CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Related to the title " The Correlation Between Morphological Awareness and Vocabulary Mastery of English Department Students of STAIN Kediri", there are some items that become important to describe. This focuses to discuss about morphological awareness and vocabulary mastery. In addition, this chapter reviews vocabulary through morphological knowledge, which is divided into three sections. The first section deals with morphological knowledge, there are morpheme, derivational vs. inflectional morphology and word formation processes. The morphological knowledge is important to be learnt by English learners. It can help people to improve their vocabulary list without opening dictionary. The morphology is the base concept of forming words, in order to the English learners can improve their vocabulary list knowledge. The last section presents the relationship between morphological awareness and vocabulary mastery.

A. Morphological Awareness

Morphology is the study of morphemes and their arrangements in forming words. [6] Morphology is defined as "the area of grammar concerned with the structure of words and with relationships between words involving the morphemes that compose them". The study of morphology is a combination of two approaches: analytic and synthetic. A good learner needs to acquire both. The analytic approach

[6] Ibid 1

focuses on morpheme identification or breaking words down into meaningful parts. For example, *handshake* is a combination of *hand* and *shake*. The synthetic approach involves the process of producing new words by using different morphemes. For example, different morphemes can be attached to the word *achieve*, such as *achieving*, *achievable*, and *achieved*. So, it could be argued that the analytic approach paves the way for the synthetic approach (Arnoff & Fudeman, 2005). [7]

Morphological awareness is defined as the recognition of the different parts forming a word (Carlisle, 1995).[8] It is also awareness of and access to the meaning and structure of morphemes in relation to words. Morphemes are the smallest units of meaning in language. Carlisle (1995, p. 194) similarly defines morphological awareness as, "children's conscious awareness of the morphemic structure of words and their ability to reflect on and manipulate that structure." Our focus is on children's abilities to distinguish and manipulate morphemes at the word level. This broad definition allows us, theoretically, to consider children's knowledge of both derivations and inflections in language simultaneously.[9]

For the discussion about morphological awareness, there are several things that are needed to get to know about the morphological knowledge. If the students have awareness of using morphology, they have known the knowledge of morphology in their mind. In this research, to help to understand the morphology, there are some

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[7] Norah Sultan Alsalamah , *English Vocabulary Acquisition of Saudi Female Students at King Saud University* (USA: Cambridge university press,2011), page 16

[8] Ibid 17

[9] ibid 26

knowledge must be learnt. They are Morpheme, inflectional vs. derivational morphology and word formation processes in English.

1. The Morphemes

Leonard Bloomfield defined a word as a "minimal free form" i.e. the smallest unit which may be spoken alone outside the content of descriptive linguistics, a word is usually considered the smallest unit of language. In many languages, however, words can be long and complex. English does not normally specialize in long involved words, but a careful look at such words as *ungentlemanly*, *uniformitarianism*, or and *disestablishmentarianism* will show that they include a number of small meaningful parts which are not all full words.

A basic unit expressing meaning, or associated with meaning, may be a simple word, as in boy or two, which cannot be further divided into meaningful parts, or it may be less than a word, as the "s" in *boys*. Morphemes are the smallest individually meaningful elements in the utterances of a language.[10]

The term morpheme refers to the smallest, visible unit of semantic content or grammatical function of which words are made up. Morphemes can be divided into four general classes: free, bound, derivational, and inflectional morphemes. Free morphemes are those which can stand alone in words such as *dog*, *cat*, and *house*. Bound morphemes must be attached to other morphemes to make sense, such as *un-*, *dis-*, and *ex-*. Derivational morphemes create new words by changing the part of speech or the meaning, e.g. *legal /illegal*. Inflectional morphemes add a grammatical element to the word without changing its meaning or part of speech, e.g. *book/books*.

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[10] Benjamin F. Elson and Velma B. Pickett, *Beginning Morphology and Syntax* (Texas: Summer Institute of Linguistics,1987), page 2

In English, the same morpheme, -s, can be both inflectional and derivational. For example, the "s" in the word organizers is both inflectional and derivational; it changes the verb into a noun and indicates plural form.

Morphemes can be compared to Lego pieces. The same morphemes can be attached to different words to compose new words. For example, the morpheme *un-* can be attached to a large number of words, e.g. *unsafe*, *unhappy*, and *unorganized.* Yet, some morphemes are limited to a few numbers of words, such as the morpheme *–dom*, which is found in words such as kingdom. The roots of complex words of Germanic origin are usually free morphemes, such as the word festschrift, a book prepared by colleagues to honor a scholar, often on an important birthday, such as the sixtieth.[11]

Derivational morphology includes knowledge of prefixes (e.g., the "un-" in undisciplined or the pre in preoperational), suffixes (e.g., the action in graduation or simulation), and compounding (e.g., cowboy and sunlight are both compound words). Inflectional morphology focuses primarily on indicating grammatical changes in words (e.g., the s in dogs or the ed in acted are both grammatical inflections). Our own cross linguistic work has convinced us that the concept of morphological awareness must be flexible if it is to be used successfully across languages. For example, inflectional morphology is obviously important in English or Finnish, but is relatively unimportant in Chinese. In contrast, lexical compounding is far more common in Chinese than it is in English. In the present study, we acknowledge the

[11] Ibid 15-16

utility of a connectionist approach in exploring the broad associations among aspects of sound, meaning, and orthography across languages.[12]

2. Derivational and Inflectional Morphology

Another important and perhaps universal distinction is the one between **derivational** and **inflectional** morphemes.

a. Derivational Morphology

Derivation is the morphological process which creates a word with a new meaning and/or category. One derivational process we have not yet discussed is compounding. A compound is a morphologically complex word that is formed through combination of two or more free morphemes (roots). E.g.: *Doghouse, Fireman, Blueberry, and White House*

Note that compounds are often an exception to our principle of compositionality. Derivational affixes have the following characters:

1) Derivational affix is form a word whose meaning is different from the meaning of the root or stem to which it attaches.

Root	Root meaning	Derived word	Derived word meaning
Fix	The act of repairing something	Fixable	(Something that is) able to be repaired
Teach	The act of instructing; imparting knowledge	Teacher	One who engages regularly in the act of instructing

[12] Ibid 26

Husband	A male spouse	Ex-husband	A former male spouse (of someone)
Submit	To officially give to someone, to hand in	Resubmit	To officially hand in again (after having already done so at least once before

2) Derivational affix can change the lexical category (i.e. change a noun to a verb; change a verb to a noun, etc.). For example: Friend-ship, King-Dom, and Brother-hood.

The derivational affixes in the first two examples in the chart above change the category of the root they attach to. Here are a few other examples of category-changing derivational affixes:

Affix	Root	Root category	Derived word	Derived word category
Ous-	Poison	Noun	Poisonous	Adjective
Ness-	Happy	Adjective	Happiness	Noun

Note that the relevant property of derivational affixes is that they can change the category, not that they necessarily do so. (The last two examples in the chart above do not.) Therefore, if you find that a morpheme changes the category of the stem, you know that it is a derivational affix, but if you find that it does not change the category, you do not know that it is not a derivational affix. It could still very likely be a derivational affix if it changes the meaning. A few more examples of derivational affixes those are not category-changing: *anti-, de-, dis-, mis-*

3) Derivational affixes may have idiosyncratic selectional restrictions. That is, a particular derivational affix consistently attaches to a particular category of word, but it does not necessarily attach to every word of that category: *Whiten* but not **desken*, *Redden* but not

**studyen, Whiten* but not **abstracten, Redden* but not **bluen, Quicken* but not **slowen*

4) Derivational morphology can attach to almost every lexical category (except adverbs).

5) Derivational morphology attach before inflectional affixes.

Example: **dancesing* **trieding* **hopesful*

6) Derivational affixes are not relevant to the syntax. In other words: they don't mark relationships with other parts of the sentence, as, for example, verbs have inflectional affixes to show agreement with the subject of the sentence in English.

b. Inflectional Morphology

There are some kinds of affixes include in inflectional affixes. Inflectional morphology exists in nouns, verbs, and adjectives. Just like *–s, -es, -ing, -ed, -en, -er*, and *–est*. the affixes has been mentioned influence the meaning of words. Look at the example below:

Nouns	
Plural -s	the books
Possessive (genitive) -s'	John's book
Verbs	
3rd person singular nonpast -s	He reads well.
Progressive -ing	He is working.

Past tense -ed	He worked.
Past participle -en/-ed	He has eaten/studied.
Adjectives	
Comparative -er-	the smaller one
Superlative -est	the smallest one

Inflectional affixes have the following characters:

1) Form a word whose meaning is the same as that of the root or stem to which they attaches.

Root	Root meaning	Derived word	Derived word meaning
Fix	The act of repairing something	Fixes	The act of repairing some-thing (3rd person present singular)
Learn	The act of gaining knowledge	Learned	The act of gaining knowledge (happened at some past time)
Husband	A male spouse	Husband-s	Male spouses (more than one)

2) Inflectional affixes never change the lexical category.
3) Inflectional affixes have far fewer idiosyncratic lexical restrictions than do derivational affixes.
4) Inflectional morphology attaches after derivational affixes. (See the examples above in 4).

5) inflectional morphology is relevant to the syntax. That is, they mark information about the grammatical roles that the stems they attach to play in the sentence as a whole.

Example: He reads well.

He read well.

They reads well.

They read well.

The book is on the table.

The books are on the table.

3. Word Formation Processes in English

Nowadays, the terms 'word formation' does not have a clear cut, universally accepted usage. It is sometimes referred to all processes connected with changing the form of the word by, for example, affixation, which is a matter of morphology. In its wider sense word formation denotes the processes of creation of new lexical units. Although it seems that the difference between morphological change of a word and creation of a new term is quite easy to perceive, there is sometimes a dispute as to whether blending is still a morphological change or making a new word. There are, of course, numerous word formation processes that do not arouse any controversies and are very similar in the majority of languages.

a. Clipping

Clipping is the word formation process which consists in the reduction of a word to one of its parts. Clippings are, also, known as "shortenings." Frequently, we shorten words without paying attention to the derivational morphology of the

word.[13] Clipping mainly consists of the following types. They are Back clipping, Fore-clipping, Middle clipping, and Complex clipping

1) Back clipping

Back clipping or apocopation is the most common type, in which the beginning is retained. The unclipped original may be either a simple or a composite. Examples are: *ad* (advertisement), *cable* (cablegram), *doc* (doctor), *exam* (examination), *gas* (gasoline), *math* (mathematics), *memo* (memorandum), *gym* (gymnastics, gymnasium) *mutt* (muttonhead), *pub* (public house), *pop* (popular concert), *trad* (traditional jazz), *fax* (facsimile).

2) Fore-clipping

Fore-clipping or aphaeresis retains the final part. Examples are: *phone* (telephone), *varsity* (university), *chute* (parachute), *coon* (racoon), *gator* (alligator), *pike* (turnpike).

3) Middle clipping

In middle clipping or syncope, the middle of the word is retained. Examples are: *flu* (influenza), *tec* (detective), *polly* (apollinaris), *jams* (pyjamas), *shrink* (head-shrinker).

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[13] Fathor Rasyid, *Learning English Vocabulary: Concept and Learning,* (Kediri: STAIN Kediri Press, 2011), page 146

4) Complex clipping

Clipped forms are also used in compounds. One part of the original compound most often remains intact. Examples are: *cablegram* (*cable* tele*gram*), *op art* (*op*tical *art*), *org-man* (*org*anization *man*), *linocut* (*lino*leum *cut*). Sometimes both halves of a compound are clipped as in *navicert* (*navi*gation *cert*ificate). In these cases it is difficult to know whether the resultant formation should be treated as a clipping or as a blend, for the border between the two types is not always clear. The easiest way to draw the distinction is to say that those forms which retain compound stress are clipped compounds, whereas those that take simple word stress are not. By this criterion *bodbiz, Chicom, Comsymp, Intelsat, midcult, pro-am, sci-fi*, and *sitcom* are all compounds made of clippings. Clippings are not coined as words belonging to the standard vocabulary of a language. They originate as terms of a special group like schools, army, police, the medical profession, etc., in the intimacy of a milieu where a hint is sufficient to indicate the whole. For example, in school slang originated *exam, math, lab,* and *spec*(ulation), *tick*(et = credit) originated in stock-exchange slang, whereas *vet*(eran), *cap*(tain), are army slang. While clipping terms of some influential groups can pass into common usage, becoming part of Standard English, clippings of a socially unimportant class or group will remain groan slang.

b. Acronymy

Acronyms and initialisms are abbreviations, such as *NATO*, *laser*, and *IBM*. Those are formed using the initial letters of words or word parts in a phrase or name. Acronyms and initialisms are usually pronounced in a way that is distinct from that of the full forms for which they stand: as the names of the individual

letters (as in *IBM*), as a word (as in *NATO*), or as a combination (as in *IUPAC*). Another term, alphabetism, is sometimes used to describe abbreviations pronounced as the names of letters.

c. Blending

A blend is a word formed from parts of two other words. These parts are sometimes, but not always, morphemes. A blend is different from a portmanteau word in that a portmanteau refers strictly to a blending of two function words, similar to a contraction. Most blends are formed by one of the following methods:

(i) The beginning of one word is added to the end of the other. For example, *brunch* is a blend of ***breakfast*** and ***lunch***. This is the most common method of blending.

(ii) The beginnings of two words are combined. For example, *cyborg* is a blend of ***cybernetic*** and ***organism***.

(iii)One complete word is combined with part of another word. For example, guesstimate is a blend of ***guess*** and e***stimate***.

(iv) Two words are blended around a common sequence of sounds. For example, the word *Californication*, from a song by the Red Hot Chili Peppers, is a blend of *Cali**fornia*** and ***fornic**ation*.

(v) Multiple sounds from two component words are blended, while mostly preserving the sounds' order. Poet Lewis Carroll was well known for these kinds of blends. An example of this is the word *slithy*, a blend of ***lithe*** and ***slimy***. This method is difficult to achieve and is considered a sign of Carroll's verbal wit.

When two words are combined in their entirety, the result is considered a compound word rather than a blend. For example, bagpipe is a compound, not a blend.

d. Back-formation

Back-formation refers to the process of creating a new lexeme (less precisely, a new "word") by removing actual or supposed affixes. The resulting neologism is called a *back-formation*. Back-formations are shortened words created from longer words, thus back-formations may be viewed as a sub-type of clipping.

For example, the noun *resurrection* was borrowed from Latin, and the verb *resurrect* was then backformed hundreds of years later from it by removing the *-ion* suffix. This segmentation of *resurrection* into *resurrect* + *ion* was possible because English had many examples of Latinate words that had verb and verb+*-ion* pairs — in these pairs the *-ion* suffix is added to verb forms in order to create nouns (such as, *insert/insertion, project/projection*, etc.).

Back formation may be similar to the reanalyzes of folk etymologies when it rests on an erroneous understanding of the morphology of the longer word. For example, the singular noun *asset* is a back-formation from the plural *assets*. However, *assets* is originally not a plural; it is a loan-word from Anglo-Norman *asetz* (modern French *assez*). The *-s* was reanalyzed as a plural suffix.

e. Derivation

Derivation is used to form new words, as with *happi-ness* and *un-happy* from *happy*, or *determination* from *determine*. A contrast is intended with the

process of inflection, which uses another kind of affix in order to form variants of the same word, as with *determine/determine-s/determin-ing/determin-ed.*

A derivational suffix usually applies to words of one syntactic category and changes them into words of another syntactic category. For example, the English derivational suffix *-ly* changes adjectives into adverbs (*slow → slowly*).

Some examples of English derivational suffixes:

adjective-to-noun: *-ness* (*slow → slowness*)

adjective-to-verb: *-ize* (*modern → modernize*)

noun-to-adjective: *-al* (*recreation → recreational*)

noun-to-verb: *-fy* (*glory → glorify*)

verb-to-adjective: *-able* (*drink → drinkable*)

verb-to-noun: *-ance* (*deliver → deliverance*)

Although derivational affixes do not necessarily modify the syntactic category, they modify the meaning of the base. In many cases, derivational affixes change both the syntactic category and the meaning: *modern → modernize* ("to make modern"). The modification of meaning is sometimes predictable: *Adjective + ness → the state of being (Adjective)*; (*stupid→ stupidness*).

A prefix (*write → re-write*; *lord → over-lord*) will rarely change syntactic category in English. The derivational prefix *un-* applies to adjectives (*healthy → unhealthy*), some verbs (*do → undo*), but rarely nouns. A few

exceptions are the prefixes en- and be-. En- (em- before labials) is usually used as a transitive marker on verbs, but can also be applied to adjectives and nouns to form transitive verb: *circle* (verb) → *encircle* (verb); but *rich* (adj) → *enrich* (verb), *large* (adj) → *enlarge* (verb), *rapture* (noun) → *enrapture* (verb), *slave* (noun) → *enslave* (verb). The prefix be-, though not as productive as it once was in English, can function in a similar way to en- to mark transitivity, but can also be attached to nouns, often in a causative or privative sense: *siege* (noun) → *besiege* (verb), *jewel* (noun) → *bejewel* (verb), *head* (noun) → *behead* (verb).

Note that derivational affixes are bound morphemes. In that, derivation differs from compounding, by which *free* morphemes are combined (*lawsuit*, *Latin professor*). It also differs from inflection in that inflection does not change a word's syntactic category and creates not new lexemes but new word forms (*table* → *tables*; *open* → *opened*).

Derivation may occur without any change of form, for example *telephone* (noun) and *to telephone*. This is known as conversion. Some linguists consider that when a word's syntactic category is changed without any change of form, a null morpheme is being affixed.

f. **Borrowing**

Borrowing is just taking a word from another language. The borrowed words are called loan words. A loanword (or *loan word*) is a word directly taken into one language from another with little or no translation. By contrast, a calque or loan translation is a related concept whereby it is the meaning or idiom that is

borrowed rather than the lexical item itself. The word *loanword* is itself a calque of the German *Lehnwort*. Loanwords can also be called "borrowings".

g. Coinage

Coinage is the invention of totally new words. The typical process of coinage usually involves the extension of a product name from a specific reference to a more general one. For example, think of *Kleenex*, *Xerox*, and *Kodak*. These started as names of specific products, but now they are used as the generic names for different brands of these types of products.

h. Compounding

A compound is a lexeme (a word) that consists of more than one other lexeme. An endocentric compound consists of a *head*, i.e. the categorical part that contains the basic meaning of the whole compound, and modifiers, which restrict this meaning. For example, the English compound *doghouse*, where *house* is the head and *dog* is the modifier, is understood as a house intended for a dog. Endocentric compounds tend to be of the same part of speech (word class) as their head, as in the case of *doghouse*. (Such compounds were called *karmadharaya* in the Sanskrit tradition.)

Exocentric compounds do not have a head, and their meaning often cannot be transparently guessed from its constituent parts. For example, the English compound *white-collar* is neither a kind of collar nor a white thing. In an exocentric compound, the word class is determined lexically, disregarding the class of the constituents. For

example, a *must-have* is not a verb but a noun. English language allows several types of combinations of different word classes:

N + N: for example: lipstick (*lip* is noun + *stick* is noun), teapot (*tea* is noun + *pot* is noun)

A + N: for example: fast food (*fast* is adjective + *food* is noun), soft drink (*soft* is adjective + *drink* is noun)

V + N: for example: breakfast (*break* is verb + *fast* is noun), sky-dive (*sky* is verb + *dive* is noun)

N + V: for example: sunshine (*sun* is noun + *shine* is verb), babysit (*baby* is noun + *sit* is verb)

N + A: for example: capital-intensive (*capital* is noun + *intensive* is adjective), waterproof (*water* is noun + *proof* is adjective)

A + A: for example: deaf-mute (*deaf* is adjective + *mute* is adjective), bitter-sweet (*bitter* is adjective + *sweet* is adjective)

Like derivational rules, compounding rules may differ in productivity. In English, the N + N rule/pattern is extremely productive, so that novel compounds are created all the time and are hardly noticed. By contrast, the V + N rule/pattern is unproductive and limited to a few lexically listed items. Apart from endocentric and

exocentric compounds there is another type of compound which requires an interpretation different from the ones introduced so far.[14]

The science of morphology is important to learn the forming of word. However, people forget to add the knowledge of science to enrich their vocabularies. Vocabulary has the origin of its making. Just like English, if the English learners have the awareness to study morphology, they automatically understand the process of forming words. In addition, they can enrich their vocabularies.

B. Vocabulary

A person's vocabulary certainly consists of words and meanings. The words in vocabulary are those understood and used, but there is more to it than this. Everyone has four different vocabularies.

First, think of the words you use in speaking. In talking with your friends and family, you probably use only a few hundred words. Of course, if you speak one language at home and another at school, you use a great many more words. In school you use several hundred technical words in discussing school subjects: equator, atom, harmony, paragraph and so on. These familiar and technical words are your speaking vocabulary. You know their meanings so well that you do not hesitate to use them.

English also have a writing vocabulary. These are the words you use in letters and in the writing you do. Your writing vocabulary is probably somewhat larger than your speaking vocabulary. You can use more different words in writing because you can take time to think of them. If you take the same amount of time to think of words

[14] http://www.trans lationdirectory.com/articles/article1991.php. 17 April 2013.pdf

while you are speaking, someone else starts talking, or your listener's attention drifts away. However, you may hesitate to write a word if you are unsure of its spelling. If so, y our writing vocabulary is smaller than it should be.

Speaking and writing vocabularies are the words that you use to state your meaning. You have two other vocabularies that consist of words used by other people.

Someone listens to the conversation. You listen to your teachers at school. You listen to speeches and entertainment on television and radio programs. The speakers use many of the same words that you use in speaking. But they also use words that you do not hear often and that you do not use yourself. You understand enough of their meaning to make sense of what is said. These words, familiar and unfamiliar, are your listening vocabulary.

Somebody reads vocabulary is by far the largest. It also contains they use yourself. But it contains a very words that y large number of words that you know only slightly. You know enough of their meanings so that you can make sense of the passage in which they appear. Often the passage gives you clues to the meaning. But you are not sure enough of the words to use them in your own speech and writing.

How large are your vocabularies? No one knows, and there is no satisfactory way of finding out. There is no way to get inside your head to see what is going on while you are reading or listening. It is possible to test whether you understand particular words such as abrogate, surrogate, and arrogate, but that is the most that can be done.

What is a good vocabulary? For speaking and writing, a good vocabulary is one that permits you to say quickly and accurately what have in mind. We might also say that a good listening or reading vocabulary is one that permits you to understand

quickly and accurately what you hear and read. But you cannot possibly know all meanings of all the words you are likely to meet. [15]

Vocabulary is an important factor in comprehending any text. Having a large vocabulary will pave the way to comprehending a wider range of reading materials, which will also improve students' ability to communicate through speaking, listening, and writing.[16]

1. Some Ways to Teach Vocabulary Mastery

There are many occasions when some form of presentation and/or explanation is the best way to bring new words into the classroom.

a. Realia

One way of presenting words is to bring the things they represent into classroom by bringing 'realia' into the room. Words like 'postcard', 'ruler', 'pen', 'ball', etc. can obviously be presented in this way. The teacher holds up the object (or points to it), says the word and then gets students to repeat it.

b. Pictures

Bringing a pen into the classroom is not a problem. Bringing in a car, however, is. One solution is the use of pictures.

Pictures can be bored drawings, wall pictures and charts, flashcards, magazine pictures and any other non-technical visual representation. Pictures can be used to explain the meaning of vocabulary items; teachers can draw things on

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[15] Lee C. Deighton, *Words and Meaning* (USA : HBU,1977*), page 1-2*

[16] Ibid 18

the board or bring in pictures. They can illustrate concepts such as *above* and *opposite* just as easily as hats, coats, walking sticks, cars, smiles, frowns, etc.

c. Mime, action and gesture

It is often impossible to explain the meaning of words and grammar either through the u se of realia or in pictures. Actions, in particular, are probably better explained by mime. Concepts like *running* or *smoking* are easy to present in this way; so are ways of walking, expressions, prepositions ('to;, 'towards', etc.) and times (a hand jerked back over the shoulder to represent the past, for example).

d. Contrast

We saw how words exist because of their sense relations and this can be used to teach meaning. We can present the meaning of 'empty' by contrasting it with 'full', 'cold' by contrasting it with 'hot', 'big' by contrasting it with 'small'. With presenting these concepts with pictures or mime, and by drawing attention to the contrasts in meaning then ensure the students understanding.

e. Enumeration

Another sense relation was that *of general* and *specific* words. You can use this to present meaning. You can say 'Clothes' by numerating or listing various items. The same true is for example : 'vegetable' or furniture',.

f. Explanation

Explaining the meaning of vocabulary items can be very difficult, especially at beginner and elementary levels. But with more intermediate students such a technique can be used. It is worth remembering that explaining any facts or word uses which relevant. If we are explaining the meaning of 'mate' (friend) we have to point out that it is a colloquial word used in informal contexts and that it is more often used for males than for females.

g. Translation

Translation is a quick and easy way to present the meaning of words but it is not without problems. In the first place it is not always easy to translate words, and in the second place, even where translations possible, it may make it a bit too easy for students by encouraging them from interacting with the words.

2. Discovery Techniques of Vocabulary

There are some techniques to help students have rich in vocabulary. This is teachers' work. All of these techniques can help students to develop their vocabulary list easily.

a. Adjectives

Students will be using their bilingual dictionaries, though some of them may know these words already.

Teachers can be easily prepared their own versions of this activity. For example, students can be given numbered pictures and the teacher can then write words on the board which they have to match with the pictures.

The use of simple matching activities like these as a prelude to repetition and practice allows the students more involvement than a presentation led by the introduction of all new words would become boring.

b. Parts of body

This activity for intermediate broadens the matching of words to pictures by not actually giving the students the words. They have to find them from their own memories or from their peers.

c. Around the house

The following activity expands the concept to include word fields i.e. areas where a number of words group together. The activity uses the 'mind map' technique to help students to put a list of words into different groups.

d. Ways of moving

For students who are just approaching the intermediate level- the new words are given in texts first. This discovery activity is made usable because students had a chance to see the words in context. At their post-elementary level they would probably not know the words already so the text provides the information on which they can base their deductions- and, therefore, fill in the chart correctly.

e. Suffixes and prefixes

Students need to know about word formation. This exercise is designed to make them aware of how suffixes and prefixes work.

Once again the point here is that students are being asked to interact with the words and work things out for themselves. Because this is an activity for upper intermediate students they can probably do so.

f. Fear

Understanding how words relate to each also involves understanding which words are weaker or stronger than others. In this activity at upper intermediate level students are being prepared to read a short story by Janet Frame called *You are Now Entering the Human Heart*. The materials designer takes the

opportunity to do a quick discovery activity on words associated with 'fear' – a major theme of the story.[17]

There are many ways to develop the vocabularies. In addition, as the teacher must have many ways also to make the students enjoy increasing their vocabulary list. In a big assignment, as the university students do not only memorizing the words in many scopes, but also they must learn the word formation. It is important because their level is already high. They must understand how the words work.

C. Morphological awareness and vocabulary mastery

In norah sultan al salamah's research; as discussed earlier, there are three methods for learning vocabulary. Morphological awareness is defined as the recognition of the different parts forming a word. According to August, Carlo, Dressler, and Snow, many studies have focused on vocabulary and its essential role in reading comprehension, and consequently in maximizing vocabulary size. A study conducted by Anglin showed that between the first and the fifth grade, children learn new words by applying their knowledge of prefixes and suffixes at more than three times the rate at which they learn new root words. There are two reasons behind this enormous difference in the rate of growth in these two categories of morphemes. The first reason is the types of reading materials these students are exposed to. Indeed, as students get older, their reading skills develop and they encounter more texts containing larger numbers of low frequency words. The second reason is that they become more aware of the internal structure of complex words. Angling reported that

[17] Jeremy harmer, *The Practice of English Language Teaching(*New York : Longman, 1991) page 161-168

the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and morphological awareness around the fourth grade could be attributed to the learners' knowledge of derived words and their use of morphological problem solving between first and fifth grade. Another way that morphological awareness may lead to comprehension, which eventually will increase vocabulary size, is by facilitating the process of breaking down morphologically complex words. When encountering morphologically complex words in the text, students apply their morphological knowledge to break down the complex words into meaningful morphemes as a way to better understand the word meaning. Nagy, Berninger, and Abbott stated that by eighth and ninth grade, students have gained a significant amount of vocabulary, and their reading comprehension has developed due to their ability to decode morphologically complex words.

The studies reviewed here have focused on morphological awareness and its contribution to increasing vocabulary size. One of the biggest goals for ESL/EFL is to acquire an adequate vocabulary size. Nation believes that categorizing the word based on their frequency levels and focusing on learning the high frequency words first will facilitate the process of vocabulary acquisition. Many studies have investigated the relationship between vocabulary knowledge, reading comprehension, and text coverage. Hu and Nation concluded that vocabulary knowledge contributes to reading comprehension, and reading comprehension increases the level of vocabulary knowledge. They also believe that knowing high frequency words will facilitate text comprehension, because they provide a high level of text coverage. Another relationship that was discussed earlier was the relationship between morphological awareness, text comprehension, and vocabulary size. In the next chapter, a methodology for investigating the relationship between vocabulary size and

morphological awareness will be presented with detailed information about the participants and the research instrument.[18]

Norah Al Salamah had proven that indeed there was relationship between morphological awareness and vocabulary mastery in English learner at the Arab Saudi. Through inflectional and derivational morphology, the person can increase their vocabulary. In her research, to prove it by testing the students' reading text can improve their vocabulary to have good reading comprehension by applying morphological knowledge of word complex. Now, it is time to prove that research in Indonesia, especially at STAIN KEDIRI.

[18] Ibid 17-19