is given to the rules of sentence construction or language structure and form.

2.4.2. STATUS OF VOCABULARY IN THE CURRICULUM AND THE APPROACHES TO THE TEACHING OF VOCABULARY

The status of vocabulary in the curriculum and the approaches to the teaching of vocabulary can be traced as follows:

2.4.2.1. NEGLIGENCE OF VOCABULARY AS A TEACHING AND LEARNING ITEM (THE STRUCTURAL APPROACH)

Vocabulary studies in the fifties and sixties have been subordinated to syntax and grammar. The status of vocabulary within the curriculum suffered significant neglect during 1950s and 1960s, when audio-lingualism had a dominant influence on methodology (Nunan, 1991: 116).

The principal focus of language teaching has been on the grammar of the language. Audio-linguists suggest that the emphasis should be strongly on the acquisition of the basic grammatical patterns of the language. It was believed that if learners were able to internalize these basic patterns, then building of a large vocabulary could come later. This emphasis on grammar and, to a certain extent, pronunciation, was at the expense of vocabulary. Language teaching was based on the mastery of language structure.
Hockett (1958), one of the most influential structural linguists of the day, went so far as to argue that vocabulary was the easiest aspect of a second language to learn and that it hardly required formal attention in the classroom (Nunan, 1991: 117).

For a number of years, the teaching of vocabulary was neglected in language classrooms, despite the importance that learners attach to the task of building and maintaining an adequate vocabulary (Nunan 1991: 141).

Until the 1970s, the issue of vocabulary teaching and learning did not receive the importance it deserved, and had a secondary status only in the teaching of a second/foreign language vocabulary. It did not take center stage because linguistics, particularly American linguistics, mainly focused on syntax and phonology and neglected morphology.

Carter (1987: 145) points out:

*For many years vocabulary has been the poor relation of language teaching. Its neglect is in part due to a specialization in linguistic research on syntax and phonology, which may have fostered a climate in which vocabulary was felt to be a less important element in learning a second language.*

The following statement by Gleason (1961:7), suggests that vocabulary does not have “content” or “expression”. It reflects attitude of 1960s:

*In learning a second language, you will find that vocabulary is comparatively easy, in spite of the fact that it is vocabulary that students fear most. The harder part is mastering new structures in both content and expression.* (quoted in Carter, 1987: 145).

Another factor contributing to the neglect of vocabulary teaching can be seen in the observation by Sinclair and Renouf (1988: 143). It is:

*It is exceptionally difficult to teach an organized syllabus of both grammar and lexis at the same time.* In other words, it is very difficult to do two things at once. If one’s syllabus is organized around grammar, then it will be unlikely that Lexis can be focused on at the same time (Coady 1997: 273).

Vocabulary is central to language and of critical importance to the typical language learner. Nevertheless, the teaching and learning of vocabulary have been undervalued in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) throughout its varying stages and up to the present day.
SLA researchers and teachers have typically prioritized syntax and phonology as “more serious candidates for theorizing” (Richards, 1976:77), more central to linguistic theory, and more critical to language pedagogy (Zimmerman, in Coady 1997: 5).

Richards (1976) was one of the first scholars to alert us to the fact that vocabulary is typically neglected in second or foreign language instruction. He attributes this lack to the effects of trends in linguistic theory which at that time – the dusk of structuralism and the dawn of the Chomskyan School of linguistics – was grammar-and-sound-oriented (Coady, 1997: 273).

Leventson (1979) also criticized applied linguistics for its general neglect of vocabulary acquisition in favor of syntactic development (Coady, 1997: 273).

In her paper about vocabulary in language learning, Meara (1980) documented that vocabulary acquisition is a neglected aspect of language learning (Carter, 1987: 146).

Mary (1985: 183) raises the question: How many words do students learn per lesson, on average? Then, she continues: This is possibly a question that many teachers have never asked themselves because vocabulary is no longer seen as a very important aim in syllabuses.

Maley (1986:3) states: It is curious to reflect that so little importance has been given to vocabulary in modern language teaching. Both the behaviorists/structural model and the functional/communicative model have, in their different ways, consistently underplayed it.

Tickoo (2003: 1989) also states: For more than a quarter century, lexicologists and language educators failed to pay adequate attention to vocabulary. A main reason was the widespread belief among linguists that knowing a language was the same as being able to use its sounds and structures.

2.4.3. NEGLIGENCE OF WORD-FORMATION

As mentioned before, linguistic theories in general have not focused on the study of the acquisition of PWF. There is at the moment no single theory of PWF nor even agreement on the kind of the data that is relevant for the construction of such a theory.
The subject of WF has not until recently received very much attention from descriptive grammarians of English, or from scholars working in the field of general linguistics. As a collection of different processes – compounding, affixation, conversion, back formation and so on, about which, as a group, it is difficult to make a general statement. WF is usually studied in short in one or two chapters of grammar. The subject has not been attractive to linguistics for two reasons – its connections with the non-linguistic world of things and ideas, for which words provide the names, and its equivocal position as between descriptive and historical studies (Adams, 1973:3).

There are scattered comments and works on the subject of WF from the time of Panini right up to the present day. Questions that are still providing difficulties today were asked by scholars in the 17th, 18th, and 19th centuries, and in many ways present-day knowledge shows little advance on Panini’s. Part of the reason for this is that studies in WF did not get the boost that linguistics as a whole received in the early years of the 20th century (Bauer, 1983:2).

At the moment, the study of WF is in a state of flux. There is not any accepted doctrine on the subject, so that researchers largely have to make up their own theory and procedures as they go along. Theoreticians in the field are in a difficult position because many of the descriptive studies of WF available avoid reference to such vital theoretical points as productivity (Bauer, 1983:6).

### 2.4.4. INTEREST IN VOCABULARY AS IMPORTANT TEACHING AND LEARNING ITEMS (THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH)

Interest in the teaching of vocabulary started in the year 1970s under the influence of communicative language teaching approaches and language learning theories on approaches to the teaching of vocabulary.

The status of vocabulary within the curriculum has been considerably enhanced. This is the outcome of the development of communicative approaches to language teaching and the stimulus of comprehension – based methods.

Rivers (1983:125) has argued that the acquisition of an adequate vocabulary is essential for successful second language use because without an extensive vocabulary we will be unable to use the structures and functions we may have
learned for comprehensible communication. In addition, the more one's vocabulary develops, the easier it is to add new words (Nunan, 1991:116-117).

These days, then the consensus of opinion seems to be that the development of a rich vocabulary is an important element in the acquisition of a second language. Certainly, contemporary course-books are as carefully structured lexically as they are syntactically (Nunan, 1991:118).

According to Nunan (1991:141-142):

*It could be argued that in a second / foreign language context the initial stages of language learning should be devoted almost entirely to vocabulary work*

The development of communicative approaches to language teaching has done much to enhance the status of vocabulary in the curriculum and some interesting empirical and practical work is currently being undertaken in the area. Theoretical and empirical issues currently being investigated include work on word lists and frequency counts, the importance of context to vocabulary acquisition, lexicography and the role of the dictionary, semantic networks and features, and cognitive processes, particularly lexical search processes and memorization. On a practical level, an indication of the enhanced status of vocabulary is the recent publication of a major course book based on a lexical syllabus. For example, Willis 1990, *The Lexical Syllabus*, is a good introduction to lexical syllabuses.

Nunan(1991:142) points out::

*Vocabulary teaching gains an important place in the language classroom.*

One of the major aims in teaching a language is to expose students to the world of language itself. Part of this world is the “wonder of words”, their multiplicity, their elasticity, their quality of changing in different environments and so on. Vocabulary is essential to ELT in all its manifestations, viz., EFL, ESL and the like. The more words we recognize and use, the better we are able to enjoy our environment and describe our experience of it. Understanding vocabulary of a language is the prime concern of a learner. In recent years, educationists in general, have come to the conclusion that vocabulary is very important in effective social interaction and the academic subjects. Language teaching
experts seem to have widely agreed that vocabulary learning is a very important aspect of language learning.

Lado (1955) emphasizes the importance of vocabulary learning by saying that: **We cannot deny or ignore the existence of the word as a tangible unit of language.** Then again he suggests that: **It may be profitable to give an intensive dose of vocabulary for college level students** (1964:130).

Sweet (1964:66) says that:

*The real intrinsic difficulty of learning a foreign language lies in that of having to master the vocabulary.*

Werlich (1969), Hohmann (1968), Leisinger (1968) and Streinfuhrer (1968) also emphasize the importance of vocabulary learning in a learner's progress in the foreign language.

In view of all this, Ellis (1956:214) thinks, like many others, that:

*In order to learn a foreign language most economically we need first a vocabulary list.*

Monson (1968:5) says that:

*Taking a vocabulary course can make you aware of many aspects of English that you may have ignored before, since it can show you a variety of approaches to learning new words.*

Wilkins (1977:111) observes that:

*Without grammar little can be conveyed; without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed.*

Sinclair (1991: vi) states:

*The vocabulary of the English language is not a fixed list of words but a growing and developing store from which you can select words that are appropriate for your meaning and for the situation you are in.*

The teaching of vocabulary is very important and mastery of vocabulary is essential as well as needed for communication. Vocabulary teaching and learning begins from the first day of school and continues throughout one’s academic career. We do vocabulary learning wherever we come into contact with a new language and try to use it. We are considered good users of language when we
are capable of using words effectively. This shows the importance of vocabulary in learning and teaching English.

Nagaraj(1996:168) points out:

**In short, words can be called the building blocks of languages; and since there is no building possible without blocks, so without the use of words no communication is possible.**

Tickoo (2003:189) suggests that:

**The fact, however, is that the true mastery of a language lies much in knowing and appropriately using its vocabulary as in being able to use its system of sounds and its grammatical and discoursal patterns.**

Davidson (2000:1) states that:

**The investigation of words is the beginning of education.**

Anderson and Nagy (1991) believe that knowing a word means being able to apply it flexibly but accurately in a range of contexts and situations.

Maley (1986:3) observes that:

**And yet, as any learner of a foreign language knows only too well, words are essential, and the lack of them leads to feelings of insecurity.**

McCarthy in the introduction, (1990) states:

**No matter how well the student learns grammar, no matter how successfully the sounds of L2 are mastered, without words to express a wide range of meanings, communication in an L2 just cannot happen in any meaningful way.**

It is interesting to note that learners’ perception in regard to vocabulary learning has hardly been wrong. Carter (1992:85) has very emphatically put across the learners’ perception of what vocabulary means to them:

**which of us, for example, whatever, our experience as linguists or as language learners, does not measure our progress in learning a new language in terms of the number of words we have learned? Which of us, for example, does not judge the difficulties or ease of learning a new language in terms of relative familiarities of words (number of cognates, for example)? Which of us does not view the learnability of language as the learnability of its Lexis?**
Coadly and Huckin (1997:1) observe that:

In recent years, second language vocabulary acquisition has become an increasingly interesting topic of discussion for researchers, teachers, curriculum designers, theorists, and others involved in second language learning.

Vocabulary is central to language and of critical importance to the typical language learner. The single most important task facing learners is acquiring a sufficiently large vocabulary.

Vocabulary is an essential area of language learning. It is a very important part of foreign language learning. Vocabulary teaching and learning is central to the theory and practice of ELT. Words have a central place in culture, and learning words is seen by many as the main task in learning another language. Interest of researchers and teachers in vocabulary is likely to continue to grow apace. Vocabulary and its related research paradigms have many inflections in relation to English language teaching.

Carter (2001:47) points out:

There is a long tradition of research into vocabulary acquisition in a second and foreign language. These include classroom – based studies exploring different methodologies for vocabulary teaching, a long history of lexicographic research with reference to English dictionaries for language learners, research which has recently accelerated under the impetus of corpus-based, computer-driven lexical analysis and new computer-driven description of vocabulary, which re-evaluate the place of words as individual units in relation to both grammar and the larger patterns of text organization.

In recent times, Carter and Mc Carther (1988:51) conclude that:

Although it suffered neglect for a long time, vocabulary pedagogy has benefited in the last fifteen years or so from theoretical advances in the linguistic study of the lexicon, from psycholinguistic investigation into the mental lexicon, from the communicative trend in teaching, which has brought into focus, and from developments in computers.

Realization that good language use relies greatly on an adequate stock of words, has of late resulted in a revival of interest in vocabulary studies. The
findings of such studies, which have found support and confirmation in computer-aided linguistic research, should be of value at most stages of language teaching/learning. What should also interest both teachers and advanced learners is the finding that most people's vocabulary keeps growing throughout their lives.

Tickoo (2003:190) states:

*In English, for example, one estimate is that the vocabulary of a university student who uses it as his first language may be around 60,000 to 100,000 words whereas a professional scientist may know as many as 150,000 words.*

Pahuja (2004:110) also states:

*Words are very important in teaching and learning skill. While speaking and writing we make use of about 3000-3500 words, and for reading and listening a vocabulary of about 2000 words is needed.*

In consolidating and focusing on vocabulary in TEFL, Mary (1985:184) observes that:

*Language teachers are inevitably involved in teaching vocabulary, even though, nowadays many syllabuses and text-books state their aims, not in terms of vocabulary, but in terms of skills, functions, grammar or topics. I am not suggesting that these aims are wrong – our aims must be to enable our students to function accurately, appropriately and fluently in the situations they will find themselves in and one of the tools that enables them to do just this is the ability to recognize and produce a wide range of vocabulary items.*

The Researcher's approach is the communicative approach because it seems to be the most successful one and because the need-based syllabus is a product of this approach. Introducing vocabulary and affixes in a communicative setting will no doubt contribute to language learning in general and develop vocabulary and affixes in particular. Communication usually creates the need for language and it consequently leads to L1 acquisition and similarly L2 learning.
2.4.4.1. MEANING OF KNOWING A WORD IN A SECOND / FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Craik and Lockhart (1972) have been particularly influential in showing how processing of words at different levels is crucial to learning. By different levels is meant an integration in the learning processes of sound levels, visual shape and form, grammatical structure and semantic patterns so that processing occurs in depth and not just superficially as may be the case; for example, if a word is learnt only in relation to its translation equivalence. There is now a general measure of agreement that knowing a word involves knowing its spoken and written contents of use, its patterns with words of related meaning as well as with its collocating patterns; its syntactic, pragmatic and discoursal patterns. It means knowing it actively and productively as well as respectively. Such understandings have clear implications for vocabulary teaching (See Carter, 2001:42-43).

Knowing a word in a second / foreign language includes knowing the following:

(a) To know how to use it productively and having the ability to recall it for active use.
(b) To know how it is spelled and pronounced.
(c) To know what parts of speech it can function as.
(d) To know the different meanings associated with it and, often in a connection, the range of its collection patterns.
(e) To know what its root form is, what prefixes and suffixes it can take and what derivations and inflections can be made from it.
(f) To know what grammatical patterns it fits into or what its syntactic behavior is.
(g) To know the likelihood of encountering it in spoken and in written contexts.
(h) To know the relations it contracts with other words in the language and with related words in the L1 as well.
(i) To know what associations it forms.
(j) To know what limitations there are to its use.
(k) To perceive the relative coarseness of the word as well as its more marked pragmatic and discoursal functions and its style-levels.

This shows the importance of vocabulary in learning and teaching English as a second / foreign language.
2.4.4.2. PRODUCTION OF VOCABULARY WORKS AND MATERIALS

The research in vocabulary suggests that in second/foreign language teaching, vocabulary should have a separate identity and should not be subsumed within the study of reading or writing. Taking their cue from this research, some vocabulary material writers have produced works and materials, most of them have included PWF, such as: *English Vocabulary in Use, Pre-intermediate and Intermediate* (Redman, 1991), *English Vocabulary in Use, Upper-intermediate* (Mc Carthy and O’Dell 1994), *English Vocabulary in Use, Elementary* (Mc Carty and O’Dell, 1999), *English Vocabulary in Use, Advanced* (Mc Carthy and O’Dell, 2002) to emphasize this independent identity.

Reflecting upon a continuous interest in the teaching and learning of vocabulary, the recent years have seen an expansion in the publication of several works and materials entirely devoted to the subject.

2.5. LEXIS AND LANGUAGE TEACHING

The proposal of setting up lexis can be fruitfully utilized in language teaching at various levels and for various purposes. Vocabulary has always been a part of the teaching curricula but it has suffered from confusion arising out of its status in the totality of the program. Much of the confusion has perhaps been due to the uncertainties in linguistic approaches to language description and the prestige of grammar. The term ‘grammar’ has been frequently used with an enlarged meaning referring to the total system of language and its description. Grammar is that part of the system of a language which can be described in terms of generalizations or rules. On the other hand, lexicon has often been characterized as a list of all the particular facts about the language, which cannot be generalized into rules. But particular acts are not always particular; they are also liable to include irregularities. Moreover, particular facts can also be stated with reference to certain elements (i.e. lexical items) generally commensurate with grammatical units we know of as words. But in certain cases a lexical item spans a piece of syntax larger than a word. In any case, a lexical item has to have its pronunciation and meaning specially stated and therefore, the lexicon impinges on all the three levels of phonology, syntax and semantics. A lexicon, therefore, is not a mere ‘appendage’ of grammar, i.e., an indexing device subservient to the
mechanics of grammar, but a vehicle of linguistic statement which deals with the deepest, most secret part of language.

It seems imperative that lexical studies involving the scientific study of lexical items, their constituent elements, meaning, form, usage and derivational processes etc. should be recognized as an essential part of language teaching programs and assigned its rightful place in EFL/ESL. Lexical studies dealing with the ‘formal’ aspects of vocabulary organization, the environmental aspects of its use, lexical structure of a text, lexical descriptions of specialist discourse etc., open up exciting areas. The problems are immense but we have an open field to experiment and innovate. We can appreciate what has proved successful in other times and places. We can repeat and refine what we have found to be effective in our circumstances with our learners. We need not be bound up with the taboos, social and linguistic alike, about the boundaries and prestige of grammar or vocabulary (or for that matter a sentence or morpheme). We should rather be sensitive to imaginative, stimulating and resourceful teaching which will arouse and sustain effective and self motivated learning. The teaching of vocabulary, due to its enormous bulk, is one such area which students fear most and which offers a challenge to the profession.

2.6. VOCABULARY: DEFINITION AND SCOPE

The word vocabulary, also known as lexis or word-stock, has different meanings. In its widest sense, it refers to the total stock of words in a language. Does it then refer to this ‘stock’ as listed and defined in an authoritative dictionary? Or also to those which have not yet found acceptance and inclusion in a dictionary but are in common use in polite circles? We know that a few dictionaries manage to keep pace with the ever-increasing arrivals in the word stock. Johnson’s dictionary, despite his industry, was far from exhaustive and, in a way, failed to reflect fully the language spoken at the time. Large dictionaries, with all their merits acknowledged, contain many learned and technical terms that are not part of the language in common use and also list many obsolete words. Moreover, the larger the dictionary, the less will it be possible to produce new and revised editions sufficiently frequently to include new words.

The word vocabulary also means the stock of words used by a people or by a particular class of persons. Hence there are regional vocabularies, class
vocabularies, occupational vocabularies confined to relatively small groups, and lastly the vocabulary of an individual as obtained in the stages of acquisition and development throughout life and also distinct in some way or the other from that of other people in the circles in which he moves. Individual vocabulary is often characteristic of one’s style. We sometimes recognize people on the basis of the words used by them. No two individuals use exactly the same words or use them in the same way.

Individual vocabulary is often very much restricted. According to Encyclopedia Britannica a normally educated person has a vocabulary of twenty to twenty five thousand words though most of us find some four to five thousand quite sufficient for our daily needs. We hardly use all the words with which we are familiar. The originators of “Basic English”, however, think that eight hundred fifty with the addition of a few specialized words are enough for all day-to-day purposes. There are two obvious factors of an individual vocabulary – the words one understands and the words one actually uses. Within these one uses certain words on special occasions. Vocabulary may even differ with the strata of the society in which it is used.

Vocabulary is the vehicle for thought, self-expression, interpretation and communication. It enables us to think, speak and write coherently, logically and legibly. It is the basis of the communication of ideas and of grasping the ideas transmitted to us by others. With a reasonable amount of words in our possession we do not just read to converse or write but enjoy what we do. Vocabulary deficiency, on the other hand, deprives us of the satisfaction of knowing precisely what we converse about or read and thus of being able to share that knowledge with others. Vocabulary is an aid to achieve the requisite feel for language, in order to handle the language effectively in different situations. Language performs a valuable social function and the vocabulary of a language provides a referential apparatus. Vocabulary as an essential tool of our language mechanism equips us to say anything we need to say. Words have a valuable social function of some sort to perform and society trains the individual to say the socially appropriate things in response to socially undetectable situations.
2.7. VOCABULARY OF ENGLISH

The English language has the richest and the most extensive vocabulary than any other languages in the world, due to partly historical factors, partly to what we may call the genius of the language. English has always been ready “to absorb foreign words and coin new words for ideas for which the existing foreign terms were not found for some reason acceptable”, as Sheard (1954:16) states. English has always welcomed the alien and accepted with comparative equanimity words from other languages with which it has been in contact.

Serjeantson (1935:29) highlights this process:

*The English language has ever been open to foreign influences, partly through the succession of invaders who came into contact with English speakers during the Middle Ages; partly through the enterprise of the British themselves who have carried their language into the far corners of the world, where it has gathered new matter as it passed its way.*

Thus, contacts between peoples of alien speech through conquests, colonization, trade, literature, introduction of new ideas and objects, changes in social conditions, the widespread increase in culture and education have been some of the prime factors responsible for the enormous growth of English vocabulary.

Vocabulary of a living language is never stationary. It is constantly changing, growing and decaying. To estimate the size of the vocabulary of any language at a given time is very difficult. The number of recorded Anglo-Saxon words in the vocabulary of English is rather less than fifty thousand but today the bulk of this gigantic vocabulary is roughly approximated to half a million. This huge stock of words available to us today invites us to consider the ways in which vocabulary development can be handled. In the field of pedagogy, the problems are obviously immense.

2.8. WORD GRAMMAR

Words are the most fascinating products of the human intellect. By paying attention to words and their parts we enrich our vocabulary. Words are part of the material into which utterances may be analyzed and the ability to analyze the word into its constituent parts is a performative knowledge with which word
grammar or word formation is chiefly concerned. Words are convenient units in
the division of a language into manageable parts but the word is not the smallest
unit of meaning. We can sometimes arrive at the meaning of a word by thinking
about its parts, about the relative functions of the phrase, the word and the parts
of a word.

Turner (1973:23) observes:

*It is likely that people think mainly in phrases as we all do in all but strenuous conversations... it is the educated writer who learns to think in words, weighing the contribution of each element in sequences which are tailored to the occasion, enormously multiplying possible combinations of items by working with smaller parts. He depends on an educated reader who is able to think in the same way... the scholar goes even further in becoming a skilled writer or reader by understanding the parts of the word.*

Word grammar is firmly based on the notion that learning of the wholes
proceeds largely from an abstracting and assembling of the parts.

Interest in word formation has probably gone hand in hand with interest in
language in general. Thus, there are available scattered comments and
sometimes detailed works on the subject of word formation from the time of
Panini, who provided a detailed and the most authentic description of the Sanskrit
word formation, right up to the present day. But our present day knowledge, as
Bauer (1983:7) stresses, in many ways shows little advance on Panini’s. In more
recent years, however, the study shows signs of expansion as the linguists, aided
by philosophical and psychological insights. They have considered word
formation from various theoretical viewpoints. No approach can claim perfection
but the different approaches do provide a framework within which pedagogical
models can be produced to facilitate the learners in making their own discoveries
about words. The model of generative vocabulary is one such attempt. In order to
handle a generative approach and to ensure its effective operation, certain
amount of theoretical discussion and a familiarity with the basic concepts in the
field of word grammar is inevitable.
2.8.1. WORD

Defining 'word' has been for a long time a major problem. Various definitions that are available point more towards the attitude and purpose of the scholar offering the definition rather than suggesting an all around working solution to what really counts as a word. Recognizing words on the basis of what has often been referred to as 'printers use of space' does not help a student of vocabulary. The words are basic and elemental in our lives. They come to us naturally, yet, we find how hard it is to say what exactly a word is.

Bloomfield’s (1933:178) classic definition of word as a “minimum free unit” is a great help undoubtedly in formulating analytical procedures of word grammar. Fries (1940:87), too, offers a valuable definition:

**Word is a combination of sounds acting as a stimulus to bring into attention the experience to which it has become attached by use.**

But the definition is obviously too narrow in its scope and application for analytical purposes. The words of a language are a highly complex system of classes of items, interlocking classes as to form, meaning and distribution.

Lado (1955:6) provides a significant direction in understanding the vocabulary system of a language when he remarks:

**In dealing with vocabulary we should take into account three important aspects of words, their form, their meaning, their distribution., and we should consider the various kinds or classes of words in the operation of the language.**

2.8.1.1. FORM

Some words are fixed and some are variables. Words appearing only in one form are called invariable words such as `since’, `seldom’, etc. The variables are governed by certain patterns. They undergo a partial but systematic change in their form which corresponds to a change in their grammatical function, e.g., `walk’, -- `walks’, -- `walking’, etc. The invariables may also vary but not functionally, only environmentally, e.g., 'not', `nt', and 'nd,' 'n', etc.
2.8.1.2. MEANING

Meaning into which we classify our experience is culturally determined and modified. Meanings can be defined according to the form they attach to (a) meanings that attach to words as words are lexical meaning, e.g., `house', a building for human habitation; (b) the meaning `two' or `more', i.e. plural, attached to `-s' as in `books' is morphological meaning; (c) the meaning `question' attached to the word arrangement in the sentence -- `Is he a farmer?' is syntactic meaning.

2.8.1.3. DISTRIBUTION

Grammatical, geographical and stylistic restrictions govern the distribution of words in utterances and they have to be strictly adhered to for effective interaction.

2.8.1.4. CLASSIFICATION

Words can be classified into four groups:

(1) Function words – Words which primarily perform grammatical function, e.g., `do' signaling question;
(2) Substitute words – words which replace a class of words, e.g., `he, she, they, so', etc.
(3) Grammatically distributed words – words which show unusual grammatical restriction in distribution, e.g., `some, any, many, several', etc.
(4) Content words – words which represent the structuring of experience and concepts, e.g., `man, house, think', etc.

The first three groups have often been bracketed together and labeled as Form Words, i.e., the number of words in the first three groups is very small but of frequent occurrence and gifted with a wide range of meanings and functions. The fourth group has also been named as Full Words, i.e., the largest group and constitutes the bulk of the vocabulary of a language. The content words are again sub-divided into items treated as things/objects, processes, qualities, etc.

Word, as has been pointed out, defines definition. We can, therefore, think of an abstract unit called `lexeme' denoting all possible shapes that a word can have, e.g., SHOOT, a key member inclusive of `shot, shoots, shooting' etc.
A particular shape that a word has on a particular occasion can be referred to as \textit{Word-form}. A word-form has a phonological and orthographic shape. It realizes a lexeme. For purposes of analysis every word-form is divisible into one or more meaningful units generally referred to as \textit{Morpheme}, for instance, `boy' in `boys' is a free unit, it constitutes a word-form by itself while `-s' is a bound unit and as such incapable of working as a word-form. Whereas a morpheme is defined as a minimal unit of grammatical analysis, a segment of a word-form, which represents a particular morpheme, is called a \textit{Morph}. Thus, bound units can occur only if attached to other morphs whereas free units can occur independently. Further, a phonetically, lexically or grammatically conditioned member of a set of morphs representing a particular morpheme is called an \textit{Allomorph}. A lexeme is said to be \textit{Transparent} if it is clearly analyzable into its constituent morphs, e.g.

\begin{align*}
\text{Coverage} &= \text{cover} + \text{-age} & \text{but not so in} \\
\text{Carriage} &= \text{carry} + \text{age}, \text{which is known as Opaque}.
\end{align*}

\textbf{-AFFIXATION:} Morphemes may be divided into \textit{Roots} and \textit{Affixes}. Analysis of formative elements to the ultimate point takes us to forms, which have been called Roots, the starting point in word analysis. Root is a word form which is not further analyzable. It is the nucleus of a lexeme shorn of all possible additives, e.g., in the word-form `\textit{untouchables}' `-\textit{un}', `-\textit{able}', `-\textit{s}', is additives while the ultimate point is `touch' and that is the root. Roots of various types fused together result in the formation of \textit{Stems}. A stem is defined as that part of a word-form, which remains when all inflectional additions have been removed, e.g., in the form `\textit{untouchables}', `-\textit{s}' is the inflectional addition, (that is, no further addition is possible) and after removing `\textit{s}' we get `\textit{untouchable}' which is the stem. Similarly, in `\textit{touched}' the stem is `\textit{touch}'. A stem can consist of two roots as in `\textit{wheelchair}'. While the concept of stem is concerned with inflectional additions, the concept of \textit{Base} is concerned with derivational additions, e.g., `\textit{touchable}' is a base, which can produce `\textit{untouchable}'.

\textbf{-INFLECTION:} It is the change in the form of a word, which can express different grammatical relationships, i.e., the addition of \textit{–s} to a noun to form plural (book-books) or \textit{–ed} to a verb to form the past tense (book-booked) etc. The chief
inflectional affixes of English are the plural marker –s, -es, -en; the genitive –‘s (as in John’s); the verbal endings –s, -es, -ing, -ed, (t), (d), (en); adjectival –er, -st and change of vowel as in `goose – geese’ and zero as in `sheep’. The function of inflection is to indicate relationship between words in a sentence, e.g., `the cow eats grass’ / `cows eat grass’. Inflectional affixes appear to be stable in function and meaning.

-DERIVATION: It is a process by which new words are formed through the mechanics of affixation to a root-form already in existence. It is one of the commonest methods of word formation, for example, the root `nation’ is exploited to produce `national’, `nationalist’, `nationalization’, etc. Whereas derivation results in the formation of new lexemes by affixation, Compounding, another process of word formation, is concerned with the formation of new lexemes from two or more stems. It is a process by which two words are joined with no part of either word being lost, e.g., `highway’, `blackbird’, `riverbed’, etc. Compounding yields not only one word but one conception, not just the sum of two concepts expressed by the two fused elements.

Both inflectional and derivational processes depend on affixation. By affixation we generally mean additions to a word-form either initially or finally. Such additions are referred to as Prefixes and Suffixes. Prefixes are by and large derivational in English, for example, `unemployed’, `illegal’, etc. Suffixes can be both derivational and inflectional, e.g., `man, manly, manliness’, `walk, walked’, etc. Many derivational affixes have more than one meaning and can be added to more than one category of base forms” `allowable, knowledgeable’ etc. Both derivational and inflectional affixes are grammatical rather than lexical elements hence relatively small and stable in membership. Unlike lexical elements they are members of a system having complementary function and are interdependent. Again, derivational affixes are much larger in number than inflectional affixes and, therefore, less interdependent, less generalized in meaning.
Derivational affixation is two-dimensional, that is, class maintaining and class changing, the former refers to a process which produces lexemes belonging to the same form class as the base:

- e.g. king (noun), kingdom (noun)
- legal (adjective), illegal (adjective)
- do (verb), undo (verb)

-the latter refers to a process which produces lexemes which do not belong to the same form class as the base:

- e.g. king (noun), king (adjective)
- legal (adjective), legal (adjective)
- do (verb), do (verb)

In English, prefixation is mainly class-maintaining while majority of derivational suffixes are class-changing, that is, producing forms which behave syntactically very differently from their bases. Prefixes and suffixes have a life of their own. Many are inseparable from the rest of the word form they are attached to, e.g., `-dis' in `disgruntled'. Many are used to form new words, e.g., `re-, un-, non-; -ness, -ise, -ist, -ish, -able', etc. found in such words as `rethink, undo, non-existent, darkness, pluralize, racist, childish, bearable', etc. No two prefixes are exactly alike in sense. They undergo divergent developments in different words as, for example, in `uninterested, disinterested'. Some prefixes different in origin and meaning have fallen together. `in-' usually indicates movement inside/towards as in `intrude, inject' but it is also a negative prefix as in `insane, invisible', etc. Sometimes prefixes and suffixes get fused so completely with the rest of the word-form that they are hard to recognize, e.g., `-th' in `warmth, length, strength, etc. Affixation also includes the concept of stress/ tone that a word-form inherently carries and that is subject to variation as the form changes. This is usually referred to as Superfix. Many pairs of words in English are solely or chiefly distinguished by the superfix, e.g., “present” (noun) and “pres’ent” (verb). The distinction between `sheep’ singular and `sheep’ plural is referred to as Infix. An infix refers to an affix which is added medially to a root or stem. Infixes normally appear within the affix and vowel sequences of root or stem forms, e.g., `man – men', `foot-feet’, etc.
In the light of the above discussion we can diagrammatically represent the word as follows:

```
WORD
    (Superfix)
    Base
       Prefix          (stem)           Suffix
            Infix
```

Word-forms are classified as Simple, Complex and Compound for purposes of analysis.

**SIMPLE**: The occurrence of a particular form independently constitutes a simple word. A simple word-form may be:
(i) just a minimal base, e.g., 'cat = Base + (Superfix)
(ii) a base + an inflectional suffix, e.g., 'cats=Base+Inflectional suffix('s' plural)+(Superfix)

**COMPLEX**: A word-form which contains a base and a derivational suffix and/or an inflectional suffix, e.g.

'Player' = Base + Der. Suffix ('-er') + (Superfix)
'Players' = Base + Der. Suffix ('-er') + Infl.
       Suffix ('-s' plural). + (Superfix)

**COMPOUND**: This is a word-form produced out of the linking of two or more elements expressing a single idea. A simple analysis yields the following types:
(a) two elements, both simple   e.g.,    foot ball
(b) three elements, all simple  e.g.,    son in law
(c) two elements, one complex   e.g.,    tax collector
(d) two elements, both complex  e.g.,    evaluator operator
(e) two elements, one or both   e.g.,    football player
    compound
What we have been discussing so far can be represented by the following diagram:

2.9. INTEREST IN THE PROCESSES OF WORD-FORMATION AND ITS IMPORTANCE IN TLEFL AS A RESULT OF INTEREST IN VOCABULARY

In recent years, a growing number of scholars have realized the importance of PWF in the acquisition of English as a foreign language. They are important aspects as mastery of vocabulary is essential and needed in the process of communication. They are important for the foreign learners. Word grammar including the PWF constitutes an integral part of the knowledge of a language. The PWF by means of which the vocabulary of any language can be expanded are numerous. The most important among these are: affixation, compounding, conversion, blending, reduplication, back-formation, clipping and acronym.

Nowadays, word-formation is gaining central interest of theoretical linguists of all persuasions because of the light it throws on the other aspects of language. The study of WF is expanding, and researchers seem to be showing a greater willingness to blend various theoretical viewpoints when dealing with it, for e.g., to blend morphology and phonology, syntax and semantics. In fact, it is the crossroads nature of WF, where so many facets of linguistics come together, what seems to be attracting the new researchers (Bauer, 1983:1, 6).

Linguists have started paying attention to vocabulary. Lexical studies are being taken up by various linguists and considered from different points of view,
for example, phonological, syntactic and semantic. “Word” appears to have become the object of the latest concern not only of the linguist but of the psychologist and the philosopher as well, with a desire to find out how word formation reflects language in general.

Kruse, (1979:209), makes suggestions for teaching vocabulary in the context by teaching students to use a range of cues to determine meaning. The following is one of them regarding word-formation:

1) WORD ELEMENTS SUCH AS PREFIXES, SUFFIXES AND ROOTS:

The ability to recognize component parts of words, word families, and so on is probably the single most important vocabulary skill a student of reading in EFL can have. It substantially reduces the number of completely new words he will encounter and increases his control of the English lexicon. (See Nunan, 1991:121).

Nattinger, (1988), in his analysis of current trends in vocabulary teaching, presents a number of classroom techniques for vocabulary development. For example, he presents techniques of word-morphology, formal groupings and word families. This area is briefly described as follows:

a) WORD MORPHOLOGY: Learners can be taught to extend their vocabulary by mixing and matching word stems, prefixes and suffixes.

b) FORMAL GROUPINGS: Certain vocabulary items can be memorized by teaching students to recognize basic forms of words and how they combine with certain prefixes and suffixes. For example, students could be taught the meanings of words (affixes) such as “tele-“ (for distant), “-phone” (sound), “photo-“ (light), “-graph“ (write, mark) and then given lists of vocabulary items containing these words (affixes) and asked to guess the meanings of these compound words.

c) WORD FAMILIES: This is an extension of the formal groupings technique. Exercises can be devoted to show how word families are developed from a single root. For example, part, partition, partly, partner, participant, particular, particle. (Nunan, 1991: 134-36).
When we speak of the vocabulary of a language we are speaking primarily, but not exclusively, of the words of that language. It is most convenient to think of words as freestanding items of languages that have meaning. If we take the English word ‘eating’, we can see that it is freestanding in itself, and that within it, it has another potentially freestanding element ‘eat’, independently meaningful from the second element ‘-ing’, which is meaningful but bound, that is not freestanding. There is an English word ‘eat’, but there is no English word ‘-ing’. The two meaningful parts of ‘eating’ are called morphemes; therefore we can say that a word must consist of at least one potentially freestanding morpheme. Some words, may consist of several morphemes; ‘deformed’ consists of three- ‘de-form-ed’ – only ‘form’ is a word in its own right. However, ‘wastepaper-basket’ consists of three morphemes which at the same time are capable of being three freestanding words in other contexts. From this it is clear that when we talk of learning words in a language, sometimes we mean either single morpheme or root, such as ‘laugh’, ‘make’, ‘box’, and ‘window’ which cannot be further subdivided, or roots with bound morphemes attached either at the beginning as prefixes or at the end as suffixes, such as ‘re-make’ and ‘laugher’ (derived words); and “window-dressing” and “jack-in-the box” (compound words).

Recognizing the composition of words is important; the learner can go a long way towards deciphering new words if he or she can see familiar morphemes within them.

While studying how words are formed, we are offered one way of classifying vocabulary for teaching and learning purposes; for example, presenting together words that are alike in structure, though not necessarily in meaning, such as derived adjectives ending in `-al` (e.g. `brutal`, `frontal`, and `horizontal`). This is not, of course, the only way of organizing vocabulary for teaching but it is undoubtedly useful as an aid to memorizing words in some cases, especially where small, manageable sets of words with morphemic similarities can be isolated. Most teachers already do this with irregular verbs that follows a set pattern, for example, those that have `/i/`, `/æ/`, `/ʌ/` in their three main parts (e.g. `drink`, `drank`; `drunk`; `ring`, `rang`, `rung`; `sink`, `sank`, `sunk`) but the same could be done, for example with those adjectives occurring with the relatively infrequent prefix `a-`, meaning `an absence of …`, as in `asocial`, `apolitical`, `asexual`, `amoral`, and the element of shared meaning involved in these words, or any other recurring pattern.
The principles of word-formation can be looked at in two different ways. One is simply to consider them as part of the rule-systems of the language, and to describe them for learners in the way that we describe and explain grammatical rules or pronunciation rules. But we can also look at word formation as a resource in the language, something the learner should be allowed to experiment with and use strategically.

It is argued that exploiting the internal structure of words is a useful organizing principle for vocabulary teaching. The study of word formation reveals that a relatively small number of processes are regularly used to create a large number of new words in a language like English, and that educated native speakers can perceive within derived words the presence of roots, prefixes, and suffixes and can attach meanings to derivations which they have never encountered before.

While language learners might never achieve the same degree of competence as a native speaker with regard to the creation and understanding of derived forms, a good deal can undoubtedly be gained by an awareness of the word-formation processes of the target language. Also research suggests that native-speaker’s storage and retrieval of vocabulary is based on double-entry principles, one element of the mental lexicon is whole derived words stored as ready-made units, and another element is the set of affixes and basic roots that combine to form new words.

There is a finite number of affixes in English and some are much more common than others. The commonest ones and their typical meanings can be introduced and taught directly at a relatively early stage. Ellis and Ellis (1983:55) offer an exercise at pre-intermediate level matching suffixes with word-classes, while Swan and Walter (1985:103) use a matching exercise and a word-building exercise at lower-intermediate level to introduce the /ə/ suffix (written as ‘-er’ and ‘-or’) indicating the agent of an action or process. Such decisions are sensibly based on what is likely to be most useful to learners and what they can most easily generalize from; the /ə/ suffix can, for example, be attached to almost any verb in English and is highly productive.

When we look at language course books, the general consensus seems to be that the learning of derived words as whole units precedes analysis of the words into their morphemic structure or consideration of the processes that have formed them. Thus, the very first beginner’s lesson of Swan and Walter (1984) has
formation such as 'artist', and 'electrician' with no comment on their internal structure. The COBUILD English Course, Book 1 (Willis and Willis 1988) goes even further, and considers word-forms in their own right as lexical items, with detailed attention to the various forms a word might take or combine with, and the meanings of these forms, rather than to word-formation processes (McCarthy, 1990:3-5, 99-102).

Strang (1968:229) points out:

*The role of word-formation, and its special position in the structure of the language, require our attention.*

Thakur (2001:61) states:

One of the areas of importance in linguistic studies is the study of how new words are formed.

The process of forming new words has been going on throughout the long history of English and a number of words show by their structure that they were once formed from prefixes and suffixes.

The knowledge and use of prefixes and suffixes can add greatly to one's word stock. Knowing and using them can increase our vocabulary. Once we have built up a basic vocabulary of English, we can begin to say what we want to. As we add more and more words to our vocabulary, we are able to express a greater range of ideas or talk about a wider range of topics.

French (1960:40) states:

You can greatly increase your vocabulary by adding prefixes and suffixes to words you already know well.

Frisby (1964:105) observes that:

To be aware of how words can be built up from various parts of speech is one way of what Fries calls ‘mastering the vocabulary by adjusting the form of a word’ (Fries, 1954).

Shaffer (2000:2) points out that:

The use of prefixes and suffixes has been and remains one of the main and most productive methods through which the stock of English words has grown and developed.
We can increase our vocabulary by adding prefixes and suffixes to words we already know well. Working with prefixes and suffixes by learning their significance in the language can increase our recognition of vocabulary almost at once. Since affixes are used widely in WF, each one we learn has the potential of adding many new words (Gorrel and Laird, 1976:286-87).

We can increase our vocabulary, by describing the patterns involved in building words. Some words are formed by putting a prefix at the beginning of an existing word, and some are formed by adding a suffix at the end. There are also words which have more than one prefix or suffix in them. Once we have learnt the main uses and meanings of a number of prefixes and suffixes, we will be able to recognize and understand more words, even if we have never seen them before. By looking at how the word is used, and adding the meaning of the prefix or suffix to the meaning of the original word, we can work out the meaning of the whole word. Where the use of the prefix or suffix is productive, we will also be able to make up words, which we have never seen before. For example, if we read in a newspaper about a pan-European agreement, we might only know the sense of `pan', which refers to a pot that we use for cooking. But `pan-' is also a prefix that means `all of', so here, a pan-European agreement is an agreement which involves all the countries in Europe. This is different from an anti-European movement, which would be a movement that works against Europe. Both these prefixes, `pan-' and `anti-' can occur in front of many words. Once we have learnt the use of a number of prefixes, we will be able not only to recognize more words but also to make some and use them ourselves (Sinclair, 1991: vi).

Richards (1976), Hayes-Roth, B. and Hayes-Roth, F. (1977) and Abramovici (1984) have found that individuals know the form of a word as well as its meaning. The lexical information persists in memory storage of meaning, that is to say, experienced reorders tend to remember the word-forms they encounter as well as the meanings.

Some prefixes and suffixes are very productive. That is to say, they can combine with a large number of words, and we can make up words ourselves once we feel confident enough. These productive prefixes and suffixes combine with verbs, nouns and adjectives to form new verbs, nouns and adjectives. They also tell us the word-class of the new words. Knowing the meaning of these prefixes and suffixes helps us in knowing the meaning of other words formed by
the same prefixes and suffixes. For example, the prefix `under-' combines with verbs, nouns and adjectives to form new verbs, nouns and adjectives. It combines with verbs to form words which refer to or describe things that happen below something else. So if we `underline’ a piece of writing, we draw a line beneath it. When the prefix `under-' combines with nouns, it refers to people who have a lower rank or status than someone else. So an ‘undergraduate’ is a student who has not yet graduated and who is studying for his or her first degree. When the prefix `under-' combines with adjectives, it expresses the idea that something has not been done enough. So if we describe something as ‘underdeveloped’, we think it has not been developed enough (Sinclair, 1991: viii, 174-175).

Knowing the way the words are formed helps to understand their meanings. Word analysis helps to figure out what a word means. It means that one can take an unfamiliar word and figure out what a part or parts of the word mean. One can make a definition by memorizing some of the most important prefixes, suffixes and roots. The prefixes and suffixes will be useful signals and clues. Whenever we see an unfamiliar word, we can look and see if it contains a prefix, a suffix or a root we know. If it does, we may be able to figure out a definition of unfamiliar words. It is an excellent means of extending one’s vocabulary. For example, let us say, we come across the following sentence: “He thought it might be a good idea to study dermatology”. Suppose further we did not have the slightest idea what the word `dermatology’ means but if we already know that the suffix ‘-logy’ means ‘science of or study of”, and we were told that the root ‘derma’ means ‘skin’. Then, we would be able to figure out that ‘dermatology’ is the science of or the study of skin (Flemming and Currie 1978: 1-2).

We can recognize the formative elements in the structure of a word, analyze the word-form into its component units, produce the meaning of each unit separately and then combine the root-affix meaning to arrive at its definition, e.g. (a) **Projector:**

Pro- = forward (a prefix)

ject = throw (a root)

-or = apparatus a (suffix)

Definition: an apparatus for throwing (an image) forward.
(b) **Injector:**

*In* - = inside (a prefix)

*ject =* throw (a root)

*-or =* device (a suffix)

**Definition:** A device for throwing (something) inside.

It is easier to improve vocabulary by becoming familiar with commonly recurring prefixes and suffixes, than to memorize each word separately. Lists to be memorized are more useful if grouped and classified by similar meanings and related ideas (synonymous semantic relations) than if arranged alphabetically. The lists of prefixes and suffixes, with their limited range of meanings, give clear evidence of this grouping and classifying and the student will find his memory aided by the arrangement of all the lists of word elements. For example:

a. **Negative Prefixes:**

“*un-*” and “*dis-*” mean “not” as in “*unhappy*” and “*dislike*”.

b. **Prefixes of Number or Amount:**

“*mono-*” means “one” and “*multi-*” means “many” as in “*monosyllabic*” and “*multipurpose*”.

c. **Diminutive Suffixes:**

“*let*” and “*ette*” mean “small” as in “*booklet*” and “*kitchenette*”.


There are often antonymous relations between prefixes and suffixes, and this antonym makes the relation between comparing and contrasting prefixes and suffixes better understood. For example, as with “*pre-*” and “*post-*” or “*ful*” and “*less*”. (Quirk, 1985:1540).

Affixation helps in the recognition of word-class. Nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs can be recognized by the help of nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs prefixes and suffixes. They are considered as useful signals and clues. For example, by adding the noun suffixes: **-ment, -age, -ness, -ing, -th,** to the following words, they become nouns: pay-*payment*, pass-*passage*, foolish-*foolishness*, open-*opening*, true-*truth*. By adding the verb prefixes and suffixes:
en-, -ize, be-, im-, -fy, to the following words, they become verbs: circle-encircle, civil-civilize, friend-befriend, prison-imprison, beauty-beautify. By adding the adjective suffixes: -ful, -less, -ish, -like, -y, to the following words, they become adjectives: pain-painful, care-careless, child-childish, business-businesslike, wealth-wealthy. By adding the adverb prefixes and suffixes: a-, -ly, -ward(s), to the following words, they become adverbs: loud-aloud, brave-bravely, north-northward, front-frontward(s). (Croft, 1960: 265, 270, 310, 322).

Some prefixes and suffixes are largely grammatical and are used to change the word-class of a word. They help to recognize the word-class. For example, the suffix “-ion” is added to verbs to create nouns. So if we see a word that ends in ‘-ion” we should check the first part of the word and see if it looks like a verb. If it does, then by combining the context with what we know about the meaning of the verb, we can often work out what the noun means. Nouns formed in this way refer to the state or process described by the verb, or to an instance of the process. For example, if we give someone “protection”, we protect them or keep them safe from unpleasant effects and events; an “explanation” is something which explains or gives reason for a particular event or situation. (Sinclair, 1991: vi, 85).

Classifying and grouping prefixes and suffixes according to their same word-class helps in improving one’s vocabulary and can be of great use. For example:

a. Verb Prefixes:

- en- enrich-enrich (adjective + en- = verb)
- be- little-belittle (adjective + en- = verb)
- em- body-embody (noun + em- = verb)

b. Noun Suffixes:

- -ism classic –classicism (adjective+-ism = noun)
- -er employ-employer (verb + -er = noun)
c. Adjective Suffixes:

- **-ful**
  - success – **successful** (noun + **-ful** = adjective)

- **-escape**
  - picture-**picturesque** (noun+**-esque**=adjective)


So by the description of prefixes and suffixes we will be able to know the meaning of new words and increase our vocabulary of English. This will help to increase our confidence in dealing with words that we have never seen before and can use them easily.

The prefixes and suffixes we already have known can occur in a large number of words. Once we have learnt the meaning and the use of a number of prefixes and suffixes, we will be able not only to recognize more words but also to use them properly.

The study of word-elements and their form leads to better understanding. The analysis of the internal structure of words and of the process of word formation improves our understanding of words and leaning English. Knowledge of word-elements makes familiar words more interesting and unfamiliar words become familiar. Many words yield their own definition when analyzed into their constituent parts. The analysis of the parts of a word leads to its definition.

### 2.9.1. RELEVANCE OF WORD –FORMATION TO GRAMMAR

There are regularities of a similar nature in grammar and word formation and there are cases in which the two sets of regularities are directly connected. Consider the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>[A]</th>
<th>[B]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>She delegated the work speedily.</td>
<td>Her delegation of the work was speedy [1]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He communicated the message efficiently.</td>
<td>His communication of the message was efficient. [2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They fumigated the house thoroughly</td>
<td>Their fumigation of the house was thorough [3]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

First, the vertical dimension. The two columns exemplify the regularities of grammar, [A] with its three S V O A structures, [B] with its three S V C structures.
with S realized in each by a noun phrase having a genitive determiner and an of-phrase post modifier. But the columns also illustrate the regularities of word-formation; in [A] the three verbs in –ated and the adverbs in –ly; in [B] the three nouns in –ation.

Next, the horizontal dimension. The correspondence between she and her is referable to grammar in [1], he and his in [2], they and their in [3] and the fact that we have adverbs in [A] but adjectives in [B]. But to word-formation are referable the form of the correspondence between the transitive –ated verbs in [A] and the abstract –ation nouns in [B], as well as the form of the correspondence between the adjectives in [B] and the adverbs in [A]. (Quirk, 1985: 1517)

The rules by which words are constructed are important to the study of grammar because they help us to recognize the grammatical class of a word by its structure. We are able to tell that the word “organization” is a noun from the fact that it ends in the noun suffix”-ation”, (Quirk, 1972: 976).

2.9.2. WORD-FORMATION AND SPELLING (WRITTEN FORM)

The way in which words are formed tells us about how they are spelled (their written forms). It tells us the rules for dropping letters, doubling consonants, adding letters or changing letters when adding a particular prefix or suffix, as in the following:

(1) The spelling of a word may undergo changes, according to the spelling rules of English, when a suffix is added to a base and consequently the final part of the word assumes medial position in the derived or inflected word. For example,

   Doubling: d-dd:    red-reddish
   -e loss:         cause-causation
   Simplification:  full-fully (=full+ly).

   (Quirk, 1985: 1536)

(2) THE NEGATIVE PREFIXES “in-, im-, ir-, il-“:

There are also derived assimilations characterized by the negative prefixes in-, im-, ir-, il-. The change that occurs after the addition of any one of these prefixes is based on the spelling rules of English regarding each one. For example,
il-: before /l/: legal-illegal, logical-illogical.
ir-: before /r/: regular-irregular, relevant-irrelevant
im-: before /m/, /p/ or /b/: moral-immoral, possible-impossible, balance-imbalance.
in-: before /t/, /d/, /s/, /ʤ/, /n/, /k/, /g/, /v/ or a vowel:
transitive-intransitive, dependent-independent, sane-insane,
justice-injustice, numerable-innumerable, capable-incapable,
gratitude-ingratitude, formal-informal, valid-invalid,
active-inactive, offensive-inoffensive.


(3) THE COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE ADJECTIVE SUFFIXES
“-er” AND “-est”:
These two forms are added on the basis of the inflection rules of English adjectives for comparison regarding the endings of regular adjectives. The adjectives which normally add the suffixes “-er” and “-est” to their endings are:

(i) REGULAR ADJECTIVES OF ONE SYLLABLE, i.e. MONOSYLLABIC ADJECTIVES:
big-bigger-biggest, brave-braver-bravest, free-freer-freest
young-younger-youngest, old-older-oldest.

(ii) REGULAR ADJECTIVES OF TWO SYLLABLES, i.e. DISYLLABIC ADJECTIVES, ENDING IN:

(a)–y: merry-merrier-merriest, noisy-noisier-noisieest,
      healthy-healthier-healthiest, friendly-friendlier-friendliest.

(b)–ow: narrow-narrower-narrowest, hollow-hollower-hollowest,
      shallow-shallower-shallowest
Adverbs that are identical in form with adjectives take inflections, following the same rules as for adjectives. The adverbs which normally add the suffixes “-er” and “-est” to their endings are the regular adverbs of one syllable, i.e. monosyllabic adverbs, for example:


(Quirk, 1973: 147).

2.9.3. WORD-FORMATION AND PRONUNCIATION (SPOKEN FORM)

The way in which words are formed tells us about how they are pronounced (their spoken forms). It tells us the rules for the pronunciation of the following:

(A) THE PLURAL SUFFIX “-s”:

This form has three spoken realizations- /s/, /z/ and /iz/, based on the pluralization rules of English regarding the endings of regular nouns:

(1) Pronounced /s/ after regular nouns ending in voiceless sounds other than /s/, /ʃ/ or /ʧ/. For example, cuts, locks, caps, births, roofs, parks.

(2) Pronounced /z/ after regular nouns and – ing in voiced sounds other than /z/, /ʒ/ or /ʤ/. For example, calls, crows, cities, beds, dogs, homes, pens.
(3) Pronounced /iz/ after regular nouns ending in /sl/, /zl/, /ʃl/, /ʒl/ or /ʤl/. For example, passes, prizes, pushes, mirages, torches, languages.


(B) THE POSSESSIVE SUFFIX “-s’ ”:

The possession rules regarding the possessive suffix “-s’ ” are identical with the pluralization rules stated above. This form has three spoken realizations /z/, /sl/ and /iz/ based on the possession rules of English regarding the endings of regular nouns:

(1) Pronounced /sl/ after regular nouns ending in voiceless sounds other than /sl/, /ʃl/ or /ʧl/. For example, Hamlet’ s, Isaac’ s, Philip’ s, Kenneth’ s, Randolph’ s, dentist’ s, dentists’.

(2) Pronounced /zl/ after regular nouns ending in voiced sounds other than /zl/, /ʒl/, or /ʤl/. For example, Michael’ s, Henry’ s, Richard’ s, Adam’ s, Helen’ s, Miranda’ s, brother’ s, brothers’.

(3) Pronounced /iz/ after regular nouns ending in /sl/, /zl/, /ʃl/, /ʒl/ or /ʤl/. For example, Bruc’ e’s, Marsh’ s, Georg’ e’s, judg’ e’s, judges’, Keats’ s or Keats’, Dickens’ s or Dickens’.


(C) THE THIRD PERSON SINGULAR PRESENT TENSE SUFFIX “-s”:

The rules regarding the third person singular present tense suffix “-s” are identical with the pluralization and possession rules stated above. This form has three spoken realizations /sl/, /zl/, and /iz/ based on the third person singular present tense rules of English regarding the endings of verbs:

1. Pronounced /sl/ after verbs ending in voiceless sounds other than /sl/, /ʃl/ or /ʧl/. For example, hopes, walks, coughs, writes.
2. Pronounced /z/ after verbs ending in voiced sounds other than /z/, /ʒ/ or /dʒ/. For example, rubs, begs, grins, settles, chews, buys, flows, climbs.

3. Pronounced /iz/ after verbs ending in /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/ or /ʤ/. For example, buzzes, catches, budges, camouflages, mixes, washes.


(D) THE PAST AND PAST PARTICIPLE TENSE SUFFIX “-ed”:

These two forms have three spoken realizations: /t/, /d/ and /id/ based on the past tense and the past participle rules of English regarding the endings of regular verbs:

1. Pronounced /t/ after regular verbs ending in voiceless sounds other than /t/.
   For example, packed, hoped, missed, marched, searched, rushed.

2. Pronounced /d/ after regular verbs ending in voiced sounds other than /d/.
   For example, moved, played, stunned, hugged, cried.

3. Pronounced /id/ after regular verbs ending in /d/ and /t/. For example, padded, patted, parted, guided, wanted, decided.


(E) THE PRONUNCIATION OF THE FINAL “r” BEFORE THE INFECTION:

Whether the speakers of English pronounce the final “r” or not, it is pronounced when inflected by the present participle suffix “-ing” for example, pouring, bar-barring. (Quirk, 1973:40).

A list of the inflectional suffixes in English is given below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sr. No.</th>
<th>Nouns</th>
<th>Verbs</th>
<th>Adjectives / Adverbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Plural –s (e.g. boys)</td>
<td>Present tense singular. –s (e.g. comes)</td>
<td>Comparative –er (e.g. taller)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Possessive –s’ (e.g. boy’s, boys’)</td>
<td>Past tense –ed (e.g. talked)</td>
<td>Superlative –est (e.g. tallest)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Present participle –ing (e.g. running)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Past participle –en (e.g. written)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.9.4. PRODUCTION OF WORKS AND MATERIALS DEVOTED TO PWF MATTERS

The recent years have seen publication of some works and materials entirely devoted to the PWF matters, reflecting a continuous interest in the subject and its importance from the pedagogic side in TLEFL, such as: **Word Building** (Monson, 1968), *Exercises in English Patterns and Usage: Forms of Words (inflection)* (Mackin, 1966), *Exercises in English Patterns and Usage: Forms of Words (derivation)* (Mackin, 1966), *Using English Prefixes and Suffixes* (McArthur, 1972), *Word-formation* (Sinclair, et. al., 1991).

2.9.5. AFFIXATION

Affixation is the collective term for the types of formatives that can be used only when added to another morpheme (the root or stem), i.e. affixes are a type of bound morphemes. Affixes are limited in number in a language, and are generally classified into two types, depending on their position with reference to the root or stem of the word. Those which are added to the beginning of a root or stem are called prefixes, e.g. “un-“ in “unhappy”, those which follow root or stem are called suffixes, e.g. “-ness” in “happiness”. Accordingly, the morphological process whereby, grammatical or lexical information is added to a stem is known as affixation (prefixation and suffixation). (Crystal, 1985: 12).

Affixation is the processes of adding an affix. An affix is any element in the morphological structure of a word other than a root. For example, the word “unkinder” consists of the root “kind” plus the affixes “un-“and “-er”. Affixes are divided into prefixes, which come before the form to which they are joined, e.g. “un-“; and suffixes, which come after the form to which they are joined, e.g. “-er”. (Matthews, 1997:11).

An affix is a bound morpheme that is attached to roots, stems or bases. For example, “un-“must always be attached before the central meaningful element of the word, i.e. the root, stem or base, whereas “-ity” must follow the root, stem or base. The bound morpheme “un-“is called a prefix, whereas “-ity” is a suffix. (Plag, 2003: 10, 72).
Affixation means the addition of an affix, i.e. a letter or a group of letters at the beginning or at the end of a word to change its meaning or class, e.g. “a-" in “amoral”, “-esque" in “picturesque". The use of affixes is still highly active in contemporary English, constantly producing new words. By affixation we generally mean additions to a word-form either initially or finally. Such additions are referred to as prefixes and suffixes.

2.9.6. PREFIXATION

Prefixation is the process of adding a prefix. A prefix is an affix which comes before the form to which it is joined: e.g. “un-" in “unkind’. (Matthews, 1997: 292).

A prefix is a term used in morphology referring to an affix which is added initially to a root or stem. The process of prefixation is common in English, for forming new lexical items, e.g. “para-", “mini-", “un-". (Crystal, 1985: 304).

Prefixes are by and large derivational in English, e.g. “re-" in “rethink", “dis-" in “dislike", “non-" in “non-existent", etc. They are added to a word-form initially.

2.9.7. SUFFIXATION

Suffixation is the process of adding a suffix. A suffix is an affix which comes after the form to which it is joined. e.g. “-ness” in “sadness”. (Matthews, 1997: 362).

A suffix is a term used in morphology referring to an affix which is added finally to a root or stem. The process of suffixation is common in English, both for the derivation formation of new lexical items, e.g. “-ize", “-tion” and for expressing grammatical relationships (inflectional endings). e.g. “-s", “-ed", “-ing". (Crystal, 19: 371).

Suffixes can be both derivational and inflectional in English, e.g. “-ly" in “manly" (derivational), “-ly" + “-ness" in “manliness" (inflectional), “-ed" in “walked" (inflectional). They are added to a word-form finally.
2.9.8. CLASSIFICATION OF PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES AND ITS PEDAGOGICAL SIGNIFICANCE

The knowledge of prefixes and suffixes can add greatly to students' word stock. Knowing prefixes and suffixes can improve and increase their vocabulary. Once they have built up a basic vocabulary of English, they can begin to say what they want to. As they add more and more words to their vocabulary, they are able to master and use them effectively and productively to express a greater range of ideas or talk about a wider range of topics, because mastery of vocabulary is essential for communication.

The knowledge of prefixes and suffixes is important in the acquisition of English as a foreign language. It helps students to learn English in a better way.

It is easier to improve vocabulary by becoming familiar with commonly recurring prefixes and suffixes, than by memorizing each word separately. Lists to be memorized are more useful and profitable if grouped and classified by similar meanings and same word-class than if arranged alphabetically. The lists of prefixes and suffixes, with their limited range of similar meanings and same word-classes, give clear evidence of this grouping and classification and the students will find their memory aided by the arrangement of these lists of prefixes and suffixes. (Monson, 1968: 83-88, 97-105), (Quirk, 1972: 981-1008), (Thakur, 1997: 21-24, 26-29).

2.9.9. CLASSIFICATION OF PREFIXES

In English, prefixation is primarily class-maintaining, that is, prefixes do not generally alter the word-class of the base. The treatment of prefixes is on a generally semantic basis. Prefixes primarily effect a semantic modification of the base. It is convenient to group and classify prefixes according to their similar meanings (synonymous semantic relations). (Quirk, 1985: 1546-47).

The primary function of a prefix in English is to charge the meaning of the base to which it is added. It is only in a small number of cases that a prefix in English changes the grammatical class of the base. The best way of classifying prefixes in English, therefore, is to classify them on the basis of their meaning. They can be classified semantically. (Thakur, 1997: 21).
**NEGATIVE PREFIXES:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UN- 'the opposite of', 'not'</td>
<td>Unfair, unwise, unforgettable, unassuming, unexpected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NON- 'not'</td>
<td>Non-conformist, non-smoker, non-politician, non-drip(paint)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IN-</td>
<td>Insane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IL-</td>
<td>Illogical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IM- (same as for un-)</td>
<td>Improper, immovable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IR-</td>
<td>Irrelevant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIS-</td>
<td>Disloyal, discourteous, disobey, dislike, disfavour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A- lacking in ,lack of</td>
<td>Amoral, asexual, asymmetry</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**REVERSATIVE OR PRIVATIVE PREFIXES:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UN- (a) ‘to reverse the action’</td>
<td>(a) undo, untie, unzip, unpack, unwrap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) ‘deprive of’, ‘release from’</td>
<td>(b) unleash, unhorse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DE- ‘to reverse the action, ‘to get rid of</td>
<td>Decode, decentralize, defrost, desegregate, de-escalate, deforestation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIS- ‘(as for Un-)</td>
<td>Disconnect, disinfect, disown, dishearten, discoloured, discontent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PEJORATIVE PREFIXES:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MIS- ‘wrongly’, astray</td>
<td>miscalculate, mishear, misfire, misinform, mislead, misconduct, misleading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAL- ‘badly’, ‘bad’</td>
<td>Maltreat, malfunction, malformed, malodorous</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PREFIXES OF DEGREE OR SIZE:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ARCH- ‘supreme, ‘highest’, ‘worst’</td>
<td>Archduke, arch-enemy, archbishop, arch-fascist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUPER- ‘above’, ‘more than’, ‘better’</td>
<td>Superman, supermarket, supernatural, supersensitive, superluxury (airliner, etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OUT- ‘(to do something) better, faster, longer, etc. than’</td>
<td>Outgrow, outlive, outrun, outweigh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUR- ‘over and above’</td>
<td>Surcharge, surtax</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUB- ‘under’, ‘lower than’, ‘less than’</td>
<td>Subhuman, substandard, subnormal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OVER- ‘too much’</td>
<td>Overdo, overeat, oversimplify, overdressed, overconscientious, overconfident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNDER- ‘too little’</td>
<td>Undercook, underfeed, undercharge, underworked, underprivileged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HYPER- ‘extra specially’</td>
<td>Hypocritical, hyperactive, hypersensitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ULTRA- ‘beyond’, ‘extremely’</td>
<td>Ultra-violet, ultra-modern, ultra-conservative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MINI- ‘little’</td>
<td>Mini-car, mini-skirt, mini-cab</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**PREFIXES OF ATTITUDE:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CO-</td>
<td>'accompanying', 'with', 'joint'</td>
<td>Cooperate, coexist, co-heir, co-driver, co-education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COUNTER-</td>
<td>'against', 'in opposition to'</td>
<td>Counteract (also counter-act), counter-revolution, counter-espionage, countersink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANTI-</td>
<td>'against'</td>
<td>Antibody, anti-missile, anti-war, anti-social, anti-clerical, anti-clockwise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRO-</td>
<td>'for', 'on the side of' (antonymous to anti-)</td>
<td>Pro-Common Market, pro-Castro, pro-American, pro-communist</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**LOCATIVE PREFIXES:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SUPER-</td>
<td>'over', 'above'</td>
<td>Super-structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUB-</td>
<td>'under', 'beneath', 'lesser in rank'</td>
<td>Subway, subsection, subconscious, sublet, subdivide, subcontract</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTER-</td>
<td>'between', 'among'</td>
<td>International, inter-continental, interwine, intermarry, interweave, interplay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRANS-</td>
<td>'across', 'from one place to another'</td>
<td>Transatlantic, trans-Siberian, transplant, transship</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PREFIXES OF TIME AND ORDER:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FORE-</td>
<td>'before'</td>
<td>Foretell, forewarn, foreshadow, foreknowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRE-</td>
<td>'before'</td>
<td>Pre-war, pre-school (children), pre-19th century, pre-marital</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POST-</td>
<td>'after'</td>
<td>Post-war, post-election (boom), post-classical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EX-</td>
<td>'former'</td>
<td>Ex-president, ex-serviceman, ex-film-star, ex-husband</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RE-</td>
<td>'again; 'back'</td>
<td>Rebuild, reclaim, reuse, resell, re-evaluate, resettlement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NUMBER PREFIXES:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UNI-MONO-</td>
<td>'one'</td>
<td>Unicycle, unilateral, unisex, monotheism, monoplane, monorail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BI-DI-</td>
<td>'two'</td>
<td>Bilocal, bi-partisan, bilingual, biceps, bimonthly, bicycle, dimeter, dichotomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRI-</td>
<td>'three'</td>
<td>Tripartite, tripod, trident, tricycle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MULTI-POLY-</td>
<td>'many'</td>
<td>Multi-national, multi-racial, polysyllabic, polygamy, polyglot</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
OTHER PREFIXES:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AUTO-</td>
<td>‘self’</td>
<td>Autocrat, autouggestion, autobiography, automation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEO-</td>
<td>‘new’, ‘revived’</td>
<td>Neo-classicism, neo-Gothic, neo-Nazi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAN-</td>
<td>‘all’, ‘world-wide’</td>
<td>Pan-African, pan-Anglican, pan-American</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROTO-</td>
<td>‘first’, ‘original’</td>
<td>Proto-Germanic, prototype</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEMI-</td>
<td>‘half’</td>
<td>Semicircle, semi-darkness, semi-humorous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VICE-</td>
<td>‘deputy’</td>
<td>Vice-admiral, viceroy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CONVERSION PREFIXES (CLASS-CHANGING):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Added to – to form</th>
<th>Examples</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BE-</td>
<td>(a) nouns-participial adjectives (b) verbs, adjectives, nouns – transitive</td>
<td>(a) bewigged, bespectacled, bedeviled (b) becalm, bedazzle, bewitch</td>
<td>(a) has various meanings: ‘equipped with’, ‘covered with’, ‘beset with’, often there are pejorative or facetious overtones</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EN-</td>
<td>Nouns – verbs</td>
<td>Enmesh, empower, endanger, entrain, enslave</td>
<td>Various meanings: ‘to make into’, ‘to put into’, ‘to get into’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-</td>
<td>Verbs – predicative adjectives</td>
<td>Astride, awash, aglimmer, atremble</td>
<td>The meaning is similar to that of the progressive aspect: afloat = ‘floating’. It is doubtful whether this prefix is still productive.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

( QUIRK, 1972:982-92)
2.9.10. CLASSIFICATION OF SUFFIXES

In English, suffixation is primarily class-changing, that is, suffixes generally alter the word-class of the base. The treatment of suffixes has generally grammatical basis, that is, their primary function is to change the grammatical function. They have only a small semantic role. It is convenient to group and classify suffixes according to their same word-class (synonymous grammatical relations) that results when they are added to a base, so it is possible to speak of noun suffixes, verb suffixes, etc. But, in addition, since particular suffixes are frequently associated with attachment to bases of particular word-classes, it is also convenient to speak of them as denominal suffixes, de-adjectival suffixes etc. For example, “-ness” is a “de-adjectival noun suffix” in that it forms nouns from adjectives such as “kind” or “gracious”. It is useful to extend this concept further and to speak of the derived words themselves as denominal, deverbal, etc., e.g. “graciousness” is a “de-adjectival” formation. (Quirk, 1985: 1546-47).

Suffixes, except in the cases of inflections, nearly always change the grammatical class of the base to which they are added. The best way of classifying suffixes in English is to classify them on the basis of their grammatical function. They can be classified with reference to their word-class that results when they are added to a base. Alternatively, they can be classified with reference to the grammatical class of the base to which they are added. The suffix “-ish” at the end of words like ‘boyish’, “childish” and “snobbish”, for example, can be described as an adjective suffix because the addition of this suffix results in the forming of an adjective. We can also say that the suffix has a denominal function in the sense that it changes a noun into another word-class. The suffix “-ee” at the end of words like “employee” and “examinee” is a noun suffix because the addition of this suffix results in the formation of a noun. The suffix has a deverbal function in the sense that it is added to a verb.

A suffix may belong to one grammatical class in the case of some words but it may have to be classified differently in the case of some other words. In words like “brotherly”, “friendly” and “scholarly”, “-ly” is an adjective suffix having a denominal function but in words like “foolishly” and “wisely”, it operates like an adverb suffix having a de-adjectival function. In view of these principles of classification, suffixes in English can be classified in terms of their grammatical function. (Thakur, 1997: 26)
NOUN – NOUN SUFFIXES

a) OCCUPATIONAL, ETC.:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUFFIX</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-STER</td>
<td>'person engaged in an occupation or activity'</td>
<td>Gangster, gamester, trickster, engineer, profileer, racketeer, pamphleteer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-EER</td>
<td>Varied meanings, e.g. 'something having X', 'inhabitant of X', 'maker of X'</td>
<td>Glover, teenager, Londoner, three-wheeler</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(b) DIMINUTIVE AND FEMININE:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUFFIX</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-LET</td>
<td>'small, unimportant'</td>
<td>Booklet, piglet, leaflet, starlet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ETTE</td>
<td>(a) 'small, compact'</td>
<td>Kitchenette, cigarette</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b) 'imitation' (material)</td>
<td>Leatherette, flamelette</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(c) 'female'</td>
<td>Usherette, suffragette</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ESS</td>
<td>'female'</td>
<td>Waitress, actress, lioness, authoress, manageress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Y</td>
<td></td>
<td>Daddy, Johnny, pussy, nighty (nightgown)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

c) STATUS, DOMAIN, ETC.:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUFFIX</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-HOOD</td>
<td>'status', etc.</td>
<td>Boyhood, brotherhood, widowhood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-SHIP</td>
<td>'status', 'condition', etc.</td>
<td>Friendship, membership, lectureship, dictatorship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-DOM</td>
<td>'domain', 'realm', 'condition', etc.</td>
<td>Kingdom, officialdom, stardom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-OCRACY</td>
<td>'system of government'</td>
<td>Democracy, plutocracy, meritocracy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ERY(-RY)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(a) 'behaviour' etc.</td>
<td>(a) deviery, drudgery, pageantry, slavery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b) 'place of activity or abode'</td>
<td>(b) nunnery, rookery, refinery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(c) 'collectivity'</td>
<td>(c) crockery, machinery, gadgetry, rocketry</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

d) OTHER:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUFFIX</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ING</td>
<td>'the substance of which N is composed'</td>
<td>Matting, tubing, paneling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-FUL</td>
<td>'the amount which N contains'</td>
<td>Mouthful, spoonful, plateful</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### NOUN/ADJECTIVE – NOUN/ADJECTIVE SUFFIXES:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ITE</td>
<td>(a) ‘member of a tribe or community’ (b) ‘member of a faction, sect or type’</td>
<td>(a) Israelite, Brooklynite (b) Benthamite, Stalinite, laborite, socialite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-(I)AN</td>
<td>‘belonging to’, ‘pertaining.. to’ etc.</td>
<td>Indonesian, Parisian, Elizabethan, Republican, Darwinian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ESE</td>
<td>‘nationality’, etc.</td>
<td>Chinese, Portuguese, Japanese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-IST</td>
<td>‘member of a party, occupation’, etc.</td>
<td>Masochist, racialist, Buddhist, violinist, stylist, loyalist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ISM</td>
<td>‘doctrine’, ‘point of view’, ‘political or artistic movement’, etc.</td>
<td>Calvinism, idealism, impressionism, fanaticism, dualism, absenteeism</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### VERB-NOUN SUFFIXES:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ER(-OR)</td>
<td>agential suffix, e.g.: singer ‘one who sings (by profession)’</td>
<td>ANIMATE NOUNS: worker, writer, driver, employer INANIMATE NOUNS: Receiver, silencer, thriller (BrE) COMPOUNDS: Washer-up (BrE) window-cleaner, high-flier, eye-opener</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ANT</td>
<td>a less common and more learned agential suffix</td>
<td>inhabitant, contestant, informant, lubricant, disinfectant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-EE</td>
<td>passive suffix; e.g.: draftee, ‘one who is drafted’</td>
<td>Payee, appointee, trainee, employee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ATION</td>
<td>(a) “state”, “action”, etc (b) “institution”, etc</td>
<td>(a) fixation, exploration, victimization, ratification, starvation (b) foundation, organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-MENT</td>
<td>“state”, “action”, etc</td>
<td>arrangement, amazement, puzzlement, embodiment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-AL</td>
<td>“action”, etc</td>
<td>refusal, revival, dismissal, upheaval</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ING</td>
<td>(a) “activity”, “state” (b) “that which results from the activity of the verb”, etc</td>
<td>(a) bathing, driving, hating (b) painting, building, opening, earning, shaving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-AGE</td>
<td>“extent”, “amount”, etc</td>
<td>coverage, shrinkage, leverage, drainage, wastage</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### ADJECTIVE – NOUN SUFFIXES:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-NESS</td>
<td>‘state’, ‘quality’ etc.</td>
<td>Meaness, happiness, cleverness, usefulness, selfishness, stoutheartedness, up-to-dateness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ITY</td>
<td>‘state, ‘quality’, etc.</td>
<td>Sanity, diversity, rapidity, respectability, banality, elasticity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### VERB SUFFIXES:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-IFY</td>
<td>Causative</td>
<td>Beautify (‘to make beautiful), diversify, codify, amplify, simplify</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-IZE(-ISE is an alternative spelling in BrE)</td>
<td>Causative</td>
<td>Decimailze, symbolize, hospitalize, publicize, popularize, legalize, modernize</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-EN</td>
<td>(a) ‘make X’ (b) ‘become X’</td>
<td>Ripen, widen, deafen, sadden, quicken, tauten</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### NOUN – ADJECTIVE SUFFIXES:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-FUL</td>
<td>‘full of’, ‘having’, ‘giving’</td>
<td>Useful, delightful, pitiful, successful, hopeful, helpful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-LESS</td>
<td>‘without’, ‘not giving’</td>
<td>Speechless, childless, harmless, restless, careless</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-LY</td>
<td>‘having the qualities of’</td>
<td>Beastly, manly, soldierly, brotherly, worldly, cowardly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-LIKE</td>
<td>‘having the qualities of’</td>
<td>Childlike, cowlike, statesmanlike</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Y</td>
<td>‘like’, ‘full of, covered with’</td>
<td>Meaty, sandy, creamy, hairy, silky, manly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ISH</td>
<td>(a) ‘belonging to’ (b) ‘having the character of’</td>
<td>(a) Swedish, Turkish, Cornish (b) Foolish, churlish, selfish, snobbish, roguish, modish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ESQUE</td>
<td>In the style of</td>
<td>Dantesque, Rembrandt-esque, picturesque, burlesque</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### SOME ADJECTIVE SUFFIXES:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Examples with corresponding abstract nouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-AL(also -IAL, -ICAL)</td>
<td>Criminal (Crime), cultural (culture), editorial (editor), musical (music), philosophical (philosophy), preferential (preference)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-IC</td>
<td>Atomic (atom), emphatic (emphasis), heroic (heroism), problematic (problem), specific (specificity, specification)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-IVE(also -ATIVE, -ITIVE)</td>
<td>Attractive (attraction), expansive (expansion), explosive (explosion), productive (production), sensitive (sensitivity)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-OUS(also -EOUS, -IOUS)</td>
<td>Ambitious (ambition), courteous (courtesy), erroneous (error), grievous (grief), virtuous (virtue), vivacious (vivacity)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
OTHER ADJECTIVE SUFFIXES:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ABLE</td>
<td>Generally the meaning is passive: 'able to be V-ed', 'worthy of being V-ed, that ought to be V-ed</td>
<td>Acceptable, readable, drinkable, commendable, liveable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ISH</td>
<td>Somewhat</td>
<td>Reddish, latish, tallish, poorish, youngish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ED</td>
<td>Having</td>
<td>Walled, wooded, pointed, blue-eyed, simple-minded, fuller-flavoured, odd-shaped, giant-sized</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ADVERB SUFFIXES:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-LY</td>
<td>In a manner</td>
<td>Happily, strangely, comically, oddly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-WARD(S)</td>
<td>Manner and direction of movement</td>
<td>Onward(s), backward(s), earthward(s), homeward(s), eastward(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-WISE</td>
<td>(a) in the manner of (b) as far as... is concerned with</td>
<td>(a) crabwise, clockwise, corkscrew-wise (b) weather-wise, education-wise</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Quirk, 1972: 994-1008)

2.10. WORD-FORMATION PROBLEMS

The complications noted with prefixation, especially in the mixture of native and foreign, productive and nonproductive are paralleled with suffixation, but in some ways they are more serious. Among the points to be emphasized here is that it is not permissible semantically to link the (pre-) of unitary adoptions like 'prefer' with the productive (pre-) in 'pre-heat'. The grammatical function of (for example, - ((a) t) ion) is recognizable as a noun ending whether or not English processes a separate base (nation, duration and portion). It is true also that, in contrast with the variability of stress in prefixation, a suffix is more often an unstressed addition to a base. But unlike prefixation, suffixation with originally foreign items is often accompanied by stress shifts and sound changes determined by the foreign language concerned. Thus, even where the spelling of the base remains constant, the stress differences in sets like the following involve sharply different vowel sound; for e.g. in BrE, the (-graph) element in the following is pronounced with the vowels /a:/ and /æ/ respectively:

‘Photograph –pho’tography –photo’graphic
Moreover, spelling as well as sound are affected in many sets, e.g.

a) Invade – invasion; persuade-persuasion, etc.

b) Permit – permission; admit-admission, etc.

c) ‘Drama – dram’atic, etc.

d) ‘Able – a’bility, etc.

e) In’fer – ‘inference-infer’ential, etc.

A further problem is that while productive prefixes can generally combine with bases of any origin, some of the originally foreign suffixes require originally foreign bases, and there has traditionally been some inhibition about forming ‘hybrids’. This has resulted in pairs of, for example, nouns and denominal adjectives that are formally distinct:

a) mind – mental (mindal)

b) nose – nasal (nosal)

c) mouth – oral (mouthal)

(Quirk, 1985:1547).

Sometimes, recognizing morphemes is not so easy. When morphemes combine to form words, sound changes and / or spelling changes can disguise them, making their presence less obvious to the untrained ear or eye. ‘Reduce’ changes its vowel sound to ‘reduction’ when it becomes a noun; ‘dry’ and ‘dried’ have the same vowel sound but the spelling changes. Irregular verb-forms are another example of this: ‘sang’ must be related to ‘sing’ and ‘sung’, while ‘went’ seems quite unconnected with ‘go’ or ‘gone’. ‘Beauty’ changes its spelling in ‘beautiful’. Sometimes such changes are recurrent: the /k/ sound in ‘electric’ becomes /s/ in ‘electricity; the same pattern holds good for ‘authentic’ – ‘authenticity’; ‘domestic’ – ‘domesticity’, and ‘public’ – publicity. The stress change from the adjective ‘perfect’ to the verb ‘perfect’ is typical of a whole group of stress-changing words (e.g. ‘an object – to object; ‘a decrease – to decrease). Where regularities of this kind can be observed, they can be capitalized upon by teachers and learners tackling the problems of word-recognition in written and spoken contexts. (McCarthy, 1990:4).
When we separate the words into the morphemes that compose them, we can consider what problems of analysis, or recognition, or of relating them to other forms of the same word a learner might have with them. For e.g.:

1. Word: Redemption
   Morphemes: Redeem + noun suffix “-tion”
   Problem: Recognizing that “redem(p) is a variant of” redeem

2. Word: Plentiful
   Morphemes: Plenty + adjective suffix “-ful”
   Problem: Recognizing that “plent(i)” is a variant of “plenty”

3. Word: Ridden
   Morphemes: Ride + past participle suffix “-en”
   Problem: Recognizing that “rid (d)” is a variant of “ride”

(McCarthy, 1990: 4-5)