

# 1

## Words and their forms

### PART A What do we know about this?

What is a word and how are words formed?

#### TASK 1

How many words are there on each line? Write in your answers, as in the examples.

car	1
car park	2
it's	
pre-school	
prejudge	
forgetful	

Vocabulary is all about words. When we use language we use words all the time, thousands of them. If we know a language well, we know how to write its words and how to say its words. However, it may surprise you to know that it is not all that easy to say exactly what a 'word' is. One way would be to say that a word represents one unit of meaning and, in writing, has a space either side of it. So it would seem easy enough, at least in writing, to know what a word is – something with a space on either side. Because of this, we can confidently say that in Task 1, above, *car park* consists of two written words. But what about *it's*? There is no space in the middle, but most of us would say that *it's* consists of two words, *it* and *is* (shortened using 's). English has a convention, or 'rule', of using the symbol'

(the apostrophe) to show when a word has been shortened and joined to another word. Examples include:

<i>Word</i>	<i>Full form</i>	<i>Example</i>
<i>I'll</i>	<i>I shall or I will</i>	<i>I'll help you.</i>
<i>We've</i>	<i>we have</i>	<i>We've finished.</i>
<i>She'd</i>	<i>she would or she had</i>	<i>She'd have come if she'd known.</i>
<i>He's</i>	<i>he is or he has</i>	<i>He's a teacher and he's worked in Japan.</i>

We do this shortening to show in writing how we typically *say* these words. A written word has spaces on either side, so *we've* is one written word when we want to show how it is spoken in informal situations (*we've finished*) and two written words (*we have finished*) when we want to show how it is spoken in more formal situations. In speech, *we've* is one word, pronounced /wi:v/.

In Task 1, you may have had a problem deciding whether *pre-school* was one word or two, and you may have noticed two elements in *prejudge* (*pre* and *judge*), but still decided it was one word because there was no space. This is because, in English, words which have extra elements added on at the beginning to change their meaning (prefixes) are sometimes written as one continuous word, and sometimes written with a hyphen (-). Examples include:

<i>With hyphen</i>	<i>Without hyphen</i>
<i>post-industrial</i>	<i>postgraduate</i>
<i>pre-existing</i>	<i>prehistoric</i>
<i>non-event</i>	<i>nonentity</i>

Generally, we consider words that have prefixes to be just one word, whether written as a continuous single word or with a hyphen. And whether we write them with a hyphen or not, we always speak them as one word.

In the case of *forgetful* in Task 1, again, you can probably see the word *forget* and an extra piece of meaning (*-ful*), which changes the verb to an adjective (e.g. *a forgetful person*). Extra pieces of meaning added to the ends of words are called suffixes (the opposite of prefixes, which are added to the beginnings of words). Suffixes are usually written without spaces or hyphens, so a word with a suffix is just one word.

The process of making new words by adding prefixes and suffixes is called **derivation**, and words like *impossible*, *illegal*, *statement* and *explanation* are derived forms of *possible*, *legal*, *state* and *explain*, respectively.

The bits of meaning that we can see in words such as *statement* (state-ment) and *impose* (im-pose) are called **morphemes**. Some morphemes can stand alone; they are free and can be words in their own right, such as *state*, *pose*. But other morphemes can't stand alone; they are bound and must be attached to something else, such as *-ment* and *im-*. So, as well as knowing what words are and what they mean, we also have knowledge of how they are constructed internally. This can often help us understand words we are not familiar with, or new words we have not seen before. Most educated users of English, for example, would have a good chance of understanding the word *retro-fit*, which has recently become popular, because they know that the bound morpheme *retro-* means going back or looking back, and they know

the verb *fit*, so the term probably means to make something fit better or properly in a situation where it already exists.

## Words and lexical items

### TASK 2

Now do the same as in Task 1. How many words are there on each line? Write in your answers.

waste paper basket	
desktop	
blog	
phone	
DVD	
look looks looking looked	



Figure 1.1

You probably (correctly) said in Task 2 that *waste paper basket* was three words. You also almost certainly know what the individual words *waste*, *paper* and *basket* mean separately. Yet we know that a waste paper basket is one single object in the real world (Figure 1.1). The same is true of *desktop*. We can see two words – *desk* and *top* – but you may have a computer which is a *desktop* computer, or you may call the computer screen where you store important files and shortcuts to useful programmes your *desktop*. But *desktop* is written as just one word, unlike *waste paper basket*.

So, although we might see two words in one, or two or three separate words in writing, they may just represent or mean one single thing. We call these **compound words**. They are separate words that have come together to form one item of meaning, or one lexical item. English has thousands of compound words. Examples include:

<i>Lexical item</i>	<i>Written words</i>	<i>Meaning</i>
<i>laptop</i>	1	thin, portable computer that you can use on your lap
<i>sleepwalk</i>	1	to walk around while you are asleep
<i>car park</i>	2	place where you can leave your car temporarily
<i>memory stick</i>	2	small external drive for storing computer data
<i>ice cream cone</i>	3	conical wafer which can be filled with ice cream
<i>Commander-in-chief</i>	3	highest rank in the armed forces



So, words – which are the single units of a language – can come together to form compound words, which have one meaning and become one lexical item.

In the case of *blog* in Task 2 above, you would be right in saying that it is one word. It is a relatively new word which came into popularity in the first decade of this century. It was actually created from two words, *web* and *log*; it is like a diary or logbook, but it is on the World Wide Web. In *blog*, only the ‘b’ of *web* remains; the two words, *web* and *log*, have fused together to form one word and one lexical item, and some sounds have been lost in the process. We call these words **blends**. Some examples of blends in English include:

<i>Blend</i>	<i>Words combined</i>
<i>brunch</i>	<i>breakfast</i> and <i>lunch</i>
<i>motel</i>	<i>motor</i> (car) and <i>hotel</i>
<i>Spanglish</i>	<i>Spanish</i> and <i>English</i>

In the case of *phone* in Task 2, above, you probably did not hesitate in saying it is one word. It is indeed one word, but it is a short form of a longer word, *telephone*. Sometimes words are cut shorter in this way, and this process is called **clipping**. In the process of clipping, part of a word is lost, but the meaning of the lexical item is not changed; it remains the same as the full word. Clippings in English include:

<i>Clipping</i>	<i>Full word</i>
<i>gas</i>	<i>gasoline</i>
<i>flu</i>	<i>influenza</i>
<i>gym</i>	<i>gymnastics</i>
<i>maths</i>	<i>mathematics</i>

*DVD* in Task 2, above, is an example of a way in which technical words are often composed. That is to say, long or difficult technical terms are reduced to their first letters and a word is formed just from the initials. *DVD* means ‘digital versatile disc’, but no-one ever says that; everyone says *D-V-D*. This process of **initialism** is common, and we see it in examples like *BBC* (British Broadcasting Corporation), *CIA* (Central Intelligence Agency), *WHO* (World Health Organisation), and so on. Sometimes the first letters of a string of words are pronounced like a whole new word; such words are called **acronyms**. Examples include *laser* (Light Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiations) and *radar* (Radio Detection And Ranging). Most people have either forgotten or never even knew where these words originally came from; they are now just ‘words’ like any other, and each one is just a single lexical item, even though several lexical items may have been involved originally.

Finally, in Task 2, above, we had *look*, *looks*, *looking* and *looked*, which are all separate words, but which we know to be different grammatical forms of the same verb, *look*. So we can say that there is just one lexical item, ‘look’, which has various word-forms (the base-form *look*; the third person present simple form *looks*; the *-ing* form *looking*; and the past tense and past participle form *looked*). The word-forms *looks*, *looking* and *looked* are inflections of the base form *look*. **Inflected forms** give us grammatical information about the way a word is being used in a sentence.

We have already considered the various ways in which words are formed as well as the difficulties in deciding where the boundaries of words apply and what elements make up a word, especially when they are shortened or joined together. But we also have to pronounce words when we speak them, and this too raises problems for a language like English.

## Words and pronunciation

One problem with English is that the pronunciation of words is often not predictable. Notorious examples include words ending in *-ough*:

<i>Word</i>	<i>Pronunciation</i>
<i>cough</i>	/kɒf/ - rhymes with <i>off</i>
<i>tough</i>	/tʌf/ - rhymes with <i>buff</i>
<i>though</i>	/ðəʊ/ - rhymes with <i>go</i>
<i>through</i>	/θru:/ - rhymes with <i>you</i>
<i>bough</i>	/baʊ/ - rhymes with <i>now</i>

Other variations in pronunciation between words which have similar spellings include *put* versus *but*; *school* versus *foot*; *out* versus *route*; and *new* versus *sew*. People learning English, whether as a first or second language, have to become accustomed to this lack of fit between sound and spelling which affects so many words.

Another problem is that, when we say words together, either as compounds or one after another fairly quickly, the sounds change to make the words easier to pronounce. Here are some examples:

<i>Words spoken together</i>	<i>Written word(s)</i>
/ˈhæm,bæg/	handbag
/ˈrɪs,wɒtʃ/	wrist watch
/ˈmʌnsəˌgeɪ /	months ago
/ˌdʒʊːˈwɒnsəm /	Do you want some?

In writing, it is usually easy to separate words because they have spaces between them. In everyday, natural, spoken language, it is often difficult to relate what we hear to what we know about writing and spelling. The spoken language is often just a stream of sounds. However, we can usually understand what people mean in context.

We also need to know where to put the stress in a word. We need to know that *possess* has the stress on *-ess*, but that *possible* has the stress on *poss-*. Sometimes things are complicated because the same word can have a different stress depending on how it is used grammatically, whether as a noun, adjective or verb:

<i>Word</i>	<i>As a noun</i>	<i>As a verb</i>	<i>As an adjective</i>
record	<u>re</u> cord	re <u>co</u> rd	
perfect		per <u>fe</u> ct	<u>per</u> fect

In addition, we need to know where to put the stress in a compound – often on the first word, but not always:

*car park*

*laptop*

*waste paper basket*

*Commander-in-chief*

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Although this might seem confusing, native speakers and expert users of English know how to pronounce and stress thousands of words and compounds correctly, and good dictionaries (especially those designed for learners) give full and clear information about pronunciation and stress.



## Words change

The world is always changing. We experience changes in our cultures and societies as well as in technology and ways of thinking, and words have to change too. Old words and old meanings disappear (see Chapter 2), and new words are formed. In fact, very few completely new words are formed out of nowhere. Most new items consist of existing words which acquire new meanings; compounds which bring together existing words, or derivations of existing words, or new blends, initials, acronyms and clippings, which we examined above. Every year in English, new lexical items come into being. Consider these examples of terms from the world of computers. No-one would have understood these items in their technical contexts 50 years ago:

<i>dongle</i>	<i>drop-down menu</i>	<i>PDA</i>
<i>Bluetooth</i>	<i>drag-and-drop</i>	<i>USB</i>
<i>download</i>	<i>hard drive</i>	<i>online</i>
<i>mousepad</i>	<i>auto-recovery</i>	<i>software</i>

Another way English increases its vocabulary is simply by borrowing from other languages. Here are some examples of words that have entered English through contact with other cultures.

<b>Word</b>	<b>Origin</b>
<i>amok</i>	Malay – ‘berserk, gone crazy’
<i>chalet</i>	French – ‘a cabin or alpine-style hut’
<i>feng shui</i>	Chinese – ‘wind and water’
<i>jumbo</i>	Swahili – ‘elephant’
<i>junta</i>	Spanish – ‘board, committee, meeting’
<i>ombudsman</i>	Swedish – ‘official who deals with complaints from citizens’

English has borrowed thousands of words from other languages over its long history, and this has had important effects on the language. Most of the words borrowed from other languages sooner or later become pronounced in an English way, and so it is not always possible to detect immediately where they came from. The other effect is that English often has two kinds of words for the same thing: words whose origin lies in northern Europe (the Nordic and Anglo-Saxon world) and words which came from further south (the Mediterranean world – French, Latin and Greek words). Often, the Greek or Latin word for something is considered more formal than the Anglo-Saxon word for the same thing. Examples include *commence* versus *start*, *ascend* versus *go up*, and *depart* versus *leave*.

## How big is the vocabulary and how many words do speakers know?

### TASK 3

Answer the following questions. Make a guess if you don't know.

- 1 How many words are there in English?
- 2 How many words does an educated native speaker of English *understand*?
- 3 How many words does a speaker of English need to be able to *use* to take part in everyday conversation?

We have already seen that defining a 'word' is not a simple matter, since many lexical items consist of more than one word, but, generally, we can get an insight into how big the vocabulary of a language is by basing our counts on the **headwords** in dictionaries (the headwords are the words at the beginning of each entry, the words which the definition or explanation refers to). You may have been surprised at just how many words are in a huge dictionary such as the *Oxford English Dictionary (OED)* (see the answers to Task 3 at the back of the book). Obviously, not all of the words in the *OED* are still used nowadays, and many of them are dialect words which are only used in particular regions of the English-speaking world. But even relatively smaller, advanced learners' dictionaries usually contain many tens of thousands of entries. The Collins COBUILD Advanced Dictionary (2009), for example, has more than 30 000 headwords and many thousands of examples sentences showing different meanings of the words. It may be more realistic, therefore, to ask the question: How many words are in normal circulation in written and spoken English nowadays, which a native speaker 'knows'? To answer this question, we can first look at what experts have said. Plag (2003: 4) gives a figure of 45 000–60 000 words – thankfully, considerably less than the contents of the *OED*! Crystal (2003: 426) estimated in excess of 50 000 words for an educated speaker's active vocabulary and about 75 000 for the number of words likely to be understood. Nation and Waring (1997) give a figure of around 20 000 word families, which sounds significantly lower. However, the notion of word families is different from individual words. A **word family** is a word and all its inflected and regular derived forms, so we need to increase Nation and Waring's total to about 30 000 individual words or more, depending on exactly what it is we count as a 'word'. Whichever set of figures we accept, it does seem that native speakers know tens of thousands of words.

However, during our everyday lives, we rarely encounter many of the words we know. So, which ones are we likely to meet on a day-to-day basis? One way of

answering this question is to use a **corpus** (plural: corpora). A corpus is a database of texts stored on a computer (see O’Keeffe et al., 2006 for an introduction). These texts can be written (for example, newspapers, magazines, novels, Web pages) or spoken (for example, transcripts of conversations or of radio and TV shows). Nowadays, dictionary publishers use huge corpora; the COBUILD Bank of English Corpus, for example, has over six hundred million words of texts in its database (Collins COBUILD, 2009: xi). Dictionary writers can search their corpus to find out which words are used frequently and which words occur, say, only once in many millions of words. Leech et al. (2001: 9), for example, report that, in the 100 000 000-word British National Corpus (BNC), more than 500 000 word forms only occur three times or fewer, and only 124 000 word forms occur ten times or more.

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Most typical English corpora show that about 50–60 000 word-forms are in common, fairly frequent usage (based on the criterion of occurring 20 times or more per 100 000 000 words). It would seem, then, that the evidence points towards native- and expert-users of English having a command of perhaps 50 000 or so word-forms.



Nonetheless, the picture is not entirely straightforward. Whichever corpus we look at, some words are massively more common than others. O’Keeffe et al. (2006: 32) report that the 2000 most frequent word-forms in the Cambridge International Corpus account for 83 per cent of the entire corpus. In other words, these top 2000 forms are working much, much harder than all the other word-forms in the corpus. It seems we survive on a day-to-day basis with a small core of hard-working words and a much bigger number of low-frequency words. Another way of saying this is that most of the vocabulary is quite low-frequency.

Part A of this chapter has looked at English from the point of view of what its words are, how they are formed and how many there are, along with the allied question of what its native speakers and expert users do with them. But what about learners of English? Where do they fit into this picture?

## PART B What are the problems for learners?

### How many words can learners learn?

#### TASK 4

Make a list of four things from Part A of this chapter that we know about English vocabulary which could be problematic for learners of English as a second or foreign language.

Undoubtedly, one of the biggest problems for learners of English is the sheer size of the task of learning all the words that native speakers know and can use. Learning



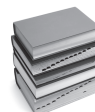
the grammar of English (tenses, articles, prepositions, word order, and so on) seems a relatively small and finite task in comparison. Even if a learner learnt more than 1000 word families a year, it would take ten years or more to get anywhere near Nation and Waring's estimate of 20 000 word families that native speakers can command. Luckily, most learners do not need to reach native-speaker standard. Also luckily, as we have seen, many of those 20 000 word families will be very rare indeed, and learners are unlikely to encounter them or need to use them.

A more modest target of 10 000 word families might seem better, but here too there are problems. O'Keeffe et al. (2006: 32) show that the more words you learn, the less you get back. The top 2000 words cover 83 per cent of all the texts in their corpus, but when the learner reaches, for example, 6000 words or more, each 2000 new words learnt from the list deliver less and less in terms of coverage of typical texts. What about 6000 words as a target? With the 6000 most frequent word-forms, a reader can expect to cover over 90 per cent of all the words in a typical text, according to O'Keeffe et al.'s (ibid) figures. Being able to understand more than 90 per cent of most spoken and written texts would seem to be a realistic target. Although comprehension is not complete, at least at that point the learner has enough understanding to be able to use the context to help them with the unknown words, use a dictionary to help with difficult new words, and use the text in class with a teacher as well as other resources. In this way, they can understand enough so that the task not completely de-motivating.

Six thousand words and 90 per cent comprehension of a text still means that about one in every ten words will be new, which is a heavy learning burden. However, there are many resources and supports that the learner can call on. If the learner can push the word comprehension level up to the top 10 000, then they will probably be near 95 per cent comprehension, and one in 20 new words seems far less daunting and de-motivating.

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Some exceptional adult learners can, in fact, reach vocabulary sizes not far off the levels of educated native speakers.



Cervatiuc (2008) reports vocabulary sizes for high achievers at university level for non-native English speakers averaging around 16 500 word families. So the task is big, but very high achievement is not impossible.

## What other issues are there for learners?

Other big issues for learners include simply being able to recognise words. If you speak a language with a completely different system of forming and writing words, you may find it difficult to remember the exact forms of words you have learnt. Many Arabic-speaking learners of English, for example, have difficulty distinguishing between what you give someone on their birthday (*a present*) and where criminals are sent (*a prison*), because of the way words are formed and written in their own language (see Ryan and Meara, 1991).

Another set of problems is knowing when a group of words is a compound, separating out the words and (by extension) the lexical items from the stream of speech, as well as the problems of spelling, pronunciation and stress touched upon in Part A

of this chapter. For example, how do you know where to put the stress in a word if you have only ever read it and never heard it spoken? In general, relating sound and spelling is likely to be a big problem, given the lack of fit between sound and spelling that affects so many English words.

Derived forms may also be a problem. In a study of more than 100 non-native university-level users of English, Schmitt and Zimmerman (2002) found it did not necessarily hold that if a learner knew one word-form in a word family, they would know all the rest. So, for example, knowing the word *forget* did not guarantee that learners would also know *forgetful*, *unforgettably*, and other derived forms. Learners did seem to learn noun and verb derivatives over time, but adjective and adverb derivatives were not so easily learnt and assimilated.

One final issue relates to what we said about the overlay of different vocabularies in English and how these can affect formality (Latin/Greek words versus Anglo-Saxon ones, for example) and register (how appropriate language is to the situation). How does the learner know whether a word is old-fashioned, formal, impolite, or technical? And what can we do about all these problems?

## PART C How do we teach it?

### What should we teach about words?

Given what we have learnt about English words and the problems they may raise for learners in Parts A and B of this chapter, what can a teacher do in the classroom, and what can learners do to increase their knowledge of words?

Nowadays, it is not very popular in many parts of the world to teach about word formation in English. Communicative methodologies, which stress using the language rather than learning about it, and the pressures of the curriculum may mean there is little motivation or time for learning about derivations and compounds. Most learners do learn the inflections of words (for example, the plural and the past tense) in the grammar lesson, but should we teach learners about derivation? Schmitt and Zimmerman's (2002) study (see previous section) certainly seems to suggest that we should. Learning the most common prefixes and suffixes, their meanings and how useful or productive they are (that is, how many new words once can form with them) could increase a learner's vocabulary very rapidly. The suffix *-er/-or*, for example, can be used with a great number of verbs to indicate a person who does something (*writer, reader, worker, adviser, repairer, driver, teacher, actor* and so on). Tasks involving practice with prefixes and suffixes may be found in McCarthy and O'Dell (1999) for elementary level, and McCarthy and O'Dell (2001) for upper intermediate level, and both books include compounds in their word-lists.

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Time set aside for teaching word formation is time well-spent. It not only increases learners' vocabulary, but increases their language awareness too, as they learn to see that acquiring a good vocabulary means more than just memorising lists of words and translations into their own language.



Clearly, too, it is important to teach learners to be sensitive to the different registers that words may belong to, whether formal or informal, technical or non-technical, and so on. Here, dictionary-training is probably the most useful strategy, as well as always approaching words in context. Good learners' dictionaries give lots of information about words, not just how to spell them and what they mean. The dictionary also gives pronunciation information, and a really good dictionary will give some indication of how common or how rare a word is, based on a corpus, and whether the word belongs to a special register such as technical language, newspaper language, or informal spoken language and so on. Setting learners tasks to find particular information in a dictionary will help them to use dictionaries more efficiently, as well as increasing their awareness of the importance of things like register and word-stress, and also which words are frequent and therefore important to learn.

## How many words should we teach, and which ones?

We have seen how a corpus can show us that more or less the top 2000 words in English work much harder than all the others. This would seem to be a good reason to focus on learning those words as quickly as possible, using whatever methods are most efficient and which learners find most productive for them personally. Lists of the top 2000 words can be found in book form (see, for example, Leech et al., 2001, for the BNC), as well as on the Internet (do an online search for the BNC lemma list or the top 2000 words in English, for example), and the most frequent words are in-built in some recent graded materials (see McCarthy et al., 2005).

The first 2000 words are the core, or survival level, vocabulary which learners will need. Learning them will have several positive outcomes:

- 1 The learner will be able to read, write, speak and listen at an elementary level about everyday topics, with the help of some additional subject-specific vocabulary.
- 2 Since the first 2000 words are so frequent in texts, they will help and motivate learners to develop the skills they will need, as readers and listeners, to guess strange words in context and to ask for help when they cannot understand something in a real situation.
- 3 Dictionaries typically use the first 2000 to 2500 words as their 'defining vocabulary', that is, the words they use to define other words. If you know the first 2000 words, understanding definitions in dictionaries will be much easier and you will learn new words more quickly.

Beyond the top 2000 words, learning can either continue with general vocabulary, or can become increasingly focused to reflect learners' real needs. For example, the dictionary-makers who put together the *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners* (Macmillan, 2002: x) identified a central vocabulary of around 7500 words which advanced learners should know, based on corpus frequency information, and gave these a special type-colour and a star-rating system in the dictionary so that learners can see immediately that they are key words. In an even more focused way, learners whose needs are academic English can focus on the 570-word-family Academic Word List (AWL), assembled by Averil Coxhead and available at her university webpage; you can find it by doing an Internet search using her name. Vocabulary learning does not need to be a bewildering process and, with the help of corpora, focused and graded learning can take place.

One final question is: How many words per lesson can learners reasonably expect to learn? On his website, Rob Waring suggests that good, efficient learning of words out of context, using memory techniques, can lead to the ability to absorb 30–40 words per hour. Even if the learner falls short of this, it would seem a good way of mastering the first 2000 words as quickly as possible. Waring also gives advice on exactly how such lists of words for de-contextualised learning should be given to learners; a quick Internet search using his name will bring you to his homepage.

Thirty to forty words per hour is probably an unrealistic target for many learners, for whom the classroom or textbook will be the main source of learning. For this reason, O'Dell and McCarthy, in their vocabulary teaching materials (for example, McCarthy and O'Dell, 1997; 2001) suggest around 15–18 words per one hour unit/lesson as a realistic target. Of these 15–20 words, perhaps only 10–12 will be retained productively, depending on the amount of practice and the amount of revisiting and recycling that takes place for the same words. A vocabulary course of 60 hours, at any level, could reasonably be expected to cover about 1000 words, though learners will certainly pick up words in other lessons on the English curriculum, as well as from reading outside of class and incidental exposure to music, films, TV and so on.

In this chapter we have looked at words, what they are, how they are formed, how many of them there are in English, what problems learners may have with their forms, how many words learners need to and can learn, and how we might begin to tackle the problem as teachers. But words also have *meanings*, and so Chapter 2 will deal with how words mean, and the implications for teaching and learning.

## Chapter review

- 1 What do we call the underlined parts of these words?  
impossible    unsafe    de-classify
- 2 Which two of these words have a suffix?  
makes    openness    hopeful    cooked
- 3 What English compounds can you make by combining words in Box A with words in Box B?

<b>Box A</b>	cell	snow	hill	key	shoe

<b>Box B</b>	top	board	lace	phone	storm

- 4 Only one of the following statements is true. Which one?
  - a. *Looks* is a derived form of the verb *look*.
  - b. *Looks* is an example of a blend (*look* + *s*).
  - c. *Looks* is an inflected form of the verb *look*.

- 5** How many morphemes are there in each of these words?  
*dog*  
*worldwide*  
*unthinkable*  
*boredom*
- 6** Fill in the blanks with the correct name for the type of word formation:  
*FBI, CIA, BBC, WHO* are examples of \_\_\_\_\_  
*Brunch, blog, motel* are examples of \_\_\_\_\_  
*Flu, gym, maths* are examples of \_\_\_\_\_
- 7** Underline the stressed parts of these words and compounds.  
*ridiculous*  
*happiness*  
*bus stop*  
*out-of-date*
- 8** Write T (true) or F (false) after each of these statements.
- All linguists agree on how many words educated adult native-speakers of English can understand.
  - Some linguists believe that educated adult native-speakers of English can understand 50 000 words or more.
  - In English, there are about 2000 words which work harder than all the rest.
  - Most words in English are rather infrequent.
- 9** If a learner understands 90 per cent of the words in a text, is it likely they will need any extra help or resources to understand it completely?
- 10** Why might the fact that English has both Anglo-Saxon words and Greek-Latin words cause problems for learners?