The Performance of Iraqi EFL University Learners in Using English Compound Adjectives

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Abstract

This study is mainly concerned with English compound adjectives as one of the common and essential processes in the English grammar on the one hand, and as a problematic area for English foreign language learners on the other hand.

This study aims at (1) Presenting a material about compound adjectives which can be of help to distinguish those types of words. (2) Investigating the ability of Iraqi EFL Learners to use compound adjectives at the recognition and the production levels. (3) Discovering the types and causes of errors which Iraqi EFL university learners commit in the use of compound adjectives.

To achieve the two goals mentioned above the study hypothesizes that: (1) Iraqi EFL learners encounter difficulties in using compound adjectives due to various factors. The first factor includes the difficulties which are inherent in the nature of the English system which is different from the Arabic system. The second factor relates to the processes of interference (or transfer) and overgeneralization. (2) Such learners are unable to produce compound adjectives properly and use them effectively in communication. (3) Interlingual transfer is one of the communication strategies that has greater influence on recognizing and producing compound adjectives than other strategies such as intralingual transfer context of learning... etc.

These hypotheses have been verified through adopting a diagnostic test of three questions. The test has been applied to a sample of 100 Iraqi EFL university learners at their fourth year from Departments of English, Colleges of Education for Human Sciences, Universities of Babylon, during the academic year 2013 – 2014. Then the subjects’ responses have been collected and analyzed to draw the findings of this study. The analysis gives the following results:

1- Iraqi EFL university learners face difficulties in recognizing and producing compound adjectives as the highest rate of their responses is incorrect (1475,59%); but they face more difficulties at the production level as the rate of their correct responses (39.35%) is lower than that of their correct responses (42.64%) at the recognition level.

2- The subjects’ errors are attributed to the following factors:
   a. Intralingual transfer accounts for (565,78.30%) of all the subjects' errors.
   b. The second – highest rate of error cause is communication strategy which is (432,29.29%) of all the subjects' errors.
   c. The rate of errors pertaining to context of learning is (17.97%) of all the subjects' errors.
   d. Interlingual transfer has been found to be responsible for only (14.44%) of all the subjects' errors.

3- Some of errors are due to the student's lack knowledge of the English compound adjectives since they are not aware of their different types.
The process of linking two words in English constitutes a considerable problem in the Iraqi students' understanding at university level. The major problem can be embodied in the following statement: "compound words have different meanings and uses (Quirk, et al., 1985:633-634).

Iraqi EFL learners may lack knowledge about compound adjectives especially their

1.1 The Problem
forms since such words can be formed by combining of different lexical categories:

For examples:

a- Noun + Noun:

{1} coffee-table, part-time

b- Adjective + Adjective:

{2}deep-blue, red-hot
c- Noun + Adjective:

{3}post-free, ice-blue
d- Adjective + Noun:

{4}deep-sea, blackbird
e- Past participle + preposition:

{5}cast-off, made-up

f- Verb + Particle:

{6}see-through, tow-away
g- Adjective + present participle:

{7}good-looking, long-lasting

Thus, Iraqi EFL university learners encounter difficulties in using compound adjectives since the use of them is complex. They face difficulty whether compound adjective are hyphenated or not.

Kavčič (2004:11) mentions that "Whenever we come across a compound it may become a problem of how to write it down; should we hyphenate it or not?".

Consequently, English has three forms of spelling compounds:

a- The open form, which does not involve hyphens and thus leaves words separate:

{8} nicely done job.

b- The hyphenated form connects words with hyphens:

{9} high-school teacher.

c- The closed/solid form, which compounds elements to form a single word with no hyphens or spaces between them:

{10} housekeeping problems.

It is noted that compound adjectives, like normal adjectives, modify noun phrases. Grammatically, there is no difference between hot metal and white-hot metal – the latter is a compound adjective because it is made of two words used in conjunction.

Moreover, not all sequences of adjectives (or other types of words) modifying a noun phrase are necessarily parts of one or more compound adjectives. White-hot metal and white hot metal refer to different things: in the first, white modifies hot which modifies metal – it is this layering of modification that calls for the hyphenation in order to clarify the meaning, that the metal mentioned is very hot. In the second example, however, white and hot separately modify the noun – if one were to be removed, the other's relationship with the noun would be unchanged (Wikipedia, 2011: 1).

Thus, Iraqi EFL university learners misuse of some compound adjectives as these compounds should be hyphenated, or they can get a sentence that doesn’t say what they meant it to say.

This study tries to examine compound adjectives in order to find out to what extent the Iraqi students face difficulty in recognizing and producing these words.

1.2 Aims of the Study
The present study aims at:

1. Presenting a material about compound adjectives which can be of help to distinguish those types of words.

2. Investigating the ability of Iraqi EFL learners to use compound adjectives at the
recognition and the production levels.

3. Discovering the types and causes of errors which Iraqi EFL university learners commit in the use of compound adjectives.

1.3 The Hypotheses

1. Iraqi EFL learners encounter difficulties in using compound adjectives due to various factors. The first factor includes the difficulties which are inherent in the nature of the English system which is different from the Arabic system. The second factor relates to the processes of interference (or transfer) and overgeneralization.

2. Such learners are unable to produce compound adjectives properly and use them effectively in communication.

3- Interlingual transfer is one of the communication strategies that has greater influence on recognizing and producing compound adjectives than other strategies such as intralingual transfer, context of learning... etc.

1.4 Procedures

The procedures followed in carrying out the research include:

1. Establishing a theoretical background to the grammatical aspect under investigation by stating the types of compound adjectives.

2. Conducting a diagnostic test to assess how well Iraqi EFL learners are able to identify and produce compound adjectives.

3. Analyzing testees’ responses in terms of interlingual and intralingual and developmental processes to relate these responses to their possible causes.

4. Drawing conclusions based on the results obtained and suggesting pedagogical implications which might be useful in remedying the difficulties encountered in this grammatical area.

1.5 Limits of the Study

This study is confined to university learners at their fourth year in the Department of English, College of Education for Human sciences, University of Babylon during the academic year (2012-2013). The fourth year students have been chosen to apply the test, as they are supposedly the most advanced and qualified learners in the area of the study at the university level.

1.6 Values

This study is hoped to be valuable in providing pedagogical insights to those specialized in foreign language teaching and learning such as syllabus designers, learners, testers, textbook writers and teachers. It could also be useful for learners themselves since the study highlights the problematic spots they could find in the grammatical area concerned by relating the learner's erroneous responses to the possible reasons behind them.

2. English Compounds

Compounding is one of the branches of morphology, which deals with word-formation. A compound is a word that consists of two elements, the first of which is either a root, a word, a phrase, the second of which is either a root or a word ”(Plag, 2003:135).

Compounds contrast with phrases which consist of two or more words that grammatically related: a large card, beautiful pictures. The distinction between postcard and large card can be seen conceptually. Post card is a word that we expect to find in a dictionary because it is the name of the object; large and card refer to separate concepts and would not appear as one entry in a dictionary, since large independently ascribes a descriptive feature to innumerable objects (Greenbaum, 1996: 458).
Moreover, the stress pattern of the compound word is usually different from the stress pattern in the phrase composed of the same words in the same order. In the compounds the main stress is on the first word; in the phrases the main stress is on the last word. Compare:

**compound** | **phrase**
--- | ---
\{11\}'white House | white 'house
't'funny farm | funny 'farm
'b'blackbird | black 'bird
't'flatcar | flat 'car

Delahunty & Garvey (2010:132)

According to the Wikipedia (2012:2), compound is a word composed of more than one free morpheme. Compounds may be classified into various ways, such as the word classes or the semantic relationship of their components. Bauer (1984:30), Greenbaum (1996:458) and Wikipedia (2012:2) classify compounds according to the word classes as in the following table:

| Table (1) Shows the Classification of Compounds according to Word Classes |
|---|---|
| **Word Classes** | **Examples** |
| Nouns | pop group, whistle-blower, date-rape |
| Adjectives | class-ridden, heart-breaking, homesick |
| Verbs | babysit, dry-clean, cold-shoulder |
| Adverbs | good-naturally, however, nowadays |
| Pronouns | anyone, everything, nobody |
| Numerals | sixty–three, nine-tenths |
| Prepositions | as far, because of, next to |
| Semi-auxiliaries | be going to, had better, have got to |
| Conjunctions | except that, rather than, whenever |

Greenbaum (1996: 458)

An alternative approach is to classify compounds in terms of the semantic relationship between the compound and its head. The head of a compound is the constituent modified by the compound’s other constituents. In English, heads of compounds are typically the rightmost constituent (excluding any derivational and inflectional suffixes). For example, in traffic-cop the head is cop, which is modified by traffic; in line-backer the head is backer, which is modified by line (Delahunty and Garvey, 2010:135).

Linguists distinguish at least three different semantic relations between the head and modifier(s) of compounds:

1. **Endocentric Compounds**

   The compound represents a subtype of whatever the head represents. For instance, a traffic-cop is a kind of cop; a teapot is a kind of pot; a fog-lamp is a kind of lamp; a blue-jay is a kind of jay. That is, the head names the type, and the compound names the subtype. Endocentric compounds have one head only and are the most common compounds in English (Kavčič, 2004:4).

2. **Exocentric Compounds (Possessive Compounds)**

   The meaning of the exocentric compound cannot be derived from the rule applied to endocentric compounds - e.g. a redneck isn’t a type of neck. Such compounds are called exocentric. They lack a syntactic head element:

   \{12\}\ a- lazybones → a lazy person

   \_b-\ doughnut → a small ring-shaped fried cake. (Ibid:6)

3. **Coordinative Compounds (appositional compounds)**
Copulative compounds or coordinative compounds are words consisting of two elements having a coordinate relationship as if connected by 'and'. The elements share an equal status. There are compounds in which both elements are heads; each contributes equally to the meaning of the whole and neither is subordinate to the other, for instance, bitter-sweet. Compounds like these can be paraphrased as both X and Y, e.g., “bitter and sweet.” Other examples include teacher-researcher and producer-director.

Moreover, English has three spellings for compounds:

a. An open compound means that the words of the compound are written separately: paper knife. The open or spaced form consisting of newer combinations of usually longer words, such as distance learning, player piano, lawn tennis, etc.

b. A hyphenated compound separates the words by hyphen(s): paper-knife. Compounds that contain affixes, such as house-build(er) and single-mind(ed)(ness), as well as adjective-adjective compounds and verb-verb compounds, such as blue-green and freeze-dried, are often hyphenated.

c. A "solid" or "closed" compound is formed when the two words are written as one word: paperknife. Examples are housewife, lawsuit, wallpaper, basketball, etc. Wikipedia (2012:2)

It is worth mentioned that English has primary and secondary compounds which can be formed in a variety of ways. In a primary compound, two bases (roots) from Greek or Latin are joined together. The meaning of a primary compound can be generally understood from the meaning of its parts. Some Greek and Latin prefixes are: anti-, bi-, counter-, dis-, ex-, extra-, hyper-, hypo-, in-, inter-, intra-, intro-, mal-, mis-, mono-, multi-, post-, pre-, pro-, re-, semi-, sub-, super-, syn-, trans-, tri-, ultra-, uni-, vice-. Some Greek bases (roots) are: auto-, chrono-, demo-, derma-, dynamo-, geo-, graph-, homo-, mega-, micro-, morpho-, neo-, neuro-, ortho-, photo-, poly-, psych-, scope, tele-, therm-, zoo-. Some Latin roots are: equ-, aqua, cent-, civi-, dentis, donatus, duo, duplicare, fortis, lingua, magnus, mille, similis.

On the other hand, English secondary compounds are formed in several ways: (i) two nouns, (ii) a verb followed by a noun, (iii) a noun followed by a verb, (iv) a verb and a preposition, (v) an adjective and a noun. Compound nouns are the most common, whereas verb compounds are not quite so common (Amer, 2012:4).

2.1 Compound Adjectives

A compound adjective is "a lexical unit consisting of more one base function both grammatically and semantically as a single word" (Quirk et al. 19 85:1567). It is also defined as "single adjective made up of two or more words". Compound adjectives need to be formed when we use two or more adjectives that need to be used together to modify the noun. The words in a compound adjective are linked together by a hyphen (or hyphens) to show that they are part of the same adjective.

According to Wikipedia (2012:4), a compound adjective is a sequence of modifiers of a noun that function as a single unit. It consists of two or more words (adjectives, gerunds, or nouns) of which the left-hand component modifies the right-hand one, as in "the dark-green dress": dark modifies the green that modifies dress.

Compound adjectives are regarded as productive features of English which means that use is not so restricted as it is in many categories of grammar. New combinations are always possible. For example, brightly-patterned curtains illustrates the productive nature of this combination, as would brightly-shining stars. There are sometimes many possible combinations and they are very common, e.g. broad-minded, narrow-minded, absent-minded, strong-minded, as well as open-minded. It is partly a matter of knowing which adjectives or adverbs collocate or go with which
particiles and nouns. We have brightly-lit streets, but also brightly-coloured dresses or swimsuits or sweets.

It is worth mentioned that compound adjectives may be qualitative, classifying, or colour adjectives:

\{13\} a- absent-minded ← qualitative adjectives  
  b- present-day ← classifying adjectives  
  c- snow-white ← colour adjectives Collins Cobuild (1998:345)

2.1.1 Hyphenated compound Adjectives

A compound adjective is formed when two or more adjectives work together to modify the same noun. These terms should be hyphenated to avoid confusion or ambiguity. Usually, hyphens are used to link the words together to show that it is one adjective (Wikepedia, 2012:5).

Kavčič (2004:11) states that "whenever we come across a compound it may become a problem of how to write it down; should we hyphenate it or not?". English has three forms of spelling compounds: the open form, which does not involve hyphens and thus leaves words separate. It is the most common of three forms; the hyphenated form connects words with hyphens ; and The closed / solid form, which compounds elements to form a single word with no hyphens or spaces between them (See 1.1).

Compound adjectives are generally hyphenated to avoid confusion:

\{14\} a- high-school teacher  
  b- video-game industry

Moreover, the hyphen helps the reader to differentiate a compound adjectives from two adjacent modifies that modify the noun independently. Compare the following exemples:

\{15\} a-"small appliance industry": a small industry producing appliances  
  b-"small-appliance industry": an industry producing small appliances (Wikepedia, 2012:5).

For more illustration, the writer classifies compound adjectives into two groups:

\textbf{A- Compound adjectives are always hyphenated when they are not written as one word:}

1- An adjective preceding a noun to which -d or -ed has been added as a past-participle construction, used before a noun:

\{16\} a -middle-aged lady  
  b-rose-tinted glasses  
  c-old-fashioned love song

2- A noun, adjective, or adverb preceding a present participle:

\{17\} a - a long-lasting affair  
  b - a far-reaching decision

3 - Numbers, whether or not spelled:

\{18\} a -seven-year itch  
  b -five-sided polygon  
  c-20th-century poem  
  d-twenty-first-century war

4- A numeral with the affix -fold has a hyphen (15-fold), but when spelled out takes a solid construction (fifteenfold).

5- Numbers, spelled out or not, with added -odd: sixteen-odd, 70-odd.

6- Compound adjectives with high- or low-:

\{19\} a -high-level discussion  
  b-low-price mark up".
7- Colours in compounds:
   a - a dark-blue sweater
   b- a reddish-orange dress
   c- dark-brown eyes
   d- a red-gold sunset

8- Fractions as modifiers are hyphenated:
   -five-eighths inches

9- Comparatives and superlatives in compound adjectives also take hyphens:
   a- the highest-placed competitor
   b- a shorter-term loan
   c- best-known one

10- Compound adjectives formed with high- or low- are generally hyphenated:
   low-budget films

11- Compound adjectives formed with an adverb plus an adjective or a particle are often hyphenated when they occur as modifiers.

12- Compound adjectives formed with a noun, adjective, or adverb and a present participle are hyphenated when they occur as modifiers:
   never-ending story

13-compound adjectives formed of capitalized words, unless they are in apposition:
   a - Old English poetry
   b - African-Americans

14- Compounds including two geographical modifiers:
   Afro-Cuban, African-American, Anglo-Indian

B- Compound adjectives are not normally hyphenated:
   i- Left-hand components of a Compound adjectives that end in -ly and that modify right-hand components that are past participles ending in -ed:
   nicely done job
   a greatly improved scheme
   a distantly related celebrity
   ii- Compound adjectives that include comparatives and superlatives with more, most, less or least:
   a- a more recent development
   the most respected member
   less opportune moment
   the most respected
   iii- Ordinarily hyphenated compounds with intensive adverbs in front of adjectives
   very much admired classicist
   really well accepted proposal

2.1.2 The Formation of Compound Adjectives

There are different classifications of compound adjectives. Quirk & Greenbaum (1992:447) classify compound adjectives into three groups:

A -Verb + object compounds
   • N + -ing participle : man–eating X eats men
B- verb and adverbial compounds
   • N + -ing participle: ocean-going X goes across oceans
   • N + -ed participle: heartfelt X feels it in the heart
   • Adj / adv + -ing participle : hard-working X works hard
   • Adj / adv + -ed participle : quick-frozen X is frozen quickly
C- Verbles Compound

- N + adj : class-conscious...(is conscious with respect to class)
- N + adj : grass-green (is green like grass)
- Adj + adj : bitter-sweet

 Consequently, compound adjectives can consist of an adjective or an adverb or a noun and either a present or past participles {31}. Compound with present participles are often based on active verbs {32}. Whereas, compound with past participles are often based on passive verbs {33}. There are some compound adjective which consist of combination of adjectives and nouns {34} or adverbs and adjectives {35}:

{31}a- I'm in slow-moving traffic.
 b- Was it a well-planned trip?
{32} - 'Modern Maids' is the name of a house-cleaning service.
{33} - I'd really like a home-cooked meal for a change.
{34} a- He likes fast-food restaurant
 b- Let's try to get front-row seats.
 c- Do you have a full-time job?
{35} a- Abortion is a highly-sensitive issue.
 b- There are a lot of politically-independent voters. Yule (2006:114)

Moreover, Greenbaum (1996:463) mentions that the grammatical relationships between the segments of compound adjectives can be explained in grammatical terms. A segment may be a noun, a verb, or a word derived from a verb, or an adjective. The relationship, for example may be that of:

a- Object + Verb : English-speaking (speaks English), germ-resistant, soul-destroying
b- Place / time / cause + Verb : far-reaching (reaches far), home-made (made at home), frost-bitten (bitten by frost)
c- Noun + Adjective:

1 - 'A is B': footsore (the foot is sore), heart-sick, top-heavy
2 - 'as B as A': dirt-cheap (as cheap as dirt), jet-black, paper-thin
3 - 'B in respect of A': camera-shy (shy in respect of camera), colour-blind, power-mad
4 - 'A and B': aural-oral, bitter-sweet, deaf-mute (this compound implies a coordination relationship) {36}

Oostdijk (2012:122) divides compound adjectives into simple and complex compounds (i.e. multi-word). Compounds combining more than two words are complex compounds. Examples of complexcompound adjectives are:

{36} easy-to-grasp, fun-to-wear, red-and-white-striped, suddenly-made-redundant, and very-low-fat.

On the other hand, simple compounds are compounds of combining two words, nearly all of which are hyphenated. The simple compound adjectives fall into five main groups:

**Group 1** comprises compound adjectives that take an adjective base as head and some other word class as first part. The adjective base is either a base adjective or an adjective arrived at by way of derivation. The head typically combines with a noun, numeral or an adverb:

{37} cabinet-wide, four-dimensional, climate-relevant, overly-sensitive, still-resident, then-arthritis.

**Group 2** is formed by compound adjectives that are formed by combining two adjective bases:

{38} cognitive-affective, classical-scholar, chemical-physical,
electric-caustic, Egyptian-Syrian

Group 3 comprises compound adjectives that are headed by adjective bases that have been arrived at through conversion. One subgroup consists of items where the head combines with a noun, adjective or adverb, for examples:

- panic-driven, fresh-caught, money-generating, posh-looking,
- duly-authorized, forever changing, agreed-upon, signed-off, trimmed-down, turning-away, coming-down

Group 4 is made up of derivational compounds. The head of the compound is always a noun which is combined with an adjective, a noun or a numeral. To the combination the adjectival suffix -ed is added, giving the resulting word its adjectival status:

- sunken-cheeked, missing-toothed, bare-fisted, single-platformed,
- metal-cased, leopard-sized, four-cornered, six-fingered

Group 5 comprises compounds that are considered to be adjectives but are more peripheral to the class of adjectives than items falling within any of the other groups above. They are headed by a noun which is preceded by an adjective or a numeral:

- close-attack, big-league, four-sensor, sixteen-page Oostdijk (2012:122)

The most common patterns for forming compound adjectives are:

1- **noun + past participle**:  
   - computer-related, hand wrought, shop-soiled, tongue-tied, sun-dried,

2- **Noun + Adjective**:  
   - a-post-free, ice-blue, trouble-free, lead-free, world-famous
   - a world–famous singer

3- **Noun + Noun**:  
   - a part–time job,
   - Claire worked as a part-time keeper at the safari park.

4- **Adjective + Adjective**:  
   - deep-blue, red-hot, bitter-sweet, sweet-sour, clever-stupid,
   - German-French, grey-green, red-blue
   - Oostdijk (2012:123)

5- **Adjective + Noun**:  
   - blackbird, busy-day, curly-hair, friendly people, full-length , lonely house, lovely person
   - a last minute solution
   - deep–sea diving

6- **Adjective + past participle / (Noun – ed)**  
   - Absent–minded, big–headed, cold–blooded ,
   - left-handed, quick–witted, thick–skinned
   - a short-sighted man, along – haired lady

7- **Adjective + present participle / (Verb – ing)**  
   - Easy-going, good–looking, far-reaching,
   - free-standing, long-lasting
   - a good–looking boy
   - a free-standing tower

8- **Adverb + past / present participle / (Noun –ed)**:  
   - hard-wearing, never-ending , ever–lasting, well- known
   - a well-liked President
   - the well-written essay,
   - a deeply-rooted beliefs
   - the dimly- / brightly -lit streets

9- **Adverb + Adjective**:  
   - almost helpless, extremely painful , quite fiercely
b- rather selfish, very excited . so grateful  
c- Young Tracey is an extremely brave girl.  
d- It was a beautifully painted portrait in a skilfully carved frame.

10- Past participle + Preposition  
   {50} cast-off, made-up  

11- Number + singular countable Noun:  
   {51} a- five-door, five passenger . Kavčič ( 2004:10)  
   b- a four-foot table, a 6-page document  

12- Number + noun+ adjective:  
   {52} eleven-man team, one-eyed, one-layered disk, six-sided, three-legged stool  

13- Place + Noun / adjective:  
   {53} Farm-fresh, Indian Bazaar, housewife, home-made  

14- Time & Space compounds  
   {54} knee-deep, day-long, citywide, waist-high, week-old  

15- Verb + Noun  
   {55} cut-throat, cut-rate, daredevil, breakneck, push-button, tell-tale, catch-penny  
Oostdijk (2012: 122)  

16- Particle + Noun:  
   {56} in-store, off-shore, in-depth, off-duty, in-vitro, afterhours, outdoor, cross-country, off-colour  

17- Verb + Particle:  
   {57} a- built-in wardrobes  
   b- see-through dress  
   c- live-in nanny  
   d- Laid-back, broken-down  
   Conti (2004:115)  

18- Particle + Verb  
   {58} incoming, outgoing, upcoming, overflowing, overacting, downcast  

19- Particle + Particle:  
   {59} incoming, in-grown,  

20- Verb + Verb  
   {60} Go-go, make-believe. Oostdijk (2012: 122)  

21- Proper Noun + Proper Noun  
   Often adjectives are formed from proper nouns (i.e., the names of things), which should be written using capital letters. In these circumstances, there is no need to group the words together using hyphens.  
Examples:  
{61} Did you manage to get the Billy Elliot tickets?  
(The words 'Billy Elliot' are one adjective describing the tickets.  

3. Data Analysis  
   This section is devoted to presenting the results of the subjects' performance on each question of the test. In fact, these results are of great importance because they will be the basis upon which the researcher's hypotheses will either be verified or refuted.  

3.1 Subjects' Performance of the First Question  
   In an attempt to improve the validity of the first hypothesis which is mentioned in section (1.3). Question One is used to test the subjects' performance at the recognition level. The results of this question are presented in the following table:  

Table (2) Subjects' Performance at the Recognition Level in Question (1)

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<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>42</td>
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<td>62</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57.36</td>
<td>717</td>
<td>42.64</td>
<td>533</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results in Table (2) indicate that the total number and the percentage of the correct responses are (533, 42.64%), whereas those of the incorrect ones (including avoided items) are (717, 57.36%). The rate of incorrect responses reveals that the subjects are incompetence in using English compound adjectives.

3.2 Subjects' Performance of the Second Question

The results obtained after analyzing the students' responses on each item in question two are presented in the following table:

Table (3) Subjects' Performance at the Production Level in Question (2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>%</th>
<th>No. of incorrect responses</th>
<th>No. of correct responses</th>
<th>No. of Item</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>No. of incorrect responses</th>
<th>No. of correct responses</th>
<th>No. of Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>68</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>76</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>74</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>72</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60.7</td>
<td>455</td>
<td>39.3</td>
<td>295</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It can be concluded from the result presented in Table (3) that most of the subjects are incompetent in distinguishing some compound adjectives since the total number of their incorrect responses (455, 60.7 %), is higher than that of their correct ones which constitutes (295, 39.3 %).
3.3 Subjects' Performance of the Third Question

The results obtained after analyzing the students' responses on each item in question three are presented in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of correct responses</th>
<th>No. of incorrect responses</th>
<th>Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>303</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results presented in Table (4) show that most of the subjects are failed in using compound adjectives since the total number of their incorrect responses (303, 60.6 %), is higher than that of their correct ones which constitutes (197, 39.4 %).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of incorrect responses</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>No. of correct responses</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>455</td>
<td>39.3</td>
<td>295</td>
<td>492</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>303</td>
<td>39.3</td>
<td>197</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>758</td>
<td>39.35</td>
<td>492</td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is obvious that the subjects' productive knowledge is low since most of their responses are incorrect (758, 60.65%) as compared with their correct ones (492, 39.35%). These results verify the second hypothesis of this study which states that Iraqi EFL learners are unable to produce compound adjectives properly and use them effectively in communication.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of incorrect responses</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>No. of correct responses</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>717</td>
<td>42.64</td>
<td>533</td>
<td></td>
<td>Recognition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>758</td>
<td>39.35</td>
<td>492</td>
<td></td>
<td>Production</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1475</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>1025</td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table (6), the highest rate of the subjects' incorrect responses (including avoided items) are (12475, 64.59%) as compared with their correct ones (1025, 41%). This means that Iraqi EFL university learners face difficulties in mastering compound adjectives at both levels: recognition and production. Nevertheless, they face more difficulty at the production level since the total number of their correct responses (492, 39.35%) is lower than that of their correct responses at the recognition level (533, 42.654%). These results show that Iraqi EFL University learners encounter difficulties in using compound adjectives.
4. Errors Analysis

Error analysis is a technique for identifying, classifying and systematically interpreting the unacceptable forms produced by someone learning a foreign language, using any of the principles and procedures by linguistics Crystal (1978: 112) and Richards et.al (1992:96) state that error analysis is the study of errors made by the second and foreign language learners. Error analysis may be carried out in order to (a) find out how well someone knows a language, (b) find out how a person learns a language, and (c) obtain information on common difficulties in language learning as an aid in teaching or in the preparation of teaching materials.

Finally, errors are significant in three ways: to the teacher: they show a students' progress - to the researcher: they show how a language is acquired, what strategies the learner uses - to the learner: he can learn from these errors.

4.1 Source of Errors

There are different views regarding to the types of errors. Ellis (1984: 51) differentiates two main types: interlingual and intralingual. Interlingual errors are caused by the structure of the native language (first language). The learners of a foreign language use their knowledge of first language in learning the second language (second language). Such errors depend on linguistic differences between the first language and the second language are interpreted as interference errors. Intralingual errors are caused by the structure of second language.

Brown (1987:177–8) distinguishes four factors regarding to learners' errors: interlingual transfer, intralingual transfer, context of learning and communication strategies:

4.1 Interlingual Error

Interlingual transfer refers to errors analysis which deals with the differences and similarities between the native language of the learner and the target language. Errors are attributed to the influence of the first language on the second language. These errors occur when the patterns of the first language differ from those of the second language. They are also called interference errors (Dulay and Burt, 1984: 138). Ellis (1984:48) states that interlingual errors result from the negative influence of the mother tongue. The learners face difficulty in producing grammatical sentences. Thus, they try to use the rules of their native language on the target language. Some of the subjects' responses to items (2, 3, 5,11 and 25) in Question One may reflect this strategy:

Item (2) *witted- quick
Item (3) *producing-time
Item (5) *consuming-oil
Item (11) *sighted-short
Item (25) *behaved-badly

Also, some of the subjects' responses in items (1,2,3,5,11 and 14) in Question Two and items (2, 3 and10) in Question Three may reflect this strategy in which the subjects try to use the rules of their first language on the second language:

Q.2
Item (1) *made-home
Item (2) *distance-long
Item (3) *keeping-peace
Item (5) *educated-well
Item (11) *mannered-well
Item (14) *new-brand
Q.3
Item (2) *cottage covered -snow
Item (3) *price – car highly
Item (10) *last- long war

Accordingly, translation may lead to the first language interference in which the learner can transfer forms from his first language into the second language. As a result, when the students are not sure which words to use in a certain sentence, they often compare that sentences with Arabic equivalence, giving a literal translation of that Arabic words in English. Items (1, 2, 5 and 10) in Question Two reflect this strategy:

Item (1)* made home
Item (2)*distance long
Item (5)*educated well
Item (10)*food fast

These errors are due to the mother tongue interference since the above sentences are literarily translated from Arabic.
The total number of errors that belong to this strategy is (213,14.44%).

4.2 Intralingual Errors
Intralingual errors result from a complex structure of the target language itself. They occur within the second language itself as a result of misinterpreting its grammatical rules. Such errors occur at both levels: recognition and production. Taylor (1975: 394) states that intralingual errors increase as the learners progress in foreign language learning as they use their prior knowledge of this language to ease the burden of learning. Such errors can be attributed to the following factors:

a- Overgeneralization
Overgeneralization refers to the incorrect application of the previous learned material to a present foreign language context (Ellis, 1984: 171). The subjects try to overgeneralize a pattern that leads to irregularity of the structure in English language. The influence of this strategy can be seen in items (6,7,10,11,16, and 17) in Question One:

Item (6) * two-tongue
Item (7) *smooth-faced
Item (10) *big-haired
Item (11) *short-looking
Item (16) * deeply-fashioned
Item (17) *old-rooted

In the errors above, the subjects use words in unacceptable compound adjectives.
Also, the influence of this strategy can be seen items (2,3,5 and 13) in Question Two:

Item (2) *longing-distance
Item (3) *keeping-peace
Item (5) *educated-well
Item (13) *hearted-kind

b- Ignorance of rule restrictions
In this case, the learners apply a rule to a category which is incorrect that leads to errors committing. The influence of such errors can be noticed in items (4,6,10,12,19, and 22) in Question One in which the subjects use compound adjectives wrongly:

Item (4)*absent-rooted
Item (6)*two-handed
Item (10)*big-handed
Item (12)*good-known
Item (19)*long-lit
Item (22) *four-prices

Also, items (3, 4, 6 and 7) in Question Two and, items (2,7,8 and 9) in Question Three can reflect this strategy:

Q.2
Item (3)*peace-kept
Item (4)*never-ended
Item (6)*funny-looked
Item (7)*washing-white

Q.3
Item (2) *covered-snow cottage
Item (7) *well-cooking meal
Item (8) * many-legs insect
Item (9) *left-hands player

C- False concepts hypothesis
This kind of errors may result from faulty comprehension of any distinction in the target language (Ellis, 1984, 171). It is a well-observed phenomenon in the field of second language (Richards, 1984: 178). The learners try to adopt the wrong hypothesis or build rule about the second language. These errors can be seen in items (3,6, 7,11,19 and 25) in Question One in which the subjects match compound adjectives incorrectly:

Item (3) *time-going
Item (6) *oil-producing
Item (7) *smooth-handed
Item (11) *short-haired
Item(19) *long-saving
Item(25) *badly-producing

Also, errors of this strategy can be seen in items (1, 2, 7, and 10) in Question Two in which the subjects use wrong compound adjectives instead of the correct ones:

Item (1) *making-home
Item (2) *longed-distance
Item (7) *washed-white
Item (10) *fasted-fooding

D- Incomplete application of rules
According to this strategy, the learners fail to apply complex rules since they are complex and hard in learning and use. Instead, they tend to use simple constructions to achieve effective communication.

This type of intralingual transfer is found in items (1, 3, 10, and 19) in Question One. The subjects use word in more than one place since it is easier for them to use this word than the right complex one:

Item (1) *easy-witted,*easy-breaking, *easy-saving,*easy-consuming
Item (3) *time-going,*time-consuming,*time-ending,*time-saving
Item (10) *big-faced,*big-minded,*big-tongue, *big-haired
Item (19) *long-producing,*long-rooted,*long-known,*long-looking

Finally, the total number of errors that are possibly due to the intralingual transfer is (565,38.30%).

4.3 Context of Learning
The word “context” refers to the classroom with its teacher and its material. Thus this source overlaps with both types of the previously mentioned factors, i.e.,
interlingual and intralingual transfer. There is a logical relationship between what goes on in the classroom and the preparation of syllabuses and teaching material. The ease or difficulty of learning is not simply related to the nature of the task but has components of motivation, intelligence, aptitude and quality of teachers and teaching materials (Corder, 1973:140).

These are also called induced-errors. They result more from the classroom situation than from either the student’s incomplete competence in English grammar (intralingual errors) or first language interference (interlingual errors) (Stenson, 1983: 256). Stenson (ibid.) offers five subcategories for this source of error: (1) Material induced errors, (2) Teacher-talk induced errors, (3) Exercise-based induced errors, (4) Errors induced by pedagogical priorities, and (5) Look-up errors.

On the other hand, Richards (1984:178) mentions that errors may come from the influence of the situation of learning (the classroom), the misleading explanation by the teacher, or the textbook writer who emphasizes some aspects of the target language and others, according to his beliefs and experiences. All these factors may have the undesired effect of motivating the learner to make faulty hypotheses about language.

The errors of this type may be attributed to textbook where many compound words are presented at the same time with insufficient explanation of each type of compound words. This may make students unable to recognize compound adjectives from other compound words or classroom presentation in which learners have no chance to practice enough exercises.

Errors of this strategy can be seen in items (4, 7, 10, and 18) in Question One:

Item (4)*absent-sighted
Item (7) * smooth-haired
Item (10) * big-foot
Item (18) * brightly-looking

The errors above have resulted from the little exposure of some compound adjectives. The subjects ignore most of such words.

The influence of the context of learning can also be seen in items (1, 3, 6, 8, and 14) in Question Two and items (1, 3, 8 and 10) in Question Three:

Q.2
Item (1) * home-making
Item (3) * keeping-peace
Item (6) * looking-funny
Item (8) * blood-cold
Item (14) * new-brand

Q.3
Item(1) * ten years the farmer – old pony
Item(3)* car highly-price
Item(8)* insect- many legs
Item(10)* war long-lasting

The total number of such errors is (265,17,97%).

4.4 Communication Strategies

Communicative strategies are devices (such as approximation, word coinage, omission, avoidance, etc.) that are exploited by the learner to overcome communication problems related to interlanguage deficiencies (Corder, 1981: 103-6). They involve the conscious employment of verbal or non-verbal mechanisms for communicating an idea when precise linguistic forms are not available to the learner at that point in communication. James (1998: 178) divides this category into two
types: (i) holistic strategies (e.g. approximation, language switch, calques), and (ii) analytic strategies (e.g. circumlocution, avoidance, message abandonment).

Ellis (2003: 340) states that this kind of strategies is used by learners to overcome a communication problem caused by a lack of or inability to access L2 knowledge.

The influence of avoidance strategy can be seen in items (2, 4, 5, 7, 8, 13, 16, 23 and 24) in Question One, items (1, 4, 7, and 14) in Question Two and items (1, 4, 5, 6, 8, and 10) in Question Three in which the subjects left these items without answer.

Moreover, most errors attributable to communication strategies manifest extremely odd structures that reflect the learners' devise to offer any response whatever in their test-papers.

The influence of this strategy can be seen in items (1, 3, 4, 6, 10 and 15) in Question Two and items (2, 3, 5, 7, and 10) in Question Three:

Q.2
Item (1)*home-making
Item (3)*keep-peaceing
Item (4)*educating-well
Item (6)*funny-looked
Item (10)*fasting-food
Item (15)*sight-short

Q.3
Item (2)*covered-snow cottage
Item (3)*high-price car
Item (5)*huge six-foot-hole-deep
Item (7)*cooking-well meal
Item (10)*lasted-long war

The total number of errors that might be related to using such strategies is (432, 29.29%) of the total number of the subjects' errors.

Finally, the following table shows the frequency and percentage of the sources of errors of the whole sample:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>%</th>
<th>Frequency of Errors</th>
<th>Type of Strategy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>38.30</td>
<td>565</td>
<td>1- Intralingual Strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.29</td>
<td>432</td>
<td>2- Communication Strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.97</td>
<td>265</td>
<td>3- Context of Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.44</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>4- Interlingual Strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>1475</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Conclusions and Recommendations
5.1 Conclusions
The error analysis carried out in this study reveals the following points:
1. Iraqi EFL university learners at the fourth year face difficulty in mastering compound adjectives. This is indicated by their low performance in the main test as the rate of their correct responses (1025, 41%) is lower significantly than that of their incorrect ones (1475, 59%).
2. The subjects' performance in the test has also revealed that EFL university learners encounter more difficulties in using compound adjectives at the production level than at the recognition one. This is due to the fact that the total number and the percentage of the correct responses at the production level (492, 39.35%) are lower than those of the correct responses at the recognition level (533, 42.64%).
3. The learners' errors in using compound adjectives may be traced back to the following factors arranged hierarchically according to the frequency of errors attributed to each:
   a. Intralingual transfer accounts for (565,78.30%) of all the subjects' errors.
   b. The second – highest rate of error cause is communication strategy which is (432,29.29%) of all the subjects' errors.
   c. The rate of errors pertaining to context of learning is (17.97%) of all the subjects' errors.
   d. Interlingual transfer has been found to be responsible for only (14.44%) of all the subjects' errors.

4. Some of errors are due to the student's lack knowledge of the English compound adjectives since they are not aware of their different types.

5.2 Recommendations
   On the bases of the results of the present study, the following recommendations can be posited:
   1- More emphasis should be given to English compound adjectives because this area is very important for the students of English to learn and more necessary for the structure of the English sentence.
   2- More practice and exercises should be conducted among students in compound adjectives in order to eliminate the students' errors in this area.
   3- More attention should be given to compound adjectives at all levels of education.
   4- Students should be activated by daily quizzes and tests.
   5- English compound adjectives must be taught by means of communication tasks and real-life situations which provide meaning or in the form of conversation.
   6- Depending on the types of the errors made by the subjects of this study, the teachers / instructors should take these errors into consideration and ask their students to avoid such errors.
   7- The grammar books, which are studied by the university students, must include more subjects about English compound adjectives.

Appendix(1)

The Test

Q.1 Match the words in column A with the words in column B to make correct compound adjectives: (25)Ms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Column A</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-easy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-quick</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-absent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-oil</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-two</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-smooth</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8-record</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9-Curly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-big</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-short</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12-good</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13-well</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14-Left</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-Labour</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q.2 Make appropriate compound adjectives from each pair of words and add them to the sentences:

distance | long , end | never , grow | fast , keep | peace , educate | well , sight | short , well | manner , funny | look , home | make , wash | white , fashion | old , food | fast , blood | cold , face | two , heart | kind , new | brand.
1- Mrs. Baxter offered us scones with cream and her ..........jam.
2- Please don't use this phone to make this........calls...
3- Soldiers have to learn to talk rather than fight when they are sent on.......missions.
4- The president's wife seemed to have a .........supply of new shoes and handbags.
5- We have to invest more in school and teachers if we want to have a......population.
6- That………..piece of cloth at the end of each sleeve is called a frill.
7- We rented a small cottage in Devon , with a red- tiled roof and ……..walls.
8- He was a ..... murderer and showed no emotion of any kind.
9- She lived in an ..... house,
10- He likes ..... restaurants.
11- Cathey is…..girl. She's very polite.
12-You shouldn't trust him. He is……..He smiles at your face but he keeps talking behind you.
13- Lura does a lot of work for charity. She is……..
14-When John got his promotion, he bought a .....car.
15- Nancy is such a.....girl . She can't even read what's on the blackboard.

Q.3 Make a compound adjective out of the underlined phrase.(10)Ms.
e.g.: "Her daughter's eyes are crossed." >>> "cross-eyed daughter"
1. The farmer's pony finally died when it was ten years old.
2. This cottage is covered with snow.
3. The price of the car was high.
4. She suggested a clever plan to save money.
5. They dug a huge hole six feet deep in the ground.
6. This project took them six hours and twenty-five minutes.
7. The meal was cooked well.
8. He has discovered an insect with many legs.
9. She plays with her left hand.
10. This war has lasted a long time.
Appendix (2)
The Answers of the Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Column A</th>
<th>Column B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-easy-going</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-quick-witted</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-time-producing</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-absent-minded</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-oil-consuming</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-two-faced</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-smooth-tongue</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8-record-breaking</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9-Curly-haired</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-big-headed</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-short-sighted</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12-good-looking</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13-well-knowing</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14-Left-handed</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-Labour-saving</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-deeply-rooted</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17-old-fashioned</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-brightly-lit</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19-long-lasting</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-heart-broken</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-highly-priced</td>
<td>370</td>
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<tr>
<td>22-four-foot</td>
<td>370</td>
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<tr>
<td>23-self-reliant</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24-never-ending</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-badly-behaved</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q.2
1-home-made | 370 |
2-long-distance | 370 |
3-peace-keeping | 370 |
4-never-ending | 370 |
5-well-educated | 370 |
6-funny-looking | 370 |
7-white-washed | 370 |
8-cold-blooded | 370 |
9-old-fashioned | 370 |
10-fast-food | 370 |
11-well-mannered | 370 |
12-two-faced | 370 |
13-kind-hearted | 370 |
14-brand-new | 370 |
15-short-sighted | 370 |

Q.3
1-the farmer’s ten-years-old pony | 370 |
2-snow-covered cottage | 370 |
3-highly-priced car | 370 |
4-clever money-saving plan | 370 |
5-huge six-footed-deep hole | 370 |
6-six-hour (and) twenty-five-minute project
7-well-cooked meal
8- many-legged insect
9- left-handed player
10-long-lasting war

References


