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on the theme

*ADJECTIVE FORMING AFFIXES IN ENGLISH
AND PROBLEMS OF TEACHING WORD-BUILDING*

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INTRODUCTION

The first President of the Republic of Uzbekistan Islam Karimov several times in his works had mentioned, that learning foreign languages as one of the main directions of spiritual development of the society: “One more important task is – to assist the development of the language, culture, customs and traditions to the all nations and nationalities residing in Uzbekistan, further expansion of possibility and conditions in this sphere”¹.

At present English is considered one of the world languages, recognized by United Nations. So learning English as a foreign language is necessary for the development of our country. From this point of view, I decided to study one of the most important branches English lexicology – word-formation in my graduate qualification work.

As we know the term «lexicology» is of Greek origin (from «lexis» - «word» and «logos» - «science») and it studies the vocabulary and characteristic features of words and word-groups. The term «vocabulary» is used to denote the system of words and word-groups that the language possesses.

The term «word» denotes the main lexical unit of a language resulting from the association of a group of sounds with a meaning. This unit is used in grammatical functions characteristic of it. It is the smallest unit of a language which can stand alone as a complete utterance.

The term «word-group» denotes a group of words, which exists in the language as a ready-made unit, has the unity of meaning, the unity of syntactical function, e.g. the word-group «as loose as a goose» means «clumsy» and is used in a sentence as a predicative (He is as loose as a goose).

¹ Каримов И.А. Наша высшая цель – независимость и процветание Родины, свобода и благополучия народа. – Ташкент, 2000 – С.65.

Lexicology can study the development of the vocabulary, the origin of words and word-groups, their semantic relations and the development of their sound form and meaning. In this case it is called historical lexicology.

Another branch of lexicology is called descriptive and studies the vocabulary at a definite stage of its development. The main unit of the lexical system of a language resulting from the association of a group of sounds with a meaning is a word. This unit is used in grammatical functions characteristic of it. It is the smallest language unit which, can stand alone as a complete utterance.

Before studying the structure of English word system or vocabulary of English we have to get some imagination about word-formation in English. As we know from theoretical courses several scientists have carried researches on English lexicology: Arnold I.V., Burchfield R, Marchand H, Howard Ph., Smirnitkiy A.I, Ginzburg R.S., Buranov Dj. B and others.

They have analyzed English lexicology from different points of views. Of course word structure was one of the main topics in their works.

A word, however, can be divided into smaller sense units - morphemes. The morpheme is the smallest meaningful language unit. The morpheme consists of a class of variants, allomorphs, which are either phonologically or morphologically conditioned, e.g. *please, pleasant, pleasure*.

Morphemes are divided into two large groups: lexical morphemes and grammatical (functional) morphemes. Both lexical and grammatical morphemes can be free and bound. Free lexical morphemes are roots of words which express the lexical meaning of the word, they coincide with the stem of simple words. Free grammatical morphemes are function words: articles, conjunctions and prepositions (the, with, and).

Bound lexical morphemes are affixes: prefixes (dis-), suffixes (-ish) and also blocked (unique) root morphemes (e.g. Fri-day, cran-berry). Bound grammatical morphemes are inflexions (endings), e.g. -s for the Plural of nouns, -ed for the Past

Indefinite of regular verbs, -ing for the Present Participle, -er for the Comparative degree of adjectives.

In the second half of the twentieth century the English wordbuilding system was enriched by creating so called splinters which scientists include in the affixation stock of the Modern English wordbuilding system. Splinters are the result of clipping the end or the beginning of a word and producing a number of new words on the analogy with the primary word-group. For example, there are many words formed with the help of the splinter mini- (apocopy produced by clipping the word «miniature»), such as «miniplane», «minijet», «minicycle», «minicar», «miniradio» and many others. All of these words denote objects of smaller than normal dimensions.

According to the nature and the number of morphemes constituting a word there are different structural types of words in English: simple, derived, compound, compound-derived.

Simple words consist of one root morpheme and an inflexion (in many cases the inflexion is zero), e.g. «seldom», «chairs», «longer», «asked».

Derived words consist of one root morpheme, one or several affixes and an inflexion, e.g. «deristricted», «unemployed».

Compound words consist of two or more root morphemes and an inflexion, e.g. «baby-moons», «wait-and-see (policy)».

Compound-derived words consist of two or more root morphemes, one or more affixes and an inflexion, e.g. «middle-of-the-roaders», «job-hopper».

Word-formation is the creation of new words from the elements existing in the language.

Every language has its own structural patterns of wordformation. The English and Uzbek languages differ in the types of word-formation. Their ways of word-formation are also different. Affixation, composition, shortening are very productive ways of wordformation in both languages. In Uzbek conversion, blending,

soundinterchange, backformation are less common type of word-formation. As for as the English language concerned these types of word-formation are very common. We can find a few words which formed by these types of word-formation in the Uzbek language¹.

In both, English and Uzbek languages affixation is considered as a most productive way of word-formation. Affixation is the formation of new words with the help of derivational affixes. Affixation is subdivided into prefixation and suffixation. We call prefixes such particles as can be prefixed to full words are themselves not words with an independent existence. A suffix is a derivative final element which is or formerly was productive in forming words².

The present graduate qualification work aims to study the issues of word-formation in English, especially, the morphological peculiarities adjective forming affixes in English.

The work consists of two main chapters, introduction part, conclusion and list of used literature. The main part of the work discusses the morphological peculiarities of affixes, the classification of affixes in English, and the morphological peculiarities of adjective forming English affixes.

The subject of the research is to study the word-building in English, morphological peculiarities of English adjective-forming suffixes.

The aim of the work is to study the morphological peculiarities of English adjective-building suffixes.

Methods of the research: comparative-typological method, statistical method and component analyses method. Besides, in our qualification work we have addressed to the researches and methods of famous scholars, who worked on the English word-formation: Marchand H., Jespersen O., Karashuk P.M, Ivanova I.P., Gulomov A., Atamuradov M. and others.

¹ J. Buranov, A. Muminov. A practical course in English Lexicology. T. 1990. P.26.

² Readings in Modern English Lexicology. L.1969. P.125.

The results and novelty of the work: the present graduate qualification work discusses affixation as a productive way of word-building. In the results of researches there found that, there are more than 150 affixes in English.

In the given work we have analysed morphological peculiarities of 6 adjective-forming suffixes (-able, -ful, -less, -ish, -ic (-ical), -ary).

The novelty of the work is that, we have looked through only adjective -forming suffixes and we gave models with these 6 suffixes.

Practical value: the materials of the present graduate qualification work can be used in teaching English lexicology in English Departments of higher educational establishments, in English classes of secondary schools. The source information for this research work has been carefully studied and investigated before it was applied to the given work.

The originality of this work is in its creative approach to the study and methods of structural analyses, besides, it contains a detailed review of ways and comparative methods.

The content of the work:

CHAPTER I: THE ROLE OF AFFIXES IN ENGLISH WORDFORMATION

1.1. Affixation as a most productive way type of word-building

The English vocabulary has increased greatly in more than 1,500 years of development. The most nearly complete dictionary of the language, the *Oxford English Dictionary* (13 vols., 1933), a revised edition of *A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles* (10 vols., 1884-1933; supplements), contains 500,000 words. It has been estimated, however, that the present English vocabulary consists of more than 1 million words, including slang and dialect expressions and scientific and technical terms, many of which only came into use after the middle of the 20th century.

The English vocabulary is more extensive than that of any other language in the world, although some other languages—Chinese, for example—have a word-building capacity equal to that of English. It is, approximately half Germanic (Old English and Scandinavian) and half Italic or Romance (French and Latin) and extensive, constant borrowing from every major language, especially from Latin, Greek, French, and the Scandinavian languages, and from numerous minor languages, accounts for the great number of words in the English vocabulary.

From Old English have come cardinal and ordinal numbers, personal pronouns, and numerous nouns and adjectives: from French have come intellectual and abstract terms, as well as terms of rank and status, such as duke, marquis, and baron.

In addition, certain processes have led to the creation of many new words as well as to the establishment of patterns for further expansion. Among these processes are onomatopoeia, or the imitation of natural sounds, which has created such words as *burp* and *clink*; affixation, or the addition of prefixes and suffixes, either native, such as *mis-* and *-ness*, or borrowed, such as *ex-* and *-ist*; the combination of parts of words, such as in *brunch*, composed of parts of *breakfast* and *lunch*; the free

formation of compounds, such as *bonehead* and *downpour*; back formation, or the formation of words from previously existing words, the forms of which suggest that the later words were derived from the earlier ones—for example, *to jell*, formed from *jelly*; and functional change, or the use of one part of speech as if it were another, for example, the noun *shower* used as a verb, *to shower*. The processes that have probably added the largest number of words are affixation and especially functional change, which is facilitated by the peculiarities of English syntactical structure.

How does a language extend its vocabulary?

- Borrowing
- its own resources: compounding, derivation (prefixes and suffixes)
- brought in new affixes as well as new words

Word-formation is the process of creating new words from the material available in the language after certain structural and semantic formulas and patterns¹. Word-building or word-formation is one of the main ways of enriching vocabulary. There are four main ways of word-building in modern English: affixation, composition, conversion, abbreviation.

There are also secondary ways of word-building: sound interchange, stress interchange, sound imitation, blends, back formation.

[Borrowing](#). The English language has vast debts. In any dictionary some 80% of the entries are borrowed. The majority are likely to come from Latin, and of those more than half will come through French.

A considerable number will derive directly or indirectly from Greek. A substantial contribution will come from Scandinavian languages, and a small percentage from Portuguese, Italian, Spanish, and Dutch. Scattered words will be from various sources around the globe. The vocabulary has grown from the 50,000 to 60,000 words in Old English to the tremendous number of entries-650,000 to 750,000-in an unabridged dictionary in 1988 and in a dictionary of today.

¹ Ginzburg and et al. English lexicology.

The bulk of the words spoken and written by English-speaking people, however, are native words, the nine most frequently used being "and", "be", "have", "it", "of", "the", "will", and "you".

Borrowed words are nevertheless immensely useful in enriching the vocabulary and making the language flexible and resourceful.

Word Compounding. A COMPOUND word is made up of two or more words that together express a single idea. There are three types of compounds. An *open compound* consists of two or more words written separately, such as *salad dressing*, *Boston terrier*, or *April Fools' Day*. A *hyphenated compound* has words connected by a hyphen, such as *age-old*, *mother-in-law*, *force-feed*. A *solid compound* consists of two words that are written as one word, such as *keyboard* or *typewriter*.

In addition, a compound may be classified as permanent or temporary. A *permanent compound* is fixed by common usage and can usually be found in the dictionary, whereas a *temporary compound* consists of two or more words joined by a hyphen as needed, usually to modify another word or to avoid ambiguity.

In general, permanent compounds begin as temporary compounds that become used so frequently they become established as permanent compounds. Likewise, many solid compounds begin as separate words, evolve into hyphenated compounds, and later become solid compounds.

Although the dictionary is the first place to look when you are trying to determine the status of a particular compound, reference works do not always agree on the current evolutionary form of a compound, nor do they include temporary compounds.

The following general rules apply to forming compounds. Keep in mind that words that are made up of a word root plus a prefix or a suffix are not normally considered compounds, strictly speaking. But for convenience we discuss them here since they are also sometimes hyphenated.

Affixation. The affixation is the most productive way of word-formation. Affixation is a way of formation of new words by a way connection to a root the word-forming affixes. The affixes may be divided into: suffixation, prefixation and infixation.

Affixation is one of the most productive ways of word-building throughout the history of English. It consists in adding an affix to the stem of a definite part of speech. Affixation is divided into suffixation and prefixation.

Suffixation. The main function of suffixes in Modern English is to form one part of speech from another, the secondary function is to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech. (e.g. «educate» is a verb, «educatee» is a noun, and «music» is a noun, «musicdom» is also a noun) .

Proceeding from these attributes, under affixes it is necessary to understand such morphemes, which in the development have got the appropriate abstract values inherent in the whole class of words, and which, joining to a basis of a word, change its value.

It is quite natural, that all productive affixes are alive, but not all alive affixes appear in an equal measure productive. Efficiency here is understood, first, as that number of words, which there was for the period of existence in language of the given affix in quality of word-forming element, and, secondly, frequency of occurrence of new formations with given by an affix.

Proceeding from this, the affixes are be less productive, productive, and some have also so-called "absolute efficiency ", i.e. such ability of word-formation, at which the affix least has of restrictions in sphere of the application in quality of word-forming element.

Normally, prefixes and suffixes are joined with a second element without a hyphen, unless doing so would double a vowel or triple a consonant: *antianxiety*, *anticrime*, *antiwar* but *anti-intellectual*; *childlike*, *taillike* but *bell-like*. Even so, many

common prefixes, such as *co-*, *de-*, *pre-*, *pro-*, and *re-*, are added without a hyphen although a double vowel is the result: *coordinate*, *preeminent*, *reenter*.

Hyphen is also used when the element following a prefix is capitalized or when the element preceding a suffix is a proper noun: *anti-American*, *America-like*.

The hyphen is usually retained in words that begin with *all-*, *ex-* (meaning “former”), *half-*, *quasi-* (in adjective constructions), and *self-*: *all-around*; *ex-governor*; *half-life* but *halfhearted*, *halfpenny*, *halftone*, *halfway*; *quasi-scientific* but a *quasi success*; *self-defense* but *selfhood*, *selfish*, *selfless*, *selfsame*.

Certain homographs require a hyphen to prevent mistakes in pronunciation and meaning: *recreation* (enjoyment), *re-creation* (new creation); *release* (to let go), *re-lease* (to rent again).

At the characteristic word-building of affixes, in particular suffixes, in the linguistic literature the large attention is given to a problem of difference word-changing inflexion from the word-forming suffix.

Thus, the tendency is sometimes observed to bypass a question on the intrinsic characteristic suffix and to change by its description of suffix on the basis of item attributes, with the help of operational receptions and other means which are not having the attitudes to value of compared units - inflexion and suffix, and etc. In these cases intrinsic attributes the distinguishing two subjects from each other, receive less attention, than external at marks.

Among the English affixes *-er*, *-est*, *-man*, *-ism*, *-ity*, *-less*, *-ish*, *-ship*, *-tion*, *un-*, *in-* and others considered as the most productive ones.

There are some linguists who treat prefixes as a part of word-composition. They think that a prefix has the same function as the first component of a compound word. Other linguists consider prefixes as a derivational affixes which differ essentially from root-morphemes and stems.

From the point of view of their origin affixes may be native and borrowed.

In modern English language there is a plenty of affixes as native, and borrowed. The suffixes -ness, -ish, -dom, -ful, -less, -ship, and prefixes be-, mis-, un-, fore-, etc are of native origin. But the affixes -able, -ment, -ation, -ism, -ist, re-, anti-, dis-, etc are of borrowed origin. They came from the Greek, Latin and French languages¹.

However not all of them are used now in quality of word-forming elements. As the academician V.V. Vinogradov, affixes which have lost the value, becoming unproductive and recognizing only as a sign of this or that part of speech marks, cease to be affixes and only potentially keep properties of being distinguished.

In this connection, naturally, arise a question that it is necessary to name as an alive affix and what attributes it should have in modern language. The analysis of a language material shows, that by an alive affix the characteristic attributes are inherent the following.

- a). Joining to word-forming basis, the affix expresses the certain abstract value.
- b). The affix is easily allocated as word-forming element and in consciousness of speaker is distinct, is realized as a part of a word, and the root morpheme at branch of the given affix should have ability to be used in language without an affix or to make new words through other affixes.
- c). The affix is used for formation of new words not only from roots of that origin, which for the first time has appeared in language, but also from bases of other origin. If it is the borrowed affix, it should give formations on the English ground.
- d). The affix has determined frequency of the use. Than more formations gives this or that affix, the more productively it. This attribute is necessary for taking into account because many affixes arise from independent words in process of word-compounding. One of components of a complex word begin, is used all more often and more often in a combination to other bases, losing its initial value and gradually getting abstract value inherent already in the whole class of words.

¹ J. Buranov, A. Muminov. A practical course in English Lexicology. T. 1990. P.26.

The more words with the given element meets in language, the with the large basis we can consider as its affix, instead of component of a complex word.

e). The alive affix should give new forming. It is known, that the development of dictionary structure of language - process rather long and formation of new words occurs rather slowly. So this or that affix, having given known quantity of new formations at the certain stage of the development, can some time not make new words, while at carriers of the given language the requirement for a word for a designation of new concept will not appear.

1.2. The classification of English affixes

Survey of certain historical facts. It is true that English vocabulary, which is one of the most extensive among the world's languages contains an immense number of words of foreign origin. Explanations for this should be sought in the history of the language which is closely connected with the history of the nation speaking the language. The first century B. C. most of the territory now known to us as Europe was occupied by the Roman Empire.

Among the inhabitants of the Europe are Germanic tribes. Theirs stage of development was rather primitive, especially if compared with the high civilization of Rome. They are primitive cattle-breeders and know almost nothing about land cultivation. Their tribal languages contain only Indo-European and Germanic elements. Due to Roman invasion Germanic tribes had to come into contact with Romans.

Romans built roads, bridges, military camps. Trade is carried on, and the Germanic people gain knowledge of new and useful things. The first among them are new things to eat. It has been mentioned that Germanic cattle-breeding was on a primitive scale. Its only products known to the Germanic tribes were meat and milk. It is from the Romans that they learn how to make butter and cheese and, as there are naturally no words for these foodstuffs in their tribal languages, they had to use the Latin words to name them (Lat. "butyrum", "caseus") [8, P. 45].

It is also to the Romans that the Germanic tribes owe the knowledge of some new fruits and vegetables of which they had no idea before, and the Latin names of these fruits and vegetables entered their vocabularies: "cherry" (Lat. "cerasum"), "pear" (Lat. "pirum"), "plum" (Lat. "prunus"), "pea" (Lat. "pisum"), "beet" (Lat. "beta"), "pepper" (Lat. "piper"). Here are some more examples of Latin borrowings of this period: "cup" (Lat. "cuppa"), "kitchen" (Lat. "coquina"), "mill" (Lat. "molina"), "port" (Lat. "portus"), "wine" (Lat. "vinum") [9, P.39].

The Germanic tribal languages gained a considerable number of new words and were thus enriched. Latin words became the earliest group of borrowings in the future English language which was - much later - built on the basis of the Germanic tribal languages.

The fifth century A.D. Several of the Germanic tribes (the most numerous among them were the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes) migrated across the sea to the British Isles. There they were confronted by the Celts, the original inhabitants of the Isles. The Celts desperately defended their lands against the invaders, but nevertheless gradually yielded most of their territory. They retreated to the North and South-West (modern Scotland, Wales and Cornwall).

Through numerous contacts with the defeated Celts, the conquerors borrowed a number of Celtic words (bald, down, glen, bard, cradle). Especially numerous among the Celtic borrowings were place names, names of rivers, hills, etc.

The Germanic tribes occupied the land, but the names of many parts of their territory remained Celtic. For instance, the names of the rivers Avon, Exe, Esk, Usk, Ux originate from Celtic words meaning "river" and "water".

Ironically, even the name of the English capital originates from Celtic "Llyn+dun" in which "llyn" is another Celtic word for "river" and "dun" stands for "a fortified hill" - the meaning of the whole is "fortress on the hill over the river". Some Latin words entered the Anglo-Saxon languages through Celtic, among them such widely-used words as "street" (Lat. *strata via*) and "wall" (Lat. *vallum*).

Latin was the official language of the Christian church, and consequently the spread of Christianity was accompanied by a new period of Latin borrowings. These borrowings no longer came from spoken Latin as they did eight centuries earlier, but from church Latin. Also, these new Latin borrowings were very different in meaning from the earlier ones. They mostly indicated persons, objects and ideas associated with church and religious rituals: e. g. priest (Lat. *presbyter*), bishop (Lat. *episcopus*), monk (Lat. *monachus*), nun (Lat. *nonna*), candle (Lat. *candela*).

It was quite natural that educational terms were also Latin borrowings, for the first schools in England were church schools, and the first teachers priests and monks. So, the very word “school” is a Latin borrowing (Lat. *schola*, of Greek origin) and so are such words as “scholar” (Lat. *Scholar(-is)*) and “magister” (Lat. *magister*).

From the end of the 8th century to the middle of the 11th century England underwent several Scandinavian invasions. Here are some examples of early Scandinavian borrowings: call (v.), take (v.), cast (v.), die (v.), law (n.), husband(n.), window (n.), ill (adj.), loose, (adj.), low (adj.), weak (adj.). Some of Scandinavian borrowings are easily recognizable by the initial (sk-) combination. E. g. *sky*, *skill*, *skin*, *ski*, *skirt*.

Certain English words changed their meanings under the influence of Scandinavian words of the same root. So, the old English “bread” which meant "piece" acquired its modern meaning by association with the Scandinavian “braud”. The old English “dream” which meant "joy" assimilated the meaning of the Scandinavian “**draumr**”.

With the famous Battle of Hastings, when the English were defeated by the Normans under William the Conqueror, began the eventful epoch of the Norman Conquest. The Norman culture of the 11th century was certainly superior to that of the Saxons.

The result was that English vocabulary acquired a great number of French words. But instead of being smashed and broken by the powerful intrusion of the foreign element, the English language managed to preserve its essential structure and vastly enriched its expressive resources with the new borrowings. England became a bilingual country, and the impact on the English vocabulary made over this two-hundred-years period is immense: French words from the Norman dialect penetrated every aspect of social life.

Here is a very brief list of examples of Norman French borrowings.

Administrative words: *state*, *government*, *parliament*, *council*, *power*.

Legal terms: *court, judge, justice, crime, prison.* Military terms: *army, war, soldier, officer, battle, enemy.*

Educational terms: *pupil, lesson, library, science, pen, pencil.*

Terms of everyday life: *table, plate, dinner, supper, river, autumn, uncle, etc.*

The Renaissance Period. In England, as in all European countries, this period was marked by significant developments in science, art and culture and, also, by a revival of interest in the ancient civilizations of Greece and Rome and their languages. Hence, there occurred a considerable number of Latin and Greek borrowings.

In contrast to the earliest Latin borrowings (1st century B.C.), the Renaissance ones were rarely concrete names. They were mostly abstract words (e. g. major, minor, moderate, intelligent, permanent, to elect, to create).

There were numerous scientific and artistic terms (e.g. datum, status, phenomenon, philosophy, method, music). Quite a number of words were borrowed into English from Latin and had earlier come into Latin from Greek.

The Renaissance was a period of extensive cultural contacts between the major European states. Therefore, it was only natural that new words also entered the English vocabulary from other European languages. The most significant were French borrowings. This time they came from the Parisian dialect of French and are known as Parisian borrowings. Examples: *routine, police, machine, ballet, matinee, scene, technique, bourgeois, etc.*

Italian also contributed a considerable number of words to English, e. g. **piano, violin, opera, alarm, colonel.** The historical survey above shows the ways in which English vocabulary developed and of the major events through which it acquired its vast modern resources.

Considering the high percentage of borrowed words, one would have to classify English as a language of international origin or, at least, a Romance one (as French and Latin words obviously prevail).

But here another factor comes into play: the native element in English comprises a large number of high-frequency words like the articles, prepositions, pronouns, conjunctions, auxiliaries and, also, words denoting everyday objects and ideas (e. g. *house, child, water, go, come, eat, good, bad, etc.*).

By the Indo-European element are meant words of roots common to all (or most) languages of the Indo-European group. The words of this group denote elementary concepts without which no human communication would be possible. The following groups can be identified:

1. Family relations: *father, mother, brother, son, daughter.*
2. Parts of the human body: *foot, nose, lip, heart.*
3. Animals: *cow, swine, goose.*
4. Plants: *tree, birch, corn.*
5. Time of day: *day, night.*
6. Heavenly bodies: *sun, moon, star.*
7. Numerous adjectives: *red, new, glad, sad.*
8. The numerals from one to a hundred.
9. Pronouns - personal (except “they” which is a Scandinavian borrowing) and demonstrative.
10. Numerous verbs: *be, stand, sit, eat, know.*

The Germanic element represents words of roots common to all or most Germanic languages. Some of the main groups of Germanic words are the same as in the Indo-European element.

1. Parts of the human body: head, hand, arm, finger, bone.
2. Animals: bear, fox, calf.
3. Plants: oak, fir, grass.
4. Natural phenomena: rain, frost.
5. Seasons of the year: winter, spring, summer.
6. Landscape features: sea, land.
7. Human dwellings and furniture: house, room, bench.
8. Sea-going vessels: boat, ship.
9. Adjectives: green, blue, grey, white, small, thick, high, old, good.
10. Verbs: see, hear, speak, tell, say, answer, make, give, drink.

The English proper element is opposed to the first two groups. For not only it can be approximately dated, but these words have another distinctive feature: they are specifically English have no cognates in other languages whereas for Indo-European and Germanic words such cognates can always be found, as, for instance, for the following words of the Indo-European group. Star: Germ. - Stern, Lat. - Stella, Gr. - aster. Stand: Germ. stehen, Lat. - stare, R. стоять.

Here are some examples of English proper words: *bird, boy, girl, lord, lady, woman, daisy, always*. Structural elements of borrowings There are certain structural features which enable us to identify some words as borrowings and even to determine the source language. We have already established that the initial (sk) usually indicates Scandinavian origin.

We can also recognize words of Latin and French origin by certain suffixes, prefixes or endings. Here are some typical and frequent structural elements of Latin and French borrowings: Latin affixes of nouns: The suffix (-ion): legion, opinion, etc.; the suffix (-tion): relation, temptation, etc.

Latin affixes of verbs: The suffix (-ate): appreciate, create, congratulate, etc.; the suffix (-ute): attribute, distribute, etc.; the remnant suffix (-ct): act, collect, conduct, etc.; the prefix (dis-): disable, disagree, etc.

Latin affixes of adjectives: The suffix (-able): detestable, curable, etc.; the suffix (-ate): accurate, graduate, etc.; the suffix (-ant): constant, important, etc.; the suffix (-ent): absent, evident, etc.; the suffix (-or): major, senior, etc.; the suffix (-al): final, maternal, etc.; the suffix (-ar): solar, familiar, etc.

French affixes of nouns: The suffix (-ance): endurance, hindrance, etc.; the suffix (-ence): consequence, patience, etc.; the suffix (-ment): appointment, development, etc.; the suffix (-age): courage, marriage, village, etc.; the suffix (-ess): actress, adventuress, etc.

French affixes of verbs: The prefix (en-): enable, enact, enslave, etc. French affixes of adjectives: The suffix (-ous): curious, dangerous, etc. It's important to note that later formations derived from native roots borrowed Latin and French affixes (e.g. eatable, lovable).

There are different classifications of suffixes :

1. Part-of-speech classification. Suffixes which can form different parts of speech are given here:

a) noun-forming suffixes, such as : -er (criticizer), -dom (officialdom), -ism (ageism),

b) adjective-forming suffixes, such as : -able (breathable), -less (symptomless), -ous (prestigious),

c) verb-forming suffixes, such as -ize (computerize) , -ify (micrify),

d) adverb-forming suffixes , such as : -ly (singly), -ward (tableward),

e) numeral-forming suffixes, such as -teen (sixteen), -ty (seventy).

2. Semantic classification . Suffixes changing the lexical meaning of the stem can be subdivided into groups, e.g. noun-forming suffixes can denote:

a) the agent of the action, e.g. -er (experimenter), -ist (taxist), -ent (student),

b) nationality, e.g. -ian (Russian), -ese (Japanese), -ish (English),

c) collectivity, e.g. -dom (moviedom), -ry (peasantry, -ship (readership), -ati (literati),

d) diminutiveness, e.g. -ie (horsie), -let (booklet), -ling (gooseling), -ette (kitchenette),

e) quality, e.g. -ness (copelessness), -ity (answerability).

3. Lexico-grammatical character of the stem. Suffixes which can be added to certain groups of stems are subdivided into:

a) suffixes added to verbal stems, such as : -er (commuter), -ing (suffering), -able (flyable), -ment (involvement), -ation (computerization),

b) suffixes added to noun stems, such as : -less (smogless), -ful (roomful), -ism (adventurism), -ster (pollster), -nik (filmnik), -ish (childish),

c) suffixes added to adjective stems, such as : -en (weaken), -ly (pinkly), -ish (longish), -ness (clannishness).

4. Origin of suffixes. Here we can point out the following groups:

a) native (Germanic), such as -er, -ful, -less, -ly.

b) Romanic, such as : -tion, -ment, -able, -eer.

c) Greek, such as : -ist, -ism, -ize.

d) Russian, such as -nik.

5. Productivity. Here we can point out the following groups:

a) productive, such as : -er, -ize, --ly, -ness.

b) semi-productive, such as : -eer, -ette, -ward.

c) non-productive , such as : -ard (drunkard), -th (length).

Suffixes can be polysemantic, such as : -er can form nouns with the following meanings : agent, doer of the action expressed by the stem (speaker), profession, occupation (teacher), a device, a tool (transmitter). While speaking about suffixes we should also mention compound suffixes which are added to the stem at the same time, such as -ably, -ibly, (terribly, reasonably), -ation (adaptation from adapt).

There are also disputable cases whether we have a suffix or a root morpheme in the structure of a word, in such cases we call such morphemes semi-suffixes, and

words with such suffixes can be classified either as derived words or as compound words, e.g. -gate (Irangate), -burger (cheeseburger), -aholic (workaholic) etc.

The reason resulted for the benefit of reference word-formation in grammar, is that at word-formation other part of speech is formed. This reason can not prove references of word-formation to grammar, since at word-forming act the formation of other part of speech occurs not on grammatical (word-changing) rules, and agrees word-formation rules.

We will address now to reasons for the benefit of reference word-formation to lexicology. Word-forming act results in new lexical unit. Really, lexical unit - it a subject of lexicology, but only in that measure, in what it is a part of ready dictionary structure, instead of as a unit of word-forming system, and especially, not as a result of word-forming act.

Word-formation - the supporters of reference of this aspect of lexicology, - means of updating of dictionary structure speak. However it only one of the parties of word-formation. It is interesting to note, that in one of the books on lexicology the section about word-formation is a part of the large unit "Ways of updating of dictionary structure of language", where word-formation is put in one line with borrowings from other languages.

However, the value of word-formation is not limited to updating of dictionary structure of language. In the modern advanced languages word-formation represents form of functioning of language and the same as grammatical build, there is a necessary form of organization and functioning of dictionary structure.

Really, we shall try to imagine the English language deprived all of word-forming means. It will be not simple unite of the English language, but any language - cripple. More precisely, such language any more will not be that English language, with what we know it, and will be any absolutely by other language, on which the modern carrier of the English language hardly can speak. In such language the

Englishman can not tell even such elementary phrase, as " I milk cows ", for a word to milk-доить - derivative from milk-молоко.

Hence, for language with advanced word-forming system the word-formation is a necessary condition of its functioning, instead of the means of updating of dictionary structure is simple.

Moreover, for the English language the word-forming means are much more numerous and in the set by more important, than morphological means. So in the English language of a part of speech, as a rule, have no morphological distinctive attributes and markers of parts of speech quite often act of word-forming means.

At the same time, all above-mentioned has not proved yet allocation of word-formation in independent linguistic discipline. Till now we spoke only about reasons for the benefit of reference of word-formation to grammar and to lexicology, then have stated a negative part, i.e. have tried to deny these reasons, but we have not made positive judgements that word-formation - is an independent aspect of linguistic science.

When, in general, any aspect of science receives the right on autonomy? It occurs in that case, when it has own object of research. Is there such object at word-formation? Yes, it - derivative word formed in result of affixation, converting, word-compounding or any another word-forming act.

To have the right be allocated in independent aspect, the branch of science should have such units, which ascension from finer to larger or the association passes more simple in more complex on the rules. So the work in word-formation is. For example, the formation of suffixal derivative occurs not by grammatical rules, and on word-forming rules.

Hence, we can speak about allocation of word-formation in independent aspect of science about language, i.e.

We can speak about word-formation, alongside with grammar and lexicology, instead of about word-formation as parts of grammar or lexicology.

At word-forming analysis the history is found out derivating, whether the act of addition was final (that is word-forming attribute of a complex word) or they were followed by another word-forming act, for example, suffixing, the converting (that is word-forming attribute word-derivating word).

On a material of Russian the distinction between complex and word-derivating words is well shown by V.P. Grigorev, which fairly considers, that a word "plumber" – word-derivative, since it) NS is not " *вода + проводчик* ", but " *водопровод + чик* ".

Abundantly clearly, that the second partitioning reflects "semantic structure", allowing to understand the given word as "the man having the relation to a waterpipe", the first partitioning should mean " *проводчик воды*". Let's note, that at morpheme the analysis the question about NS is not put at all, as in this case word articulates linearly on morphemes: " *вод+о+про+вод+чик* ".

On a material of the English language distinction between complex and word derivation by words well has shown L. Bloomfield: According to a principle is direct of components, in language usually differentiate complex words derivative of word collocations (compare. For example, old-maidish "стародевичий" - secondary derivative in which basis lays a word collocation old maid "старая дева"), and derivative from complex words (as, for example, gentlemanly "он - джентельменски", being secondary by derivative, in which basis the complex word gentleman ("gentleman") lays.

As we see, L. Bloomfield not only distinguishes complex and word-forming, but also allocates derivative from word collocations (old-maidish) and derivative from words (gentlemanly).

Is thought, that in Russian there is a plenty derivative from word collocations, which usually name as complex words, for example, "five years" (*пят+и+лет+ний*); "multi-storey" (*много+этаж/ей, (много+этаж/+ный)*).

As against originally complex words capable to partitioning on two meaningful parts (оборонеспособный - "способный к обороне ", душераздирающий - "раздирающий душу ") such formations do not give in to similar partitioning: "multi-storey" not articulate on "много+этажный".

The very evident material for realization of distinction between morphological and word forming analysis is given by the English formations consisting of two meaning-bearing bases and formant -ed. At morphological analysis such formations, as *state-financed*, *glass-topped*, *grass-widowed*, *atom-bombed*, *air-conditioned* look as identical structures, which first component a noun (n), second noun or verb {n/v}, third -ed. However word-forming analysis hides mutual relation of these parts and shows, that above-stated formation, at their external identity, belong to five various word-forming structures:

- 1) state - financed = financed by the state;
- 2) glass - topped = having / with glass top;
- 3) grass-widowed = in a state of a grass widow (thus last, as against glass topped, is set-expression)
- 4) atom-bombed < a) atom + bomb = atombomb n., b) atombomb n. - atombomb v., c) atombomb + ed = atombombed;
- 5) air-conditioned < a) air + conditioning = airconditioning, b) airconditioning - aircondition v., c) aircondition + ed airconditioned;

At a theoretical recognition of distinction between word-forming and morphological analysis in this area mistakes quite often are supposed. So, at the description of suffixes and prefixes in dictionary we can find, for example, such treatments: "... trans ... designates a means, to which help there is a change, transformation etc. transducer - converter, transformer - трансформатор, transporter - транспортер, конвейер ...".

From the point of view of word-formation such treatment is incorrect, it is incorrect also points of view of a semantic ratio of parts of the above-stated words.

In one case there is a word in unique number, in multiple number and word of the same root in collective value, which is transferred suffix -ery.

In the other case at the same members the word with collective value has another suffix. In the third case of a word with the given basis in collective value does not exist. Further the words which have been made out suffix. -ery can mean set of diverse subjects belonging to one wider class, for example: *confectionary* - *confectionery* products, *stationary* - writing goods, and also *machinery*, *scenery*, *ironmongery*.

So, the intrinsic distinctions between word-changing inflexion and word-changing suffix are reduced to the same registration of all words of the given category of word-changing inflexion and to formation various on value of the lexical-semantic groups which have been made out same word-forming suffix.

According to the above-stated definition of word-forming suffixes it is necessary to classify as (1) categorial, (2) digit, (3) connatative, (4) suffixes of feminization. Same suffix can carry out two functions (different time), for example, suffix -er can carry out categorial and digit function (reader, Londoner).

The distinction between by word-changing affixes and word-changing inflexion is well described V. Adams in his book " An Introduction to Modern English Word - Formation" (section: Derivation and Inflection), where the following reasons are resulted:

1. In inflexion pairs there are bilateral attitudes: the presence of an estimated noun in unique number assumes presence of multiple number and usually on the contrary. In derivatives though the affixal form assumes presence of its making basis, opposite is unessential. The formation unclear on model un + adjective, does not mean an opportunity to form undirty.

2. Word-changing inflexion are steady on function and value. Opposite many word-changing affixes have more than one value and can join more than one category of bases.

3. The class of word-changing affixes much more numerous, than class of word-changing inflexion, thus the first class from time to time replenishes with new elements.

4. The function inflexion consists in a designation of the attitudes between words, function of derivational affixes - in formation of new words.

Basic weight of suffixes is categorial, and etc. It serves for formation of any part of speech from other part of speech. It is much less digit suffixes, i.e. suffixes, translating word from one lexical and grammatical category in another within the limits of the same part of speech.

Thus digit suffixes meet mainly at nouns, it is few suffixes, forming verbs from verbs. As to formation of adjectives from adjectives, ' that such formations, as a rule, take place with participation connotative suffixes: green - greenish.

Suffixes are possible also to consider from the point of view of their valency, i.e. Abilities to join one or several parts of speech. Usually at classification of suffixes specify, what part of speech forms given.

Suffix, as forms the basis for reference suffix to the certain class, for example, the suffix of a noun, suffix of an adjective, suffix of a verb and etc. For more detailed characteristic suffix it is necessary also to specify, a basis of which part of speech joins given suffix. Then we can classify suffix on denominative, adjectival, verbal.

Taking into account it, it is possible to give the two-element characteristic suffix, for example, denominative suffix of an adjective less: home (noun) + less = homeless (adj).

From the point of view of a rule in a word suffixes can be terminal, and etc. After which the addition others suffix is impossible, and not terminal, after which the addition others suffix is possible.

It is possible also to allocate root suffix, and etc. Such, which join. Only is direct to a root, instead of to suffixal a basis (for example, -y in story).

It is reasonably interesting to find out suffixal combinatorics, i. e. the combining ability of suffixes, for example, is possible compatibility -ly +ness, but is impossible -ly +ism. By consideration of suffixal combinatorics it would be important to note, what combinations of suffixes are not supposed for the semantic reasons, and what restrictions are imposed by the only linguistic factors and what these factors.

Suffixes also are characterized by a various degree certainty and probability of the values.

Thus one of them have the rather generalized value, specifying only on a lexical-semantic class, for example, -er specifies that given derivative means the agent or means of action, -ness carries derivative to a class of abstract nouns, while other suffixes are more "lexical" and have more concrete value, for example, the nouns on -ana mean assembly of the statements of the person designated - by a basis: Johnsoniana; and the nouns on -ese designate " a slang, style inherent in a volume, that is designated by a basis " officialese.

Suffixes such as -er, -ness naturally are more "productive", than suffixes type of "-ana and -ese, as last have more limited lexical-semantic compatibility.

As the adjectives of a colourmarking concern to the most ancient layer of lexicon, at their analysis there was necessary to pay attention to the facts of diachronic, and also to consider an originality of the given group of words, which is allocated with the various symbolic. This circumstance finds the reflection in formation of portable meanings which are included in lexical-semantic structure of initial adjectives, and influences the lexical filling of word-formation models their derivatives.

The study of lexical-semantic structures of colourmarking adjectives has shown unusual connection of colour and noncolour meanings, variety of their shades, the influence of the nonlanguage validity on semantics of a word. It was established,

that the contextual environment of colourmarking adjectives has the large importance for the adequate description of their lexical-semantic structures.

The word-formation model is closely connected to word-formation paradigm. Each adjective has own paradigm having unequal extent and various morpheme filling of models, included in it. On the basis of research of each separate paradigm, it is possible to deduce the generalized word-formation paradigm of the given group of words, which is characterized by presence constant, basic, facultative and even “unique” participants, that is shown in the limits of the language.

The word-formation can be made:

- 1) inside one part of speech: $A+suf=A1$
- 2) by a transposition:
 - $A+suf=N$,
 - $A+suf=V$,
 - $A+suf=D$,
 - $V+suf=N$,

where A - initial adjective, suf - word-forming suffix, A1, N, V, D - derivatives: adjective, noun, verb, adverb.

1. $A+suf=A1$.

The basic suffixes -ish, -y are the constant and obligatory members of general word-formation paradigm, i.e. enter into the paradigm of each adjective.

- 2.1 $A+suf=N$.

-ness is the conducting suffix here. The abstract nouns belong to this model in the English language: blueness.

Other derivatives, in which formation the various suffixes take part, are facultative, i.e. can be found in paradigm of one or two adjectives.

The presence of the facultative members depends on portable and minor meanings which are included in lexical-semantic structure of initial lexises. So in a derivative noun “blueism” one of meanings of the adjective “blue” -

"интеллектуальный", "ученый", "премудрый" etc. is realized, and the suffix -ism introduces in the semantics of the derivative the generalized meaning.

The portable meaning of an adjective "green" - "неопытный", "незрелый" is shown in the appropriate derivatives – "greener, greenie" - carriers of this quality. It is necessary to note, that paradigmatic lines can have unequal extent because of the facultative members. "*Green - greenness, greenery, greenth, greenage, greener, greenie, greenlet, greening, greenling*".

Summary of the chapter

The word-formation is a system, which unites grammatical and lexical, that speaks about its enterlevel character and allows to apply the complex approach to the investigated phenomena.

Essence of grammar of a word-formation suffix, which signals about the belonging a derivative word to this or that part of speech and defines its paradigm, confirms this idea. Also, on the basic purpose, which consists in creation of a new word and updating of the vocabulary, the indissoluble unity of a word-formation and lexicon is shown. Besides the word-formation, having own sphere of research, studies word-formation resources and processes conducting to creation of word-formation models, and also condition of functioning and filling the lasts.

In the given chapter we have analysed morphological peculiarities of adjective forming affixes in Modern English. Among them we studed, the most productive affexes.

Affixes, through which in the certain period is created rather much new-formations refer to as productive.

CHAPTER II. ADJECTIVE FORMING SUFFIXES MODELS AND PROBLEMS OF TEACHING WORD-BUILDING

2.1. Models with adjective forming suffixes.

Word-building is one of the main ways of enriching vocabulary. There are four main ways of word-building in modern English: affixation, composition, conversion, abbreviation. There are also secondary ways of word-building: sound interchange, stress interchange, sound imitation, blends, back formation.

1. Adding a suffix to a one-syllable word:

a. Words of one syllable that end in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel double the final consonant before a suffix beginning with a vowel: *bag, baggage; hop, hopper; hot, hottest; red, redder; run, running; stop, stopped*. There are two notable exceptions to this rule: *bus (buses or busses; busing or bussing)* and *gas (gasses or gases; gassing; gassy)*.

b. If a word ends with two or more consonants or if it ends with one consonant preceded by two or more vowels instead of one, the final consonant is not doubled: *debt, debtor; lick, licking; mail, mailed; sweet, sweetest*.

2. Adding a suffix to a word with two or more syllables:

a. Words of two or more syllables that have the accent on the last syllable and end in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel double the final consonant before a suffix beginning with a vowel: *admit, admitted; confer, conferring; control, controller; regret, regrettable*. There are a few exceptions: *chagrin, chagrined; transfer, transferred, transferring* but *transferable, transference*.

b. When the accent shifts to the first syllable of the word after the suffix is added, the final consonant is not doubled: *prefer, preference; refer, reference*.

c. If the word ends with two consonants or if the final consonant is preceded by more than one vowel the final consonant is not doubled: *perform, performance; repeal, repealing*.

d. If the word is accented on any syllable except the last the final consonant is not usually doubled: *benefit, benefited; develop, developed; interpret, interpreted*. However, some words like *cobweb, handicap, and outfit* follow the models of *web, cap, and fit*, even though these words may not be true compounds. A few others ending in *g* double the final *g* so that it will not be pronounced like *j*: *zigzag, zigzagged*.

3. Adding a suffix beginning with a vowel to a word ending in a silent *e*: Words ending with a silent *e* usually drop the *e* before a suffix beginning with a vowel: *force, forcible; route, routed; glide, gliding; operate, operator; trifle, trifler*. However, there are many exceptions to this rule:

a. Many words of this type have alternative forms (the preferred form is given first): *blame, blamable* or *blameable; blue, bluish* or *blueish*. And in certain cases, alternative forms have different meanings: *linage* or *lineage* (number of lines) but *lineage* (ancestry).

b. Many words ending in *ce* or *ge* keep the *e* before the suffixes *-able* and *-ous*: *advantage, advantageous; change, changeable; trace, traceable*.

c. Words ending in a silent *e* keep the *e* if the word could be mistaken for another word: *dye, dyeing; singe, singeing*.

d. If the word ends in *ie*, the *e* is dropped and the *i* changed to *y* before the suffix *-ing*. A word ending in *i* remains unchanged before *-ing*: *die, dying; ski, skiing*.

e. *Mile* and *acre* do not drop the *e* before the suffix *-age*: *mileage, acreage*.

4. Adding a suffix beginning with a consonant to a word ending in a silent *e*: Words ending with a silent *e* generally retain the *e* before a suffix that begins with a consonant: *plate, plateful; shoe, shoeless; arrange, arrangement; white, whiteness; awe, awesome; nice, nicety*. However, there are many exceptions to this rule. Some of

the most common are *abridge, abridgment; acknowledge, acknowledgment; argue, argument; awe, awful; due, duly; judge, judgment; nine, ninth; true, truly; whole, wholly; wise, wisdom.*

5. Adding a suffix to a word ending in *y*:

a. Words ending in *y* preceded by a consonant generally change the *y* to *i* before the addition of a suffix, except when the suffix begins with an *i*: *accompany, accompaniment; beauty, beautiful; icy, icier, iciest, icily, iciness; but reply, replying.*

b. The *y* is retained in derivatives of *baby, city, and lady* and before the suffixes *-ship* and *-like*: *babyhood, cityscape, ladyship, ladylike.*

c. Adjectives of one syllable ending in *y* preceded by a consonant usually retain the *y* when a suffix beginning with a consonant is added: *shy, shyly, shyness; sly, slyly, slyness; wry, wryly, wryness; but dryly or drily, dryness.* These adjectives usually also retain the *y* when a suffix beginning with a vowel is added, although most have variants where the *y* has changed to *i*: *dry, drier or dryer, driest or dryest; shy, shier or shyer, shiest or shyest.*

d. Words ending in *y* preceded by a vowel usually retain the *y* before a suffix: *buy, buyer; key, keyless; coy, coyer, coyest; gay, gayer, gayest; but day, daily; gay, gaily or gayly.*

e. Some words drop the final *y* before the addition of the suffix *-eous*: *beauty, beauteous.*

Adding a suffix to a word ending in *c*: Words ending in *c* almost always have the letter *k* inserted after the *c* when a suffix beginning with *e, i, or y* is added: *panic, panicky; picnic, picnicker.* This is done so that the letter *c* will not be pronounced like *s*.

In the discussion that follows he makes clear that some of these are "stem" affixes and some are "root" affixes, and gives criteria that distinguish the two types.

The analyses showed that, the following suffixes are considered main adjective-forming ones in English: *-ed, -y, -ish, -en, -less, -ly, -ful, -some, -fold, -worthy, -*

like, -able (-ible) and others. In our graduate qualification work we look through the following 6 adjective-forming suffixes of Modern English.

| Suffix | Added to | Examples | Translation |
|-------------|-------------------|--|--|
| -able | verb | Eatable Adaptable | (ейишли) еса бўладиган мослашувчан |
| -ful | noun | Fruitful Merciful | Самарали, самарадор Меҳр-шафқатли |
| -less | adjective | Countless Doubtless | Бехисоб, хисобсиз Шубҳасиз |
| -ish | adjective noun | Foolish English Turkish Mannish | Ахмоқона Инглизча Туркча Эркакча |
| -ic (-ical) | noun | Photographic Stylistic Medical Historical | Фотографик Стилистик Тиббий Тарихий |
| -ary | noun | Honorary Customary | Ҳурматли Одатий |

The analyzed suffixes form the following types adjectives:

Forming adjectives

Denominal adjectives

Comparing adjectives

Compound adjectives

Order of adjectives

Lists of adjectives

Examples of adjectives

Some **adjectives** can be identified by their endings. Typical adjective endings include:

-able/-ible understandable, capable, readable, incredible

-al mathematical, functional, influential, chemical

-ful beautiful, bashful, helpful, harmful

-ic artistic, manic, rustic, terrific

-ive submissive, intuitive, inventive, attractive

-less sleeveless, hopeless, groundless, restless

-ous gorgeous, dangerous, adventurous, fabulous

Sometimes when adding these endings changes have to be made. Here are some rules for forming adjectives and their exceptions:

| Add | Exceptions | Word | Adjective |
|-------------------|---|----------|------------|
| -al | If ending with an 'e', drop it | Nature | Natural |
| | | Function | Functional |
| -y | If ending with an 'e', drop it | Ice | Icy |
| | | Oil | Oily |
| -ful | If ending with a 'y', replace with an 'i' | Beauty | Beautiful |
| | | Peace | Peaceful |
| -ous/-ious | If ending with a 'y', drop it | Mystery | Mysterious |
| | | Danger | Dangerous |
| -ic | If ending with a 'y', drop it | History | Historic |
| | | Rust | Rustic |

Forming adjectives from nouns and verbs

Adjectives can be formed from different words. They can be formed from **nouns**:

| Noun | Adjective |
|----------|------------|
| accident | accidental |
| danger | dangerous |
| length | long |
| star | starry |
| wind | windy |

2.1.1. –able (-ible) is an adjective -forming suffix

Suffix –able (-ible) came to English with Latin words and widely used in English wordformation as an word-forming element. Suffix –able (-ible) forms words not only Roman roots but Germanic and other roots as well. In English the suffix –able (-ible) forms adjectives from verbs as in Latin.

Suffix –able (-ible) mainly expresses passive meaning. For example:

Drinkable – ичимли, ичишга ярокли, ичса буладиган

Accomplishable – бажарса буладиган, эришса буладиган, тугатса буладиган.

Actable – амалда бажарса буладиган, бажариш имкони мавжуд булган иш.

Adaptable – мослашувчан, кулласа буладиган.

Abatable – кичрайишга лаёкатли, кучсизланадиган.

Abolishable – бекор килиш булган нарса, йук килиш, бекор килиш мумкин булган нарса.

Doable - қилса, бажарса бўладиган.

Suffix –able (-ible) mostly forms adjectives from transitive verbs. So this suffixes can easily be identified and found productive, as they can form adjectives from any

transitive verb. Especially this can be seen in the examples of adjectives formed in English with the help of those suffixes.

Utterable – гапирса (айтса) бўладиган.

Acceptable – кабул килса арзигулик.

Punishable – Жазога лойиқ, жазоласа бўладиган.

Admirable – хайрон қолдирадиган, жозибадор.

Accusable- айбласа буладиган.

Absorbable- шимиб (суриб) оладиган.

Most scientists consider that, the invariant –ible has the same characteristic as –able. In Modern English we can find many newly formed adjectives, built with the help of this suffix. For example:

Edible – еса буладиган.

Visible – куринадиган.

Invisible – куринмайдиган.

The famous scientist Karashuk P.M. considers that the suffix –ible can not form new adjectives. [Karashuk, P. 103]. But our researches showed that, there are several words formed with the suffix –ible in English.

Below given some examples, where suffix -able (-ible) is used in sentences:
ADJECTIVE SUFFIXES (-able, -ible) **capable of being edible, fallible, incredible, audible, understandable, capable, readable, incredible** and etc.

2.1.2. Suffix –ful

The suffix is came from Old English independent word **full**. At first this word used as the second component of some complex words, whereas its form remained unchanged. Later this word got the form of –ful, with the development of language and mostly pronounced as [-fl]. Here are some examples:

Wonderful – ажойиб (Old English : wundorfull);

Careful – эхтиёткор (Old English : carfull);

Sorrowful - гамгин, эхтиёткор, гамга тула (Old English : sogrfull).

From the Middle English period this word turned into suffix and formed new adjectives with the help of borrowed nouns. Ex.: **doubtful, graceful, merciful, fruitful**

As famous linguist O. Espersen writes, these words have appeared in English in Middle English period. [15. p. 419].

In Modern English the suffix –full, added to many nouns, means “complete, completeness”. For example: *beautiful, cheerful, respectful, delightful, thankful, hopeful, topful, darkful, gladful, painful, baleful, baneful, gleeful, fearful, harmful, hateful, healthful, hopeful, truthful, shameful, sinful, slothful, sorrowful, delightful, pitiful, despiteful, manful, fruitful, heedful, masterful, forgetful, fretful, resentful, wakeful, assistful, bashful, mournful, wishful, wilful, cupful, spoonful.*

2.1.3. -less

English suffix – less derived from the independent word “leas” (Modern English “loose”) meaning be free from something, lack of something. The word “leas” was used as a second component of compound adjective before the emergence of written manuscripts of Old English language as in Old English period “leas” was used as wordforming affix. For example: banleas (Modern English “boneless”) – суяксиз; beardleas (Modern English “beardless”) – соқолсиз. Initially the element – less is combined only to the root of a noun.

That’s why in Modern English adjectives with –less in most cases are derived from the root of nouns. In combination with the root of nouns suffix –less expresses the meaning “not having or aparted from what is meant wordforming root”.

In the process of development the suffix –less is being used to be added to the root of a verb. The importance of adding the suffix –less to the root of verbs explained as most verbs by formal signs do not differ from nouns. Later by analogy with those words those component was formally similar to verbs, suffix –less is being used to be added to verbs as well. For example the word “count” is used both as a verb (санамок) and a noun (санок)б, the word “number” is used as a noun (сон, ракам) and as a verb (санамок, ракамламок).

So the formation “countless” (хисобсиз, саноксиз) and “numberless” (бесанок) are can be considered as formed from a noun and a verb. On the basis of particular that similarity by form there created an opportunity to form adjectives directly from verbs. In combination with verbs the suffix –less expresses passive meaning with negation: not to be ~ed, un~able. For example:

Countless – хисобсиз (not to be counted, uncountable)

Dauntless – куркмас (not to be daunted, undauntable)

Drainless - курымас (not to be drained, undrainable)

Exhaustless – чарчоксиз (not to be exhausted, unexhaustible)

Imagineless – тасаввур килиб булмайдиган (not to be imagined, unimaginable)

In these examples we can see that the suffix –less may have meaning like “unable to do something”.

The number of adjectives formed with the help of –less from the root of verbs are not many in Modern English, but they all are newly formed according to O. Espersen.

brainless, bloodless, earless, hairless, heartless, armless, brotherless, horseless, houseless, landless, bottomless, endless, breathless, careless, fearless, guiltless, helpless, sleepless, mindless, smokeless, motionless, powerless, pitiless, cureless, utterless, changeless, tameless, doubtless, merciless, faithless, eventless and etc.

From above examples we can see that suffix –less is extremely productive. It may be explained by its abstract meaning expressing lack of sign, feature, quality or object meant by noun root.

2.1. 4. –ish

Suffix –ish derived from Old English –isc. For example: denisc > Danish, Englisc > English, Brittisc > British, Scottisc > Scottish. According to Modern English the suffix –ish forms adjectives from the root of nouns and adjectives. Actually in English there are adjectives with –ish and from the roots of nouns and adjectives, but –ish plays different roles in them. These differences are not only seen in their meaning but also in the feature of combination of it with wordforming roots.

Most adjectives with –ish are formed from the roots of nouns, in combination of those have meaning like “relating, belonging to what that points wordforming root”. For example: *apish, bearish, boyish, cattish, turkish, english* and etc.

Suffix –ish may produce adjectives only from the root of definite semantic class of nouns. Firstly, suffix –ish is added to those noun roots that mean animated objects. For example: *coltish, dwarfish, maidenish, mannish, brutish, mulish, foolish, slavish, tigerish*.

The above-mentioned group is considered as the biggest one. Secondly, suffix –ish is added to those noun roots that belong to any nation, people or language. For example:

Danish –

Irish –

Polish –

Spanish –

British –

Finnish –

Swedish –

Scottish –

Thirdly, suffix –ish is added to those noun roots that mean inner feature, quality or state of a person. For example:

Mawkish –

Modish –

Raffish –

Freakish –

Dumpish –

Feverish –

The adjectives of this group are larger in number comparing with the first group two groups.

Added to nouns the suffix –ish forms a new grammatical category, in fact being added to adjectives they do not form any new grammatical category. The number of adjectives formed with help of suffix –ish is considerably less than the the number of nouns formed with –ish.

The adjectives formed with suffix –ish mean the weakening of quality or feature expressed by main adjective. For example: *dullish, dimmish, lightish, coldish, yellowish, blackish, bluish, newlish, baddish, warmish, whitish.*

| Adjective Suffixes | | |
|---------------------------|-----------------------|---|
| -able, -ible | capable of being | edible, presentable, abominable, credible |
| -al | pertaining to | regional, grammatical, emotional, coastal |
| -esque | reminiscent of | picturesque, statuesque, burlesque |
| -ful | notable for | fanciful, resentful, woeful, doubtful |
| -ic, -ical | pertaining to | musical, mythic, domestic, chiastic |
| -ious, -ous | characterized by | nutritious, portentous, studious |
| -ish | having the quality of | fiendish, childish, snobbish |
| -ive | having the nature of | creative, punitive, divisive, decisive |
| -less | without | endless, ageless, lawless, effortless |

| | | |
|----|------------------|--------------------------------------|
| -y | characterized by | sleazy, hasty, greasy, nerdy, smelly |
|----|------------------|--------------------------------------|

2.1. 5. –ic (-ical)

In linguistics, a suffix (also sometimes termed postfix or ending) is an affix, which is placed after the stem of a word. Common examples are case endings, which indicate the grammatical case of nouns or adjectives, and verb endings, which form the conjugation of verbs.

Particularly in the study of Semitic languages, a suffix is called an afformative, as they can alter the form of the words. In Indo-European studies, a distinction is made between suffixes and endings (see Proto-Indo-European root). A word-final segment that is somewhere between a free morpheme and a bound morpheme is known as a suffixoid^[1] or a semi-suffix^[2] (e.g., English *-like* or German *-freundlich* 'friendly').

Suffixes can carry grammatical information or lexical information. An *inflectional suffix* is sometimes called a desinence or a **grammatical suffix**. Inflection changes the grammatical properties of a word within its syntactic category. Derivational suffixes can be divided into two categories: class-changing derivation and class-maintaining derivation.

The adjective-forming suffix –ic (-ical) is originated from Latin *-icus* or Greek *-ikos*; *ic* also occurs in nouns that represent a substantive use of adjectives (*magic*) and in nouns borrowed directly from Latin or Greek (*critic*, *music*).

Suffix –ic

1. suffix forming adjectives from other parts of speech, occurring originally in Greek and

Latin loanwords (*metallic*; *poetic*; *archaic*; *public*) and, on this model, used as an adjective-forming suffix with the particular senses “having some characteristics of” (opposed to the simple attributive use of the base noun) (*balletic*; *sophomoric*); “in the style of” (*Byronic*; *Miltonic*); “pertaining to a family of peoples or languages” (*Finnic*; *Semitic*; *Turkic*).

2. *Chemistry*. a suffix, specialized in opposition to -**ous**, used to show the higher of two valences:

ferric chloride.

3. a noun suffix occurring chiefly in loanwords from Greek, where such words were originally adjectival (*critic*; *magic*; *music*).

| | | | |
|----------------------------|---|--|---|
| -ICAL having the nature of | magic – magical practice – practical | logic – logical statistic – statistical | history – historical alphabet – alphabetical |
|----------------------------|---|--|---|

It would seem the difference between geographic and geographical is only in the spelling and number of syllables. I don't know if this holds true for all -ic vs. -ical suffixes. In fact, I'm having a devil of a time coming up with another word that is acceptable with both. All I can seem to think of are words like manic and topic, but the -ic is not really a suffix in those cases. Oh, here's one: forensical. It's the same as forensic.

However, in the case of *other* words, there are several patterns of difference in meaning. Here are some examples:

economic (adj.): relating to the economy (the financial and commercial affairs of a country) (e.g., "economic forecast"; "economic prosperity")

economical (adj.): saving or using sparingly; not wasting; using as little as possible; using or involving the use of the principle of economy (i.e., saving or conserving) (e.g., "economical cars"; "economical use of natural resources")

comic (adj.): relating to comedy; causing or intended to cause laughter (e.g., "comic drama"; "comic routine"; "comic monologue")

comical (adj.): funny in an unexpected, absurd, or ridiculous way (e.g. "a comical way of walking"; "a clown's comical hat")

fantastic (adj.): wonderful, amazing; extraordinary

fantastical (adj.): relating to fantasy; associated with the imagination rather than with reality (e.g., "fantastical creatures"; "fantastical images")

conic (adj.): relating to cones (in geometry) (e.g., "conic sections")

conical (adj.): having the shape of a cone (e.g., "a conical mountain")

spheric (adj.): relating to spheres (in geometry) (e.g., "spheric sections")

spherical (adj.): having the shape of a sphere (e.g., "a spherical comet")

arithmetic (adj.): relating to arithmetic (n.) (e.g., "arithmetic mean")

arithmetical (adj.): using or involving the use of arithmetic (n.) (e.g., "arithmetical operations" or "arithmetical calculations")

strategic (adj.): relating to strategy (e.g., "strategic planning")

strategical (adj.): using or involving the use of strategy (e.g., "strategical manoeuvres")

2.1. 6. –ary

-ary

Word Origin

1. a suffix occurring originally in loanwords from Classical and Medieval Latin, on adjectives (*elementary; honorary; stationary; tributary*), personal nouns (*actuary; notary; secretary*), or nouns denoting objects, especially receptacles or places (*library; rosary; glossary*). The suffix has the general sense “pertaining to, connected with” thereferent named by the base; it is productive in English, sometimes with the addition al senses “contributing to,” “for the purpose of,” and usually forming adjectives: *complimentary; visionary; revolutionary; inflationary*.

suffix

1.. (forming adjectives) of; related to; belonging to: *cautionary, rudimentary*

2.. (forming nouns)

a person connected with or engaged in: *missionary*

a thing relating to; a place for: *commentary, aviary*

Word Origin

from Latin *-ārius, -āria, -ārium*

| |
|------------------------------|
| anniversary – годовщина |
| auxiliary – вспомогательный |
| canary – канарейка |
| complimentary – хвалебный |
| contrary – противоположный |
| dictionary – словарь |
| documentary – документальный |

| |
|----------------------------------|
| February – февраль |
| January – январь |
| legendary – легендарный |
| military – военный |
| momentary – кратковременный |
| necessary – необходимый |
| primary – первичный |
| salary – оклад, зарплата |
| secondary – вторичный |
| secretary – секретарь |
| stationary – неподвижный |
| temporary – временный |
| Суффикс ORY |
| allegory – аллегория |
| category – категория |
| contradictory – противоречащий |
| congratulatory – поздравительный |
| directory – справочник |
| laboratory – лаборатория |
| mandatory – обязательный |
| memory – память |
| obligatory – обязательный |

| |
|--------------------------------|
| oratory – ораторское искусство |
| preparatory – подготовительный |
| territory – территория |
| Суффикс ERY |
| artillery – артиллерия |
| cemetery – кладбище |
| millinery – дамские шляпы |
| monastery – монастырь |
| nursery – детская комната |
| stationery – писчая бумага |

2.2.. Tasks and exercises dedicated to teach word-building in secondary school text-books

Examples of forming adjectives

Our house color is a kind of **yellow**. → We live in a **yellowish** house.

He often acts like a **child**. → He often acts in a **childish** way.

The event was a big **success**. → We enjoyed a **successful** event.

We enjoyed the sound of the drum's **rhythm**. → We enjoyed the drum's **rhythmic** sound.

She adopted a dog without a **home**. → She adopted a **homeless** dog.

Look out, that plant is **poison**. → Look out for that **poisonous** plant.

It looks like it will **rain** today. → It looks like we'll have **rainy** weather today.

She always acts with **courtesy**. → She always behaves in a **courteous** manner.

Her hair is **pretty**. → She has the **prettiest** hair.

We go for a walk each **day**. → We go for a **daily** walk.

Forming adjectives exercises

1. Choose the adjective from each of the following groups of words:

inventive, invent, invented

curiosity, curious, curiousive

proliferate, prolific, proud

Answers: A – inventive B – curious C – prolific

2. Form adjectives from the following nouns: smell, chill, width.

Answers: A – smelly B – chilly C – wide

3. Form adjectives from the following verbs: interested, amazed, annoyed.

Answers: A – interesting B – amazing C – annoying

4. Form adjectives from the following verbs. Some words may be formed into more than one adjective: Escape, improve, damage.

Answers: A – escaped, escaping B – improved, improving C – damaged, damaging

5. Form longer adjectives from the following adjectives. Some words may be formed into more than one adjective: funny, incorrect, blue.

Answers: A – funnier, funniest B – incorrectly C – bluest, bluer, blueish

6. Form adjectives from the following nouns: magic, fool, lady.

Answers: A – magical B – foolish C – ladylike

7. Form two adjectives from each of the following nouns:

Life, power, friend.

Answers: A – lifelike, lifeless B – powerful, powerless C – friendly, friendless

8. Form adjectives from each of the following nouns:

Cost, war, month.

Answers: A – costly B – warlike C – monthly

9. Form adjectives from each of the following nouns:

Poison, courtesy, mystery.

Answers: A – poisonous B – courteous C – mysterious

10. Form adjectives from each of the following nouns:

Athlete, photograph, science.

Answers: A – athletic B – photographic C – scientific

Noun Form → Adjective Form

NOUN WORD FORM

Some adjectives are formed from nouns and others are formed from verbs. The word forms are from Latin, Greek and other languages. There is no simple rule for adding suffixes, but there are common patterns.

PREDICATE COMPLEMENT

The sky was **a spectacle**. (a very beautiful thing to see)

The sky was filled with **colors**.

(Eng-Br) colour

The color was **red**. (identifies the color)

We noticed its **brightness / darkness**.

We felt **awe**. (a feeling of inspiration and respect)

ADJECTIVE WORD FORM

Adding a suffix to a noun form is one way to form an adjective, a modifier.

A **suffix** is a part added to the end of a word to mark the word form. An adjective is often used after ***It is*** or ***It seems*** (stative verbs).

PRED COMPLEMENT

MODIFIER TO NOUN

It was **spectacular**.¹

It was **a spectacular sky**.

It was **colorful**.

It was **a colorful sky**.

The sky was **red**.

The **red sky** was beautiful.

It looked **reddish**. (somewhat red)

The **reddish-brown soil** was dry.

The stars were **bright**.

It was a **bright star**.

The night was **dark**.

It was a **dark night**.

It was **awesome**.

It was **an awesome sky**.

¹**It + be + adjective** (predicate adjective or predicate complement) See Specifying vs. Ascriptive "be" .

glow (N) – shine, giving off brightness *The glow of a candle filled the room.*

gradually (Adv) – changing or moving in small degrees, bit by bit; *The color gradually changes as it ages.*

reflect (V) – give back (light) *A mirror reflects your image.*

rose (V) – went up, the appearance on the horizon of the moon or the sun; (*rise, rose, risen*) See Rise v. Raise.

soil (N) – dirt, earth *Pineapples grow well in reddish-brown soil.*

NP –noun phrase; **N** – noun; **Det** – determiner; **AdjP**– adjective phrase; **Adj** – adjective

Common Adjective Suffixes I (Noun → Adjective)

| SUFFIX | NOUN – ADJECTIVE | NOUN – ADJECTIVE | NOUN – ADJECTIVE |
|--|---|--|--|
| -AL relating to | accident – accidental region – regional | brute – brutal person – personal | region – regional universe –universal |
| -ARY relating to quality or place | custom – customary compliment – complimentary | moment – momentary honor – honorary | caution – cautionary diet – dietary |
| -FUL full of | beauty – beautiful skill – skillful | wonder – wonderful success – successful | awe – awful delight – delightful |
| -IC having the nature of; caused by | athlete – athletic photograph – photographic | base – basic science – scientific | history – historic rhythm– rhythmic |
| -ICAL having the nature of | magic – magical practice – practical | logic – logical statistic – statistical | history – historical alphabet – alphabetical |

| | | | |
|--------------------------------|--|--|---|
| -ISH origin, nature | fool – foolish sheep – sheepish | child – childish pink – pinkish | self – selfish girl – girlish |
| -LESS without | power – powerless use – useless | friend – friendless home – homeless | worth – worthless penny – penniless |
| -LIKE like | like – lifelike child – childlike | lady – ladylike bird – birdlike | war – warlike spring – springlike |
| -LY like | friend – friendly day – daily | cost – costly order – orderly | month – monthly coward – cowardly |
| -OUS quality, nature | poison – poisonous courtesy – courteous | danger – dangerous mystery – mysterious | nerve – nervous victory – victorious |
| -Y like | rain – rainy mess – messy | fun – funny dirt – dirty | dirt – dirty spot – spotty |

Adjectivalization – in linguistics, the forming of words from other categories, nouns and verbs, by suffixation. (Huddleston 1706)

Pop-Q "historic / historical"

See Noun Forms for: *-al, -ance, -ence, -ery, -tion, -sion, -sure, -ment, -age, -ing, -ery, -ness, -ity, -ism, -th, -ty -y*

See Negative Prefixes for : *a-, dis-, il-, in-, im-, ir-, non-, un-*.

Adjective Suffixes

Verbs to Adjectives

Verb Form → Adjective Form

VERB WORD FORM

Another way to form an adjective is to add a **suffix** to a verb form. The **suffix** is the part added to the end of a word (e.g., *able, ible, ent, ant, ive, ing, ed, en*)

VERB

They **create** ideas.

She **is expecting** a baby.

They don't **permit** smoking here.

They **urge** us to come immediately.

Today's news **interests** me.

ADJECTIVE WORD FORM

An adjective occurs (1) after a *be* verb as a **predicate complement**, also called "predicate adjective", or (2) before a noun (*a strange story*) (3) or infrequently after a noun (*something strange*).

VERB COMPLEMENT

They are **creative**.

She is an **expectant** mother.

Smoking is **permissible**. *allowed*

The matter is **urgent**.

NOUN MODIFIER

They have **creative** *minds*.

We congratulated the **expectant** *mother*.

Smoking is a **permissible** *activity*.

This **urgent** *matter* needs your attention.

The news is **interesting**.

We have **interesting news**.

I am **interested**.

I am an **interested reader**.

Common Adjective Suffixes II (Verb → Adjective)

| SUFFIX | VERB – ADJECTIVE | VERB – ADJECTIVE | VERB – ADJECTIVE |
|---------------------------------|---|--|---|
| -ABLE able, can do | agree – agreeable pass – passable | expand – expandable remark – remarkable | laugh – laughable pay – payable |
| -IBLE able, can do | access – accessible flex – flexible | force – forcible permit – permissible | sense – sensible force – forcible |
| -ANT performing agent | please – pleasant resist – resistant | rely – reliant vacate – vacant | ignore – ignorant comply – compliant |
| -ENT performing agent | excel – excellent urge – urgent | depend – dependent differ – different | confide – confident equal – equivalent |
| -IVE causing effect | attract – attractive posses – possessive | create – creative prevent – preventive | select – selective destruct – destructive |

| | | | | |
|-------------|------------------|------------------------------------|--|---|
| -ING | causing effect | amuse – amusing relax –relaxing | excite – exciting surprise –surprising | confuse – confusing amaze – amusing |
| -ED | receiving effect | amuse – amused relax – relaxed | excite – excited surprise – surprised | confuse – confused overwhelm – overwhelmed |
| -EN | receiving effect | freeze – frozen braze – brazen | lighten – lightened shorten – shortened | darken – darkened widen – widened |

Adjectives Similar But Different

Adjective Suffixes with Different (Antithetical) Meanings

| VERB | SIMILAR BUT DIFFERENT PAIRS |
|---------|--|
| AWE | It was an awesome movie. having a great quality, inspiring It was an awful movie. having a terrible quality |
| CHILD | It was childish behavior (behavior). <i>having immature behavior, negative</i> It was childlike behavior. <i>qualities like a child, positive</i> |
| CONFIDE | We are confident about winning. <i>sure</i> [L.confidere] The message is confidential . <i>private</i> [L. confident] |
| CRISP | It is a crisp day, today. <i>cool and dry</i> It is a crispy cracker. <i>thin and crunchy (makes a pleasant sound)</i> |

| | |
|--------|--|
| DEPEND | We have two dependent children. <i>needing someone for care</i> We have two dependable children. <i>having a nature of completing promises</i> |
| FUN | We had a fun time at the movies. <i>amusing</i> We saw a funny movie. <i>causing laughter</i> |
| HEALTH | He is a healthy ninety-year-old man. <i>possesses or enjoys good health; not sick</i> He eats healthful food and exercises everyday. <i>food that promotes good health; wholesome, curative</i> |
| LAUGH | The laughing child was playing. <i>having a good nature</i> The laughable car was powered with tequila. <i>impossible to be serious about</i> |
| LIGHT | She has light hair. <i>a natural quality</i> She has lightened hair. <i>an unnatural/changed quality</i> |

| NOUN | SIMILAR BUT DIFFERENT PAIRS |
|------|-----------------------------|
|------|-----------------------------|

| | |
|------|--|
| LOVE | He is a loving son. <i>having a quality of giving love</i> He is a lovable son. <i>having a nature of attracting love</i> |
| RELY | She is reliant on money from her parents. <i>having need of</i> She is reliable . <i>a nature of being trustworthy, predictable</i> |

| | |
|----------|--|
| SELECT | <p>He is selective about what he eats. <i>having a quality of being choosy</i></p> <p>They are selling selected items. <i>particular, carefully chosen</i></p> <p>Select people can live there. <i>a small number, exclusive, wealthy</i></p> |
| SENSE | <p>He is a sensible person. <i>reasonable</i> [sensible]</p> <p>He is a sensitive person. <i>easily irritated or hurt</i> [L. sensitivus]</p> |
| RESPONSE | <p>The company is responsive to customers' needs. <i>acting quickly, sympathetically</i></p> <p>The company is responsible for product safety. <i>answerable, accountable</i></p> |
| TACT | <p>The general made a tactical advance. <i>military move</i> [L. tacticus]</p> <p>He is a tactful politician. <i>having skills handling situations</i> [L. tactus] tact(N) – skill in dealing with difficult or delicate situations</p> |
| TASTE | <p>Your food is tasty. <i>having a good taste</i></p> <p>You are a tasteful dresser. <i>having good judgment for fashion, design or social etiquette</i></p> |
| WORTH | <p>He is a worthy competitor. <i>having good value, character</i></p> <p>He is a worthless competitor. <i>having no value or importance</i></p> |

antithetical (Adj) — directly opposed or contrasted; opposite.

Adjective

Suffixes *-ic* versus *-ical*

Adjectives *-ic* and *-ical*

-IC

There is no particular way to know whether a word will use the *-ic* or the *-ical* ending. The suffix *-ic* comes from French *-ique*, or Greek *-ikos*. and means having the nature of, or causing something.

academic, algebraic, arithmetic, artistic, athletic, catholic, domestic, dramatic, egoistic, emphatic, energetic, fantastic, geometric, strategic, linguistic, majestic, neurotic, pathetic, pedagogic, phonetic, public, semantic, syntactic, systematic, tragic

He buys **classic** cars. traditional, old style

His **comic** verse filled books. artistic comedy

His **economic** theory was proved unsound. of the science of economics

An **electric** motor powered the car. a particular machine

We had a **fantastic** trip. extremely good, attractive, or enjoyable

That was a/an **historic** moment. *recorded in past history*

The **hysteric / hysterical** woman was out of control. unable to control your behavior or emotions

The little girl played with a **magic** wand. of a mysterious source

He was a **medic** in the military. intern or doctor

He wrote in a **poetic** speech. *imaginative, having the quality of poetry, like poetry*

It's not **politic** to ask such questions wise

-ICAL

The **-ical** form is often added to a word that already has a final **-ic**. Such adjectives often have a different or an additional meaning from the more basic **-ic** form.

alphabetical, alphanumerical, archaeological, biblical, biological, chemical, chronological, critical, cynical, ethical, grammatical, fanatical, illogical, logical, mathematical, mechanical, medical, musical, pedagogical, physical, radical, surgical tactical, topical

We listen to **classical** music. from a cultural (sometimes Greek, Roman, European) source, or 18thC.

His **comical** verse entertained audiences. funny

He chose an **economical** car. inexpensive to use

Electrical equipment makes our work easier. general, mass

The dragon had **fantastical** powers. strange, unreal, magical

This is a/an **historical** moment. *worthy of being recorded in history*

The movie was **hysterical**. *very funny, causing uncontrollable laughter*

It was a **magical** experience. mysterious, wonderful, exciting

He did **medical** research. related to medicine

He wrote in a **poetical** manner. *having the form of poetry*

It was a **political** question. concerning government and politics

Common Mistakes. Errors and Solutions

Error and Solution

ERROR

His answer was **logic**, but I didn't agree with him.

How can I tell if a word is an adjective or a noun? →

My dad likes to listen to **classic music** on the car radio.

Use this to refer to traditional music (not Bach and Beethoven)

Do you know where I can buy an **economic** car?

Hal is a **tasty** dresser.

It was a chilly, **crispy** day.

Don't shout at my son. He's a very **sensible** person.

SOLUTION

His answer was **logical**, but I didn't agree with him.

Tip: If you want to know if a word is an adjective, place "very" before the word:

*It's very logical. / *It's very logic.*

My dad likes to listen to **classical music** on the car radio.

This book is a **classic**. enjoyed by generations

Use "classical music" to refer to Beethoven, Bach, Haydn, etc.

Do you know where I can buy an **economical car**? (money saving, affordable, gas saving?)

Hal is a **tasteful** dresser.

Use tasty for food. Use tasteful for fashion sense (dresses appropriately, has good fashion judgment).

It was a chilly, **crisp** day. (dry, low humidity)

He's a very **sensitive** person. (easily hurt)

Summary of the chapter

The given chapter deals with the adjective forming suffixes. There give examples of word-formation modules of adjective forming suffixes.

Thus, the tendency is sometimes observed to bypass a question on the intrinsic characteristic suffix and to change by its description of suffix on the basis of item attributes, with the help of operational receptions and other means which are not having the attitudes to value of compared units - inflexion and suffix, and etc. In these cases intrinsic attributes the distinguishing two subjects from each other, receive less attention, than external at marks.

Among the English affixes -er, -est, -man, -ism, -ity, -less, -ish, -ship, -tion, un-, in- and others considered as the most productive ones.

CONCLUSION

As above mentioned affixation is subdivided into prefixation and suffixation. Derivational morphemes added before the stem of a word are called prefixes. Prefixes modify the lexical meaning of the stem meaning i.e. the prefixed derivative mostly belongs to the same part of speech. Ex. Like-dislike, kind-unkind, and etc. But new investigations into the problem of prefixation in English showed interesting results. It appears that the traditional opinion, current among linguists that prefixes modify only the lexical meaning of words withouts changing the part of speech is not quite correct.

In English there are about 25 prefixes which can transfer words to different part of speech.Ex. –head (n)-behead (v), bus (n)-debus(v), brown (adj)- embrown (v), title (n)-entitle (v), large(adj)- enlarge(v), war (n)-prewar(v) and etc. If it is so we can say that there is no functional difference between suffixes and prefixes. Besides there are linguists who who treat prefixes as a part of word-composition.

They think that a prefix has the same function as the first component of a compound-words. Other linguists consider prefixes as derivational affixes, which differ essentially from root morphemes and stems. From the point of view of their origin affixes may be native and borrowed.

Here is the definition to prefixes given by famous scholar H. Marchand: «We call the prefixes such particles as can be prefixed to full words but are themselves not words with an independent existence.

Native prefixes have developed out of independent words. Their number is small: a-, be-, un-, (negative and reversative) fore-, mid- and (partly) mis-. Prefixes of foreign origin came into the language ready made, so to speak. They are due to syntagmatic loans from other languages: when a number of analysable foreign words of the same structure had been introduced into the language, the pattern could be extended to new formations i.e. the prefix then became a derivative morpheme. Some

prefixes have secondarily developed uses as independent words as countersub-arch which does not invalidate the principle that primarily they were particles with no independent existence. The same phenomenon with suffixes also... »

As we are studying the productive prefixes in this chapter we`d like to look through some definitions of the term «productive» given by well-known scientists.

Ginzburg R.S and others: «It follows that productivity of word-building ways, individual derivational patterns and derivational affixes is understood as their ability of making new words which all, we speak English find no difficulty in understanding, in particular their ability to create what are called occasional words».

K.E. Zimmer: «The term «productive» is often used rather indiscriminately to refer both to certain aspects of the behavior of the speakers of a language and to certain diachronic trends while there is presumably in many cases a connection between these two aspects of productivity. It is necessary to keep the distinction in mind. Moreover, and more importantly the concept of what we might term “synchronic productivity” is itself often used in a rather illdefined way in the area of word formation, and it is in many cases difficult to decide just what is being implied when a morphological process is said to be synchronically productive. »

E.S. Kubryakova: «A derivational pattern or a derivational affix are qualified as productive provided there are in word-stock dozens and hundreds of derived words built on the pattern or with the help of the suffix in question». Derivational productivity is distinguished from wordformation activity by which is meant the ability of an affix to produce new words.

I.V. Arnold: «We call productive those affixes and types of word-formation which are used to form new words in the period in question. The proof of productivity is the existence of new words coined by these means. Therefore when we see that a notion that could not possibly have existed at some previous stage has a name formed with the help of some affix the affix is considered productive».

Ch. Hockett: «The productivity of any pattern-derivational, inflectional or syntactical – is the relative freedom with which speakers coin new grammatical forms by it». Thus the formation of English noun-plurals with z,s,iz is highly productive. The addition of –ly to produce an adverbial is fairly productive».

The most productive English prefixes are: un-, dis-, de-, mis-, under-, over-, up-, re- and etc.

The prefix *un-* is added to verb and expresses the antonymous meaning:

To cover – to uncover, To bend- to unbend, To shoe- to unshoe, To fasten- to unfasten, To pack-to unpack .

The prefix *de-* is of Latin origin. In Modern English it can be added to noun, verb and adjectives:

Demobilization- демобилизация, Deformity-хунуклик, Decampment-лагердан чикиш.

The prefix *mis-* can be met in all Germanic languages. According to the O. Esperson the prefix *mis-* was not productive. From the XVIth century it began to become productive prefix. To misprise- етарлича бахоламаслик, -to misapply- нотугри фойдаланиш and etc. So other prefixes like under-, over-, up-, re- and others are also considered as the productive ones.

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