

Tema 10

The lexicon. Characteristics of word-formation in english. Prefixation, sufixation and composition.



www.grupopedronicolas.com



ÍNDICE

1. BIBLIOGRAPHY		4
1.1. Legal references.		4
1.2. Authors		
1.3. Further reading		6
2. INTRODUCTION		7
3. STRUCTURE AND WORDS FORMATI	ON	8
3.1. Prefixation		9
3.1.1. Negative Prefixes		9
3.1.2. Time and Order		10
3.1.3. Degree and Size		10
3.2. Suffixation		11
3.3. Compounding		12
3.3.1. Compound Nouns		13
3.3.2 Compound Verbs		14
3.4. Derivation by Zero Morpheme		15
3.4.1. Verbs Converted from Nours		15
3.4.2. Nouns Converted from Verbs		15
4. CONCLUSION		16
	~	
TEMARIO INCLUIDO	\sim	
ARACIONES		0
	Completa	

ELIGE TU MEJOR OPCIÓN

Si es la primera vez que te presentas te ofrecemos un servicio de preparación completa, te guiaremos durante toda la oposición.

Si ya te has presentado te ofrecemos la opción de una preparación parcial.







Practica

- 2 clases mensuales.

- Preparación supuestos prácticos.

- Programación didáctica.

Order ECD/65/2015 of January 21st, which describes the relationship among competences, contents and assessment criteria in primary education, secondary education and Baccalaureate.

Decree 16/2016 of March 9th that establishes co-living rules in educational institutions supported with state funds in the Autonomous Community of Murcia.

Instructions of October 29, 2012, of the Directorate General of Educational Planning and Management, which establishes the model of the official certificate of compulsory studies for students who complete the studies corresponding to Basic Education without obtaining the Title of Graduate in Compulsory Secondary Education.

- Decrees and Royal Decree from your Autonomous Community.

1.2. Authors

Adams, V. (1973, 3rd ed. 1982). An Introduction to Modern English Word-Formation. Longman Group.

Aitchinson, J. (1987, 2nd ed. 1994). Words in the mind. An Introduction to the mental lexicon. Oxford: Blackwell.

Bauer, L. 1983. English Word-Formation. Cambridge University Press.

Baugh, A. & Cable, T. 1993. A History of the English Language. Prentice-Hall Editions.

Brown, R. A First Language: The Early Stages. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1973.

Crystal, D. Linguistics. Harmondsworth, England. Penguin Books, 1990.

Ellis, R. Understanding Second Language Acquisition. Ebook Edition, Oxford University Press, 2015.

Halliday, M. A. K. Explorations in the Functions of Language. London: Edward Arnold,

1973

Halliday, M. Learning How to Mean. London: Edward Arnold, online publishing, 2008.

Halliday, M.A.K. An Introduction to Functional Grammar. Fourth edition, Abingdon, Dxon, 2014.

Hymes, D. Foundations in Sociolinguistics: An Ethnographic Approach. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1974.

Hymes, D. On Communicative competence. Harmondsworth: Penguin. 1972.

Lee, James F. & VanPatten, B. Making Communicative Language Teaching Happen. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1995.

McCarthy, M. 1990. Vocabulary. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Nelson Francis, W. 1974. The English Language. Norton and Company.

Nunan, David. Practical English Language Teaching, Grammar. New York: McGraw & Hill, 2005.

Payne, T. 1995. Lexeme-Morpheme Base Morphology, a General Theory of inflection and Word Formation. SUNY Linguistic Series. Albany: SUNY Press.

Quirck, R. and Greenbaum, S. 1973. A University Grammar of English. London: Longman.

Read, J. 2000. Assessing Vocabulary. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J., & Rodgers, T. Approaches and methods in language Teaching (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press, 2001.

Rivers, W. Teaching Foreign-Language Skills. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1981.

Saussure, F. Cours de linguistique génerale (Course in General Linguistics, trans. Roy Harris, 1983). New York: Philosophical Library.

Schmitt, N. 2000. Vocabulary in Language Teaching. Cambridge University Press.

The New Shorter Oxford English dictionary. 1992. Oxford: OUP.

Van Ek, J.A. and J.L.M. Trim, 2001. Vantage. Council of Europe Cambridge University

Press.

OBTÉN EL TEMARIO

Y comienza tu preparación

Si estás pensando en preparar tu oposición completa con nosotros, puedes adquirir el temario antes y te lo descontaremos de tus ultimas cu<u>otas del curso</u>.

INFÓRMATE

Later, records of the importance of vocabulary extend back at least to the time to the Romans in the second century B.C., when students were taught the art of rhetoric. In fact, at this point, this Greek art was highly prized, and would have been impossible for Roman children to study Greek art without a highly developed vocabulary. In early schools, students learned to read by first mastering the alphabet, then progressing through syllables, words, and connected discourse. For this purpose, before reading a text, lexical help was provided either alphabetized or grouped under various topic areas (Schmitt, 2000).

A similar work to Panini, took place later, around the seventh century A.D., in connection with the Koran and Arabic studies. It was less influential due to the fact that Koran wasn't going to be translated, but interpreted, promoting considerably the study of Arabic, both as a native and as a foreign language. Therefore, this religious stimulus promoted development in lexicography, that is dictionary-making, the study of pronunciation and language history (Crystal, 1985).

So, this study on English lexis is aimed to know more about the way vocabulary works. It attempts to provide the background knowledge necessary for the readers to make informed choice about vocabulary and word formation. By the time this study is finished, you should be aware of the major issues in the field of lexis and word formation, and equipped to read more advanced writings on them if you so wish by the bibliography provided at the end of this presentation for further exploration.

Key terminology includes several basic concepts required in the study of word formation at a morphological level in for the purpose to provide the necessary background to describe word-formation processes with precision. So, this topic reviews (a) the definition of word, lexeme, and word-form, (b) the definition of morpheme, morph, and allomorph, (c) the duality free versus bound morphemes, (d) types of morphemes: root, stem, and base, and (e) finally, word-formation processes: inflection and derivation, including the notions of affixes (suffixes and prefixes).

3. **STRUCTURE AND WORDS FORMATION**

To start this section, we will look at one of the main ways that words are formed, namely **DERIVATION**. This is the morphological process that results in the formation of new lexemes. Derivational affixes (**affixation**) are generally grammatical rather than lexical items. Consider the sentence:

The owl looked up at the cloudy sky.

Both looked and cloudy have a similar make up on a superficial level. This consists of one free morpheme followed by a bound one. Yet the bound morphemes differ in nature. The ending of looked is an inflectional morpheme, since it provides further information about an existing lexical item- *look*, in this case suggesting that the act of looking occurred in the past. However, the **y** on the end of *cloudy* behaves rather differently. It is a **derivational morpheme**; one which creates an entirely new word. *Cloud* and *cloudy* fit into different slots in the sentence. In most cases it is easy to tell the difference between inflectional and derivational morphemes. Inflectional endings do not alter the syntactic behaviour of an item in a major way. The word still fits into the same slot in the sentence. Derivational endings create entirely new words.

Derivational endings are commonly known as suffixes. In this next section we are going to look at some examples of both suffixation and prefixation.

3.1. Prefixation

A prefix is an element that is placed before a word to add to onto qualify its meaning. This can be seen for example in the word *unlimited*. Here we can see that the main word, or base, is *limited*, meaning *within boundaries*. By adding the negative prefix **un** we remove those boundaries.

The word class of the base is unaltered by the addition of a prefix, therefore if limited is an adjective, so too is unlimited.

We have begun with a negative prefix, so we will continue this section on the same theme. Time factors greatly limit the amount that we can discuss, for this reason, that which follows is only a representation of a very wide area.

3.1.1. Negative Prefixes

As we have seen, the word **un** can be simply translated as *not*. An opposition is set up between the base word and the new word that has been formed by the addition of the prefix. Normally this prefix is added to adjectives and participles to create words such as *unused*, *unheard* of, *unhappy*, etc.

Dis is another common negative prefix and is very similar in meaning to **un**. **Dis** can be added to *adjectives, verbs* and *abstract nouns* such as *dislike, disfavour, disloyal,* etc.

In has the same function as **un** and its use can be quite arbitrary. Students can only earn when to use **in** and when to use **un** through regular practice.

Some rules that could be applied to various negatives are as follows:

II can be added to some adjectives and nouns beginning with I such as *legal-illegal*.

Ir is added to some that begin with r such as *relevant-irrelevant*.

There are other negative prefixes, some of which are pejorative in meaning, such as **Mis**. This means *wrongly or badly*, for example: *misbehave, misconduct*, etc. It is generally added to verbs, abstract nouns and particles.

Mal is less common and comes from French. This prefix can be added to words in the same category as *mis*, but here we can also find this prefix being added to adjectives, such as *malformed*.

3.1.2. Time and Order

The prefixes that we use when we wish to speak about time and order include the following:

Pre and Fore meaning before.

Pre is the most common and is added to nouns and adjectives, **hormally** making use of a hyphen, such as can be seen in the example *pre-war*.

Fore is mainly used for verbs and abstract nouns and can be seen in words such as *foresee or forewarn*. Unlike **pre**, with **fore** there generally isn't a hyphen.

Post is used as the opposite to pre and fore, as in post-war.

Ex is another common prefix in this category. This has the sense of former and is used with human nouns such as *ex-husband*, etc.

Finally, **re** means again or back. It is added to verbs and abstract nouns such as *retell* in order to give the sense of something done again. Sometimes a hyphen is used, as in *re-evaluate*. Unfortunately, there is no rule to tell us when this is so.

3.1.3. Degree and Size

There are many prefixes in this section. We are only going to use a small representation.

Out means to do something faster or longer than something or someone else: *outrun* or *outlive* are good examples of this.

Sub means lower than or less than, it is added to words such as *human* to create ubhuman.

Over indicates too much. It is used to signify excess in verbs, participles and adjectives, such as *overeat*.

There are many other types of prefixes that we could discuss. To briefly mention some of them, we can find prefixes of **attitude**, such as *anti* meaning *against*, i.e. **antisocial**, prefixes

of **number**, such as **mono** meaning *one*: **monolingual**, or **bi** meaning *two*, as in **bilingual** Other prefixes include **auto** meaning self: **autobiography**, **neo** meaning *new*, **neolithic**, and many others.

In the introduction to this section, we saw how suffixes can alter the word class of the base. We will now look at this area in more detail, although it must be remembered that it is an area so large that we can only present a small amount of all the possibilities.

3.2. Suffixation

We will begin this section by looking at suffixes that are added to *verbs* so as to make *nouns*.

Er is an example of this. If we think of the verb **win**, and the noun **winner** we can see how it functions. This is added mainly to dynamic verbs to give the agentive or instrumental meaning.

Ing is added to verbs to form both abstract and concrete nouns. This signifies either an activity or the result of an activity, such as can be seen in the words **driving**, **building**, etc.

Others in this section include **age**, meaning *activity* e.g. *coverage*, or **al** - meaning *action*: *refusal*. Also we can see *ation* again meaning either action, e.g. *exploration* or *institution* e.g. *organisation*.

Nouns can take suffixes in order to form adjectives, such as ful or less.

Ful makes the noun gradable, and has the meaning of either having, as in useful, or

giving as in helpful.

Less as an addition can also make a noun into an adjective, giving the meaning *without*, e.g. friendless

Ly is one of the most common suffixes, being added to mainly abstract nouns to make gradable adjectives, such as lovely.

Y can be added to give the meaning of like as in **dirty**, signifying that something or omeone is like dirt, or *covered with*, as in **hairy**.

We can also find **ian** indicating *nationality*, e.g. *Italian*, or **like** indicating *quality; childlike*.

Adjectives can also take a suffix to make a noun. The most common example of this is **ness**. This forms abstract nouns of state or *quality*, such as **happiness**. We can also find **cy** added to adjectives ending in *ant/ent* to form words such as *militancy*.

is a word that can stand alone in its own right whereas the root would have all the derivations removed.

When we come to teach compounds in the classroom, some care must be taken because the way of writing them can vary. In British English they may be hyphenated, such as in *red-hot*, but in American English the hyphen may be omitted. Sometimes the word is open, e.g. *tax free*, sometimes hyphenated: *tax-free* and occasionally closed or solid: *taxfree*.

Compounds can be classified according to their function in the sentence. Thus we can find nouns, verbs and adjectives. We will begin by looking at compound nouns.

3.3.1. Compound Nouns

Most compounds found in English are nouns. These are most often made up of the structure **NOUN + NOUN**, e.g. **bedroom**, **flowerpot**, etc. The stress will normally fall on the first noun, with a secondary stress on the second. Thus, the phrase. There's a blackbird has a primary stress and a secondary stress, whereas the phrase: There's a black bird, indicating a bird that is black rather than a breed as in the first example, will have two primary stresses, one on black and one on bird, as well as the other normal stress patterns in the sentence.

Often the word order shows the item of use first, e.g. the function. This means that they can be rephrased as a room for a bed, a pot for a flower, etc.

We can also find compounds that are formed by a **NOUN + ADJECTIVE**. Examples here include words such as *crystal-clear*. These can give both a concrete and an abstract meaning. For example, water can be crystal clear, meaning that you can see through to the bottom, but so can the solution to a problem. Consider the following sentences:

The stream was crystal-clear and the fish could be seen swimming about me.

I don't know why you have a problem with this. The answer seems crystal- clear to me.

In British English these are normally hyphenated with a primary and a secondary stress system like that of the compound nouns that we saw earlier. It is not unusual for native



¿Sabes que disponemos del temario en audio? Solicita información sobre tu especialidad y escúchalos en cualquier lugar.





Adjective + noun ending in ed:

long-legged.

The qualitative adjectives that are compounded show the value of something. They can have a positive meaning, such as well-behaved, or a negative one, such as badly - dressed.

Compound classifying adjectives show the classification of a word. For example, halfprice shows that the price is 50% less. Often the second word denotes the main part of the classification, whilst the first word denotes the manner in which it is classified, e.g. one-way or home-made.

Finally in this section we will look at the way that verbs are compounded.

3.3.2 Compound Verbs

These are generally formed through a system called **back-formation**. This means that the new word is formed through a process of subtracting elements rather than adding them. If we think of the noun *baby-sitter* we can see how the suffix **er** can be removed to form the verb to baby-sit.

Verb compounds are quite rare. It is sometimes difficult to guess the meaning. Look at the following examples:

Noun + Verb: house-hunt, lip-read, sleepwalk.

We can see that some of them are hyphenated, and others aren't. The meanings are, respectively: look for a house with a prospect to buying it, understand what someone is saying by looking at the way that their lips move, walk while still asleep.

Verb + Noun Pickpocket.

This is someone who steals money from a pocket or handbag without the owner realising.

Verb + Verb: hearsay, make-believe.

learsay is rumour, and make-believe is fantasy.

Adjective + Verb: deepfreeze.

This is the kind of process that freezes an item to very low temperatures.

Adverb/Preposition + Verb: downcast, overcast, overbook.

The first means depressed, the second refers to the weather, describing the type of climate where there are many clouds, the third is the kind of thing that can happen in a hotel

or restaurant, where they make too many reservations, and don't have enough space for all of the customers.

Before we finish this unit, it is worth mentioning an area that makes English so rich, this being **Derivation by Zero Morpheme**.

3.4. Derivation by Zero Morpheme

This occurs when a word changes its grammatical category without changing its written form. If we think about the verb to microwave, we can see that it has come straight from the noun *microwave*.

We can find the following typical semantic relations:

3.4.1. Verbs Converted from Nouns

Agent converted to an action characteristic of this agent.

doctor: to doctor.

butcher: to butcher.

Object converted to an action normally related to that object:

skin: to skin.

dust: to dust.

Instrument converted to an action typically performed by means of that instrument:

screw: to screw.

hip: to whip.

4.2. Nouns Converted from Verbs

ctivity: converted to an instance of this activity:

to party: a party.

to jump: a jump.

Localised activity converted to a locality

to drive: a drive.

Here the verb is turned into the noun denoting the area leading to a house.

(EM

semantic levels to provide an overall framework for the main word -formation processes, such as affixation and compounding. Together with them, other minor processes have been included to show how important the role of vocabulary is in second language learning.

On the communication process and the elements involved in it, we may say it is worth repeating that in a communicative interaction, grammar and vocabulary resources are not enough to convey a personal message. We are intended to select the linguistic elements to express it so as to arouse in the receiver the meaning we are trying to convey, bearing in mind that we are influenced by the social and cultural context as well as by our own intentions. It is important to point out that as foreign language teachers we must consider that motivation is one of the elements that a competence is composed of. According to the **Order of May 5th 2016** "student's motivation and effort will be stimulated in collaboration with parents and using resources of educational support in order to overcome difficulties."

Since we are dealing with a communicative approach, it is essential to mention the objectives that our current educational system searches for, so in this line, we have to take into account Decree 235/2022 of December 7th, that establishes the sorting and curriculum of Compulsory Secondary Education in the Autonomous Community of the Region of Murcia, and Decree 251/2022 of December 22th, that establishes the sorting and curriculum of Baccalaureate in the Autonomous Community of the Region of Murcia.