Západočeská univerzita v Plzni

Fakulta pedagogická

Katedra anglického jazyka

Bakalářská práce

ANALÝZA MODERNÍCH AUTENTICKÝCH TEXTŮ Z POHLEDU LEXIKÁLNÍ MORFOLOGIE SE ZAMĚŘENÍM NA NOVINY A REKLAMY

Michal Zeman

Plzeň 2014

University of West Bohemia

Faculty of Education

Department of English

Undergraduate Thesis

AN ANALYSIS OF MODERN AUTHENTIC TEXTS FROM THE POINT OF VIEW OF LEXICAL MORPHOLOGY WITH THE FOCUS ON NEWSPAPERS AND ADVERTISEMENTS

Michal Zeman

Plzeň 2014

(formulář zadání bakalářské práce ve svázané podobě)

Prohlašuji, že jsem práci vypracoval samostatně s použitím uvedené literatury a zdrojů informací.

V *Plzni* 10. 02. 2014 .....

Michal Zeman

ABSTRACT

Zeman, Michal. University of West Bohemia. February, 2014. An analysis of modern authentic texts from the point of view of lexical morphology with the focus on newspapers and advertisements. Supervisor: Naděžda Stašková

The main aim of this undergraduate thesis is the investigation of the frequency of word-formation processes in the English language with the focus on newspaper texts and advertisements. It presents a descriptive theoretical background of the study of word-formation with the description of most important notions (such as the notions of word, word-formation and productivity) that is followed up by a detailed analysis of two newspaper texts and two advertisements, which was performed with the use of internet dictionaries. Each individual lexical word was looked up in a dictionary in order to find out its origin and possible word-formation processes. This resulted in a comprehensive analysis of aforementioned texts and advertisements identifying the word-formation processes as well as an introduction of some extra details for those processes (such as the directionality of conversion or a list of occuring affixes with short descriptions in the case of affixation). Any word capable of participating in conversion or containing affixes of foreign origin was also included in the analysis, making the analysis truly thorough. The final results point at conversion being the least restricted and most frequent word-formation process appearing in newspaper texts and advertisements with a roughly 50 % higher frequency than affixation that is commonly considered to be the most frequent word-formation process in the English language.

Key words: word, word-formation, compounding, affixation, conversion, productivity, frequency, newspapers, advertisements, occurence

TABLE OF CONTENTS

1. Introduction

This thesis presents a study of word-formation in the English language. In the initial sections, the thesis focuses on the introduction of important notions, such as the notions of word and word-formation and mainly productivity, which plays a large role in the study of word-formation. It also provides a description of the process during which new words are being established as well as stored in human brains. This section is followed by a short preview of the study of writing newspaper texts and advertisements.

A detailed description of the most relevant word-formation processes follows, with the main focus on affixation, compounding and conversion. Nevertheless, additional word-formation processes, such as blending, gradation or postposition are also described and presented to the reader in order to maintain the complexity of the approach.

The main aim of the thesis is to determine the most frequent word-formation process and the aim is achieved by a descriptive analysis of modern English newspaper texts and advertisements describing the relevant words, even the words with different origin than English to provide the most elaborate analysis possible. Various charts displaying the occuring affixes and showing the frequency of the word-formation processes in question are also to be found in the analysis, accompanied by commentaries of the results which point out interesting observations with the final results being available towards the end of the thesis.

The most beneficial sources for the theoretical part of the thesis were *Word-formation in English* (2002) by Ingo Plag and *English word-formation* (1983) by Laurie Bauer with their descriptive and understandable descriptions of word-formation processes. The most relevant sources for the analysis were online dictionaries, Valerie Adams's *An introduction to the modern English word-formation* (1973) and Hans Marchand's *The Categories and types of present-day English word-formation* (1969), as these publications mainly provide information not found in other sources.

2. Theoretical Background

In order to analyze texts in a detailed manner, it is first necessary to explain important technical terms to understand the pecularities of the given language more easily. So, this chapter will describe the terms ‘word’ and ‘word-formation’ from various points of view.

2.1 Word

Some people not familiar with linguistics might assume that a word could be simply described as a unit of language which is separated from other units - words - by breaks from both sides in a written text (Plag, 2002). However, this is determined as a vague explanation by Bauer (1983), as he states that in spoken language, people do not utter pauses and rather present their ideas fluently. He adresses this type of a word as an ‘ortographical word’, which stands for a word occuring in the writing system. There are several properties which words have proved to have and are described for instance by Plag (2002), such as indivisibility, the occurance of a single main stress (in most of the cases) or having a part of speech specification.

Word can definitely be seen as a form of language data which can be further analyzed and which is after an exposure stored in each individual’s mental lexicon, which subsequently allows them to understand and use such data while interpreting their thoughts whether in speech or in a written text (Plag, 2002). It is important to keep in mind that certain morphological entities can also have various abstract realizations which are called lexemes (e.g. *am, is, was, were, are – to be*). A word is perceived as the smallest unit of language, which is self-sufficient while keeping a proper meaning and is therefore set above the morpheme level and below the phrase level in regards to grammatical hierarchy (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985). Some words can also be formed as a combination of elements from other words, resulting in the creation of a complex word with a unique meaning (Plag, 2002).

As far as meaning is concerned, only so-called full words are capable of referring to a genuine content, while function words serve as linking elements or have other grammatical functions (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985; Knittlová, 1977).

2.1.1 Root, base and stem

Root, base and stem are the three main constituents of a word. As Plag (2002) describes, base is the part of a word, to which an affix is attached, root is a base that can not

be further analyzed into morphemes and according to Peters (2004), root is the essential unit of meaning, on which various stems and derivative forms may be based, as it is the basic part always present in a lexeme. While these two constituents play a significant role in the word-formation process in general, as they can for example help us to recognize the boundaries of possible affixes, on the other hand, stem is a base of inflection or derivation, which, however, is not of much importance when dealing with word-formation (Plag, 2002).

2.1.2 Possible and actual words

One of the divisions of words is the division into possible and actual words, as not all words can be used in a particular language system without breaking certain rules. Actual words are words, which are commonly used and therefore recognizeable by many, as they can be understood by a vast majority of speakers without posing major problems (Plag, 2002). Possible words are non-existent words, which could theoretically be formed, as they do not break any language rules, as well as follow the semantic, syntactic and phonological regularities of the language. They are not present in the mental lexicon of common people, as they are words usually thought up as an accident (such as a child not remembering the present participle of an irregular verb) or by a person other than a native speaker (Plag, 2002). If those words spreaded, they could be used generally more profoundly afterwards and ultimately become actual words. If a word that is not yet in the mental lexicon breaks some language rules, it cannot be considered a possible word.

An example of a possible word by Plag (2002) is *cannibalizable* – it is evident that while this word is not used by native speakers, at the same time it does not violate any language rules, therefore nothing prevents it from being actually used without being ungrammatical by some individuals not knowing the English language properly.

Also, another term, nonce-formation, should be mentioned, which stands for a word, which is thought up by a native speaker in a spur of a moment (Bauer, 1983) and is considered by Štekauer (2005) to be a step between possible and actual words.

2.2 Word-formation

In English, there are two main ways of creation of new words: borrowing from other languages being the most common way and word-formation, the formation of new words by using existent words or morphemes. Bauer (1983) considers the linguistic area of word-formation to be very confusing and supports it by claiming that most linguists are in opposition about almost all important matters and practically nothing is agreed upon.

Word-formation will be covered in more detail in section 2.5 as the main focus of the thesis, so this section will provide a short history of word-formation, as well as the idea of word-formation rules and the description of its main functions.

2.2.1 A brief history of word-formation

The studies of word-formation and the history itself began no earlier than the 1960s, so it is a relatively recent field of studies. The previous approaches were not very consistent and rather close, focusing on either a diachronic approach or a synchronic approach exclusively without taking the other one into account (Bloomfield, 1935; Koziol, 1937). Bauer (1983) praises Chomsky's *Syntactic Structures* (1957) for changing the error of the limited vision of word-formation and bringing syntax to the foreground. However, both Bauer (1983) and Štekauer (n.d.) agree on Marchand's *The Categories and Types of Present-Day English Word-Formation* (1960) to be the first important breakthrough in this field of study, as the data included ended up being very significant and moreover, it contained both approaches to language.

Other titles, such as Chomsky's *The Sound Pattern of English* and *Remarks on Nominalization,* further specified the position of word-formation as a morphological rather than syntactical occurence. Later, in the 1970s, multiple newer approaches emerged, focusing on phonology, syntax or semantics (Bauer, 1983).

Nowadays, the state of word-formation is continuously changing, but concurrently expanding (Bauer, 1983) with more and more researchers becoming interested in the creation of various theories.

2.2.2 Word-formation rules

During the investigation of the inner processes of word-formation, researchers have established word-formation rules as one of the basic recognizing points which helps them to orientate in the problematics. Word-formation rules limit the range of usage of word-formation elements (such as prefixes) and specifically point to instances, in which the usage of a certain element in affixation is justifiable and results in an actual word rather than an ungrammatical word. Plag (2002) uses the prefix *un-* to demonstrate that only certain types of words can or usually take this prefix. The research ultimately reveals certain similarities among some of the words (for example verbs with '*un-*' as a prefix must allow some sort of privative manipulation) and these similarities pose the foundation for the word-formation rules. The rules have to follow strict guidelines and should always contain these elements:

‘Information about the the phonology of the affix, the type of affix, semantics and possible base morphemes’ (Plag, 2002). Word-formation rules are necessary for better understanding and identification of word-formation processes and are very relevant to linguists and researchers.

2.2.3 Main functions of word-formation

There are three main functions of word-formation and they can be found in Plag (2002): ‘Labeling’ (a new word is created to name a concept that newly appeared in the language), ‘syntactic recategorization’ (longer phrases or clauses are being substituted by single complex words to condense information and make the text stylistically more appealing) and ‘expression of an attitude’ (a certain level of fondness a person has towards the referred word). As it could have been predicted, the aim of all of the functions is to present a new way for a yet non-existent word in a particular language to enter to the lexicon.

Now when some of the features of word-formation have been introduced, in the following section the thesis will focus on yet another aspect dealing with word-formation, productivity.

2.3 Productivity

Productivity is a largely important feature of an affix that allows it to create new complex words. As noted by Bauer (1983), productivity can be confused with creativity in the most general sense, which is an ability of a native speaker to come up with new words and novel structures and thus extend the language system in a way which is not restricted by any rules. However, while discussing word-formation in particular, creativity does not apply in this area.

2.3.1 Restrictions

The presentation of actual and possible words can already be found in section 2.1.2 and these two terms will now become very relevant, as both productivity and actual words need to have a specific type of an affix that is capable of producing new words. There are certain restrictions as to when a new word can be produced as well and among these restrictions Bauer (1983) observed these: ‘pragmatics‘, ‘requirement of existence‘, ‘nameability requirement‘ and ‘blocking‘.

As defined by Bauer (1983), pragmatics is a contrast in the knowledge of the real world to the knowledge of the language system.

A new word cannot be created for something, which does not exist in the real world and cannot be named in any way. So, if a word breaks either of these requirements (the requirement of existence or the requirement of nameability), it can never be formed (Bauer, 1983).

The final restriction, blocking, along with several other ones, will be detailed later, in section 2.3.5.4. To cover this restriction shortly, blocking occurs when new words collide with already existing ones.

2.3.2 Complex words in mental lexicon

After the case of actual and possible words and the concept of productivity have been explained, the next step is to realize how new words are actually stored in our mental lexicon.

Plag specifies that mental lexicon, which is practically our internalized knowledge of properties of words, should be minimally redundant, therefore predictable words should not be included in it. (Plag, 2002) The size of an educated English adult's speaker vocabulary is estimated at 50 000 words (Aitchison, 2012).

Afterwards, Plag states that there are two available routes for a word, which is about to be stored in our mental lexicon, the whole word route and the decomposition route. In reality, each word is stored in our brain in both ways and only the route which is more effective and faster prevails in the end and is the one we end up using.

Also, each word has a so-called 'resting activation'. Basically, resting activation can be seen as a scale for each word, which measures its usage and frequency. The more common a word is, the lower the percentage of resting activation goes and the easier it is to remember such a word and retrieve it from our mental lexicon. For that reason, these common words are usually retrieved by the whole word route, as they are easy to remember as a whole, because of their frequent usage. The affix in this case will not be strongly represented, as the whole word will be put into our mental storage (Plag, 2002).

The decomposition route, during which the brains splits the word in its parts, looks those parts up individually and connects them accordingly is preferred for uncommon words with larger resting activation. For a newly coined word, this also applies, as there exists no whole word representation of it and the decomposition route is the only one available. However, by decomposing the word, the affix will become stronger, as it will become available for other possible new derivatives (Plag, 2002).

2.3.3 Measuring productivity

So, knowing how words are stored in our mental lexicon, we ask how exactly we can measure the productivity itself.

2.3.3.1 Frequency

Actually, the process is quite evident. What is the most important factor of a particular affix in productivity is its extent of usage, the number of words with that affix or, more specifically, a number of attested different words at a given point of time (Plag, 2002). After the researcher does this process with each observed affix, he obtains a frequency chart which lists the affixes in the order of frequency and therefore, their productivity as well.

2.3.3.2 Hapaxes

Another term related to productivity is ‘hapax‘ or ‘hapax legomenon‘. Hapax can be described as a word which occurs only once in the written record of a language, in the works of an author, or in a single text (Plag, 2002). What can we conclude from this is the fact that it is not a neologism, but simply a very rare word, and as mentioned by Plag (2002), the higher is the number of hapaxes with a particular affix, the higher is the number of neologisms, which in return largely affects productivity.

Hapaxes can be found in many historical texts, such as in the Bible, as well as it is speculated that some of the untranslated hieroglyphs are in fact hapaxes. Many famous writers, such as Shakespeare, have their own personal hapaxes, which appear exclusively in their specified plays or texts, making them very difficult to duplicate. An example of Shakespeare’s hapax given by Higgins (2011) would be ‘honorificabilitudinitatibus‘, which is said to mean ‘the state of being able to achieve honors‘.

The term ‘hapax‘ comes from Greek and means ‘(something) said (only) once‘ (Higgins, 2011), so in case a word appears more than once, the term is changed correspondingly to ‘dis legomenon‘ for two appearances, ‘tris legomenon‘ for three or ‘tetrakis legomenon‘ for four. There are no terms for a word, which appears more than four times.

2.3.4 Aspects of productivity

Now, that the hapaxes have been introduced, we can finally be interested in the aspects of productivity, of which Plag (2002) mentions four: the number of forms with a given affix

(‘the extent of use‘), ‘the number of neologisms attested in a given period‘, ‘the number of hapaxes in a given corpus‘ (which indicates the amount of newly coined derivatives) and finally, ‘the probability of encountering new formations among all derivatives of a certain morphological category‘ (productivity in the narrow sense).

The first three aspects have already been covered in detail beforehand, but the final one has yet to be introduced. Productivity in the narrow sense can be determined as follows

P = hapax frequency / token frequency,

where P stands for the quotient itself and token frequency is the total number of times an affix appears in a text, despite the base it is attached to (Joandi, 2012).

2.3.5 Constraining productivity

As far as productivity may be present at almost all occurances, it also has several limitations, which are specified by the language itself as a sort-of a precaution to prevent unnecessary words to be created and these restrictions can be divided into several groups: pragmatic, structural, morphological, lexical, semantic and phonological (Plag, 2002; Bauer, 1983).

2.3.5.1 Pragmatic and structural restrictions

Pragmatic restrictions originate in the problems of language use, which contradict the strcture and nature of the real world (Bauer, 1983) and to which we can classify the nameability requirement (a word cannot be created for something that cannot be named) and the requirement of existence (or ‘hypostatization‘ by Lipka (1977) - a word cannot be created for something that does not exist -).

On the other hand, structural restrictions originate in the problems of the language strcture and can be further divided to sub-categories (such as phonology, morphology etc.) (Bauer, 1983).

2.3.5.2 Lexical and semantic restrictions

Lexical restrictions are the first sub-type of structural restrictions. Bauer labels lexical restrictions as a limitation of word-formation processes caused by individual roots, such as a suffix *–ric* only being able to combine with the word *bishop* and thus creating the word *bishopric*. Another example, introduced by Aronoff could be the bases with *–ous*, which when forming a nominalization with *–ity* sometimes tend to delete ‘u‘ in *–ous-* and creating *–os-*, such as in *curious -> curiosity*. (Aronoff, 1976)

Semantic restrictions (Zimmer, 1964) are very common in English and one possible example is the forbidden use of negative prefixes with adjectival stems that have negative value on evaluative scales. Another sample is provided (Hudson, 1965; Stein, 1976) as the use of *–ed* in adjectives (*starry-eyed*) with the condition that the base has to be inalienably possessed by the head noun which the adjective modifies, in order to be able to form such an adjective.

2.3.5.3 Morphological and phonological restrictions

Morphological (as well as phonological) restrictions originate in the inevitable observation of the different behaviour of borrowed words, learned words and formatives in comparison to the original language (Bauer, 1983). However, as borrowing from other languages is not the subject of this thesis, these two types will not be defined here in detail. Further information about these two types of restrictions are to be found in Aronoff, 1976.

2.3.5.4 Blocking

As Plag (2002) has observed, existing words are capable of blocking the creation of new words if the derived form would be semantically or phonologically identical (e.g. *liver* is already included in the English language as one of the inner organs, therefore a new word which would be formed by using the verb *live* and suffix *–er* to create a noun *liver* is not possible in this case, as this word has already been used for the inner organ).

Most of the blocking ensues in the process of synonymy to prevent redundant words from being created. There are two types of blocking in general, type-blocking and token-blocking. Generally, type-blocking covers rival morphological processes (*decency* x **decentness*) and token-blocking (existing words block the creation of existing synonymous ones).

Blocking can arise in the issues with synonymy (token-blocking, such as blocking of **stealer* because of the existence of *thief*), productivity (blocked word must be a potential word) or frequency (a sufficiently frequent word can block a potential synonymous formation).

However, there is also a possibility that blocking will not occur if the speaker is incapable of identifying an existing synonymous word (such as a child saying **bringed* instead of *brought* for the reason of not remembering all forms of irregular verbs).

In type-blocking, a certain affix blocks the application of other affix, which is mostly determined by special cases, during which only a restricted amount of affixes can be used,

which are in return preferred to other affixes with a broader range of use and are able to block them. However, Plag (2002) insists on completely abandoning the idea of type-blocking, as most of the cases are in fact token-blocking issues, because of their presence in people‘s mental lexicons.

To summarize everything, the area of word-formation is very complex and generally, concerning word-formation, linguists are not in agreement upon certain basic elements. Word-formation is largely affected by many restrictions and word-formation processes (which will be discussed in section 2.5) must follow strict rules in order for new words to be created, as the language system has its own protection against ungrammatical words.

2.4 Newspaper style

Before dwelving deeper to the study of individual word-formation processes, this chapter will briefly introduce the notions of newspaper commentary style and newspaper reporting (which are both part of the more general Mass Media style, whose aim is to target massive audience), as this knowledge will be of some importance later for the analysis of texts. While the main focus of the newspaper reporting style is to present valid information to the readers and therefore the primary objective is to publish news, contrary to that, newspaper commentary style principally aims to get the attention of people and form their opinions on other things and what is of the most relevance for this style is the total amount of views drawn to the attractively written text (Knittlová, 1977).

Despite the fact that these styles are completely separate and should not be mixed, some of the features of both texts are identical. Parks (n.d.) considers accuracy, brevity and clarity to be the three basics of news writing in general, claiming that all newspaper texts should: ‘be without errors, contain minimal number of redundant words and be complete and coherent‘.

2.4.1 Newspaper commentary style

The style in question has certain similarities to the scientific style, from which it originates and therefore features mostly coherent structure as well as good paragraphing. As the range of audience is the most delicate matter concerning this style, these texts, which are used for advertisements as well, have to be accessible and understandable for larger audience, so they do not contain many technical terms to prevent readers from being intimidated by the difficulty of such texts.

Observing these texts, it is possible to notice certain writing elements that increase the attractiveness: the common use of evaluating adjectives, the use of 1st person of plural (that allows the author to convince the reader that the opinion in the text is correct), the use of abstract words of French and Greek-Latin origin, informal tone, emotional expressions, metaphors, euphemisms in political texts that reduce the seriousness of certain issues (e.g. replacing the word *war* with *defence*), alliteration to make the texts visually more appealing, comparisons, slang expressions or word-plays (Knittlová, 1977).

Advertisements in particular also follow certain rules and most of those mentioned above apply to them as well. As it is commonly known, advertisements should be brief and should inform about various services and products. They can contain grammatical errors if they carry some meaning in the text.

2.4.2 Newspaper reporting

Newspaper reporting may be seen as an opposition to newspaper commentary style as writers should write in an unbiased way even about products or services, as the opinion of the author should not be affected by any other factors.

Knittlová (1977) highlights the effect of headlines on readers and the proper use of sub-headlines, printing the first paragraph of a text in bold and simultaneously including the summary of the story to encourage the reader to keep reading further or the proper use of paragraphs and column lines, as well as the difficulty of conveying all information in a limited text space.

There are many other aspects of journalese, as the newspaper reporting writing style is called, including the preferred use of simple sentences as opposed to longer written structures, the inclusion of explicit time and place or the complete rehash of natural human speech with the use of more emotional equivalents to perfectly applicable words, like in using *to knife* instead of *being stabbed* (‘*Journalese – A Strange English Dialect*‘, 2012). So, even newspaper reporting definitely also affects the view of the reader, even though not in abundance as the newspaper commentary style tends to do.

2.5 Types of word-formation processes

In this section, the thesis will briefly cover most of the existing word-formation processes; however, some of them will be given more priority over other ones, as some of the processes are not so much common in English.

2.5.1 Affixation

Plag (2002) defines ‘affix‘ as a ‘bound morpheme that attaches to bases‘, however, he also makes a remark that it is not always simple to recognize a free and a bound morpheme. Moreover, some neo-classical compounds – words combined by a native element and an element of Greek or Latin origin - may also be mistaken with affixation processes.

Subsequently, affixation is a word-formation process and a sub-type of derivation (Kemmer, 2008) as well as a collective term for the creation of new words by affixes being attached to roots of already existing words and comprises of prefixation, suffixation, infixation, adfixation and circumfixation, based on the position of the affix towards the root.

Plag (2002) mentions the definition and structure of syllables as extremely crucial elements in affixation in general. Syllable is a phonological unit (Plag, 2002) which is pronounced without interruption and in almost all cases includes at least one vowel. Syllable is also a part of a word, which in return needs to consist of at least one syllable. Depending on the number of vowels, words are called either ‘mono-‘, ‘di-‘, ‘tri-‘ or ‘poly-‘ syllabic.

Syllables are further divided to onsets and rhymes (also referred to as ‘rimes‘, Plag, 2002) with the addition of nucleus and coda, which are parts of a rhyme. Nucleus is the only ever present part of a syllable (with onsets and codas being optional), being the central part of a syllable while onsets are extremely likely to be present and are found preceding nucleus and codas are found succeeding nucleus (Plag, 2002; Rubba, 2000).

2.5.1.1 Prefixation

According to Marchand (1969), the term ‘prefix‘ in English is not very well defined, with varying representations by Jespersen, who withdraws from defining the term, Koziol, who considers prefixes to be any particles without an independent existence, or Kruisinga, who sees similarity in prefixes and compounds. Marchand (1969) himself describes prefixes as ‘bound morphemes which are preposed to free morphemes‘. Plag (2002) points at the importance of dictionaries while investigating affixes and adds that even then, further analysis is unavoidable. Hence, it is very difficult to define any affix as a term.

Prefixation is a sub-type of word-formation, which puts the affix, or, more specifically, prefix, in front of the base of the word. There are both prefixes of native origin, of which there are not many (*a-, be-, fore-, mid-, mis- and un-*), as well as foreign prefixes, which are mostly of Greek or Latin origin, however, in some cases, the meanings of prefixes (and suffixes accordingly) may overlap, leading into competition amongst them (Marchand, 1969). Plag (2002) divides prefixes into four groups: quantifying, locative, temporal and negative. Most of the English prefixes are class-maintaining (Bauer, 1983).

2.5.1.2 Suffixation

Suffixation may be seen as a direct opposite to prefixation in the sense that this time affix is being added succeeding the stem or a whole word. Suffixes have always been considered to consist of two major groups: derivational suffixes, which are added to the end of a stem and are therefore capable of ensuing word-formation processes, and inflectional suffixes, which are added to the end of the word and result in grammatical changes, having nothing in common with word-formation, to which Marchand (1969) denotes a large attention, as the change of a grammatical function within its syntactic category (such as adding *–s* to *citizen* to create the plural form *citizens*) and consequently only creating a different variant of the form of the same word (Hupp, Sloutsky, & Culicover, n.d.) do not change the lexical meaning of that particular word (as in adding the suffix *–ry* and thus creating the word *citizenry* - plural).

Zamma (2012) argues that the distinction of suffixes to two major types is not satisfactory enough, as multiple suffixes contain features of both of the types and so, a clear separation of the two groups cannot be made. Moreover, there is yet another distinction of suffixes depending on their class-changing function (Bauer, 1983) into nominal, verbal, adjectival and adverbial suffixes (Plag, 2002).

2.5.1.3 Infixation

In comparison to prefixation or suffixation, infixation is a process not very common in English (Plag, 2002) and is also quite different from those two processes in the way that infixation in modern English uses words (free morphemes) upon the creation of new words contrasting to the bound morphemes used in both prefixation and suffixation (Ruszkiewicz, 2002).

Infixation in general is used to express an attitude (Plag, 2002) or intensify the meaning and can be visible in English texts with their appearance being referred to as ‘expletive

infixation‘ which is the rule for insertion of an explesive word inside a different word. Some known examples of infixation in English are *abso-bloody-lutely*, *fan-fuckin-tastic* or *guaran-damn-tee* and from these words we can observe that usually a rude word is being infixed into another word.

The insertion of another word is by no means random and follows strict rules, as words can be partitioned into units called ‘feets‘, which are characteristic by consisting of ‘one stressed syllable or one stressed and one or more unstressed syllables‘, and only in between these units an expletive may be inserted (as explained by Plag, 2002), which explains the impossibility to create words such as **ab-bloody-solutely*.

Sometimes, a rarely used term ‘adfix‘ is used for a a combination of a prefix and a suffix and a contrast to infix.

2.5.1.4 Circumfixation

Circumfixation is a word-formation process during which an element called ‘circumfix‘ consisting of a prefix-like and a suffix-like part is being added to a word. This process is technically non-existent in English and can be potentially found in an exclusive case of adding *en-... -en* to a word (*enliven*, *enbolden*), however, as these two elements can also be used independently, the simultaneous combination of a prefix and suffix even in this exclusive case seems to be a preferable description for this phenomenon (Ruskiewicz, 2002).

2.5.2 Back-formation

Back-formation is not a sub-type of affixation, nevertheless, affixes play a large role in back-formation processes, as back-formation is both the creation of a new word by removing actual or supposed affixes and the term for such a created word which is often mistakenly considered to be a derivative of the former word.

There are many common back-formations in English, such as *babysit*, *televise*, *haze*, *donate*, *evolute* and many others (Kosur, 2012), however, it is important to keep in mind that most of the back-formation processes are considered non-standard and should therefore be used with caution (Nichol, 2013).

Notably, English back-formations do not solely have to be formed from English words, as there are back-formations from other languages as well, such as *cherry* from the French word *cerise* (Bauer, 1983).

Bauer (1983) observes verbs being the most common result of back-formation, so it is of utter importance to distinguish back-formation from clipping, a similar process of

shortening an existing word, which however results in a shortened form that keeps its part of speech (as in *lab* <- *laboratory* or *ad* <- *advertisement*) unlike back-formation, which mostly forms verbs from nouns. More information about clipping in particular is to be found in chapter 2.5.4.

In back-formation processes, it may not always be evident which of the words in the pair is the original one and which is the derived one. Marchand (1969) declares that there are in fact two groups of back-formations and gives an example of this on the pair *peddle*/*peddler* and shows that in the diachronic approach *peddle* being the more recent word should therefore be the form derived from *peddler*, however, in the synchronic approach it would be the opposite, so Marchand (1969) concludes this by noting that back-formation takes into consideration only diachronic relevance.

In the second, much more common group (as in *televise*/*television*), the historical basis and derivational basis is identical, as the verb is an extraction diachronically and a derivative synchronically (Marchand, 1969).

2.5.3 Conversion

Conversion is the first type of derivation without affixation (Plag, 2002) in English and is also commonly referred to as ‘zero-affixation‘ or ‘zero-derivation‘. It is a process during which a new word is created from a different word without any changes in form, spelling or pronunciation (Kosur, 2013), which is accompanied by either a change of word class or a change in meaning depending on the point of view (either syntactic or semantic).

As a word-formation process, it is very frequent in the English language presenting an extremely productive means to expanding upon English lexicon, which is supported by Bauer (1983) who notes that there are almost no conversion restrictions, allowing practically any word to be a possible candidate for conversion. Marchand (1969) opposes this by stating that derived words rarely tend to be the basis for further conversion to verbs, however Bauer (1983) disproves this by showing an example on the word *sign*, which has the following conversion series: *a sign* > *to sign* > *a signal* > *to signal*, displaying that even converted words are capable of being converted to verbs.

However, the area of conversion is still hidden in mysteries and many linguists have varying opinions on certain aspects revolving around conversion. Three of these matters (the problem of directionality, the problem of zero-affix and the origin of conversion) will be described in the following sections.

2.5.3.1 Directionality

Directionality poses a similar obstacle to linguists such as figuring out the derived word in back-formation processes, as the major issue is determining which of the word in a pair was converted and which word is the converted one. Balteiro (2007) actually presents multiple directional possibilities according to this, with words being either unidirectional, bidirectional or multidirectional.

In some cases, linguists tend to claim that the original word in certain pairs cannot be determined at all, which is true e.g. in the case of *love* x *to love* (Plag, 2002). Despite this, Plag (2002) shows that there are certain methods as to determine the largest amount of pairs as possible with the combination of the following: Investigation of the semantic complexity of the two words (derived words tend to be more semantically complex), observation of differences in formal properties (newly created words are inflected regularly because there is no space for them in the mental lexicon; also, new verbs are inflected regularly because it is easier for children as they do not have to learn their forms by heart), stress change (verbs have primary stress on their last syllable, while related nouns on the first syllable; this leads to the creation of pairs such as *export – export* where the only distinguishing factor is the position of the stress) and the frequency of occurence (derived words are more specific and therefore their use is limited in contrast to the original word). As demonstrated by Plag (2002), with the combination of these individual factors it is feasible to determine the derived word in most of the pairs.

2.5.3.2 Zero-affix

The problem of zero-affix – a type of affix without a present expected morpheme - was introduced by Sanders, as he invented the overt analogue criterion which is meant to help with the recognition of zero-derivational relations and justifies the appearance of zero form only if there are two identical forms, one being overt and one non-overt (Balteiro, 2007).

Plag (2002) sees no reason for the assumption of existence of zero-affix and so, he tests Sanders's criterion by directly testing the overt analogue criterion on random pairs of words trying to determine the existence of zero-affix in those particular instances and reveals that the results do not support the 'theory of zero-derivation', but rather 'non-affixational conversion'.

2.5.3.3 The origin of the processes

The final problem to be mentioned is the origin of conversion in the sense of the process having either morphological or syntactic roots. Linguists have varying opinions on this

problem. Plag (2002) prioritizes the idea of conversion being a morphological process, as he notices that complex nouns do not appear in such positions in sentences where a verb should be present instead, on the other hand, Hernandéz (1999) considers conversion to be a syntactic process based on the new syntactic functions that converted words have as well as the limited descriptiveness of converted words.

2.5.4 Truncation

Truncation is also commonly known as ‘clipping‘ or ‘shortening‘ and it is a word-formation process characteristic by reducing an existing minimally disyllabic word in length and creating a new, shortened form without any functional changes (Adams, 1973; Marchand, 1969). There exist certain hypotheses as to whether the terms ‘clipping‘, ‘truncation‘ or ‘shortening‘ are fully synonymous and Jamet (n.d.) considers ‘clipping‘ and ‘shortening‘ to be synonymous, while ‘truncation‘ may serve as a hyperonym for other word-formation processes rather than only clipping, such as blending or acronyms. This thesis will cover blending and acronyms in their respective sections and will only address clipping in this particular section.

It would be a mistake to assume that truncated words and the original ones share the same meaning, as there are certain semantic differences among them. To present this in an example, depending on the social situation, it may be inappropriate to say the short word *mag* as opposed to the long word *magazine*, showing that there is a certain difference in usage of these words with the long ones usually being more formal and therefore, their use is not as limited as the usage of the shorter words and they can be used in a wider range of contexts, while short forms are typical for slang (Marchand, 1969). An additional difference is in the attitude as well as the increased level of familiarity towards the subject that is present in the short word (Adams, 1973).

Truncation (or clipping) plays a prominent role in the creation of diminutives of names, creating names like *Ron, Al* or *Gail* (Plag, 2002) and it is possible to observe that not all of these words are created in the same way (e.g. *Ron* comes from the latter part of the name *Aaron* while *Al* comes from the initial part of the name *Albert*).

Marchand (1969) forms his own theory of clipping and presents his personal severance of clippings in four groups: back-clippings (where the initial part is preserved), fore-clippings (where the latter part is maintained), a group where the middle part of the word is kept (*influenza* > *flu*) and finally, clipping-compounds (*cable telegram* > *cablegram*).

From this, we can observe that clipping does not necessarily have to be a short word fromed from a single longer word, but can also be a shortening of an adjective-noun phrase (*public house* > *pub*, *zoological garden* > *zoo*; Adams, 1973).

2.5.5 Blending

Blending is a word-formation process based on fusing two or more words into a new one recognizable by either an omission of certain parts or original words or an overlapping of certain sounds (Algeo, 1977; Gries, 2004). As noted by Marchand (1969), blending is a purely stylistic process and does not change the word grammatically and the resulted word is always a moneme, a simple word which cannot be further analyzed. There are certain requirements for the formation of blends, namely a certain semantic relation and an identical semantic category of the words from which a blend is to be formed (Plag, 2002). Proper blends should not be confused with shortened compounds (*sci-fi = science + fiction*, *motel = motor + hotel*) in which the first element modifies the second one which does not otherwise occur in blending where all elements are self-contained (Plag, 2002).

Almost exclusively, blends are formed by the the combination of the initial part of the first word and the latter part of the second word as can be seen in the following blending rule: AB + CD -> AD. This group contains words like *squarson* (*squire* + *parson*), *smog* (*smoke* + *fog*), *brunch* (*breakfast* + *lunch*) or *boost* (*boot* + *hoist*). If the length of the final created word is great enough as in the case of *privilegentsia* (*privilege* + *intelligentsia*) or *icecapade* (*ice* + *escapade*), these words may be referred to as compound-blends. Compound-blends can also be further analyzed in accordance to their origin into nominal compound-blends, adjectival compound-blends, neo-classical compound-blends and other types (Adams, 1973).

When blends are being formed, only whole syllable constituents are being deleted, specifically either the onset of the first element and the rime of the second element or onset and nucleus of the first element and rime of the second element. The final blend always has the same syllable size as both elements. If the number of syllables among the constituents differs, syllable size of the second element is decisive (Plag, 2002).

2.5.6 Abbreviations and acronyms

Abbreviations in English are standard short forms used in the language. Abbreviations comprise of both abbreviated words (e.g. *cont.*) and abbreviated phrases (*AIDS - Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome*). There are certain limits to the usage of abbreviations, as some of the abbreviated elements are better known in their full forms (as in *EFT – electronic funds*

transfer) or are not suitable for academic writing. Abbreviations may be divided into two further groups, to those never punctuated (e.g. compass points – *NE, SW* etc.) and to those that may in some cases (which are determined by regional editorial practice) be punctuated. In some cases, punctuation may serve as the difference between abbreviations and ‘contractions‘ (*Mr* x *Mr.*) (Peters, 2004). Frequently, abbreviations and acronyms are used for names of various companies and organisations.

Usually, abbreviations are formed by the combination of initial letters of longer sequences and some of them may even combine larger initial as well as non-initial sets of letters (*Arvin – Army of the Republic of Vietnam*). Due to this, there is certain similarity between abbreviations and blends, as they both combine existing words to produce new ones. In addition, some abbreviations also contain lower case letters (*Unesco*). Each letter in abbreviations is pronounced individually (and these abbreviations are therefore known as ‘initialisms‘ - *USA*).

However, sometimes they are made pronouncable or purposely changed to resemble existing words (which is mostly done for marketing reasons or for greater memorability, as in *FIST – Federation of Inter-State Truckers*). If an abbreviation is pronounced as a word, it is referred to as ‘acronym‘ instead (*NATO* or the previously listed example of *FIST*). As any other words, acronyms have to abide by language and phonological rules. (Plag, 2002). As Adams (1973) notes, some acronyms have so-called ‘pronunciation-spellings‘, as in additional words that detail the spellings of particular acronyms (*deejay = D.J. = disc jockey*).

2.5.7 Compounding

Compounding is one of the more prominent word-formation processes in English and is defined by Plag (2002) as two words being combined to form a new word. While it is definitely possible to find compounds that comprise of more than two words (e.g. *university teaching award comittee member*), it is important to notice that all compounds can be divided into smaller units (*university + teaching award + comittee member*) out if which the longest one always consist of two members maximum, so it is safe to assume that compounds actually are binary structures.

Out of the two elements which form a compound when connected, the first element can either be a root, a word or a phrase, while the second element can only be a root or a word. The rightmost element in the compound structure is called ‘head‘ and is the dominant part of the compound which determines gender, plurality and other grammatical categories. The head preceding element is called a ‘modifier‘ which has the ability to modify the head and

influence its meaning (Plag, 2002). In a compound, modifier is no longer independent and cannot be separated which may serve as one of the recognizing elements of compounds (Adams, 1973).

Stress in the majority of English compounds can be determined by the ‘compound stress rule‘ that places the stress on the left member of a compound, however, there are certain exceptions to this rule as well. It is possible to define the more prominent member of a compound by using the stress assignment algorithm. If the right member of a compound is another compound, it is more prominent than the left member, if it is the other way around, the left member is the more dominant one (Plag, 2002).

In some cases, determining whether a word is a compound or not may prove to be rather troublesome. Compounds are usually defined by their function in the sentence (as in the word class they belong to) and are mainly divided to nominal, adjectival and verbal compounds. Acceptable compound combinations are N-N, N-V, N-A, V-N, V-V, A-N, A-V, A-A and P-N (where *N = noun, V = verb, A = adjective* and *P = preposition*).

Despite this common distinction, Bauer (1983) highlights that the classification of sub-compounds can be done in many other ways, e.g. by semantic classes or by syntactic functions. To make matters even more complicated, further compound types, such as neo-classical compounds (to be covered in section 2.5.7.4) or copulative compounds, are also present in the language.

Copulative compounds are special types of compounds in which neither of the elements serves as the modifier and both of them have the same level of prominence (e.g. a *geologist-astronomer* is a person who is both a *geologist* and an *astronomer*).

Moreover, in English it is possible to observe many structures that may resemble compounds, but in reality they do not belong to that category. Among these ‘wannabe-compounds‘ belong e.g. conversions (which may bear certain resemblance to compounds, such as the word *breakdown* does), inversions (complex words which are the results of an inversion process, in which two elements form a new word by exchanging their position in a sentence, e.g. *load down -> download* or *come in -> income*) or multi-word words (*jack-in-the-box*), whose structure is the one of a syntactic phrase and thereby they belong to the category of lexical phrases (Plag, 2002).

The following three sections of the thesis will focus on the sub-categories of compounds according to their function in a sentence. The final section of this section will detail one of the more special types, neo-classical compounds.

2.5.7.1 Nominal compounds

Out of the nouns which participate in the process of compounding, two major groups can be observed: Sortal nouns and relational nouns. Sortal nouns are used to qualify entities (*chair*, *table*) while relational nouns designate relations of specific entities to their respective arguments. The process in which an entity in close proximity of the head becomes the argument of the head is called argument-linking (e.g. *brain surgery* = a type of surgery which is executed on the brain). In some cases, argument-linking may end up in failure (as in the case of *street seller* who is not a person selling streets) (Plag, 2002).

There are several types of nominal compounds with NN compounds being the most common type. Generally, nominal compounds may prove to be difficult to classify as certain knowledge is necessary to understand them properly (Adams, 1973) and context is vitally important as well (Plag, 2002).

Each nominal compound is either an endocentric or an exocentric one. This is determined by the location of their semantic head in comparison to the compound, so in the case the semantic head is inside the compound, the compound is said to be endocentric (*laser printer* = a type of printer), while if the semantic head is outside the compound, it is considered exocentric (*redneck* = a type of person, not a type of neck). Noticeably, exocentric compounds have figurative and metaphorical meanings. Exocentric compounds denote only human beings or higher animals and are exocentric in their meanings alone, as the second element determines the part of speech (*redneck* = noun, not an adjective) which is a sign of endocentricity.

The nominal compound *redneck* along with other ones such as *loudmouth* may also be referred to as possessive compounds (as it could be said that a *redneck* is a person who possesses a red neck). Possessive compounds tend to have adjectives as their first elements.

Copulative compounds have already been introduced in the previous section as a type of compound whose elements both share the same prominence and none of them is subordinate or superordinate. There are, in fact, two sub-types of copulative compounds, coordinative compounds and appositional compounds. The example given beforehand, *geologist-astronomer*, is an example of an appositional compound (one entity is being described by two elements). On the other hand, in cooperative compounds both of the entities somehow relate to the noun (*the mind-body problem*) and they only have the attributive function.

Synthetic compounds, the final type to be introduced, are a combination of an argument of a verb as the left element and a noun derived from the verb as the right element (*church-goer*).

Fortunately, certain similarities may be observed among some compounds, which makes them slightly easier to classify properly, such as most A-N compounds being exocentric (even though exceptions also exist to that rule, e.g. a *blackbird* does not encompass every black bird in existence) or P-N compounds comprising of prepositions *after*, *out* and *under* exclusively (Plag, 2002).

2.5.7.2 Adjectival compounds

The problem with the recognition of adjective compounds lies in their similarity to free phrases (*free way*) which are not compounds, but simply two elements abreast in a sentence. So in order to label an element as an adjective-compound correctly, a test of its status should be performed: The second element has to be capable of functioning on its own as a premodifier (Adams, 1973).

Adjective compounds have either nouns or adjectives as the non-head elements (which modify an argument offered by the head) and may be interpreted numerously, nevertheless, the first element has a strong tendency to be an intensifier. Some of the adjective compounds (like the A-A compound type where the first adjective serves as a modifier; *icy-cold*) are quite sparse in the English language.

Among adjectival compounds, like in nominal compounds, we may find both appositional or coordinative compounds. Appositional compounds refer to entities (*bitter-sweet*) and coordinative compounds are once again attributive-exclusive (*a French-German cooperation*).

In addition to the types mentioned, some adjectival compounds either have derived adjectives as heads (*blue-eyed, clear-sighted, fast-growing, far-reaching*) or the adjectival heads are based on past participles (which are notable of frequently having the meaning of passive), e.g. *university-controlled* (= controlled by the university).

Adjectival compounds carry both leftward and rightward stresses with copulative compounds carrying it on the final element (*knee-deep*) and the other ones on the first element (*footloose*) (Plag, 2002). This also applies to the position of the compound with predicative adjectival compounds carrying the stress on the first syllable, while attributive on the final syllable (Adams, 1973).

2.5.7.3 Verbal compounds

Out of the three verbal compound types, N-V and A-V compounds are usually the results of back-formation or conversion processes, while V-V compounds are copular compounds (*deep-fry*, *freeze-dry*) and commonly carry stress on the initial element (Adams, 1973; Plag, 2002). Generally, verbal compounds prove to be relatively rare in the English language (Bauer, 1983).

2.5.7.4 Neo-classical compounds

The notion of neo-classical compounds has been mentioned in several previous occasions, but never properly described. In neo-classical compounds, an element (preferably a lexeme) of Greek or Latin origin is joined with an English element to form new combinations not existent in the language (*bio*chemistry, geo*logy*). The new element may be either an initial combining form (*bio*chemistry) or a final combining form (geo*logy*). The difference between an affix and a combining form is that while both are able to combine with roots and words, combining forms may also combine with one another to create a new word (*morphology*), while affixes cannot combine with other affixes.

Stress shift plays a large role in neo-classical compounds. Most of the compounds with an initial combining form as the first member of a compound carry stress on the right member (the actual word). Certain final combining forms (*-logy*, *-graphy*, *-cracy*), though, have the ability to influence the stress in such a way, that it is located on the antepenultimate syllable.

As it is apparent, in some of the cases a linking element *-o-* is used to combine a combining form with a word. It has been observed that when the initial form ends with a vowel, *-o-* does not appear, while when the form it is attached to starts with a consonant it appears (Plag, 2002).

2.5.8 Other word-formation processes

For the sake of complexity, there are two, rather sparse, additional types of word-formation that have yet to be introduced: gradation and sound imitation.

Gradation (or ablaut combinations) are ‘twin forms consisting of one basic morpheme which is repeated with a different vowel in the other constituent’, such as *click-clack*, *ding-dong* or *zig-zag* (Knittlová, 1977).

Sound imitation is the process of converting the sound of nature to the language by using sounds, movements or actions that reproduce the sound. Words like *giggle*, *splash* or *rustle* belong to this category and are referred to as onomatopoeia.

Last but not least, postposition is the process of putting particles to existing words (mostly verbs) and forming new structures known as phrasal verbs (*give up*, *come across*) which have different, figurative meanings and are largely used in the colloquial English (Knittlová, 1977).

Since all of the relevant processes have been covered, the next section will focus on the actual analysis of texts.

3. Analysis and Results

In this section, modern authentic English texts will be analyzed in order to find the most common means of word-formation present as well as to find pecularities or exceptions. To make the analysis as helpful as possible, online newspaper articles and advertisements will be analyzed, as nowadays internet is the major information source, and so this analysis will be most relevant if done in that particular field. Nevertheless, these texts exist in printed form as well.

The main purpose is to determine the frequency of individual forms. All existing words have different theories on their etymology, so only one example of the possible origin will always be given to analyzed words. The letters in explanation box stand for the type of word class (*P = pronoun, A = adjective, N = noun, V = verb, Adv = adverb, C = conjunction, I = interjection, Pr = preposition*). If a word is capable of participating in a certain process, it will be included in the analysis. In some cases, where it is difficult to determine directionality, only the participating word classes will be listed, separated by commas. If a word is capable to change into multiple word classes and the original word (or earlier occurences of multiple words) is known, the individual derivatives will be separated by slashes (/). If a word is inflected in some way, the basic form of that particular word will be included in the analysis. Also, in texts 2-4 only words not occuring in the previous texts will be analyzed to increase the percentage of individual analyzed words.

Text 01 – Overview:

How to **teach** a child about panhandlers

Adapted from a recent **online discussion**. **Question**: **Any suggestion**s **for explaining to** a 7-year-old **why** I don't **give change** to every panhandler who asks? I **walk her** to **school through** an **urban** area and **have** already **deflect**ed her questions about **this more time**s than I **care** to **admit**. **Answer**: "I **think there** are better ways to **help people than** to give them **spare** change. For **example**, I give **money** to **group**s **that** help **homeless** people." **Then do**. Have her **watch you**.

Even better, **encourage** her to **go** through her **toy**s, **book**s, **and clothing** to **see if** there's **anything** she has **outgrown** and can **donate**. If you can **up** that to **volunteering** at a

shelter, even better. **Just** not **as** a **token on** a **holiday**; that **create**s more **problem**s than **solution**s for shelters.

If she asks more questions — **like** the **obvious one**, "Why?" — you can **say** that spare change might help solve an **immediate** problem, like an **empty stomach**, **but** that a **good charity will** help solve problems **longerterm**. **Comment**: **When** I lived **in** New York, I **got** to **know** the **regular** panhandlers **along my route** to **work**. Instead of giving money, I **made sandwiches** and **veggie strip**s. If I **ran into** one of them, I'd give **it** to them. If not, then I had veggies to **snack on myself**. I made **peanut butter** sandwiches **since** they **last**ed a **couple** of days **without affecting taste**.

I donate to United Way for the **systemic** help, but it was **hard** even as an **adult** to **turn away** from a plea for help. This way I didn't give money, but if they were **really** in **need**, I was **able** to **feed** them a **single meal**. **Answer**: **Very thoughtful** idea, thank you. (**Some outreach** groups **suggest sunflower** butter due to **allergy concern**s.) **Comment**: Since you're in **D.C.**: Do you **ever pass** people selling "**Street Sense**"? When you **buy** the **paper** (have the 7-year-old **handle** the **transaction**), you can **explain what** "Street Sense" is (a **newspaper produce**d and **sold by** homeless people), and how the person selling the **paper** is helping **him-** or **herself**. In **nearly** every **issue** there is a Vendor Profile you can **share** with her, about how "Street Sense" has helped the **vendor get back** in the **game**. Answer: D.C.-**specific**, but the idea of **supporting** "get back in the game" **program**s is **widely applicable**. Thanks.

(Source: http://www.pressreader.com/category/entertainment)

A comprehensive analysis of the text is to be found in Appendix 1.

Text 01 - Analysis:

Each relevant word for the analysis is in bold in the text above. The main part of the analysis is identical to all analyzed texts (therefore this section will no longer be present in the upcoming analyses) and consists of a descriptive chart with four sections: word (the word that is being researched), origin (the word from which the word originated, as well as the language in which it appeared for the first time or, if neither of this is known, an approximate date of first appearance), word-formation process (the occuring word formation process) and additional details (such as the direction of conversion or the subtype of affixation).

Text 01 - Occuring affixes:

In the first text, a large sum of various affixes is apparent. From the analysis, it is possible to observe that suffixation in particular is more common than prefixation in the English language. Most of the affixes are of different origin than English, with Latin and Greek being especially common. Some of the affixes also are of French or Gothic origin. Despite this, there are some affixes of English origin appearing in the text as well. Certain affixes appear in the text multiple times, such as suffixes *–ing* and *–ion*, while other ones appear only once (*-able*, *-or*).

Text 01 - Commentary:

After the analysis of the text and observation of the appearing word-formation processes, it is now possible to form the first frequency chart which will list the occuring word-formation processes according to their frequency.

WORD-FORMATION PROCESS	FREQUENCY
conversion	112
affixation	37
compounding	11
postposition	3
clipping	1
back-formation	1
abbreviation	1

As we can see, the most prominent word-formation process in terms of participation is clearly compounding with over than 100 occurences in the text which should not be surprising, as it has already been determined that compounding has the lowest amount of restrictions out of the word-formation processes. However, the sheer amount of occurences is definitely large and this points at conversion being the most productive word-formation process in the English language.

As all of the words that can undergo conversion were analyzed (and not only the actually converted ones), one might think that there might be a certain bias on conversion in this analysis. However, as far as affixation (which is usually considered to be the most frequent word-formation process) is concerned, it is observable that affixation is the most

recurring word-formation process out of the following ones, which was certainly expected. It is important to keep in mind that all affixated words (despite their non-English origin) are a part of the analysis, therefore the result of conversion being the most common still applies. This comprehensive analysis of the presence of all possible candidates for word-formation processes does not apply to additional word-formation processes (such as postposition) due to their low frequency of occurence as well as another condition (of another word being present) that limits their density.

Compounding can also be seen as a quite productive word-formation process. Even though 9 occuring units in a text of such extent may seem rather miniscule, a substantial gap between compounding and the following processes is present, nevertheless.

When looking at the frequency of processes that appear towards the end of the chart, it is impossible not to notice their rather low, almost non-existent frequency. This may point to a hypothesis that there could actually be two major groups of word-formation processes: very common processes and rarely appearing ones with theoretically no options available in between, meaning that either a word-formation process is largely common or mostly non-appearing. This will be further discussed in the following commentaries.

Text 02 (Excerpt) - Overview:

Europe **Face**s **Unpleasant Choice**s **Over** Ukraine

Russian President Vladimir Putin's **decision** to **annex** Crimea has **shake**n the 28 **nation**s of the **European Union**— **collectively** and **individually**—**far out** of their **comfort zone**.

They had better get **use**d to it. The bloc is **now confront**ed with **managing two contrasting relationship**s with **neighbors** of the **sort** it doesn't **look well equip**ped to handle. And managing those relationships will **carry financial** and **economic cost**s.

Their **first challenge** will be **relation**s with a **relatively hostile** Russia that appear **likely** to be on **edge** for a **long time**. Their **second** will be a long-term and **potentially expensive effort** to help Ukraine— in the face of likely **blocking** efforts from Moscow.

The bloc's **leader**s this **week** watched Mr. Putin **spurn** their **call**s for **diplomacy** and **take control** of Crimea.

Their **initial reaction**, **judg**ing from their comments **ahead** of a **summit** in Brussels **Thursday** in **which** they were **expect**ed to **discuss sanction**s on Russia into the **early hour**s

of **Friday**, was to **add** more **name**s to a **list** of 21 people facing visa **ban**s and **asset freeze**s—a list **dominate**d by **minor official**s that **German defense minister** Volker Rühe **describe**s as a **sign** of "**European unimpressiveness**."

By **contrast**, sanctions **announce**d in Washington Thursday **seem**ed **aim**ed at **seriously shaking** the **circle around** Mr. Putin.

It wasn't **clear** Thursday **night whether** the **U.S. move** would encourage the European leaders to take a harder **line**—as some **government**s, **includ**ing Poland and the **U.K.**, are now **urg**ing. But, to **date**, **most** of the European **political** discussion around **prospective** sanctions has **emphasize**d the "costs" they would have for the **countries implement**ing them. (...)

(Source: http://www.pressreader.com/)

A comprehensive analysis of the text is to be found in Appendix 2.

Text 02 – Newly occuring affixes:

Similarily to the first analyzed text, a plethorea of affixes can be observed and the number is still significantly large, even though only the newly appearing ones are listed. Once again, the total amount of suffixes is larger than the total amount of prefixes, confirming the hypothesis that suffixation is the most productive sub-type of affixation. In this text, most of the affixes come from Latin (as in the previous text, however, in this text the number of Latin affixes is higher), such as *in-*, *dis-* or *–ent*. Nevertheless, some affixes of purely English origin appear in the text as well (*-ness* or *-ship*). Overall, as far as origin of affixes is concerned, the second text feels more balanced than the first one, even though the number of present suffixes still surpasses the amount of occuring prefixes.

Text 02 – Commentary

WORD-FORMATION PROCESS	FREQUENCY
conversion	67
affixation	50
compounding	2
abbreviation	2
back-formation	1

clipping	1

The frequency chart lists the occuring word-formation processes according to their frequency.

Observing the results and comparing them to the first text, at a first glance, the results may seem identical to the previous text, as the two leading occuring processes are in fact once again conversion and affixation, however, while looking deeper into the matter, certain differences from the first text may arise.

The first notable difference is the overall lower rate of word-formation processes in the text. The reason for that is most definitely the length of the text, which is approximately 120 shorter than the previous one. Surprisingly, this amount of words manages to sharply cut the difference in occurences between affixation and conversion to a ratio of 67:50. This is nowhere near the first text, where conversion had a massive lead over affixation.

Another notable difference is a major decline of occurences of compounds. In the previous text, compounding clearly stood up among the word-formation processes which were located at the bottom of the chart. Despite that, in this text, compounding shares its frequency with abbreviation, one of the rarer and more situational word-formation processes, resulting in compounding being extremely minor in comparison to the first text.

The number of various word-formation processes in this text is slightly lower due to the lack of postposition. Aside from that, all other word-formation processes are identical in both texts and the frequences of the rarer ones practically did not alter, meaning that affixation and conversion seem to be the two leading word-formation processes in the English language.

Advertisement 01 – Overview:

You're running because you **want** that **raise**, to be **all** you can be. But it's not **easy** when you work **sixty** hours a week **mak**ing **sneakers** in an **Indonesian factory** and your **friend**s **disappear** when they ask for a raise. **So** think **globally before** you **decide** it's so **cool** to **wear**.

(source: http://vigilantecitizen.files.wordpress.com/2011/02/16976.jpg)

A comprehensive analysis of the text is to be found in Appendix 3.

Advertisement 01 – Newly occuring affixes:

In the first advertisement, two additional affixes can be found in the text. The suffix *–ty* which is a suffix of numerals denoting multiples of ten and the prefix *Indo-* which is an India-representing combining form appearing in compound words. The reason for the low number of present affixes is the typical shortness of advertisements.

Advertisement 01 – Commentary:

This time, the analysis proved to be quite short, due to the lack of words in general, nevertheless, the results are as follows:

WORD-FORMATION PROCESS	FREQUENCY
conversion	12
affixation	8
compounding	1

This advertisement proved to be longer than it is typical and this is one of the reasons why it was chosen for the analysis.

As can be noted, the advertisement still managed to show the same results as normally published texts with conversion being the most common type of word-formation present, shortly followed by affixation with one additional occurence of compounding also happening.

These results prove to be rather surprising, as in the previous text a hypothesis about a possible link between the length of text and the occurences of conversion has been made, as the total number or words capable of undergoing conversion was much lower than in the first text. According to this theory, affixation should be the leading word-formation process in this case, as the total amount of analyzed words is significantly lower in comparison to the previous analysis. In spite of that, conversion still is the most frequent process in this text being followed by affixation and one additional occurence of compounding, thus disproving the hypothesis.

It is now safe to assume that compounding is the most common word-formation process out of those which usually appear at the bottom part of frequncy charts of analyzed texts as

well as being the third most common word-formation process in English. Also, these observations point at no major differences in the frequencies of word-formation processes between advertisements and newspaper texts.

Advertisement 02 – Overview:

One child is **hold**ing **something** that's been banned in America to **protect** them. **Guess** which one. We won't sell Kinder **chocolate egg**s in the **interest** of child **safety**. Why not **assault weapon**s?

(source: http://s3-ec.buzzfed.com/static/enhanced/webdr02/2013/6/25/10/enhanced-buzz-wide-28005-1372172298-28.jpg)

A comprehensive analysis of the text can be found in Appendix 4.

Advertisement 02 – Newly occuring affixes:

Being a short advertisement, only three new occuring affixes are to be located within the text: *pro-* (a prefix indicating favor for some party, system, idea, etc., without identity with the group), *inter-* (a prefix occuring in loanwords from Latin, where it meant "between," "among," "in the midst of," "mutually," "reciprocally," "together," "during" and is on this model used in the formation of compound words) and finally, *as-* (a variant of *ad-*, appearing before *s*).

Advertisement 02 – Commentary:

In the final analysis, these word-formation processes were observed:

WORD-FORMATION PROCESS	FREQUENCY
conversion	8
affixation	4
compounding	1

Once again, the results do not present any surprising results and are identical with the previous ones with only conversion, affixation and compounding being present. Interestingly,

it is possible to note that the percentage of conversion in comparison to affixation seems to be 50 % higher in this text, as well as the percentage of affixation seems to be 50 % higher than the occurence of compounding. Taking this into account, it has now been established that the three most common word-formation processes in English are indeed conversion, affixation and compounding. Interestingly, all 8 present conversions involve noun as either the primary word or the secondary one.

Final summary of analysis:

Now, since all texts have been properly researched, the following chart combines the frequency of word-formation processes in all four texts, thus bringing the final results:

WORD-FORMATION PROCESS	FREQUENCY
conversion	199
affixation	99
compounding	15
postposition	3
abbreviation	3
clipping	2
backformation	2

Notably, the final results confirm the hypothesis made in the commentary for advertisement 02 with conversion being twice as productive and therefore frequent than affixation in English texts. Of course, results may vary depending on whether the focus is put plainly on each word that can participate in conversion or only the converted ones, however, words with Latin affixes were also analyzed, even though these affixes are not of English origin. As far as affixes in general are concerned, it has been proved that suffixes are much more common than prefixes.

Also, it has been comfirmed that compounding is the third most common word-formation process in the English language, while the remaining ones only infrequently appear in texts and advertisements. Following the hypothesis about the rarity of word-formation processes, conversion and affixation are to be considered the most frequent and important word-formation processes, being followed by compounding which serves as a breaking point

between the extremely common processes and the rarely occuring ones, such as postposition or abbreviation.

As a result, it is possible to conclude the analysis with stating that conversion is the least restricted word-formation process in English (and support the statement made by Bauer, 1983), and therefore the most frequent one, as well as there are no major differences regarding word-formation between newspaper articles and advertisements.

4. Conclusion

The main aim of the thesis is to determine the most frequent and therefore productive (capable of creating the largest amount of new words) word-formation process in English newspaper articles and advertisements. In order to do so, this thesis covers the notions of word and word-formation (a way of creating new words from already existing words or morphemes) in the English language. While doing so, it shows the difference between word-formation and borrowing from other languages, the most prominent method of aquiring new words in English.

Furthermore, it describes the way how words are percieved and stored in human minds, the importance of productivity (the ability of a word to create a new one) and covers in detail all of the most relevant word-formation processes. Few information about the style of newspaper writing and the correct way of writing advertisements is also provided.

The thesis presents a detailed analysis of newspaper texts and advertisements in order to determine the most frequent and productive word-formation process. Each individual word was looked up in a dictionary in order to figure out its origin and possible occurences of word-formation processes. This results in a comprehensive analysis or aforementioned texts and advertisements with charts detailing their origin, the word-formation processes being involved with those particular words, as well as some extra details for those processes (such as the directionality of conversion - a word-formation process in which a new word is created from an existing word without changing its form or spelling by changing the word class of that particular word - or a list of occuring affixes with short descriptions in the case of affixation which is a word-formation process forming new words by attaching new elements to roots – the only parts of any words that are always present - of existing words). Each word capable of participating in conversion or containing affixes of foreign origin is also included in the analysis, making the analysis truly thorough.

The final results point at conversion being the least restricted word-formation process in the English language. The second most common word-formation process proved to be affixation. Majority of the affixes are of Latin origin and in general, suffixes are much more common than prefixes. These are the two major word-formation processes in the English language, as well as in newspaper texts and advertisements.

While some other word-formation processes have also appeared in the texts (such as standard short forms used in the language - abbreviations), their frequency was extremely low and in most cases, almost non-existent. Only compounding (the process in which two

words are combined to form a new one) proved to have a slightly higher frequency than the remaining word-formation processes and can therefore be considered the third most productive and common word-formation in English newspaper articles and advertisements.

An additional study of the area of word-formation could focus on the rarer word-formation processes and determine the instances, in which these processes may be more common than in newspaper texts or advertisements.

REFERENCE LIST

Adams, V. (1973). *An introduction to modern English word-formation*. London, Great Britain: Longman Group Ltd.

Aitchison, J. (2012). *Words in the mind: An introduction to the mental lexicon* (4th ed.). West Sussex: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Algeo, J. (1977). Blends, a structural and systemtic view. *American Speech, 52*, 47-64.

Aronoff, M. (1976). *Word-formation in generative grammar*. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.

Balteiro, I. (2007). *The directionality of conversion in English: A dia-synchronic study*. Retrieved March 2, 2014, from http://books.google.cz/books?id=ThBWQQqg1dEC&pg=PA89&lpg=PA89&dq=directionality+conversion&source=bl&ots=TVbFXv2RLB&sig=FyGFRcWGrzo_3u1i1rgWmW3VFEI&hl=cs&sa=X&ei=kFgTU73dDPSh7AaQiYGAAQ&sqi=2&ved=0CE8Q6AEwAw#v=onepage&q&f=false

Bauer, L. (1983). *English word-formation*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press

Bloomfield, L. (1935). *Language*. London, Great Britain: George Allen & Unwin.

Gries, S. T. (2004). Shouldn't it be *breakfunch*? A quantitative analysis of blend structure in English. *Linguistics*, *42*(3), 639-667.

Hernandéz, S. V. (1999). *Many questions and few answers: On conversion in English*. Retrieved March 3, 2014, from http://rua.ua.es/dspace/bitstream/10045/5963/1/RAEI_12_14.pdf

Higgins, C. (2011, April 28). *The Elusive Hapax Legomenon | Mental Floss*. Retrieved February 19, 2014, from http://mentalfloss.com/article/27617/elusive-hapax-legomenon

Hudson, R. A. (1975). Problems in the analysis of ed-adjectives. *Journal of Linguistics* 11, 69-72. p. 93.

Hupp, J. M., Sloutsky, V. M., & Culicover, P. W. (n.d.). *Modifying the suffixation preference across domains*. Retrieved February 27, 2014, from http://cogdev.cog.ohio-state.edu/docs/2008/suffixation-published.pdf

Jamet, D. (n.d.). *A morphophonological approach to clipping in English - Can the study of clipping be formalized?* Retrieved March 4, 2014, from http://lexis.univ-lyon3.fr/IMG/pdf/Lexis_special_1_Jamet.pdf

Joandi, L. (2012). *Productivity Measurements Applied to Ten English Prefixes: A comparison of different measures of morphological productivity based on ten prefixes in English | Linnea Joandi - Academia.edu*. Retrieved February 19, 2014, from

http://www.academia.edu/2559024/Productivity_Measurements_Applied_to_Ten_English_Prefixes_A_comparison_of_different_measures_of_morphological_productivity_based_on_ten_prefixes_in_English

Journalese: A strange English dialect | The Economist. (2012, April 3). Retrieved February 23, 2014, from http://www.economist.com/blogs/johnson/2012/04/journalese

Kemmer, S. (2008). *Words in English: Types of word formation*. Retrieved February 11, 2014, from http://www.ruf.rice.edu/~kemmer/Words/wordtypes.html

Kosur, H. M. (2012). *Understand forming new words: Derivation and back-formation in English*. Retrieved February 28, 2014, from http://www.brighthubeducation.com/esl-lesson-plans/59338-word-back-formation-list/

Kosur, H. M. (2013). *Grammatical conversion in English: Converting words into other parts of speech*. Retrieved March 2, 2014, from http://www.brighthubeducation.com/esl-lesson-plans/59339-teaching-word-formation-conversion/

Koziol, H. (1937). *Handbuch der englischen wortbildungslehre*. Heidelberg.

Knittlová, D. (1977). *Funkční styly v angličtině a v češtině.* . Olomouc: Univerzita Palackého.

Lipka, L. (1977). Lexikaliseirung, Idiomatisierung und Hypostasierung als Probleme einer synchronischen Wortbildungslehre. In Brekle & Kastovsky (eds.).

Marchand, H. (1969). *English word-formation* (2nd ed.). Wemding, Germany: C. H. Beck'sche Verlagsbuchhandlung (Oscar Beck) München.

Nichol, M. (2013). *The Basics of Back-Formation*. Retrieved February 28, 2014, from http://www.dailywritingtips.com/the-basics-of-back-formation/

Parks, B. (n.d.). *Basic News Writing*. Retrieved February 23, 2014, from http://www.ohlone.edu/people/bparks/docs/basicnewswriting.pdf

Peters, P. (2004). *The Cambridge Guide to English Usage*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Plag, I. (2002). *Word-formation in English*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press

Plag, I., Braun, M., Lappe, S., & Schramm, M. (2007). *Introduction to English linguistics*. Retrieved March 2, 2014, from http://books.google.cz/books?id=0a9No3819R0C&pg=PA100&lpg=PA100&dq=conversion+linguistics&source=bl&ots=SAppB87a-i&sig=TUMVP6l8qvcpuyNweflX8I_nXIk&hl=cs&sa=X&ei=hUgTU-WrOOfy7AbK44GABQ&ved=0CGwQ6AEwBjgK#v=onepage&q=conversion%20linguistics&f=false

Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S., Leech, G., & Svartvik, J. (1985). *A comprehensive grammar of the English language*. New York, USA: Longman Inc.

Rubba, J. (2000). *Syllable structure in English*. Retrieved February 26, 2014, from http://cla.calpoly.edu/~jrubba/phon/syllables.html

Ruskiewicz, P. (2002). *On the status of infixation and circumfixation in English morphology*. Retrieved February 27, 2014, from http://ifa.amu.edu.pl/psicl/files/38/08Ruszkiewicz.pdf

Stein, G. (1976). Semi-productive Lexical Rules: A Note on –ed Adjectives. *Journal of English Linguistics* 10, 30-3. p. 93.

Štekauer, P. & Lieber, R. (2005). *Handbook of word-formation.* Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.

Štekauer, P. (n.d.) *Word-formation*. Retrieved January, 17, from: http://www.uloz.to/xvXMPia/word-formation-p-stekauer-pdf

Zamma, H. (2012). *Patterns and categories in English suffixation and stress placement: A theoretical and quantitative study*. Retrieved February 27, 2014, from http://roa.rutgers.edu/content/article/files/1255_zamma_1.pdf

Zimmer, K. E. (1964). *Affixal negation in English and other languages: An investigation of restricted productivity*. New York: Linguistic Circle of New York.

DICTIONARIES

Define affixation | Dictionary and thesaurus. Accessed at: http://affixation.askdefine.com/

Dictionary and thesaurus – Merriam-Webster online. Accessed at: http://www.merriam-webster.com/

Dictionary.com – Free online English dictionary. Accessed at: http://dictionary.reference.com/

The online dictionary of language terminology. Accessed at: http://www.odlt.org/ballast/hapax_legomenon.html

Appendix 1

Text 01 - Analysis:

WORD	ORIGIN	PROCESS	DETAILS
how	hwaiwa (Gothic)	conversion	participates in conversion (Adv, C -> N)
teach	techen (Middle English)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N)
adapt	adaptāre (Latin)	affixation	prefixation, ad-
online	1945-50	conversion	particiapates in conversion (A -> Adv)
discussion	discussiōn- (Latin)	affixation	suffixation, -ion
question	quaestion- (Latin)	conversion, affixation	participates in conversion (N -> V); suffixation, -tion
any	ǣnig (Old English)	conversion, affixation	participates in conversion (A, Adv -> P); suffixation, -y
suggestion	suggestio (Middle English)	affixation	suffixation, -ion
for	per (Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (P -> C)
explaining	explanen (Middle English)	affixation	suffixation, -ing
to	tō (Old English)	conversion	participates in convesion (P -> Adv)
why	hwī (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (Adv, C -> N/I)
give	giban (Gothic)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N)
change	changer (Anglo-French)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N)
walk	walken (Middle English)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N)
her	hire (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (P -> N)
school	scholé (Greek)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> A/V)
through	thyrel (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (P -> Adv/A)
urban	urbānus (Latin)	affixation	suffixation, -an
have	haban (Gothic)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N)
deflect	dēflectere (Latin)	affixation	prefixation, de-
this	thissi (Old Norse)	conversion	participates in conversion (P, A ->

			Adv)
more	maiza (Gothic)	conversion	participates in conversion (A, Adv, N -> P)
time	timen (Middle English)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> A/V)
care	caru (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (N, V)
admit	admittere (Latin)	affixation	prefixation, ad-
think	thagkjan (Gothic)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> A/N)
there	dār (Old High German)	conversion	participates in conversion (Adv -> P/N/A/I)
help	helpan (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N/I)
people	populus (Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
than	dan (Dutch)	conversion	participates in conversion (C -> P)
spare	spær (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N/A)
example	essample (Anglo-French)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
money	moneye (Middle English)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> A)
group	gruppo (Italian)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
that	tó (Greek)	conversion	participates in conversion (P -> A/Adv/C)
homeless	hāmlēas (Old English)	affixation	suffixation, -less
then	thonne (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (Adv -> A/N)
do	dōn (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N)
watch	wacchen (Middle English)	conversion	participates in conversion (N, V)
you	iu (Old High German)	conversion	participates in conversion (P -> N)
even	efne (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (A -> Adv/V)
encourage	encoragen (Middle English)	affixation	prefixation, en-
go	gān (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N/I/A)

toy	toye (Middle English)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> A/V)
book	bōk (Old Norse)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V/A)
and	and (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (C -> N)
clothing	clāthian (Old English)	affixation	suffixation, -ing
see	seen (Middle English)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N)
if	iba (Old High German)	conversion	participates in conversion (C -> N)
anything	ani thing (Middle English)	compounding	a P-N compound (any + thing)
she	sēo (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (P -> N)
outgrow	growen (Middle English)	affixation	prefixation, out-
can	kann (Gothic)	conversion	participates in conversion (N, V)
donate	donation- (Latin)	back-formation	from donation
up	iup (Gothic)	conversion	participates in conversion (Adv, A -> P/N/V)
volunteering	voluntaire (= volunteer; French)	affixation	suffixation, -ing
shelter	scieldtruma (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
just	jūstus (Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (A -> Adv)
as	as (Middle English)	conversion	participates in conversion (Adv -> C/P/Pr/N)
token	tāc (e) n (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V/A)
on	on (Middle English)	conversion	participates in conversion (P, Adv -> A)
holiday	hālig (holy) + (dæg) day (Old English)	compounding, conversion	an A-N compound (holy + day), participates in conversion (N -> V)
problem	problēma (Greek)	conversion, affixation	participates in conversion (N -> A); prefixation, pro-
solution	solūtiōn- (Latin)	affixation	suffixation, -ion
like	galeiks (Gothic)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N/A/P/Adv/C)
obvious	obvius (Latin)	affixation	suffixation, -ous

one	ān (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (A, N -> P)
say	secgan (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N/Adv/I)
immediate	immediātus (Medieval Latin)	affixation	prefixation, im-
empty	æmettig (Old English)	conversion, affixation	participates in conversion (A -> V/N); prefixation, a-; suffixation, -y
stomach	stómachos (Greek)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
but	būtan (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (C -> Pr/A/N)
good	gōd (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (A -> N/I/Adv)
charity	charité (Anglo-French)	affixation	suffixation, -ity
will	wiljan (Gothic)	conversion	participates in conversion (N, V)
longterm	1904	compounding	an A-N compound (long + term)
comment	commentum (late Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
when	hwenne (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (Adv, C -> P/N)
in	in (Gothic)	conversion	participates in conversion (P, Adv -> A/N)
get	geta (Old Norse)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N)
know	cnāwan (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N)
regular	rēgulāris (Late Latin)	affixation, conversion	suffixation, -ar; participates in conversion (A -> N)
along	andlang (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (P -> Adv)
my	mī (Middle English)	conversion	participates in conversion (A, P, I)
route	rute (Anglo-French)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)

work	werc (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
make	macian (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N)
sandwich	named after the fourth Earl of Sandwich	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
veggie	1965-70	clipping	from vegetable
strip	strippe (Middle Low German)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
run into	rinnen (Middle English), intō (Old English)	postposition, compounding	participates in postposition, P-P compound (in + to)
it	hit (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (P -> N)
snack	snak (Middle English)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
on	an (Middle English)	conversion	participates in conversion (P, Adv -> A)
myself	mesself (Middle English)	compounding	a P-N compound (my + self)
peanut	1790-1800	conversion, compounding	participates in conversion (N -> A), N-N compound (pea + nut)
butter	butere (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
since	sins (Middle English)	conversion	participates in conversion (A, C -> P)
last	latst (Middle English)	conversion	participates in conversion (V, N, Adv -> A)
couple	1924	conversion	participates in conversion (N, V -> A)
without	withūtan (Old English)	compounding, conversion	a P –Adv compound (with + out); participates in conversion (P, Adv -> C/N)
affecting	affectāre (Latin)	affixation	suffixation, -ing
taste	taster (Old French)	conversion	participates in N-V conversion
systemic	1795-1805	affixation, conversion	suffixation, -ic; participates in N-V conversion
hard	heard (Old English)	conversion	participates in rare A-Adv conversion

adult	adultus (Latin)	conversion	participates in N-A conversion
turn away	tornus (Latin), aweg (Old English)	conversion, postposition	participates in conversion (turn; V -> N) and postposition (away)
really	reālis (Late Latin)	conversion, affixation	participates in conversion (Adv -> I); suffixation, -ly
need	nīed (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
able	habilis (Latin)	conversion, affixation	participates in conversion (A -> N); suffixation, -ile
feed	fēdan (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N)
single	singulus (Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (A -> N/V)
answer	andswaru (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (N, V)
very	verai (Old French)	conversion	participates in conversion (A -> Adv)
thoughtful	1150-1200 (Middle English)	affixation	suffixation, -ful
some	sums (Gothic)	conversion	participates in conversion (A -> P/Adv)
outreach	cirka 1568	affixation	prefixation, out-
suggest	suggestus (Latin)	affixation	prefixation, sug-
sunflower	flōs sōlis (translation from Latin)	compounding	an A-N compound (sun + flower)
allergy	állergy (Greek)	affixation	suffixation, -y
concern	concernere (Medieval Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (V ->N)
comment	commentum (Late Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
D.C.	N/A	abbreviation	from District of Columbia
ever	æfre (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (Adv -> A)
pass	passer (Anglo-French)	conversion	participates in conversion (V ->N)
street	strēt (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> A)
sense	sēnsus (Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
buy	bycgan (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N)
handle	hand (Old English)	conversion,	participates in

		affixation	conversion (N, V); suffixation, -le
transaction	trānsāctiōn- (Latin)	affixation	suffixation, -ion
explain	explānāre (Latin)	affixation	prefixation, ex-
what	wat (Dutch)	conversion	participates in conversion (P -> N/A/Adv/I/C)
newspaper	1660-70	compounding	a N-N compound (news + paper)
produce	producere (Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (V ->N)
sell	sellan (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N)
by	bī (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (P -> Adv/A/N)
paper	rus (Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> A/V)
himself	him selfum (Old English)	compounding	a P-N compound (him + self)
herself	hire-selfe (Middle English)	compounding	a P-N compound (her + self)
nearly	1530-40	affixation	suffixation, -ly
issue	issu (Old French)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
profile	fīlum (Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
share	scear (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
vendor	venditor (Latin)	affixation	suffixation, -or
get	geta (Old Norse)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N)
back	bæc (Old English)	conversion, postposition	participates in conversion (N -> Adv/A/V), participates in postposition (get back)
game	gamen (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> A/V)
specific	specificus (Late Latin)	affixation, conversion	suffixation, -ic; participates in conversion (A -> N)
supporting	supportāre (Middle Latin)	affixation	suffixation, -ing
program	programme (French)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
widely	1655-65	affixation	suffixation, -ly
applicable	applicābilis (Medieval Latin)	affixation	suffixation, -able

Text 01 - Occuring affixes:

-ion	used in Latin and in English to form nouns from stems of Latin adjectives
-tion	used to form abstract nouns from verbs or stems not identical with verbs, whether as expressing action, or a state, or associated meanings
-ing	a suffix of nouns formed from verbs, expressing the action of the verb or its result, product, material, etc
-less	an adjective suffix meaning “without”
en-	a prefix occurring originally in loanwords from French and productive in English on this model, forming verbs with the general sense “to cause (a person or thing) to be in” the place, condition, or state named by the stem
out-	a prefixal use of out, adv., occurring in various senses in compounds and serving also to form many transitive verbs denoting a going beyond, surpassing, or outdoing in the particular action indicated
-ity	a suffix used to form abstract nouns expressing state or condition
-ic	a suffix forming adjectives from other parts of speech, occurring originally in Greek and Latin loanwords
-ful	a suffix meaning “full of,” “characterized by,” “tending to,” “able to,” “as much as will fill”
-le	a suffix of verbs having a frequentative force, a noun suffix having originally a diminutive meaning or indicating agent or instrument
-ly	a suffix forming adverbs from adjectives
-able	a suffix meaning “capable of, susceptible of, fit for, tending to, given to,” associated in meaning with the word able, occurring in loanwords from Latin; used in English to form adjectives by addition to stems of any origin
-ile	a suffix of adjectives expressing capability, susceptibility, liability, aptitude, etc.
-ar	variant of the adjective-forming suffix -al , joined to words in which an l precedes the suffix

a-	a reduced form of the Old English preposition on, meaning “on,” “in,” “into,” “to,” “toward,” preserved before a noun in a prepositional phrase, forming a predicate adjective or an adverbial element, or before an adjective as a moribund prefix with a verb, and in archaic and dialectal use before a present participle in –ing, and added to a verb stem with the force of a present participle
im-	variant of in-; before b, m, p
-ous	a suffix forming adjectives that have the general sense “possessing, full of” a given quality
ad-	a prefix occurring in loanwords from Latin, where it meant “toward” and indicated direction, tendency, or addition
-y	a native English suffix of adjectives meaning “characterized by or inclined to” the substance or action of the word or stem to which the suffix is attached; a noun-forming suffix with a variety of functions in contemporary English, added to monosyllabic bases to create words that are almost always informal
-an	a suffix occurring originally in adjectives borrowed from Latin, formed from nouns denoting places or persons, and now productively forming English adjectives by extension of the Latin pattern
de-	a prefix occurring in loanwords from Latin; also used to indicate privation, removal, and separation, negation, descent, reversal, intensity
sug-	variant of sub-, before g
ex-	a prefix meaning “out of,” “from,” and hence “utterly,” “thoroughly,” and sometimes meaning “not” or “without” or indicating a former title, status, etc.; freely used as an English formative
-or	a suffix occurring in loanwords from Latin, directly or through Anglo-French, usually denoting a condition or property of things or persons, sometimes corresponding to qualitative adjectives ending in -id

Appendix 2

Text 02 - Analysis:

WORD	ORIGIN	PROCESS	DETAILS
face	facen (Late Middle English)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
unpleasant	1525-35	affixation	prefixation, un-
choice	choisir (Anglo-French)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> A)
over	over (Middle English)	conversion	participtaes in conversion (A, Adv, Pr -> V/I/N)
Russian	Russiānus (Medieval Latin)	conversion, affixation	participates in conversion (N -> A); suffixation, -an
president	praesident- (Latin)	affixation	suffixation, -ent
decision	dēcīsiōn- (Latin)	affixation	suffixation, -ion
annex	annexe (French)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N)
shake	sceacan (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N)
nation	nātiōn- (Latin)	affixation	suffixation, -ion
European	Eurōpae (Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (A -> N)
union	unus (Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> A)
collectively	collēctīvus (Latin)	affixation	suffixation, -ive, -ly
individually	individuus (Latin)	affixation	suffixation, -ly
far	faran (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (Adv -> A)
out	ūt (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (Adv, V -> Pr/A/N)
comfort	confortāre (Late Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N)
zone	zōnē (Greek)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> A/V)
use	ūsus (Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
now	nyn (Greek)	conversion	participates in conversion (Adv -> N/A/C)
confront	confrontārī (Medieval Latin)	affixation	prefixation, con-
managing	maneggiare (Italian)	affixation	suffixation, -ing
two	twā (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> A)

contrasting	contrasto (Italian)	affixation	suffixation, -ing
relationship	1735-45	affixation	sufixation, -ship
neighbor	nēahgebūr (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> A/V)
sort	sort- (Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
look	lōcian (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (V-> N)
well	wel (Middle English)	conversion	participates in conversion (Adv -> N/V/I)
equip	equiper (Middle French)	conversion, clipping	participates in conversion (V -> N); shortened form of equipment
carry	carricāre (Late Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N)
financial	1760-70	affixation	suffixation, -ial
economic	oikonomikós (Greek)	affixation	suffixation, -ic
cost	constāre (Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
first	fyrst (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> A/Adv)
challenge	calumnia (Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (V-> N)
relation	relātiōn- (Latin)	affixation	suffixation, -ion
relatively	relātīvus (Late Latin)	affixation	suffixation, -ive, -ly
hostile	hostīlis (Latin)	affixation, conversion	suffixation, -ile; participates in conversion (A -> N)
likely	līkligr (Old Norse)	affixation, conversion	suffixation, -ly; participates in conversion (A -> Adv)
edge	ecg (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
long	lange (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (A -> N/Adv)
time	timen (Middle English)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> A/V)
second	secund (Anglo-French)	conversion	participates in conversion (A -> N/V/Adv)

potentially	potentialis (Late Latin)	affixation	suffixation, -al, -ly
expensive	expēnsa (Late Latin)	affixation	suffixation, -ive
effort	esfort (Old French)	affixation	prefixation, ex-
blocking	blok (Middle English)	affixation	suffixation, -ing;
leader	leder (Middle English)	affixation	suffixation, -er
week	weke (Middle English)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> Adv)
spurn	spurnan (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
call	kalla (Old Norse)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N)
diplomacy	diplomatie (French)	affixation	suffixation, -y
take	taka (Old Norse)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N)
control	contreroller (Anglo-French)	conversion, affixation	participates in conversion (N -> V); prefixation, counter-
initial	initiālis (Latin)	affixation, conversion	prefixation, in-; suffixation, -al; participates in conversion (A -> N)
reaction	āctiōn- (Latin)	affixation	prefixation, re-
judge	jūdicem (Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N)
ahead	hēafod (Old English)	affixation	prefixation, a-
summit	somete (late Middle English)	conversion, affixation	participates in conversion (N -> A/V); suffixation, -et
Thursday	Thursdæg (Old English)	compounding	thunder + day
which	hwilc (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (P ->A)
expect	ex (s) pectāre (Latin)	affixation	prefixation, ex-
discuss	discusser (Anglo-French)	affixation	prefixation, dis-
sanction	sānctiōn- (Latin)	conversion, affixation	participates in conversion (N -> V); suffixation, -ion
early	erlich (Middle English)	conversion, affixation	participates in conversion (A ->

			Adv/N); suffixation, -ly
hour	hōra (Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> A)
Friday	Frīgedæg (Old English)	compounding	frēo (free) + dæg (day)
add	addere (Latin)	affixation, conversion	prefixation, ad-; participates in conversion (V -> N)
visa	vīsa (Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (N ->V)
ban	bannan (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N)
list	leiste (German)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N)
asset	asez (Old French)	backformation	from assets
freeze	frese (late Middle English)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N)
dominate	dominātus (Latin)	affixation	suffixation, -ate
minor	minniza (Gothic)	conversion	participates in conversion (A -> N/V)
official	officiālis (late Latin)	conversion, affixation	participates in conversion (A -> N); suffixation, -al
German	Germānus (Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> A)
defense	defēnsum (Medieval Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
minister	ministrāre (Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
describe	dēscrībere (Latin)	affixation	prefixation, de-
sign	signāre (Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
European	Eurōpae (Latin)	conversion, affixation	participates in conversion (A -> N); suffixation, -eous, -an
unimpressiveness	impressus (Latin)	affixation	prefixation, un-; suffixation –ive, -ness
contrast	contrasto (Italian)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
announce	annūntiāre (Latin)	affixation	prefixation, an-
aim	adaestimāre (Latin)	affixation	prefixation, ad-
seriously	sēriōsus (Latin)	affixation	suffixation, -ous, -ly
shaking	skaka (Old Norse)	affixation, conversion	suffixation, -ing; participates in conversion (V -> N)

circle	circulus (Latin)	conversion	suffixation, -ule; participates in conversion (N -> V)
around	ronde (Old French)	affixation	prefixation, a-; conversion (Adv -> P)
clear	clārus (Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (A -> Adv/V)
night	nýx (Greek)	conversion	participates in conversion (A, N)
whether	hwathar (Gothic)	conversion	participates in conversion (C, P)
U.S.	unknown	abbreviation	from United States
move	movēre (Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
line	līnea (Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
government	governement (Old French)	affixation	suffixation, -ment
include	inclūdere (Latin)	affixation	prefixation, in-
U.K.	1892	abbreviation	from United Kingdom
urge	urgēre (Latin)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N)
date	daten (Middle English)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
most	māst (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (A, Adv -> N/P)
political	polītic (Latin)	affixation	suffixation, -al
prospective	prōspectīvus (Late Latin)	affixation	suffixation, -ive
emphasize	émphasis (Greek)	affixation	suffixation, -ize
country	contrāta (Vulgar Latin)	affixation, conversion	suffixation, -ate; participates in conversion (N -> A)
implement	implēmentum (Late Latin)	affixation, conversion	suffixation, -ment; participates in conversion (N -> V)

Text 02 – Newly occuring affixes:

un-	a prefix meaning “not,” freely used as an English formative, giving negative or opposite force in adjectives and their derivative adverbs and nouns and less freely used in certain other nouns
-ent	a suffix, equivalent to -ant, appearing in nouns and adjectives of Latin origin
-ive	a suffix of adjectives (and nouns of adjectival origin) expressing tendency, disposition, function, connection, etc.:
con-	variant of com- before a consonant (except b, h, l, p, r) and, by assimilation, before n
-ship	a native English suffix of nouns denoting condition, character, office, skill, etc.
-ial	variant of –al
re-	a prefix, occurring originally in loanwords from Latin, used with the meaning “again” or “again and again” to indicate repetition, or with the meaning “back” or “backward” to indicate withdrawal or backward motion
-al	a suffix with the general sense “of the kind of, pertaining to, having the form or character of” that named by the stem, occurring in loanwords from Latin, and productive in English on the Latin model, usually with bases of Latin origin
-ive	a suffix of adjectives (and nouns of adjectival origin) expressing tendency, disposition, function, connection, etc.:
-er	a suffix used in forming nouns designating persons from the object of their occupation or labor, or from their place of origin or abode, or designating either persons or things from some special characteristic or circumstance or a suffix serving as the regular English formative of agent nouns, being attached to verbs of any origin
counter-	combining form of counter , used with the meanings “against,” “contrary,” “opposite,” “in opposition or response to”; “complementary,” “in reciprocation,” “corresponding,” “parallel“; “substitute,” “duplicate”
in-	a prefix of Latin origin meaning primarily “in,” but used also as a verb-formative with the same force as in-
-et	a noun suffix having properly a diminutive force
dis-	a Latin prefix meaning “apart,” “asunder,” “away,” “utterly,” or having a privative, negative, or reversing force; used freely, especially with these latter senses, as an English formative
-ate	a suffix occurring in loanwords from Latin, its English distribution paralleling that of Latin

-eous	an adjectival suffix with the meanings “composed of,” “resembling, having the nature of,” occurring in loanwords from Latin; also, as a semantically neutral suffix, found on adjectives of diverse origin, sometimes with corresponding nouns ending in -ty
-ness	a native English suffix attached to adjectives and participles, forming abstract nouns denoting quality and state
-ment	a suffix of nouns, often concrete, denoting an action or resulting state, a product, or means
-ule	a suffix occurring in loanwords from Latin, originally diminutive nouns or noun derivatives of verbs
-ize	a verb-forming suffix occurring originally in loanwords from Greek that have entered English through Latin or French; within English, -ize, is added to adjectives and nouns to form transitive verbs with the general senses “to render, make”, “to convert into, give a specified character or form to”, “to subject to ”

Appendix 3

Advertisement 01 – Analysis:

WORD	ORIGIN	PROCESS	DETAILS
want	vanta (Old Norse)	conversion	participates in conversion (V ->N)
raise	reisen (Middle English)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N)
all	al (Middle English)	conversion	participates in conversion (A, Adv, P -> N)
easy	aisie (Middle English)	conversion	participates in conversion (A -> Adv/N)
sixty	sixtig (Old English)	conversion, affixation	participates in conversion (N -> A); suffixation, -ty
make	macian (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N)
sneaker	snīcan (Old English)	affixation	suffixation, -er
Indonesian	Indonêsia (nês = island in Greek)	conversion, affixation	participates in conversion (N -> A); prefixation, Indo-, suffixation, -an
factory	factōria (Medieval Latin)	affixation	suffixation, -y
friend	friend (Middle English)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
disappear	apperen (Middle English)	affixation	prefixation, dis-
so	swā (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (Adv, C, A, P, I)
globally	globe (Middle French)	affixation	suffixation, -al, -ly
before	beforean (Old English)	coneversion, affixation, compounding	participates in conversion (Pr, Adv, A -> C); affixation, -an; be + fore
decide	dēcīdere (Latin)	affixation	prefixation, de-
cool	cōl (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (A -> V/N/Adv/I)
wear	werian (Old English)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N)

Appendix 4

Advertisement 02 – Analysis:

WORD	ORIGIN	PROCESS	DETAILS
hold	haltan (Old High German)	conversion	participates in conversion (V-> N)
something	sum thing (Old English)	compounding, conversion	a P-N compound (some + thing); participates in conversion (P -> Adv/N)
protect	prōtēctus (Latin)	affixation	prefixation, pro-
guess	gesse (Middle English)	conversion	participates in conversion (V -> N)
chocolate	chocolātl (nahuatl)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> A)
egg	ōión (Greek)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)
interest	interess (Latin)	conversion, affixation	participates in conversion (N -> V); prefixation, inter-
safety	sauvete (Middle English)	affixation	suffixation, -ty
assault	assaltus (Medieval Latin)	conversion, affixation	participates in conversion (N -> V); prefixation, as-
weapon	vāpn (Old Norse)	conversion	participates in conversion (N -> V)

SUMMARY IN CZECH

Hlavním cílem této bakalářské práce je zjištění frekvence slovotvorných procesů v anglickém jazyce. Hlavním zaměřením analýzy jsou novinové články a reklamy. Práce obsahuje podrobnou teoretickou sekci, která rozebírá slovotvorbu včetně popisů nejdůležitějších pojmů (například pojmy slovo, slovotvorba či produktivita). Po teoretické části následuje část praktická, jejíž součástí je detailní analýza dvou novinových článků a dvou reklam, při níž byly hojně využity internetové slovníky. Každé slovo bylo vyhledáno ve slovníku, aby byl zjištěn jeho původ a možný slovotvorný proces. Výsledkem je důkladná analýza výše zmíněných novinových článků a reklam, která je doprovázena nejrůznějšími tabulkami, které podávají informace o původu slov a o slovotvorných procesech, které se týkají patřičných slov, společně s nejrůznějšími detaily (kupříkladu směr konverze v případě konverze nebo seznam afixů s krátkými informačními popisky v případě derivace). S ohledem na to, že každé slovo schopné konverze a stejně tak i slova, jejichž afixy nejsou anglického původu jsou součástí analýzy, lze analýzu označit za značně důkladnou. Výsledky ukazují, že konverze je proces, který nejméně podléhá jazykovým omezením a je tudíž zároveň nejčastějším slovotvorným procesem, který se vyskytuje v novinových článcích a reklamách se zhruba o 50 % vyšší frekvencí, než má derivace, která se běžně považuje za nejčastější slovotvorný proces v anglickém jazyce.