CHAPTER III

WORDS, ITS NATURE AND GROWTH.

In the previous chapter the origin, nature and factors of the development of language have been discussed. "Word", which is the minimal unit of language and item of vocabulary needs be discussed in a study of vocabulary. Here in this chapter, the conflicting views about what word is, how and why the growth of vocabulary takes place, what is meant by the meaning of word and other allied matters have been discussed because, the author feels that such a discussion on 'words' is quite relevant to the present study.

DEFINITION

A word may be defined as the union of a particular meaning with a particular complex of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment. The words like man, book, go, run, dance etc. may be cited to show that they have particular meanings, sounds and capabilities of grammatical employments in sentences like 'He is a man', 'I go', 'I run', 'He dances' etc.

According to this description, a word is not only a semantic unit but also a grammatical and phonological unit. In that case, should the entire phrases like 'an open secret', 'a feet long' 'the new teacher', which have definite meanings, phonological shapes
and grammatical employments, be considered as words? The answer would definitely be in the negative.

Some linguists have suggested modification of the definition. "Words are the smallest segments of utterances which fulfil these three conditions." But the 'un' and the 'able' of 'unfavourable', should be accepted as words as they perfectly fulfil the semantic, the grammatical and the phonological conditions imposed by this definition.

**Minimal Free Form**

Another definition, "word is a minimum free form, consisting of one or more morphemes" covers a good number of the forms in different languages that we wish to recognise as words. Amongst the words book, books, bookish and bookcase, book is one word consisting of one morpheme, books has two morphemes, the free form of the bound forms; bookish has book + ish; bookcase consists of book + case. These three words books, bookish, and bookcase are examples of the morphological processes known as inflexions, derivation and compounding respectively.

**Accidence of Graphic Continuity**

If bookcase is one word then what is gas fire? If cannot is one word then what is say not? How can oneness of word be determined? Is word an accident of graphic continuity? Is the oneness of a word to be determined by the fact that it is
written or printed or typed without a break? If this criterion is
accepted then matchbox could be one word and may not two words.

But acceptance of such a criterion is not justifiable on
historical grounds as in the past all syllables in English were
independent words, and most monosyllable English words were com-
pounds, and juxtaposed words underwent a hyphenated transition.

Lovely was love like; understand - understand, motor-car -
motor-car; supernova - supernova, waistcoat - waistcoat;
forehead - forehead, gentleman - gentleman.

But more interesting and bewildering is the fact, there
is no grammatical, phonological or semantic law by which the mech-
anism of some word formation in English could be explained. To the
question: Why matchbox and not letterbox but letter-box? Why
gaslight but not gasfire but gas-fire? Why yesterday but not
lastweek? No linguist could satisfactorily give an answer.

Monologs, Polylogs, Kidos or Allogisms

As the term 'word' does not allow an easy definition,
it has been suggested to replace the term word by three terms
viz., monolog, polylog and miolog.

MONOLOG: Monolog is one orthographic piece uninterrupted
by break. The examples of monolog are cannot, daresay, instead, up,
slowly, upstairs, cut, village, headmaster etc.
Polylogs: Polylogs are orthographic pieces constituted by two or more juxtaposed monologs but functionally and semantically equal to monolog. The examples are, of course, by virtue of, all day long, in view of the fact that, in fact, in case, am the contrary etc.

Monologs: Monologs are fractions of words. They are affixes and concrete inflexions. The example are: -ful, -ed, -ing, -graph, -gram, -phone, -logy, -logue, -ism, -logy, -graphy, -ist, -er, bi-, ex-, im-, dis-, -'s, 0-, con-, poly-, mono-, uni-, ortho-, etc.

Alogisms: Alistotic pieces are those in which a given concept is expressed without the use of any concrete lexical unit. Fruit-tree is an alogistic expression because instead of saying tree which bears fruit, it has brought economy by dispensing with two monologs which bears, but retaining their meaning in the expression. 'He is going to Mr. John's' retains in it the meaning of the monolog 'house'. This is also alogism.

Variations

Modern linguists have condemned the school tradition of referring to units like: 'books, bookish, bookcase' as different forms of the same word. According to them 'book' is a simple word, 'books' and 'bookish' are complex words and 'bookcase' is a compound word. They are different words.
Particularly from the foreign students' point of view, "buy" and "bought", "hold" and "held", "tell" and "told" are almost as much separate as words as "bell" and "bells" in that his knowledge of one does not generate the knowledge of the other. Subscribing to this view, Palmer says that we are more justified when we consider that, after all, "hardly" is the inflected form of "hard", and they are obviously two different words, and that "sing", "singer" and "song" are obviously etymological cognates and equally obviously possess separate identities.

But this will result in an unmanageable multiplication of innumerable words. Hence, the middle course suggested by Palmer that regular inflected forms like "work" "worked", should be considered as identical with their primitives, but irregular inflected forms like "went", "gone" as separate words, helps us in our attempt to get out of the problem. But when the question of the basis of irregularity comes, we are again in the thick of the problem: which is to be the criterion of irregularity, the orthographic or the phonetic aspects of the word? An inflexion may be regular in one but not in the other.

Moreover, the consideration of the semantic cognates further complicates the problem. "Bear" (animal) and "bear" (support) are two distinct words with an entirely separate history but having chance resemblance; so also are "can" (be able) and "can" (metal box); "box" (case) and "box" (to fight with). But "like" (similar to) and "like" (be fond of) are not chance resemblances but true cognates.
so also are 'mind' and 'mind' (I don't mind minding the children but they will have to mind what I tell them, mind!); 'wear' and 'worn' (a cloth that will wear well, a cloth that will not wear).

These are the factors that greatly complicate the problem and make it difficult for the investigators of vocabulary to count word frequency, calculate actual vocabulary and prepare estimated vocabulary. Unless an investigator is sure about what a word is, how can he count words? Are go, went and gone three words or three forms of the same word go?

John Lyons introduced a new term 'lexeme' to denote the abstract units which occur in different inflexional forms according to the syntactic rules involved in the generation of sentences. Thus the orthographic word 'cut' represents three different inflexional forms (i.e., three different grammatical words) of the lexeme 'cut'. Go, went, gone are three different grammatical words that have emanated from the lexeme 'go'. So 'go' is a lexeme when it does not have any grammatical employment, whereas 'go' is a grammatical word when it is employed in sentences.

Words and dictionaries

In 1755, Johnson's Dictionary records about 48,000 words. The unabridged dictionaries now contain about 5,000,000 entries; the second edition (1934) of Webster's International had 600,000 entries, inclusive of compound words and derivations. The Oxford English Dictionary breaks down its entries into four
Moreover, the dictionaries include thousands of obsolete words but exclude many groups of words e.g., slang, localisms, trade names, and occupations. Though these are used by the people and some of them have been widely used in modern fictions. According to Spencer Armstrong there are between 1,000,000 and 1,250,000 words in English. At least two-fifths of these are ultra-scientific terms used only in the recesses of the laboratory, they are not to be found in standard dictionaries and figure in special glossaries of the sciences to which they belong.

At the rate of about 3000 a year, new words are being added to the vocabulary. The circle of the English language has a well-defined centre but no discernible circumference. 200,000 words constitute the centre of the language. These words have frequency in old and new literature and in scientific literature too. Moreover, these are the words which constitute the reservoir from which writers, speakers as well as text book writers draw their materials for expression. In vocabulary studies, these words may form the bulk for investigation from different angles like frequency, quality, currency, diversity etc.
The Growth of Vocabulary

The richness and extensiveness of English language, have been partly due to historical factors and partly due to the genius of the language and its catholicity to absorb foreign words and elasticity to create new words. The number of ways through which the vocabulary of English language has been enlarged and is being enlarged need special mention here.

**Imitation of Sound:** This is the crudest method of word-making. The words bang, pop, buzz, chick, whizz, rumble, mumble, hiss, giggle, etc. describe some kind of sounds and they are imitative in character. The words pitch, torrent, kick, clutch etc. give the impression of quick action. Blow, blast, blister, blasted, bladder, blob, etc., have suggestion of inflation because of the juxtaposition of -bl. But ble suggests haste as in fly, flee, fling, flash, flicker etc. St- suggests stability in words like stop, still, stand, stable, steadfast, stage, stall, statue, stature etc.

**Meaning Extension of Old Words:** Vocabulary grows with the ramification of new connotation to the old words. To Shakespeare 'pedant' meant a school master but to the modern writers it means far more than that. 'Manufacture' has the prefix 'manu' meaning hand but now-a-days 'manufactured' product is the opposite of hand-made product. Much meaning expansion is to be found in words like 'radical', 'plunder', 'propaganda', 'militia', 'evacuate' etc.
'Water' is a word having several distributions like: water as a thing; water as a quality; water as an action in sentences like:

Give me a glass of water.

This is a water-meter.

He waters the garden.

In English there are many words which may be used as noun, verb, adjective and other parts of speech. 'Answer' is noun, adjective and verb. 'Import' is noun, verb and adjective; 'subject' is noun and verb; 'converse' is noun and verb. Sometimes adjectives are used as noun in words like 'principal', 'offensive', 'submarine' etc.

WORD-BUILDING AFFIXES: Words are built up from roots by prefixes and suffixes. The suffix -dom in 'kingdom', 'freedom' etc.; suffix -ship in 'friendship', 'scholarship', 'fellowship' etc.; suffix -th in 'length', 'breadth' etc. were widely used for creation of words during the Anglo-Saxon period. At present such suffixes, not being used for creation of new words but exceptions are there, as in 'filmdom'. But -less, -y, -ish, -ling, -ness, -ate, -sus, -ist, -ism, -ette, are adding words to the vocabulary even now. They are the living suffixes in English language.

The verbal ending -en in lengthen, shorten, lighten, soften, darken, etc., is extensively used in English for converting thing-words and quality-words into action-words. 'soft' is a quality word; it becomes an action word soft-en: soften; dark-en: darken; short-en: shorten etc.
For little more than half a century prefixes are being more used for word formation in English: pre-, past-, ex-, ab-, per-, inter-, extra-, super-, sub-, etc., from the Latin and un-, the native one, are extensively used for word making.

The living affixes have unlimited power of word-building. Their contribution to the qualitative, as well as quantitative, enrichment of vocabulary is great and immense.

Vocabulary researchers may note how the knowledge of the affixes and roots gives the child a power to recognise, if not create new words. If the child knows the words 'dark, soft, short, length', he will be able to recognise the meaning of 'soften, shorten and lengthen'. As a matter of fact, lack of occurrence of some words does not mean their total absence from the actual or essential vocabulary. If an estimate of expected vocabulary as well as an actual vocabulary includes the number of affixes, the findings would tend to be more accurate.

ABBREVIATION: Preference for 'business' like shortness of the Englishman may be one of the causes of word formation by abbreviations. English language possesses good many such words. Maths, see, lab, nasi, photo, bike, pram, bus, exam etc., are some of the abbreviated forms. Though all of them have not yet received literary recognition, their extensive use in speech, in journalism in fictions, and even in seminars suggest that they will be included
in the dictionaries without the label of 'colloquial' in near future. A vocabulary study of abbreviations will prove to be very interesting, as in the actual vocabulary of English as a second language, a good many such abbreviations which have not yet been officially recognised, will be found because the language development of the child is affected by many other factors, besides text-books and teachers.

A full list of words which are actually shortened or clipped would take pages. Any study on it will reveal in detail the variables responsible for such clipping and throw much light on the growth of the vocabulary.

SYNCOPATION : Syncopation is a process by which a vowel is elided and the consonants on either side of it are run together, with the result that a syllable is lost. Some examples are once, else, hence. Their original forms were 'ones, elles, hones'. Born, shorn, worn, forlorn are examples of words formed by syncopation.

TELESCOPING : This process involves a union of two distinct words into one. Do and on are two distinct words telescoped into done; similarly do and off are two distinct words combined into doff.
META-ANALYSIS: Meta-analysis is a process by which words are re-analysed by two ways viz.,

a) attachment of the consonant at the end of one word to the vowel at the beginning of another word as in 'nickname' (an nickname, the first syllable ick is a variant of old word eke); a 'newt' (an eut); 'tawdry' (St. Audrey).

b) incorporation of 'n' by the article from the noun that follows it as in 'an anger' (from a nanger); 'an adder' (from a nadder); 'an apron' (from a napron); 'an orange' (from a norange).

Syncopation, telescoping and meta-analysis have been mentioned here not only to give the study a theoretical orientation but also to collect these facts of English vocabulary which may be of interest to the future researchers, for, vocabulary study is not just word-count but probes in depth also. Relative frequencies and difficult values of words formed by different processes like telescoping etc. could be taken up by further workers.

PORTMANTEAU WORDS: Combination of parts of two words with retention of meaning of both the words creates Portmanteau words like melodrama (melody and drama); gallump (gallop and triumph); electrequisite (electric and executive); communisverse (communist and international); radiogram (radio and gramophone); etc. Vocabulary studies on Portmanteau words may be launched with the hypothesis that 'on the event of the exposure of the original words out of which a portmanteau word is formed, the difficulty value of the portmanteau words goes down.'
He who knows the words Radio and Gramaphone may find it less difficult to infer the meaning of Radiogram. Though the present study does not attempt to evaluate the difficulty value of portmanteau words in particular, the unknown impact of this variable would be there on the actual vocabulary computed by the present investigator.

**BACK-FORMATION:** Back formations owe their origin to one part of the word being mistaken for some derivative suffix or, more rarely prefix. Some of the back formations have been deliberate also. The verbs 'to grovel', 'to darkle', were derived from the adverbs of 'groveling', 'darkling' by the subtraction of -ing. The verb 'to bant' is derived from Mr. Banting by the subtraction of -ing. This is probably deliberate. By this process of back formation came 'greed' from greedy; 'lazy' from lazy; 'cose' from cosy 'to jeopard' from jeopardy; 'pet' from petti; 'to hortinge' 'rave', 'pedale', 'burgle', 'haw', and 'leg' from hortinger, rover, pedlar, burgle, hawk; 'to edit, donate and vivisect' from editor, donator, and vivisector.

Whether or not back formation words require special exposure in a controlled vocabulary list because of their ungrammatical origin, is a question that needs answer. The lack of exposure of the verb form of the word 'motivate' in the text book may be counteracted by the frequency of the word 'motivation', as the transformation follows an accepted grammatical pattern but whether the lack of exposure of the word 'cose' would be counteracted by the frequency of the word 'cosy' is a problem to be empirically investigated by the future vocabulary researchers.
SLANG: In 1725, the following words of the vocabulary amongst others were slangs: bet, core, chap, fun, jilt, pinch, prig, shabby, trip.

From Gross’s Classical Dictionary of the Vulgar tongue, the following slang terms, now words may be mentioned: adrift, balderdash, blackguard, blackleg, coxswain, lick, posse, pluck, swamy, scapegrace, simper, takenin, donkey. Now these words along with the following words which were slang in 1912 are words of respectable standing: rowdy, bogus, boom, rollicking.

WORDS FROM PROPER AND PERSONAL NAMES: Professor Ernest Weekley’s “Words and Names” gives a long list of words derived from Proper or Personal names. Some of them are ‘utopia’, utopian; ’lilliput’, lilliputian; “Bumbladom, A Wellerism, a Pickwickian sense, namby-pamby, pants, pantaloons, lynch, boycott, sadism, sadist, tammy, belisha-beacon, Anderson-shelter, rizzling.

COMBINATION OF TWO WORDS: Combination of two words without loss of syllable produces many new words like weekday, black bird, railway, bookcase, waterproof.

DELIBERATE COINAGE: English vocabulary has been enlarged by the addition of deliberate coinages by scientists, mathematicians, philosophers etc. Words like oxygen, hydrogen, ether, logic, biology, geology, geography, astrology, astronomy, photography, phonography, telephone, telegram, telegraph, etc.
Innumerable place names ending -by, -thorp (torp), -beak, -dale, thwaite etc., are Scandinavian in origin. Examples are: Derby, Whitby, Troutbeck etc.

In Standard English both English and Scandinavian forms are found in words like: no, nay, from, fer, etc.

Some cognates are common to both English and Scandinavian: father and mother, man and wife, summer and winter etc.

Many legal terms are borrowed from the Scandinavians, viz.: law, partner, share-holder etc.

Names of certain parts of the body also come from Scandinavian like calf, leg, skin, skull.

Among names of animals are bull, kid and rein(deer)

Other substantives include anger, axle, band, birth, boom, booth, brink, crook, dirt, down, etc.

Adjectives are ill, loose, low, muggy, odd, rotten, rugged etc.

Verbs are want, call, cast, clasp, cup, crave, crawl, cut, drown, die, drop etc.
It has been calculated by the vocabulary investigators\textsuperscript{16} that Chaucer used just over eight thousand words in his writing, of which a little over four thousand were of Roman origin and the rest were Germanic (English and Scandinavian). According to Simon Potter\textsuperscript{17}, present day English vocabulary is approximately half Germanic (English and Scandinavian) and half Roman (French and Anglo-Latin).

\textbf{French}\textsuperscript{18}

As the French immigrants constituted the upper classes of the English society during the Norman French period, many words of French origin are aristocratic\textsuperscript{19} vis., crown, state, government, govern, reign, realm, sovereign, country, power, minister, council chancellor etc.

Many French military words have enriched English vocabulary\textsuperscript{20}. Some of them are peace, battle, arms, armour, buckler, officer, chieftain, lieutenant, sergeant, soldier, troops, navy, admiral etc.

Many English words concerning the law\textsuperscript{21} are of French origin such as suit, sus, plaintiff, defendant, plea, plead, summons, session, attorney, fee, accuse, crime etc.

Many English words associated with ecclesiastical service\textsuperscript{22} come from French. Some of them are religion, service, trinity, saviour, virgin, angel, saint, clergy, parish etc.
English words:

23 pertaining cuisine such as sauce, jelly, fry, roast, pastry, soup
pertaining to enjoyment of life such as pleasure, delight, ease comfort etc.,
pertaining to the fashion such as apparel, dress, costume, garment
pertaining to the art such as beauty, colour, image, design, figure
pertaining to architecture such as arch, tower, pillar, vault, column, palance, castle,
pertaining to occupation such as tailor, butcher, mason, painter carpenter etc.

are of French origin.

The studies on the use of French words in English writers' works revealed that Layamon's "Brut" written in the 13th century contains 150 words of 'Angle-French origin'. "Ormulum" contains more than 20,000 lines but does not contain more than twenty words of French origin. But in "Ancrene Riwls", a contemporary prose work, contains 500 French words in 200 pages.

Latin

Recent vocabulary studies have appreciated that Latin vocabulary serves as the basis for English vocabulary studies.
Grinstead examined 17,207 most commonly used English words and found that 52.5 percent were Latin in origin; 10.5 percent Greek; 26.2 percent native English. Carr and others analyzed 20,000 words in Thorndike's "Teachers' Word Book" and found that 48.75 percent were Latin, 10.22 percent were Greek and 32.26 percent were Germanic.

J.B. Greenough and G.L. Kittredge have counted the words beginning with 'A' in Harper's Latin Dictionary, excluding proper names, doublets, parts of speech and adverbs in -e and -er of the three thousand words there catalogued, and found that one hundred and fifty-four (or about one in twenty) have been adopted bodily into English language in some Latin form and a little over five hundred have some English representatives taken or supposed to be taken through the French.

Such words as confession, honour, clamour, melody which are undoubtedly of Latin origin, were French before they were English.

Some of the words that have come straight from Latin are aggravate, provoke, nasal, ocular, mental, filial, vermicular, literary, lunar, solar, human etc.

Book studied a sample of 4118 English words taken from Thorndike's "Century Senior Dictionary" and found 2110 derived
from Latin, 1916 from classical Latin.

The committee on Educational Policies on the Classical Association of the Middle, West and South in its 1948 report provided a basis Latin vocabulary designed to increase the students' English vocabulary, both in extent and in precision in the understanding and use of English words.

In India also studies on the Latin, French and Scandinavian elements in the estimated and actual vocabulary of the students are necessary because findings of such studies may contribute to the precision in understanding and use of English words. Though the present study does not aim at the evaluation of the influences of these variables on the vocabulary comprehension by the students, the investigator considers this as one of the basic assumptions that the comprehension or recognition of words would be, to an extent, determined by these factors.

In Indian languages including Hindi, Bengali, Assamese, Tamil, Telugu, Malayalam etc., the relative difficulty value of the 'Tatsama, tat-bhava, and desi, bideshi, sabda' needs be studied and the present investigator feels that the desanskritization movement that has been launched in different modern Indian languages may be partly due to the higher difficulty value of Tatsama sabda. And the major variable determining the high difficulty value of Tatsama words among the students and people is the lack of contact with the Sanskrit language.
If future vocabulary studies in English seriously consider these variables (foreign influence) some fundamental facts about the relative difficulty value of words and determiners of the size of the vocabulary at different periods of growth may be found out.

HYBRIDISM

Hybridism is another process by which English vocabulary has been greatly increased.

a) Some of the instances of hybrid words produced by the crossing of English endings with French words are: faintness, closeness, simpleness, abnormalness, courtly etc.

b) Some of the instances of hybridism produced by crossing native stems with French endings are: shepherdess, goddess, seeress, prophetess, mileage etc.

c) Some of the instances of hybridism produced by crossing of Greco-Latin and English elements are: starvation, backwardness, Miltoniana, Johnsoniana, Talkist, Sushinite, Irvingite witticism etc.

Through these several processes, English vocabulary has achieved a break through in its size. The vastness of its size in fact, necessitates a scientific classification of its items.
Classification of vocabulary items

C.C. Fries holds that an effective approach to the problems concerning mastery of vocabulary content must at the very outset recognize the fact that the words are of various kinds and these various kinds of words require separate treatment in construction of vocabulary list as well as in any kind of vocabulary studies.

According to Fries and others who uphold structural approach, there are four kinds of vocabulary items vis., functional words, substitute words, words that are distributed in use according to such grammatical matters as the presence or absence of a negative content words. There are others who prefer to divide English vocabulary items into two kinds vis., structural words and content words. As a matter of fact, three kinds of Fries classification come under structural words and the fourth kind comes under content words.

Structural words

FUNCTIONAL WORDS: These words are instruments or operators of expressing relations of grammatical structures. Auxiliaries, prepositions, conjunctions, interjections, interrogative particles, words for degrees etc. mainly constitute the functional words. These words are words of high frequency and most of them come within first two hundred words of Thorndike's list. Moreover these words may be described as bones of English language.
a) **Auxiliaries** : am, is, are, have, has etc.
b) **prepositions** are : at, by, for, from, in, into, of etc.
c) **conjunctions** are : and, that, which, if, because, but etc.
d) **interrogative particles** are : who, which, when, why how etc.,
e) **articles** are : the, an, a
f) **degree words** : more, most
g) **generalising particle** : ever, never, it, one

**SUBSTITUTIWORDS**: These words are instruments of substitution. The examples are : I, you, we, he, them, your, anyone, anywhere, everybody, someone, none, nobody, each, both, few, many, much, ones, several do etc. Most of these words have high frequency. Inspite of their excessive use, they like function words, don't become worn out.

**PRESENCE OR ABSENCE OF A NEGATIVE**

I read **some** books yesterday
There are **some** flowers on the floor
Ram has **some**
I can speak Assamese and she can too
- the underlined words are distributed in use according to such grammatical function as the presence or absence of a negative.
According to Sapir, if language is to be a satisfactory means of communication, we must have objects, actions, qualities to think about and these must have their corresponding symbols in independent words or in radical elements.

English too, has a large body of content words which may be broadly divided into (a) words for things (b) words for actions and (c) words for qualities.

**Words for things**: Any text book abounds in words for things like book, bench, black, board, man, stone, hills, river, tree, flower, pencil, hand, eye, nose, ink, glass, water, coat, shop, road etc.

**Words for actions**: In the vocabulary list prepared by the present investigator there are many words for things that signify action viz., give, take, run, answer etc.

**Words for qualities**: These words modify or qualify, e.g. soft, sweet, good, bad, ugly, pretty, handsome, beautiful, nice, etc.

Empirically, the words for things represent sets of phenomena that have some stability; words for action represent sets of phenomena that seem to change or be in process; and the words for qualities express judgment.
Elasticity of different classes of words

English vocabulary items of different classes have considerable elasticity. The 'words for things' with little morphological variation and some without variations may do the functions of 'words for action' and of 'words for qualities'. The examples of words for things used as 'words for action' are entrust, bewitch, befriend, bedevil, deflower etc.

The examples of words for things used as 'words for qualities' are dusty, muddy, watery, sunny, silvery, golden, kingliness, lovely etc.

Similarly, the words for actions have the elasticity of being used with little variation as 'words for things'. Deform is an action word. A little variation makes it 'deformity' which is a thing word. Likewise, dismiss, dismissal, appear, appearance.

Over and above, words for action may be used as 'words for quality'. 'Write' is an action word. A little variation makes it 'written' which is a quality word.

Besides, words for qualities may be used as 'words for things' as in goodness, brightness, happiness, sweetness, etc. The examples of 'words for qualities' used as 'words for action' are endear, enlarge, weaken, freshen etc.
In fine, it is hardly possible to put a full stop to any discussion on the growth and elasticity of words of any living language. This is more true of English language which has been using several processes for the enlargement of its already highly developed vocabulary content.

Therefore the author has simply referred in this chapter to the several philological processes involved in the English vocabulary growth with illustrations. This has been done because multiplicity of such processes gives us an idea of the magnitude of the problem of vocabulary selection and control.