The Awareness of the English Word-formation Mechanisms is a Necessity to Make an Autonomous L2 Learner in EFL Context

Yousef Tahaineh

The Department of English Language and Literature, Princess Alia University College Al-Balqa Applied University, Jordan

Emal: ytahaineh2006@yahoo.com

Abstract—**The purpose of this paper is to emphasize the issue of word-formation mechanisms in the area of foreign language learning / teaching, and to provide a critical view on the selected English language coursebooks series named *Action Pack* from the viewpoint of vocabulary selection and teaching techniques they employ. Vocabulary, as compared, for instance, with language functions and other grammatical structures, is still assigned to parts of speech (noun, verb, adverb, adjective, etc.) by a method which goes back for two millennia (Matthews,1974). The new communicative trends disregard the role of word-formation mechanisms; they focus on syntax and/or vocabulary without analyzing the mechanisms involved in the creation of new lexical items. As is pointed out by Lessard-Clouston (1996), EFL materials are often organized along the lines of the four major skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing, vocabulary, on the other hand, is seldom explicitly mentioned, although it is always present. In other words, learning of English word-formation mechanisms is seen as a by-product of other linguistic learning. No wonder, then, that vocabulary is less systematically taught and learnt than other aspects of the FL. Since words play an important role in expressing our feelings, and ideas to others during the act of communication, FL teachers should attribute importance to teaching word-formation in their classes. Textbooks play a pivotal role in the realm of language teaching and learning and they are looked upon as an indispensable vehicle for FL learning. The paper has two main objectives: first, the morphological system including word-formation mechanisms will be reviewed, second, to clarify and discuss the necessity for word-formation teaching to learners of EFL context.**

Index Terms—**L2 learners, awareness, word-formation mechanisms, morphology, vocabulary learning EFL context, autonomy, coursebooks**

I. INTRODUCTION

Teaching the mechanisms of word-formation is an important area worthy of effort and investigation. Word formation mechanisms may be defined as a set of processes for the creation of new words on the basis of existing ones. Thus, apart from borrowing from other languages, the vocabulary stock of a language is formed by means of what is usually known as word-formation rules and, particularly, of word-formation mechanisms, such as coinage, derivation, compounding, clipping, blending, conversion, backformation, abbreviation, etc. (see Yule,G., 2006; Adams, 1973; Bauer, 1983). Aware of their importance, traditional approaches to language teaching tended to place morphological issues at the forefront. In recent times, however, with the arrival of the communicative trends, the learning and teaching of languages no longer focuses on the description of the language itself and, as a corollary, on morphological issues, but on language as a means of communication. Recently, methodologists and linguists (e.g. Folse, 2004; Zimmerman, 1997; Nation, 2001; Laufer, 1997) emphasize and recommend teaching vocabulary because of its importance in language teaching. For instance, Zimmerman (1997) states that, 'although the lexicon is arguably central to language acquisition and use, vocabulary construction and instruction has not been a priority in second language acquisition research and methodology' (p, 17). Nation (2001) also discusses the main points 'in designing the vocabulary component of a language course and focuses on the importance of learner autonomy in vocabulary learning', (pp. 394-406). Whereas, Folse (2004), relating to the same issue, states that, 'students appreciate good instruction in vocabulary, which includes teaching words and the mechanisms of how they are constructed that students need to know, giving many good examples of the words, and holding students accountable for the words through appropriate practice activities and systematic testing',(p.viii). Seeming to be obvious, the sequence of developments, especially in the last decade, indicates that vocabulary learning and teaching issues have gradually gained importance.

My earlier experience as an FL learner, and later, as a teacher, seems to suggest that vocabulary is perhaps the most important component of any language course. McCarthy (1990) begins his vocabulary book by stating ' it is the experience of most language teachers that the single biggest component of any language course is vocabulary' (p. iii).Vocabulary is needed for expressing meaning and in using the receptive (listening and reading) and the productive (speaking and writing) skills. 'If language structures make up the skeleton of language, then it is vocabulary that

provides the vital organs and the flesh' (Harmer, 1991, p. 153). McCarthy (1990) argues that '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' (p.iii). However, as compared, for instance, with grammatical structures or other language functions, word-formation often plays a secondary role. According to Lessard-Clouston, (1996), vocabulary continues to play a marginal role even in the more recent communicative approach. English word-formation is usually taken for-granted by teachers and planners, (Matthews, 1974). It is often assumed that vocabulary does not require explicit teaching since, it is claimed, and that learners will end up learning vocabulary indirectly while engaging in communicative activities. 'The truth is that vocabulary is lacking in the overall curriculum. … Furthermore, except for the few vocabulary textbooks that explicitly cover vocabulary, most ESL/EFL textbooks do not systematically deal with vocabulary,' (Matthews, 1974, pp. 162-163). No wonder, then, that vocabulary is less systematically taught and learnt than other aspects of the FL. In Jordan, EFL materials, vocabulary does not seem to enjoy much better treatment.

As a rule, previous studies in L2 morphology or word-formation, such as Derwing (1976), Derwing and Baker (1977 and 1979), and Freyd and Baron (1982), have mainly concentrated on the order of acquisition of morphemes, that is, on whether L2 learners acquire inflectional morphemes before derivational ones, or whether learners are able to decode and recognize them before they can move into a productive stage, disregarding the importance of knowing and the acquisition of the morphological processes available in the L2. Unlike previous studies, the current article makes emphasis on how relevant word-formation processes or even morphology in general can be for the non-native speaker or second/foreign language learner as a way to increase their vocabulary or lexical resources, and also as a strategy to promote their autonomous learning. Nation (2001) likewise mentions that 'there are principles that some teachers and course designers follow that go against research findings' and mentions several of them in relation to vocabulary, two of which are 'All vocabulary learning should occur in context,' and 'Vocabulary learning does not benefit from being planned, but can be determined by the occurrence of words in texts, tasks and themes', (p. 384).

II. A CRITICAL VIEW ON THE TEXTBOOK 'ACTION PACK' (AP)

The 'Action Pack (AP) is the prescribed English textbook by the Ministry of Education, for the compulsory stage (the first nine years of schooling) in Jordan. Both textbooks of the 8th and 9th grade were reviewed, but the current study selected the AP of the 9th grade to be discussed as an example of the whole compulsory stage, since it represents the highest level of the compulsory stage. As a mere first hand impression, after skimming the whole units, one may observe two obvious things. First, that the book consists of 12 units and that almost all these units have more or less the same type of activities. Second, the vocabulary activities and exercises have nothing about English word-formation processes, except for the orphan exercise in AP unit (11) page (87) says 'make nouns from these adjectives and verbs: choose the correct ending and write the noun in the table below'; which means that EFL designers and planners of this prescribed textbook tend to ignore the English word-formation processes entirely. Almost all kinds of the vocabulary activities in AP are words provided to students, either to match words with pictures; match words in column A with words from column B; match verbs with their definitions; find names of places on the map; fill gaps with the suitable word; what everyday objects are made of; give a name of each of these places; describe people/things or choose a feeling for each situation,…etc. The textbook, does not have any single exercise, for example, to explain and clarify that when a word undergoes a word-formation process, several changes might occur regarding spelling, meaning, stress, class, sound, which usually yields a new linguistic unit. The student, actually, needs to know how and why these changes happen.

The book is packed generally with structural exercises which make students memorize the syntax of the language (i.e. phrases, clauses and sentences) without providing any kind of activities that help them understand how word structures are formed. This makes the learning process more difficult and burdens the students with the necessity of memorizing still more word forms resulted from the continuing different word-formation processes. For example, in unit five page 42, the vocabulary activity says: 'match the type of illnesses (e.g. stomachache, headache, neckache, and illnesses) with their meanings or with pictures'. No activity is provided to illustrate how the word e.g. 'illnesses' is structured, students learn it as a vocabulary item to describe somebody's health. No explanation is offered to the learners to clarify for them that *illnesses* is formed by 'ill' (adjective) + the suffixes 'ness' and 'es' and that the same suffixes '-ness' and '-es' both or either of them can be used in forming other words, i.e. nouns, singular or plural e.g. goodnesses. If no activity explains to the foreign learner, how this foreign learner in 9th grade will understand that *'smog, brunch, motel, telethon'* are new words came to being via a word-formation process (blending), and that each one of them consists of two parts of two already-existing words are put together to form new words, (smoke+fog; breakfast+lunch; motor+hotel; television + marathon, respectively); As Matthews, (1974) put it: 'How does one plunge into syntax when one cannot identify and understand the elements whose role and distribution is in question? It is only in favoured cases, where the morphology is simple or is already thoroughly explored, that a beginner can plunge into syntax, (p. 8). In AP unit 3, page 27, students learn words (cloudy, foggy, sunny, rainy, stormy and snowy) as vocabulary items to describe weather and climate, however, no exercise is provided to clarify to the learner that the word *'cloudy'* is formed by the root *'cloud'* + and the suffix *'y'* and that the same suffix *'y'* can be used in forming other words,(i.e. adjectives) and also that *'y'* has

got distinct morphological meanings: adjectival (e.g. *juicy, spicy, icy*). or nominalizing (see Chomsky, 1970) (e.g. modesty), or diminutive (e.g. doggy).

As a result ,students usually learn words (e.g. units 8,9,12 expression, natural unfair, respectable earthquake) all as single units without being aware that most words they learn are derived or composed words which they can break down into components to help them understand their form, and thereby their meaning. Further, in the AP, students learn words (e.g. 'machinery, industrial, stomachache, illnesses, unemployment, rainy, cloudy, blackboard, discovery, went, dried, ran) Indeed, recognizing how these words are formed, however, may not be always very easy in a language such as English. because by forming new words, several changes, as it is mentioned above, might emerge during or after the new formation, regarding spelling, meaning, stress, class, sound which makes their recognition more difficult to the learner. For example, some verbs change sounds when they become nouns (reduce–reduction); others retain the same sounds but the spelling changes (fry–fried), etc. Irregular verbs are another example of this: 'ran' can be easily related to 'run' and 'run', while 'went'seems quite unrelated to 'go' and 'gone'. Very often, however, such changes are recurrent over large sets of words. Similarly, the stress changes from the verb 'produce' to the noun 'produce' are typical of a large group of stress-changing words. In addition to the sorts I alluded to earlier, it is precisely these sorts of difficulties that need to be capitalized upon by textbooks designers in addressing the problems of word-formation, especially when learners have never been introduced to them before. The learner in this case tries to memorize these structures which burdens her/him with necessity for memorizing more and more, because as Lees (1960) and Levi (1978) note that native speakers have not ceased creating new forms spontaneously and EFL/ESL students may never be able to catch up with them, and are,therefore, frequently confused. Thereby, students need to develop strategies for rapid comprehension in order to better cope with English vocabulary in the long run. English word-formation is usually taken for-granted by teachers and planners, and vocabulary are still assigned to parts of speech (noun, verb adverb, adjective..) by a method which goes back for two millennia (Matthew, 1974). *Indeed,* students need to know: facts about word- formation and how to put words to fit different grammatical contexts as words can change their shape and their grammatical value, too.

III. BASIC TERMINOLOGY WITH DEFINITIONS

Morphology, an area of linguistics, dealing with the internal structure of word forms, can be divided into two main branches (Bauer, 1983, p. 33). Word formation is the one branch of it. According to him, 'word formation deals with the formation of new lexemes' whereas Yule, G., (2006) defines 'word formation processes (mechanisms)' as 'the study of the processes whereby new words come into being in a language'(p.64). These processes enlarge the vocabulary and therefore create new lexemes. In my opinion, by dividing the phrase 'word formation processes' into its components the term almost explains itself, namely 'the processes of the formation of words', thus this may be a very appropriate definition .It is necessary to mention at this point that word-formation is generally divided into two main groups (Bauer, 1983; Quirk et al, 1985), the first group includes 'affixation (derivation), compounding and conversion' which are considered predictable formations, whereas the 2nd group includes what Bauer (1983) calls the unpredictable formations such as clipping, blending, acronyms, etc. Let's start first with the definition of the terms relevant to these processes: Affixes (prefixes, suffixes & infixes) are bound morphemes which attached to a base (root or stem). Prefixes attach to the front of a base. Prefixes in English they are small class of morphemes numbering about seventy-five (75) and their meaning are often those of English prepositions and adverbials. An example of a prefix is the 're-' of 'recall' or 'mal-' of 'malnutrition'. Suffixes occur to the end of a base e.g. of a suffix, '-al' of 'national, '-y' of 'noisy'; infixes are inserted inside of a root. The infixes are not normally to be found in English e.g.'absogoddamlutely'

Morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of language (any part of a word that cannot be broken down further into smaller meaningful parts, including the whole word itself). The word 'boys' can be broken down into two meaningful parts: 'boy' and the plural suffix '-s'; neither of these can be broken down into smaller parts that have a meaning. Therefore 'boy' and '-s' are both morphemes. i.e. one free morpheme (boy) and one bound morpheme (s) which is a suffix.Simply,one can say that every affix is a morpheme but not every morpheme is an affix. Also every bound morpheme is an affix. To put in another way, that every bound morpheme (derivational or inflectional) is an affix. (a) *Bound morpheme* is a morpheme that cannot stand alone as an independent word, but must be attached to another morpheme/word (affixes, such as plural '-s', are always bound; roots are sometimes bound, e.g. the 'kep-' of 'kept' or the '-ceive' of 'receive'. (b) *Free morpheme* is a morpheme that can stand alone as an independent word (e.g. 'table, boy, cat, read, write, city'). The stem is an element (free or bound, root morpheme or complex word) to which additional morphemes are added. Also called a *Base*. A base can consist of a single root morpheme, as with the 'good' of 'goodness'. But a base can also be a word that itself contains more than one morpheme. For example, we can use the word 'goodness' as a base to form the word 'goodnesses' to make 'goodnesses', we add the plural morpheme, spelled '-es' in this case, to the base 'goodness'. *The root* is a (usually free) morpheme around which words can be built up through the addition of affixes. The root usually has a more-specific meaning than the affixes that attach to it. For example, the root 'kind' can have affixes added to it to form 'kindly', 'kindness', 'kinder', 'kindest'. The root is the item you have left when you strip all other morphemes off of a complex word. In the word *decrystalizing* for example, if you strip off all the affixes'-ing, -ize, and de-', crystal is what you have left. It cannot be divided further into meaningful parts. It is the root of the word.

IV. CONTENT AND FUNCTIONAL MORPHEMES

A content morpheme is a morpheme that has a relatively more-specific meaning than a functional morpheme; a morpheme that names a concept / idea in our record of experience of the world. Content morphemes fall into the classes of noun, verb, adjective, adverb. A functional morpheme is a morpheme that has a relatively less-specific meaning than a content morpheme; a morpheme whose primary meaning /function is to signal relationships between other morphemes. Functional morphemes generally fall into classes such as articles ('a', 'the'), prepositions ('of', 'at'), auxiliary verbs ('was eating', 'have slept'), etc
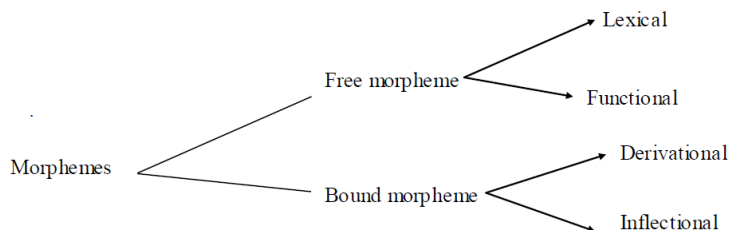

Figure 1. shows different categories of free and bound morphemes

Simple word is a word consisting of a single morpheme; a word that cannot be analyzed into smaller meaningful parts, e.g. 'boy, six, chalk, in, the, of, read'. **Complex word** is a word consisting of a root plus one or more affixes (e.g. 'girls', 'wanted ', 'deadly' carelessness, disestablishment). **Compound word** is a word that is formed from two or more simple or complex words (e.g. landlord, red-hot, window-cleaner, classroom, girlfriend).Given the basic terminology with definitions along with the illustrative examples, makes feasible to start with the English inflectional system.

V. A REVIEW OF ENGLISH INFLECTIONAL SYSTEM

First of all, one should know that there are no inflectional prefixes in English. English has only three categories of meaning which are expressed inflectionally, known as inflectional categories.

They are number in nouns, e.g. 'cat-s, cat's, 'runs'; tense/aspect in verbs e.g.'talk-ed', 'talk-ing'; and comparison in adjectives e.g. 'small-er' '-est',. Thereby, inflection is the process by which affixes combine with roots to indicate these basic grammatical categories ,and the suffixes '-s', 'ed', 'ing', '-er', and 'est' are inflectional suffixes) Inflection is viewed as the process of adding very general meanings to existing words, not as the creation of new words.(regular inflections)

IRREGULAR INFLECTIONAL MORPHOLOGY

Type of irregularity	Noun plurals	Verbs: past tense	Verb past participle
Unusual suffix	ox**en**,syllab**i**,antenn**ae**		se**en**, fall**en**, eat**en**
Change of stem vowel	foot/f**ee**t, mouse/m**i**ce	fly/fl**ew**,get/g**o**t	swim/sw**u**m,sing/s**u**ng
change stem vowel with unusual suffix	brother/br**e**thr**en**/	feel/fe**lt**, kneel/kne**lt**	write/wr**itten**,break/ br**oken**, etc.
Change in base/stem form (sometimes with unusual suffix)		send/sen**t**,bend/ben**t**, think/th**ought**, teach/ t**aught**,	Sent, bent, thought, taught and bought, etc.
Zero-marking (no suffix, no stem change	deer, sheep, moose, fish,etc.,	hit, beat	hit, beat, come,etc.,

Suppletion (instead of a suffix, the whole word changes): be - am - are - is - was - were – been. go - went - gone, good - better - best, bad- worse - worst, some - more – most. Syntactic marking (added meanings are indicated by a separate word rather than marking with a suffix or change to the base): Future of verbs: will go, will eat, will fight, etc. Comparative/superlative of adjectives: more intelligent, more expensive, etc., most intelligent, most expensive, etc. Having illustrated the inflectional morphemes leads us to start with the common word-formation processes in the production of new English words.

VI. A REVIEW OF WORD-FORMATION PROCESSES

1- Derivation/affixation: It is the most common word-formation process (Yule, 2006,p,70) which is achieved by means of a large number of small bits are called affixes, e.g.'un, ful, ness.less. .ism, im, dis, de, ment, in' etc., it is the process by which affixes combine with roots to create new words (e.g. in 'character-'ize', 'read-er', '-ize' and '-er' are derivational suffixes). Derivation is viewed as using existing words to make new words. The inflection/derivation difference is increasingly viewed as shades of gray rather than an absolute boundary. Derivation is much less regular, and therefore much less predictable, than inflectional morphology. For example, we can predict that most English words will form their plural by adding the affix '-s' or '-es'. But how we derive nouns from verbs, for example, is less predictable. Why do we add '-al' to 'refuse', making 'refusal', but '-ment' to 'pay' to make 'payment'? 'Payal' and 'refusement' are not possible English words. Thereby, we have to do more memorizing in learning derivational morphology than in learning inflectional morphology. Unlike prefixes, suffixes frequently alter the word-class as I mentioned above. Four main types of suffixes are usually distinguished in English: *(a)Suffixes forming nouns:* From nouns: kingdom, rockdom, terrorism, From verbs: crystallization, naturalization, From adjective: militancy, Excellency

happiness (b)*Suffixes forming verbs*: there are two main suffixes deriving verbs from nouns 'ify and 'ize' as in 'classify', purify, realize, and 'colonize' etc., and another suffix forming verbs is 'en' as widen, lengthen, shorten ,weaken etc. *(c) suffixes forming adjectives*: From nouns: eg. habitual, natural, normal, boyish, From verb: readable, believable, tireless, payable etc From adjective: foolish, greenish, etc Some scholars (Arnoff, 1976, p,21) claim that only nouns, adjectives and advers can be the product of word-formation, and that only these form classes can be used bases in the formation of derivations. However, Bauer (1973) reported that the first part of this claim is true, but there is plenty of evidence minor form classes can be used as bases in established forms like 'inness, inner whyness, downer,etc', (p.225)**.**

2- Compounding: joining two or more words to produce a new single form (one new word) it is very common in languages like German and English. Examples: skateboard, whitewash, super-high-way, cat-lover, self-help, red hot, textbook, fingerprint, sunburn, wallpaper, waterbed, etc. A compound, Bauer (1973) suggests, may therefore be more fully defined as a lexeme containing two or more potential stems that has not subsequent been subjected to derivational process. One may distinguish four major types of compounds in English: (1) -Compound nouns which constitutes the rest majority of English components, is obtained by stringing two nouns together. This group contains four kinds of compounds: **(a)** Exocentric compounds: this is where the compound is not a hyponym of the grammatical head. For instance, red-skin where the compound refers to a person rather than to a skin which is red. **(b)** Endocentric compounds this is where the compound is a hyponym of the grammatical head and informs that e.g. armchair is a kind of a chair. **(c)** Appositival compounds: this is where the compound is a hyponym of both the first and second element (or grammatical head), for example *maid servant* is a hyponym of both 'maid' and 'servant'. the element of oppositional compounds ,generally marks the sex of person as in boy-friend woman-doctor,…etc. **(d)** Copulative compounds: this where the two elements of the compound name are separate entities combined to refer to one entity, e.g.Rank-Hovis, these are not common in English. (2) **-** Compound verbs: most of the compound verbs in English are formed by conversion or by the process known as backformation. that is by subtracting an affix thought to be part of the word ,Anyway, verb compounds are rather rare in English. The different types like noun+ verb e.g. *sky-dive*, verb+verb e.g. *freeze-dry,* adjective +verb, e.g. *soft-land*, particle +verb, e.g. *over look*, adjective + noun e.g. *bad-mouth*, and noun +noun, e.g. *breath test*. (3) **-**Compound adverbs: the most common way of forming an adverb is by adding the suffix 'ly' to a compound adjective. (4) **-**Compound adjectives: They could be formed by several different patterns, e.g. noun +adjective (sea- born, space born), verb + adjective (fail-safe), verb + noun (turn-key, switch-button), adjective +adjective (white-sweet, bitter-sweet).etc.

3- Borrowing: it is one of the most common sources of new words in English, it is the taken over of words from other languages. Throughout its history, the English language has adopted a vast number of loan words, It may be adapted to the borrowing language's phonological system to varying degrees. Examples: *hummus, chutzpah, cipher*, *artichoke,alcohol* (from Arabic). *boss* from (Dutch), *croissant* from (French), *lilac* from (Persian), *Piano, spaghetti* from(Italian), *pretzel f*rom (German), *robot* from(Czech), *yogurt* from (Turkish),*Zebra* from (Bantu) *skunk, tomato* (from indigenous languages of the Americas*), sushi, taboo, wok* (from Pacific Rim languages), *banana* (from Swahli language). A special type of borrowing is described as **loan-translation or calque**. In this process there is a direct translation of the elements of a word into the borrowing language,an interesting example is the French term un gratte-ceil which literally translates as 'a srcape-sky.or from the German wolkenkratzer (cloud scraper) both of which were used, for what in English, is normally referred to as a 'skyscraper'. The English word superman is thought to be a loan of the German ubermencsh, the term 'loan-word' itself is believed to have come from German 'Lehnwort' etc.

4- Conversion: (also called **Zero derivation**: or **functional shift**): As is well known, conversion is the word-formation process whereby a lexical item is simply converted or adapted from one grammatical class to another without an affix. For example, we can talk of the conversion of the adjective *daily* (as in: 'we read it in a *daily* newspaper') to the noun *daily* (as in: 'We read it in a *daily*'). That the two instances of the word daily (the base adjective and the derived noun) belong to two different grammatical classes is only clear from the fact that they are used in different sentence positions. i.e. adding no affixes; simply using a word of one category as a word of another category in a different sentence position especially in an adjective case. In English, conversion is indeed an important word-formation process, and adjective-noun conversion is one of its main categories, see e.g. Marchand, 1969; Adams, 1973; and Quirk et al., 1985). Further, a change in the function of a word as, for example when a noun comes to be used as a verb (without any reduction is generally known as conversion (category change and functional shift).Examples: Noun-verb: comb, sand, knife, butter, referee, proposition, bottle, vacation, paper, etc. We say: 'he is papering the bedroom walls', or 'have you buttered the toast?' verb- noun: guess, must, spy. Phrasal verbs also become nouns as *a printout, a takeover.*

5- Stress shift: no affix is added to the base, but the stress is shifted from one syllable to the other. With the stress shift comes a change in category. the nouns cómbine ímplant, réwrite, tránsport with the stress shift they become verbs: combine, implánt rewríte, transpórt, respectively. Sometimes when the stress shifts, nouns become adjectives e.g. the nouns e.g.cóncrete, ábstract, become   adjectives 'concréte, abstráct'.

6- Clipping: The element of reduction which is noticeable in blending is even more apparent in the process called clipping. This usually occurs when a word of more than one syllable eg 'fanatic' is reduced to a shorter form 'fan'often in casual speech.Common examples are 'ad' (advertisement'), 'fax'('facsimile'), 'gas'('gasoline'),'bra' ('brassiere), bro (< brother), pro (< professional), prof (< professor), math (< mathematics), veg (< 'vegetate', as in veg out in front of the

TV), sub (< substitute or submarine), flu(<fluenza), fan (<fanatic). In other words, shortening of a polysyllabic word. More examples: 'Perm bra, cab, phone, plane, pub,condo, etc'.

7- Acronym formation: forming words from the initials of a group of words that designate one concept. Usually, but not always, capitalized. An acronym is pronounced as a word if the consonants and vowels line up in such a way as to make this possible, otherwise it is pronounced as a string of letter names. Examples: NASA (National Aeronautics and Space Administration), NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization), AIDS (Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome), scuba (self-contained underwater breathing apparatus), radar (radio detecting and ranging), NFL (National Football League), AFL-CIO (American Federation of Labor-Congress of Industrial Organizations). All united nations organizations as unsc… etc.

8- Blending: Parts (which are not morphemes!) of two already-existing words are put together to form a new word. Examples: motel (motor hotel) brunch (breakfast & lunch), smog (smoke & fog), telethon (television & marathon), modem (modulator & demodulator), Spanglish (Spanish & English).

9- Backformation: 'It is a very specialized type of reduction process is known as 'back formation'. Typically, a word of one type (usually a noun) is reduced to form another word of different type(usually a verb). A good example is the process whereby the noun television first came into use and then the verb televise was created from it, (Yule.2006, p, 67)'. Backformation process is regarded as a borderline case, i.e. it can be counted as a member of the most productive word formation processes or as a member of the so called secondary word formation processes. Because of the relation between compounding, especially compound verbs, and back formation. It is a suffix identifiable from other words is cut off of a base which has previously not been a word; that base then is used as a root, and becomes a word through widespread use. Examples: pronunciate (< pronunciation < pronounce), resurrect (< resurrection), enthuse (< enthusiasm), self-destruct (< self-destruction < destroy), burgle (< burglar), attrit (< attrition), burger (< hamburger). This differs from clipping in that, in clipping, some phonological part of the word which is not interpretable as an affix or word is cut off (e.g. the '-essor' of 'professor' is not a suffix or word; nor is the '-ther' of 'brother'. In backformation, the bit chopped off is a recognizable affix or word ('ham ' in 'hamburger'), '-ion' in 'self-destruction'. Backformation is the result of a false but plausible morphological analysis of the word; clipping is a strictly phonological process that is used to make the word shorter. Clipping is based on syllable structure, not morphological analysis. It is impossible for you to recognize backformed words or come up with examples from your own knowledge of English, unless you already know the history of the word. Most people do not know the history of the words they know; this is normal. More examples of backformed words to illustrate this special process: 'worker>work', 'editor> edit', 'sculptor>sculpt' etc. Further, a particular type, favoured in Australian and British English, produces forms technically known as 'hypocorisms'. First, a longer word is reduced to a single syllable,then '-y' or-'ie' is added to the end. The most familiar versions of this process are the words 'movie< (moving pictures'), telly < ('televiision'), 'Aussie' > ('Australian'),' barbie < ('barbecue'), 'bookie' < ('bookmaker'), 'Brekky' > ('breakfast').'hankie < ('handkerchief').You can probably guess what 'chrissy pressies' are.

10- Coinage: Adoption of brand names as common words: One of the least common processes of word-formation in English is 'coinage', that is the invention of totally new terms. The most typical sources are invented trade names for one company's product which becomes general term for any version of that product, e.g. 'kleenex, xerox, aspirin, nylon, zipper, Teflon, kitty litter, brand-aid'. The word ceases to be capitalized and acts as a normal verb/noun (i.e. takes inflections such as plural or past tense). some scholars warned using them in formal writing because 'the companies using the names usually have copyrighted them and object to their use in public documents, so they should be avoided in formal writing (or a law suit could follow!).

11- Onomatopoeia: (pronounced: 'onno-motto-pay-uh'): words are invented which (to native speakers at least) sound like the sound they name or the entity which produces the sound. In other words, Onomatopoeia is the imitation of sound by sound. Here, the sound is truly an echo to the sense: the referent itself is an acoustic experience which is more or less closely imitated by the phonetic structure of the word. Terms like buzz, crack, growl, hum, hiss, sizzle ,cuckoo, cock-a-doodle-doo, beep, ding-dong, crash, crush, plop, roar, squeak, squeal, whizz are onomatopoeic words (Ullman, 1979, p.84).

VII. THE NEED OF THE WORD-FORMATION TEACHING IN EFL CONTEXT

Vocabulary is very often defined according to form. This should not be surprising since the branch of linguistics that deals with the study of words is precisely called 'morphology'; that is, 'the study of form'. Generally speaking, the vocabulary of a language includes the words of that language. The word has been defined as a freestanding element of language that has meaning (McCarthy, 1990), as opposed to all sorts of bound forms in a language. The majority of English words have been created through the combination of morphemic elements, that is, prefixes and suffixes with base words and word roots. If learners understand how this combinatorial process works, they possess one of the most powerful understandings necessary for vocabulary growth (Anderson and Freebody, 1981). Studying how words are formed offers one important way of classifying words for teaching and learning purposes. Cutler, (1983); and Corson, (1985) emphasized the importance of word-formation in language acquisition. For instance, Corson, (1985) states: 'difficulties for many people in articulating and decoding words in a context often seem due to the form rather than to the meaning of the words, (ibid, p. 49)'. Furthermore, the study of word-formation may turn out to be highly productive

since it consists of learning a small number of processes that are regularly used to create a large number of words in a language. This understanding of how meaningful elements combine is defined as morphological knowledge because it is based on an understanding of morphemes, the smallest units of meaning in a language. In the intermediate grades and beyond, most new words that students encounter in their reading are morphological derivatives of familia words (Aronoff, 1994). In recent years research has suggested some promising guidelines for teaching the meanings of prefixes, suffixes, and word roots as well as for the ways in which knowledge of these meaningful word parts may be applied (Templeton, 2004). Word roots such as *dict, spect*, and *struct* are meaningful parts of words that remain after all prefixes and suffixes have been removed but that usually do not stand by themselves as words: *prediction, inspection, construction.*

VIII. THE ABSENCE OF WORD-FORMATION TEACHING IN EFL CONTEXT

The importance of the process of how a word is shaped in English is still underestimated by planners, book writers and teachers. The word-formation is usually taken for- granted and words are still assigned to categories e.g. verb, noun, adverb, adjective etc, (Matthews,1974) In EFL, most language teaching materials are taken from grammatical syllabuses which accept the view that language is a grammatical system and that learning a language consists of learning that system. The last thirty years witnessed the development of new approaches to language teaching, such as communicative approach which originates from the purpose of language as communication. Hymes (1972) referred to as 'communicative competence'. Canale and Swain's work is considered as an expansion of Hymes' model which attempts to 'determine the feasibility and practicality of developing what we shall call the 'communicative competence' of students' (Canale and Swain, 1980:1). Bachman's framework (1990) is an extension of earlier models 'in that it attempts to characterize the processes by which the various components interact with each other and with the context in which language use occurs' (Bachman, 1990:81). Such approaches yielded situational and notional syllabuses, in these approaches word-formation processes are not considered in the name of communicative language, and EFL/ESL materials vary depending on how the textbooks designers and developers conceptualize them which is often focus on the situations and notions to be utilized in communicative language. According to these new approaches EFL mostly consists of teaching patterns of social use and how to use them to express meaning. Therefore, neither grammatical syllabuses nor the more recent ones give attention or importance to word formation. Students are left to their abilities to use dictionaries and guessing skills to understand such processes. Lyons (1981) does not even see the necessity of listing a word like 'politeness'in a dictionary as a vocabulary unit, since both its meaning and its grammatical properties are predictable by rule, and that speakers of a language have intuitions about what is or is not an actual word of their language (ibid, p. 42). It seems that Lyons' foregoing statement might be true for the natives, but he forgets the foreign learner who does not have those intuitions and who is denied that list of derived words in the dictionary as Lyons suggests? How can a foreign language learner come to perceive , for example, that 'carelessness' is formed by the addition of two suffixes 'less' and 'ness' respectively, and not a mere vocabulary item?

IX. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

As McCarthy (1990)states'....vocabulary often seems to be the least systematized and the least well catered for of all the aspects of learning a (second) or foreign language', (p.iii). In terms of ESL/EFL pedagogy, then, one major implication of the arrgument above is that both curriculum and instruction need to incorporate English vocabulary more systematically. Beyond 'menaing identification' ESL/EFL educators need to address what it means to know and use vocabulary in a broader way, including those aspects summarized by Nation (1990, pp.29-49); see also schmidtt (1995). At the pedagogical levels: in the primary grades students begin to explore the effects of prefixes such as un-, re-, and dis- on base words. In the intermediate grades students continue to explore prefixes and an increasing number of suffixes and their effects on base words: govern (verb) + -ment = government (noun). Common Greek and Latin roots begin to be explored, along with the effects of prefixes and suffixes that attach to them (Templeton, 1989). These include, for example, chron ("time," as in chronology), tele ("distant, far" as in television), and fract ("break," as in fracture). The EFL teacher is also responsible in a way that he should attribute much importance to the word-formation processes when he teaches EFL materials.The textbook is a tool in the hands of the teacher, and the teacher must know not only how to use it, but also how useful it can be. Studying how words are formed offers, one important way of classifying vocabulary for teaching and learning. The rationale behind teaching word-formation processes is that learners are likely to attach meanings to words which they have never encountered before if they can recognize within them the presence of familiar morphemes (McCarthy 1990). Thereby, students need to know facts about word formation processes and how to put words to fit different grammatical contexts as words can change their shape and their grammatical value, too. The critical view and analysis given by the researcher on the content of the Coursebooks of AP series prescribed for compulsory stage in Jordan, from the viewpoint of vocabulary selection and teaching techniques they employ, shows that teaching of morphological processes is relevant and essential in order to enhance the learners' creative power. Consequently, this piece suggests that there is a finite number of word-formation processes in English and the most common ones and their typical formatives can be introduced and taught directly in EFL purposes. In addition to this, it seems that enhancing learner awareness of the internal structure of words and the

mechanisms by which they have been obtained has a double effect. On the one hand, it contributes to logical memorizing and retention (since words may be learnt in clusters, and not individually); on the other, when the learner is aware of word-formation processes he or she is better prepared to decode and encode new words, which is precisely what will occur in autonomous learning processes.

X. BY WAY OF CONCLUSION

In this piece I have briefly considered an essential aspect of L2 pedagogy by relating the central place of the English word-formation processes in EFL/ESL learning and teaching to the L2 curriculum. In essence, learning of word-formation mechanisms and use in academic contexts is where a student's EFL/ESL 'course of study' interacts with and is fundamental to his or her present and future 'course of life'. In the previous sections, arguments have been given in favour or the inclusion of word-formation mechanisms in L2 teaching. Thus, we have held that knowing word-formation rules and mechanisms is basic for the development of autonomous and independent learners, especially concerning vocabulary production, creativity, understanding and even proficiency. One might conclude that the dropout of word-formation mechanisms (processes) is a defective procedure. These mechanisms are an essential aspect of the English language that no teaching approach could bear neglecting them. Hence, it is very possible that one of the main reasons for the poor performance in English among Arab EFL learners could be found in their English curriculum that does not include teaching the English word formation which is usually taken for-granted. In sum, explicit word-formation mechanisms' teaching is an indispensable tool for helping students to acquire vocabulary commensurate with the level of language knowledge they aim to attain. It should be borne in mind that only small amounts of incidental vocabulary learning occur from reading. Moreover, learners are more likely to infer an incorrect meaning of an unknown L2 word in an L2 text when no cue has been given to its meaning. Thereby, and to this end, the content of the textbook 'Action Pack' for teaching EFL should be revised and reevaluated by curriculum planners. What is proposed in this paper is a preliminary evaluative study that may serve as a guide in the planning phase of textbook writing. Word-formation mechanisms are very essential for EFL teaching, therefore, curriculum planners, book writers, designers and English language teachers should attribute much importance to these processes.

As a consequence of all this, we still strongly and firmly hold that, even within communicative approaches, coursebooks and dictionaries should not disregard or neglect language learners' language or rather, second language learners' productions or corpora in order to identify problematic areas. This will make it possible to adopt and adapt contents most effectively to the learners' needs and favour the building up and interiorizing of lexical resources. All this will make learners not only independent and autonomous in their production but also more accurate and proficient in their realizations, which will indeed favour autonomous learning as they become fully aware that they are actually making progresses once outside the school and classroom.

REFERENCES

[1]   Adams, V. (1973). An Introduction to Modern English Word-Formation, London: Longman.
[2]   Anderson, R.C., and Freebody, P. (1981). Vocabulary knowledge. In J. Guthrie (Ed.), *Comprehension and teaching: Research reviews*, pp, 77–117. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
[3]   Aronoff, M. (1994). Morphology. In A. C. Purves, L. Papa, and S. Jordan (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of English studies and language arts*, Vol. 2, pp, 820–821. New York.
[4]   Aronoff,M (1976).Word formation in generative grammar. Mass:MIT Press
[5]   Bachman, L.F. (1990). Fundamental consideration in language testing. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[6]   Bauer, L. (1980). In the beginning was the word. *Te Reo* 23, pp, 73-80.
[7]   Bauer, L. (1983). English word-formation. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, London, UK.
[8]   Boundouqui, N. (1997).Towards a More systematic Teaching of Vocabulary. Proceedings of the 1996 MATE Conference. Moroccan Association of Teachers of English: Morocco
[9]   Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics, 1*(2), pp,1-47.
[10]   Chomsky, N., (1970). Remarks on Nominalization, in R. Jacobs and P. S. Rosenbaum, eds. *Readings in English Transformational Grammar*, Ginn, Waltham, Massachusetts. 1 84--22 1.
[11]   Also in Noam Chomsky. (1972). Studies on Semantics inGenerative Grammar, Mouton. The Hague. 11-61.
[12]   Corson, D. (1997). The learning and use of academic English words. *Language Learning*, 47, pp, 671–718.
[13]   Corson, D. (1985). The lexical bar. Oxford, Pergamon Press.
[14]   Culter,A(1983). Degree of transparensy in word formation. *Canadian Journal of Linguistics*,vol.26, pp, 40-55.
[15]   Derwing, B.L. (1976). Morpheme recognition and the learning of rules for derivational morphology, in *Canadian Journal of Linguistics*, 21, pp, 38-66.
[16]   Derwing, B.L. and Baker, W.J. (1977). The psychological basis for morphological rules, in MacNamara, J. (ed.), *Language and Thought*. New York: Academic Press, pp, 85-110.
[17]   Derwing, B.L. and Baker, W.J. (1979). Recent research on the acquisition of English morphology, in Fletcher, P. and Garman, M. (eds.), *Language acquisition: studies in first language development*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp, 209-24.
[18]   Folse, K. S. (2004). Vocabulary myths: Applying second language research to classroom teaching. Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press.

[19] Freyd, P. and Baron, J. (1982). Individual differences in acquisition of derivational morphology, in *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behaviour*, 21, pp, 282-95.

[20] Hamp-Lyons, L. (2001). English for Academic Purposes. In Carter, R and D. Nunan eds. *'The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages'*. Cambridge, C.U.P

[21] Harmer, J. (1991). The Practice of English Language Teaching. New York: Longman.

[22] Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. In J.B. Pride and J. Holmes (Eds) *Sociolinguistic*s, pp,269-93. Harmondswortth: Penguin.

[23] Jordan, R.R. (1997). English for Academic Purposes. Cambridge, C.U.P.

[24] Laufer, B. (1997). The Lexical Plight in Second Language Reading. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[25] Lees, R.B. (1960). The Grammar of English Nominalizations. IJAL Publication 12, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind., and The Hague: Mouton

[26] Lessard-Clouston, M. (1996). Vocabulary and the ESL/EFL Curriculum. *TESL Reporter* 29 (2), pp, 21-33.

[27] Levi, J.N. (1978). The Syntax and Semantics of Complex Nominals. New York: Academic Press

[28] Lyons, J. (1981). Language, meaning and context. London: Fontana paperbacks.

[29] Marchand, H. (1969). The Categories and Types of Present-Day English Word-Formation, Munich, Germany: Beck

[30] Matthews, P.H. (1974). Morphology: an introduction to the theory of word structure Cambridge:Cambridge University Press.

[31] Matthews, P. H. (1990). Morphology. 2nd ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

[32] McCarthy, M. (1990). Vocabulary. Oxford University Press: Oxford.

[33] Melouk, M. (1997). Editorial. *MATE Newsletter*, 1 (18). Moroccan Association of Teachers of English.

[34] Nation, P. (2001). Learning vocabulary in another language. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press

[35] Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S., Leech, G., & Svartvik, J. (1991+1985). A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language. New York: Longman

[36] Templeton, S. (1989). Tacit and explicit knowledge of derivational morphology: Foundations for a unified approach to spelling and vocabulary development in the intermediate grades and beyond. *Reading psychology*.vol.10, pp,233-253.

[37] Ullman, S. (1979). Semantics. New York: Basil Blackwell.

[38] Yule, G. (2006).The study of language. (2nd ed). Cambridge University Press.UK.

[39] Zimmerman, C. B. (1997). Historical trends in second language vocabulary instruction. In J. Coady, & T. Huckin (Eds.), *Second language vocabulary acquisition: A rationale for pedagogy* (pp, 5-19). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Yousef Tahaineh is an Assistant Professor of Applied Linguistics-Department of English Language & Literature - Princess Alia University College-Al-Balqa' Applied University, Amman-Jordan. He has been teaching English as a foreign language for 20 years. His research interests include English Applied Linguistics matters central to L2 learners' syntactic, semantic pragmatic, lexical, morphological and phonological pitfalls, discourse markers, ESL/EFL writing, culture and L2 pedagogy, and vocabulary acquisition.