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both prefixation and suffixation. Borrowing also represents a common way to enhance the vitality of the English language to interact with other languages. Also, conversion is another productive process to produce words of any form class from another one without any change of form, so the change is related to its syntactic usage rather than word formation. Back-formation is a process where new words are formed from existing words by subtracting an affix thought to be part of the old word. There is also echoism, which is a good source to enrich the English language with many new words.

Some of these processes are unpredictable like clipping, blends, acronyms, and word-manufacture, reduplication and mixed formations. These forms cannot be predicted by specific rules without a far wider range of factors, e.g., in acronyms, one of the deciding factors seems to be the interests of acronym in what the initial letters of the phrase will be included.

It is worth to say that most of these processes are universal since they are very common and

frequent to enrich the vocabulary of the languages of the world, e.g., compounding, derivation which includes prefixation and suffixation, borrowing and coinage, that are the most prominent for their universality.

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andan unaltered lexemic base or a normal affix .It is productive and the words formed by this method are less predictable .Examples are poromeric >porosity +polymer with the English suffix- ic ;scram-jet >supersonic combustion ramjet; and molechism >molecule + chemical +organism.

## Conclusion

Even though this study is about word-formation, it is not possible to get very far without some basic knowledge about morphology. Morphology is concerned with the structure of the word which is conceived as the smallest of the units that make up a sentence or an utterance, and the morphological analysis is the process by which linguists break complex words into their component parts. It includes inflectional and derivational morphology. The latter, i.e., derivational one is concerned with the word formation. The morphological rules also are in the grammar, revealing the relations between words and providing the means for forming new words.

Word-formation refers to all processes by which lexical items

are derived from, or related to, other lexical items. New words may be added to the vocabulary or lexicon of a language in various ways that some of them are created outright to fit some purposes.

The most common and frequent process of enlarging the vocabulary of all languages is compounding. Compounds can be classified according to the functions they perform in a sentence as noun, adjective, verb and adverb. The vast majority of compounds in English are nouns. There are almost no limits on the kinds of combination that occur in English to form new words. One of the interesting things about compounding is that the meaning of compounds is unpredictable by examining their individual word parts. The meaning of a compound can be recognized as a unit. The problematic nature of compounds may be clarified by the fact that although “a redhead” is a person with red head, a blackhead doesn’t mean a person with black hair. New words may also enter a language in a variety of other ways, such as derivation which represents one of the most common ways used to form new words, and it involves

The -on at the end of these words look like a suffix which might represent a morpheme with the meaning "artificial, synthetic".

Bauer (1983: 239) reports that there is a marginal group of the words, especially scientific words, that are abstracted from long technical phrases in a way that is reminiscent of blending and acronyming. For example, consider "pemoline < Phenylimino – Oxazolidinone" or "Picloram < aminotrichloropicolinic acid" where the groups of letters selected from the bases are reversed in the resulted words. Such formations are less motivated than the other categories and may be desired as examples of word manufacture. They are not obviously subject to rules other than phonotactic rules of English.

Yule (2010: 54) affirms that there is a group of words called eponyms which refer to new words based on the name of a person or a place, e.g. a hoover or a spangler. Other examples are sandwich (from the eighteenth-century Earl of sandwich who used to have bread with meat together while gambling), and jeans (from the Italian city of Genoa where this type of cloth was

first made). Some of them are technical terms that refer to those who first discovered or invented things, e.g., Fahrenheit (from the German, Gabriel Fahrenheit), volt (from the Italian, Alessandro Volta) and watt (from the Scottish inventor, James Watt). This process, forming new words from the names of persons and places, is called as Antonomasia by Stageberg (2000:134).

### 3.9.5 Reduplication

Stageberg (ibid) believes that it is a process of constructing a new word by doubling a word, with changing vowel or initial consonant, as in tip-top, hanky-panky. The basic morpheme is sometimes the first part, e.g., ticktock, but it may be the second part, like dilly-dally, or both parts, as in singsong, or none of them, like boogie-woogie. "twin-words" is a term that can be used to refer to words formed from such process.

### 3.9.6 Mixed Formation

Bauer (239-40 :1983) notes that there are some formations that seem to be a mixture of two or more of the processes or a mixture of the product of one of the processes

because it violates the phonological constraints of the English word structure, but the same thing cannot be said about GOM (Grand Old Man) or OD (Over-Dose). Another fact is that some letters forming acronyms are not the initial letters in the words in a phrase, e.g., KREEP, a type of moonrock, which means <Potassium, rare earth elements, phosphate>, where <K> is not the initial letter of Potassium but its chemical symbol. Commonly, acronyms are formed by taking more than one letter from the beginning of one or more of the words in the phrase that is the base of the acronym. Recent examples are Arvin (Army of the Republic of Vietnam), GHOST (Global Horizontal Sounding Technique), HILAC (Heavy Ion Linear Accelerator).

### 3.9.4 Word Manufacture

Stageberg (2000:128) calls it as invention, while Yule (2010: 53-4) calls it as coinage that is one of the least common processes of word formation in English, i.e. the creation of new words. The most well-known source for coinage is trade since there are many invented trade names for commercial products which become

general terms (usually without capital letters). Other examples are aspirin, nylon, Vaseline and zipper; more recent examples are granola, Kleenex, Teflon and Xerox. There are some invented terms that are of an ambiguous technical origin (e.g. te(tri)-fl(uor)-on), yet they are used as everyday words in the language. The most prominent contemporary example of the coinage is the word "google" which is the name of a company. The word "google" has been widely used to mean "to use the internet to find information". Also, the usual sources of coinage are new products and concepts (ebay) and new activities ("Have you tried ebay it?").

The purest cases of word manufacture are when a word is created ex nihilo, without morphological, phonological or orthographic motivation. Bares (1974: 181-82) states that computer programs usually provide new names that do not have etymologies. Since a human being uses many of these words provided by a computer, some of these invented words end up looking as if they have an etymology. The examples cited by Bares are antron, Dacron, krylon, and orlon.

as the spelling denotes, e.g., UNICEF, from United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund. When an acronym cannot be easily pronounced as a word, it is pronounced as a series of letters, e.g., NFL for National Football League.

Crystal (1995: 120) uses the term "initialisms" or for the acronyms that cannot be pronounced as a word, but as individual letters, such as BBC, DJ, MP, EC, and USA.

For Yule (2010: 58) acronyms are words formed from the initial letters of a group of other word, e.g., CD (compact disk), VCR (video cassette recorder) which are pronounced as a series of letters, and NATO, NASA which are pronounced as single words. Many acronyms become everyday terms like laser (light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation), and some come into use very fast regardless of their component meanings like ATM (automatic teller machine), PIN (personal identification number).

Using acronyms has been increased during the last part of the twentieth century. They are common and frequent in large organi-

zations in army, in government, and in big business (NABISCO, TEXACO, and ALCOA) since they offer helpful means for expressing long and cumbersome terms. Other examples which are used in a medical field are IV, and AIDS.

(Stageberg, 2000:131)

Bauer (1983:237-38) expresses that there are two sources for the unpredictability in acronyms. First, the acronym is formed with a certain amount of freedom from the phrase used as a base. For example, both parts of <Anglo-saxon> provide a letter for the acronym in WASP, while only the first part of a compound adjective provides a letter for acronym in <BASIC>. Also, a particle in a phrase either may provide a letter like <A> in <GRAS> from <as>, or may not provide a letter in others as <FIST> where the particle <of> does not provide any letter for the acronym. The second reason for the unpredictability in acronyms is that not every group of letters taken from words within a phrase is considered as an acronym, and there is no clear reason why some abbreviations must be ignored. BBC, For example, cannot be acronyms

use ‘vog’ which is a blend to talk about nearby volcano and fog problems. Other commonly used blends are bit (binary+digit), brunch (breakfast+lunch), and motel (motor+ hotel). Bauer (1983: 235-36) clarifies that blends are usually formed from the first part of one word and the last part of another. It is not a matter of mixing phonemes randomly or inserting one word into the middle of another. Considering Humpty Dumpty’s own ‘mimsy’ which is a blend from flimsy and miserable. This pair of words may freely supply us with other blends having the same content such as flimserable, fliserable, and misemsey. This doesn’t mean that there are no restrictions, but they are unclear and spurious. There is a given type of blends where the rules are clear. In this type of blend, two entire words are used as the bases, though there is overlap which may be in pronunciation or orthography, e.g., glasphalt, octopush, and wargasm. Adams(1973: 154ff) adds balloonic, guestimate, slanguage and swelegant. A third type of blend where the new form looks like that formed by other word-formation processes, espe-

cially a neo-classical compound, e.g., arcology (architectural ecology), autocide(automobile+ suicide), electrodelic (electro +psychedelic). Finally, there is a set of formations under blends which keep one of the two bases intact so it is uneasy to discern whether they are blends or compounds made up of one instance of clipping and one intact lexeme. Examples like cremains(cremate+remains) and carbecue(car+barbecue) tend to be blends, while others, like mocap(motor+camp) and frontlash(front+backlash) look like compounds. It is difficult to discern in the following examples: Amtrack (American+ track), boatel (boat+hotel), parawing(parachute+wing).(Bauer,1983:236) Generally speaking, blends are not well defined, and blending seems to shed off into compounding, neo-classical compounding, affixation, clipping, and acronyms.

### 3.9.3 Acronyms

Fromkin& Rodman (1993: 56) define an acronym as a word derived from the initials of several words. An acronym is pronounced

another type, less common, which retains the final part of the base lexeme, plane and phone. The third type that is rare is where the middle of the word is retained, but both ends are clipped, e.g., flu, liz, still, fridge. Grammatical units, such as modifier plus noun, can also undergo clipping, paratrooper, which is a clipped form of parachutist trooper. In this case, the first part is clipped, whereas the second one remains intact.

Bauer (1983: 233) confirms that sometimes both parts of a compound are clipped, but, in this case, it is uneasy to distinguish whether it is a clipping or a blend. The easiest way to distinguish them is the stress. The clipped compounds retain compound stress, whereas the other take simple word stress. Examples of clipped compounds are bodbiz, chicom, comsymp, intelsat, midcult, pro-am, sci-fi, and sitcom.

### 3.9.2 Blends

A blend is defined also by Bauer (1983: 234) as ‘a new lexeme formed from parts of two (or possibly more) other words in such a way that there is no transparent analysis into morphs’. Recent examples are

ballute (balloon+parachute), chunnel (channel+tunnel), dawk (dove+hawk) and shoat (sheep+goat). Fromkin & Rodman (1993: 56) state that blends are compounds which are less than compounds, e.g., smog, from smoke+ fog; motel, from motor+ hotel.

Stageberg (2000:131) states that blending is the fusion of the first part of one word with the last part of another into one word, e.g., stagflation. The meaning of a blend is the sum of the meaning of both bases. Many blends are momentary, i.e., it is available

today but gone tomorrow, and a few may become reliable in standard lexicon.

Yule (2010: 55) calls the process whereby two separate forms are combined to produce a single new term as blending. It is a process of taking only the initial part of one word and joining it to the last part of another one. In some parts of the USA, they use the word ‘gasohol’, which is a blend of gasoline and alcohol. Other examples of blends are ‘smog’ to talk about the combined effect of smoke and fog, smaze (smoke+ haze), smurk (smoke+murk). In Hawai’i, they

The meaning may also refer to the creature that produces the sound like bobwhite. Examples are moan, click, murmur, quack, thunder, whisper, lisp, chickadee, and bobolink.

### 3.9. Unpredictable Formations

Crystal (1995: 120) calls them as abbreviations and considers them as one of the most outstanding features of present-day English linguistic life. There are many reasons for using them. One is the desire for linguistic economy. Also, they are helpful to contribute to a concise style. They are a good way to express a sense of social identity: to use them is to be part of the social group to which these abbreviated forms belong. Moreover, Computer buffs are easily recognized by their usual use of such abbreviations like ROM and RAM, of DOS and WYSIWYG.

Aronoff (1976: 20) classifies these formations into groups and calls them as ‘oddities’. He states that many of these types rely on orthography, so they cannot be universal since orthography is not a prerequisite to linguistic behavior. These forms cannot be predicted by

rules without appealing to notions as euphony. These rules are related to factors more than other rules of word-formation.

#### 3.9.1 Clipping

Bauer (1983: 233) assures that this process includes shortening a lexeme (simplex or complex) which still retains the same meaning and still belongs to the form class. It is just a matter of stylistic variety. The way in which a lexeme is shortened is unpredictable. The recent examples are bi (<bisexual), binocs (<binoculars), deli (<delicatessen), jumbo (<jumbo jet). Fromkin & Rodman (1993: 58) call it abbreviations since longer words and phrases are abbreviated to become lexicalized, e.g., ad, bike, gas, phone, math, and so on.

Stageberg (2000: 129- 30) states that clipping means cutting off the beginning or the end of a word, or both, retaining a part of that word to represent the whole, lab, dorm, prof, prom, psych, mike, and so on. It is basically nouns which undergo this process to produce new words in the language. The most common type of clipping is that which retains the initial part of the word, e.g., math and gym. There is also

Bauer (1983: 231-32) notes that some authorities (e.g. Marchand:1969) call this process as ‘back-derivatives’ rather than back-formation, yet it is not always a derivational process that is reversed in back-formation. The classic example is ‘pea’, which is a back formation from an earlier singular (uncountable) ‘peas’ that is agreed as plural. A recent example is the word ‘alm’ from ‘alms’. The process of back-formation means that a rule of word-formation is reversed. This can be exemplified in the formula below:-

Verb	plus	-or	→	noun
Exhibit				exhibitor
Verb		←noun	minus	-or
Edit				editor

That can also be clarified by the following:

Formation  $X + A \rightarrow Y$   
 Back-formation  $Y - A \rightarrow X$

Where A is a particular suffix, Y and X are form classes of lexemes.

Recent examples are eutrophicate < eutrophication, lase < laser, oneupman < one-upmanship, and paradmedic < paramedical, rotovate < rotovator and surreal < surrealist. Anyhow, there are formations that do not fit this pattern, e.g., surveille < surveillance since the nominalization of verbs with the suffix -ance is no longer productive, so there is no synchronic formation rule of the form:

Verb + -ance → noun

Thus the back-formation cannot account for such example. Consequently, it seems that back-formation is concerned with the deleting of suffixes rather than with the undoing of the synchronic rules of word-formation.

Finally, it has recently agreed that back-formation is the formation of new lexemes by deleting the actual or supposed affixes in longer words. It is regarded as a special case of clipping.

### 3 8 .Echoism

Stageberg (2000: 129) defines echoism as a process of forming words whose sound suggests their meaning, such as hiss and peewee. These new formed words usually suggest meaning which is usually a sound, either natural such as the ‘roar’ of a waterfall or artificial one like the clang of a bell.

the noun shows location (to garage the car) or instrument (to hammer a nail), and so on. Established examples of noun > verb conversion are to bottle, to bridge, to commission, to mail, to mushroom, to skin, to vacation. Examples of the second type of conversion verb > noun are a call, a command, a dump, a guess, a spy. The third type of conversion (adjective > verb) includes examples like "to better, to dirty, to empty, to faint, to open, to right", and the recent example is "to total". The fourth type of conversion adjective > verb shows rare examples that are restricted in their syntactic occurrence like "the poor" which doesn't have plural form or have any other determiner. Less restricted examples are a daily, a regular, a roast.

Moreover prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs, interjections and even affixes may undergo conversion, such as to up (price), to me no buts, the hereafter, to heave-ho (a recent example), and a maxi. Many of them can undergo conversion into more than one form class, e.g., a preposition "down" can become a verb (he downed his beer), a noun (he has a down on me),

and an adjective (the down train). (Ibid:230).

### 3.7 Back Formation

Trask (1993: 26) defines it as a process of forming a new word by removal of a morph resembling the agent suffix -er, e.g., edit from editor, sculpt from sculptor, and peddle from pedlar.

Pennanen (1975: 217) clarifies that verbs have the majority of derivatives than other form class, so the verbs provide the widest range of possible sources for back-formation.

Bauer (1983:230) clarifies that, according to literary fact, the back-formation is of mainly diachronic significant, since it is impossible to synchronically see that the derivatives "exhibitor" and "editor" are not produced by identical processes from exhibit and edit respectively, so it is worth saying that back-formation is a synchronically productive process in the English word-formation.

Fromkin & Rodman (1993: 57) show that language purists consider back-formation as language corruption, but language cannot be corrupt.

e.g., noun, verb, adjective, adverb. Conversion represents the use of a form of a specific form class as though it were a member of different form class, without any change of form. The changes if happened are seen as a matter of syntactic usage rather than as word-formation. The most frequent cases where the change of form class is not a major one, but a change from one type of noun to another or one type of verb to another. The clearest example to clarify this kind of conversion is the use of countable nouns as uncountables and vice versa, e.g., some tea where ‘tea’ is used as an uncountable noun, while in ‘two teas’ it is used as countable noun. Also intransitive verbs, like run, are used as transitive verbs, e.g., He is running a horse in the Derby.

Bauer (Ibid: 228- 29) realizes that there are marginal cases of conversion where the change in form class, from a verb to a noun and from a verb to an adjective without affixation, does not clearly denote instances of conversion. In this case, there is a shift of stress without alteration in the morphophonemic form (or in the orthography). Established examples of verb>noun

shift of this type are abstract, discount, import, refill, transfer, and of verb> adjective shift are frequent, moderate, perfect.

Ktamba&Stonham (2006: 56) believe that when a word is formed without modifying the form of the base, it seems to be rather difficult to distinguish the form class which a newly-formed word belongs to, e.g., the word ‘head’ can be either a noun or a verb. What is useful here is partly the morphological structure and partly the syntactic position which the word occupies. For example, in a sentence like ‘The heads of the village school has arrived’, the word ‘head’ is a noun, from a syntactic point of view, since it comes after ‘the’ and it is the key word of a noun phrase. It is a noun, from a morphological point of view, because of the presence of the suffix –s which denotes the plural in nouns and which may be a useful guide.

Bauer (Ibid: 229-30) determines the clear cases of conversion: noun> verb, verb> noun, adjective> noun, and adjective> verb. Many types of conversion can be subclassified, for instance, noun> verb conversion can be classified according to whether

English there are no syllables centered on nasal vowels alone.

There is a special type of borrowing called as loan-translation or calque (/kælk/). It is a process of a direct translation of the elements of a word into the borrowing language. Examples of calque for the English ‘skyscraper’ are grattee-ciel (French), wolkenkrabber (Dutch), wolkenkratzer (German). The English Language also follows this process and has examples such as ‘superman’ that is believed to be a loan-translation of the German ‘Übermensch’; also the term <loan-word> is thought to have come from the German <Lehnwort>; and the English expression <moment of truth> is seen as a calque from the Spanish phrase <el momento de la verdad> but with the use different from the original one as <the final thrust of the sword to end a bullfight>. The American concept of <boyfriend> is borrowed by other languages like Japanese, but with sound modification, as <boyifurendo>, and as a calque by Chinese as <malefriend> or <nan pengyu>. (Yule, 2010: 54-5).

### 3. 6 Conversion

Quirk and Greenbaum (1973: 441) define a conversion as the derivational process whereby a word changes its syntactic class without adding an affix. For instance, the verb ‘release’ in (they released him) is converted to a noun in (They ordered his release), and the relationship between them seems to correspond to that between the verb ‘acquit’ and the noun ‘acquittal’.

Matthews (2007:81) states that conversion is a process by which a lexical unit primarily belonging to one syntactic class is converted secondarily into another syntactic class. For example, ‘‘cooking’’ I am cooking dinner’’ is a transitive verb, but it is converted into an intransitive one in ‘‘Dinner is cooking’’.

Bauer (1983: 226-27) believes that it is the most productive way to produce new words in English. There are no morphological limits on the forms that can be acceptable inputs to the conversion processes, so compounds, derivatives, acronyms, blends, clipped forms, and simplex words can undergo conversion. Similarly, conversion accepts all the form classes, and also it can produce words of any form class,

-ish (greenish), -ly(goodly), and -some(queersome). The fourth type is 'suffixes forming adverbs' which include the following: suffixes added to adjectives, e.g., -ly (loudly); those added to particles and nouns, e.g., -ward(s) (afterward(s), earthward(s)); and -wise(lengthwise), -fold, -way(s), and -fashion.

### 3.5 Borrowing

Matthews (2007:43) reports that borrowing is a conventional term that represents a process of transferring of specific words, constructions, or morphological elements from one language into another, e.g., table and marble.

Yule (2010: 54-5) manifests that taking over of words from other languages is a process called 'borrowing' which seems to be one of the most common sources of new words in English. Examples of a huge number of words that the English language has adopted from other languages are croissant(French), sofa(Arabic), tattoo(Tahitian), tycoon (Japanese), yogurt(Turkish) and zebra(Bantu). Other languages, of course, adopt terms from English, Japanese use of *suupaa* or

*suupaamaaketto*(supermarket) and *taipuraitaa*(typewriter), Hungarians use of 'klub and futbal' when talking about sport, or the French use of *le stress*, over a glass of *le whisky*, during *le weekend* when discussing problems. Sometimes, they use the borrowed words with quite different meanings, as in the contemporary German use of the English words 'partner' and 'look' in the phrase 'im partnerlook' to mean two people wearing similar clothing together. The English language has no equivalent use of such expression.

Fromkin, Rodman and Hyams (2007: 356) add that as long as borrowing words from other languages is an important source of new words, it usually occurs in situations of language contact, i.e., when speakers of different languages communicate with one another or where there are many bilingual or multilingual speakers. The borrowed words are often pronounced differently to fit the phonological rules of the borrowing language, e.g., the English borrowed word 'ensemble' from French is pronounced /*ãnsãmbəl*/, whereas pronounced /*ãsãbəl*/ in French since in

### 3 4 .Suffixation

Crystal (1997: 371) states that suffixation is a term used in morphology to indicate an affix that is added after a root or stem. It is a process which is common in English, for deriving new lexical items (e.g. -ize, -tion) and for expressing grammatical relationships (inflectional ending such as -s, -ed, -ing)

Fromkin&Rodman (1993: 43) confirm that suffixes, also prefixes, have been traditionally called bound morphemes since they cannot occur alone unless they are attached to free morphemes like man, sick, prove, and so on. It is common and frequent in all languages, for example, in Turkish, the suffix "-ak" is added to verbs to derive nouns as durak "stopping place", bataak "sinking place".

Lyon (1981: 101) calls the free morpheme as the base-form which refers to that form from which all the other forms of the lexeme can be derived by the morphological rules of the language.

Bauer (1983:220) states that suffixes are classified according to the form class of the deriva-

tives they produce, so there are four types of suffix. The first type is 'suffixes forming nouns' which include the following: suffixes added to noun, e.g., -dom (girdom), -ess (astronautess), -iana (butterfieldiana); suffixes added to verbs, e.g., -tion (lexicalization), -ee (curee), -ure (closure), -al (arrival), -ary (dispensary), -er (killer), -ment (management); suffixes added to adjectives, e.g., -

ce (dependence), -ness (productiveness), -dom (freedom), -er (sixer), -hood (falsehood), -ist (socialist), -th (warmth). The second type is 'suffixes forming verbs', e.g., -ify (fishify), -ize (structurize), -en (shorten). The third type is 'suffixes forming adjectives' which include the following: suffixes added to nouns, e.g., -al (environmental), -esque (picturesque), -less (flueless), -ate (passionate), -en (wooden), -ese (Pekinese), -ful (doubtful), -ice (algebraic), -ly (friendly), -ous (venomous), -y (catty); suffixes added to verbs, e.g., -able (flappable), -less (tireless), -ant/-ent (absorbent), -atory (affirmatory), -ful (resentful), -ive (generative); suffixes added to adjectives, e.g.,

fix that refers to an affix which precedes the form to which it is joined.

Bauer (1983: 216-17) Prefixes are dealt with according to the form class of the base to which they are added. The most of prefixes are added to bases of more than one form class. Some linguists like Chomsky (1970) suggested that the form classes of noun, verb, adjective, etc., should not be considered as unitary wholes but as bundles of syntactic features. Adjectives have some nominal features (e.g. They agree for gender and number in a language like Latin), some verbal features, i.e., they can be stative just as verbs, thus a noun can be classi-

fied as (+N, -V) and adjectives as (+N, +V).

Fromkin&Rodman (1993: 43) believe that prefixing is very common and frequent for enlarging the vocabulary of all languages, for example, in Isthmus Zapotec, the prefix 'ka-' shows the plurality of nouns as kazigi 'chins', and kazike'shoulders'.

Bauer (1983: 217-20) shows that the prefixes are classified into two types: the first type is class-changing prefixes, e.g., a- (asleep),

be- (becalm), en- (enslave), de- (debark), dis- (disbar), non- (non-stick), and un- (unhorse). The second type of prefixes is class-maintaining prefixes which include the following: those used exclusively with a noun base, e.g., arch- (archmonetarist), mini- (miniwar), step- (stepgrandmother), mal- (malnutrition), pro- (proconsul) and maxi-; prefixes used exclusively with a verb base, e.g., dis- (dislike); those used exclusively with an adjective base, e.g., a- (amoral), un- (unpolitical) and cis- (cislunar); prefixes added to nouns and verbs, e.g., fore- (foreman, forelock), re- (re-election recycle,), mis- (misfortune, mislead); prefixes added to nouns and adjectives, e.g., in- (incapacity, indefinite), mid- (mid-morning, mid-victorian); prefixes added to verbs and adjectives, e.g., circum- (circumscribe, circum-polar); prefixes added to nouns, verbs, and adjectives, e.g., counter- (counterculture, counterdemonstrate, counterproductive), dis- (disinformation, disambiguate, disbound), co- (co-author, co-articulate, co-equal), inter- (interdependence, intermix, interdigital), and sub- (sub-warden, sublet, subconscious).

ter' and meter 'measure'. Other examples of such forms are: phone, pseudo, graph, tele, hyper, narco, neo, chem, amphi, crat and) o(logy. It is observed that forms like neo -and hyper -can occur where other prefixes, like pre -and in -, occur, e.g.:

Colonial	pre-colonial	neo- colonial
Active	in-active	hyper- active

According to Bauer (1983:213- 14) this means that these forms or bases in neoclassical compounds are regarded as affixes. This assumption leads to embarrassment since it denotes that there are English words with neoclassical elements, e.g., biocrat, electrophile, galvanoscope, homophile, protogen, that are formed of prefixes and suffixes only. This contradicts what is more generally acknowledged that the affixes are defined by their ability to be added to bases containing roots, i. e., affixes cannot occur solely. In English, there is no word like \*un-ish-ness that consists solely of affixes. Consequently, one of the elements forming words like 'theocracy' and 'hydrology' must be a base or else these words will be believed to contain only affixes. Luckily, there is some evidence that these combining forms are not normal affixes for they behave differently from other affixes in that only Final Combining Forms (FCFs) like -phile can combine with Initial Combining Forms (ICFs) like -electro. Thus, electrolyte, electrophile, electrophonic and electroscope all exist, whereas electroness\*, electroization\*, electroesque\* and so on are all impossible. Accordingly, we have a good reason to treat them compound since they are known by their ability to come together in a word like 'theocracy'.

### 3 3 .Prefixation

Brown & Attardo (2005: 27) signify that prefixes, also suffixes, are bound morphemes that are called affixes because they need to attach to other morphemes. Affixes are classified according to their position, so they are called prefixes if they occur before the root, i.e., free morpheme, e.g., in- 'incredible'.

Matthews (2007: 315) defines prefixation as the process of adding a pre-

adjective (bitter-sweet); adverb+ adjective (over-qualified); noun+ noun (back-street); verb+ noun (turn-key); adjective+ noun (gray-collar); particle+ noun (in depth); noun+ verb; verb+ verb (pass-fail) adjective/ adverb+ verb (high-rise); verb+ particle (see-through). There are also compound adverb, for example, 'double-quick, flat-out, flat-stick, off-hand, and over-night'. The extent of the productivity of such compound is not known.

Bauer (Ibid) believes that there are compounds of other form classes, but they are scarce and of extremely low productivity. They include compound prepositions such as 'into, onto, and because of'; Compound pronouns such as '-self forms and somebody, anyone, etc'; and compound conjunctions like 'whether, so that, and even and/or'.

### 3.2 Neo-Classical Compounds

Katamba & Stonham (2006: 336) think that, in some cases, it seems to be difficult to decide whether the new formed words are produced by compounding or affixation. These words are called neoclassical compounds in the literature (Adam, 1973; Bauer, 1983).

For instance, the Latinate form 'multi-' in 'multi-lateral', and the Greek borrowing 'hydro-' in 'hydrometer' may not be clear whether they are prefixes or bases.

Bauer (1983:216) states that it is the speaker of English language who puts the elements together, so it is possible for the coiner to mix Greek and Latin as in television. For that reason, such compounds are termed not 'classical compound' but 'neo-classical compounds'. Recent examples are Anglophone, biocide, biocrat, electrophile, graphoscope, holograph, lysosome, oleophilic, selenodesy, stereology, synergamy, teleonomy. Neo-classical compounds are very productive in English, so they are used as bases in derivational process, e.g., holographic, and prebiological.

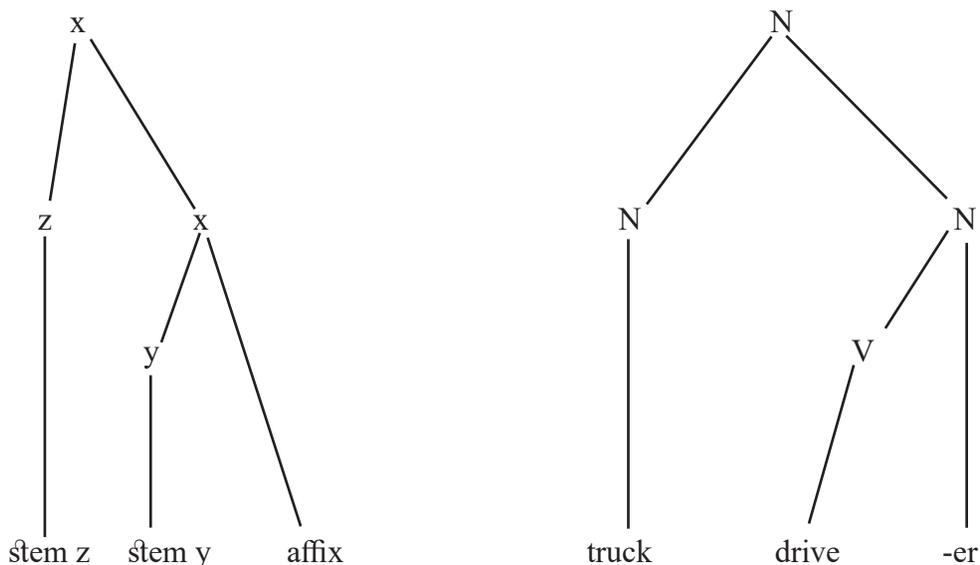
Katamba & Stonham (2006: 336-37) believe that speakers who don't know Greek and Latin languages may regard these words as unanalyzable words, or words with bound bases, but speakers who know those languages classify them as compounds since, for them, word like 'hydrometer' is a compound with two bases: hydro 'wa-

cannot be predicted from the meaning of its parts, e.g., a blackboard may be green or white. Another example is “a boathouse” is a house for boats, but a cathouse is not a house for cats. Compounds can be found in other languages like French *cure-dent* = “toothpick”; German *panzerkraftwagen* = “armored car”; and so on. It seems to be clear that compounding is universal since it is very widespread and common in the languages of the world.

Bauer (1983:201 ff) states that The compounds can be classified by the function they perform in the sentence as nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverb,..etc. The compounds are subclassified in many different ways, but they are bound to be controversial. Anyhow, it is worthy to apply the system of classification which depends on the form classes of the elements of the compounds to reflect the semantic relationships between elements. The essential disadvantage of this system of classification is that, because of conversion in English, it is not always obvious which form class a certain element

belongs to. This is true when deciding between nouns and verbs. In a compound like ‘rattlesnake’, for example, ‘rattle’ may be a verb (the snake rattles) or a noun (the snake has a rattle). The vast majority of compounds in English are compound nouns that can be subclassified into: noun+ noun(hatchback), representing the largest subgrouping of noun compounds; verb+ noun (kill-joy); Noun+ Verb (sunshine); verb+ verb (make-believe); adjective+ noun (fast –food); Particle+ noun (afterheat); adverb+ noun (now generation); Verb+ Particle(press-down); phrasal compounds (forget-me-not). Another main type of compounds is compound verbs which include: noun+ Verb (carbon-date); verb+ noun (shunpike); verb+ verb (trickle-irrigate); adjective+ verb (soft-land); particle+ verb (overeducate); adjective+ noun (bad- mouth); noun+ noun (to breath- test). The third type of compound is compound adjectives that are subclassified into: noun+ adjective (childproof); verb+ adjective (fail-safe); adjective+

The structure proposed for synthetic compounds is:



He (Ibid: 48-9) says that it has been more generally acknowledged that the semantic interpretation in root compounds is completely free, for example, x made of y in ‘feather bed’ or ‘iron lung’, x used for y in ‘towel rack’, x eaten by y in catfood, and so on.

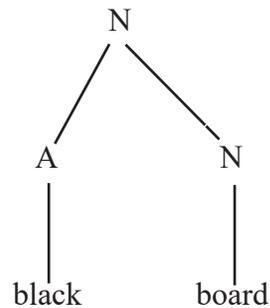
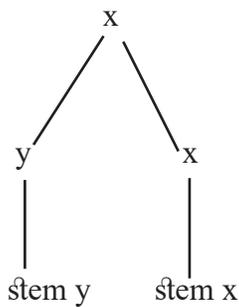
He (Ibid: 54) assures that the second constituent of a synthetic compound is deverbal, and thus we have more than one argument available for co-indexing that is defined by Crystal (1997:69) as the process of assigning the same subscript letter or numeral to a series of constituents, and these numerals identify the constituents in the deep structure of a sentence. Lieber (2004:54) supposes that what determines the interpretation of synthetic compounds is the process of co-indexation since those verbal argument , forming the second deverbal stem, have specific thematic interpretations that contribute to the interpretation of any co-indexed stem.

Fromkin& Rodman (1993:54-5) clarify that the meaning of a compound

are of different categories, it is the head, the second part, of the compound which determines the grammatical category of the compound: noun+ adjective= adjective (e.g. headstrong); verb+ noun= noun (e.g. pickpocket). They (Ibid:59) clarify that the pronunciation of compounds is different from that of noncompound phrases in that the first word of compound is stressed, whereas the second word of noncompound phrase is stressed.

Lieber (2004:46-7) confirms that compounding is the most productive process of word formation in English. It includes both root compounds, such as catfood, textile mill, towel rack; and synthetic compounds such as city employee, word coinage. The root compounds refer to those compounds whose second element is not deverbal, while the synthetic compounds are those compounds whose second element is deverbal, i.e., derived from verbs. In general, the compound always takes the second constituent as its semantic head, e. g., the compound ‘catfood’ refers to a type of food rather than a kind of cat.

The structure proposed for root compounds is:



ly as sequences of morphemes .(Crystal (249 :1997)believes that morphology is distinct from syntax since the latter handles the rules determining the combination of words in sentences .It includes inflectional morphology and lexical or derivational morphology.

Brown and Miller (222 :1980) believe that there is a distinction between lexical or derivational morphology and inflectional morphology .Inflectional morphology is a matter for the grammar ,i.e .showing grammatical relationships .For example’’ ,writes ‘‘and’’ wrote ‘‘represent an inflectional formation since it is part of a verb group .On the other hand ,the field of lexical or derivational morphology is concerned with the processes for the formation of new words or new lexemes .For example ,new lexemes like’’ writer ‘‘and’’rewrite ‘‘can be derived from’’ write .‘‘It becomes clear that the lexical or derivational morphology is concerned with word -formation processes.

### 3.Word-Formation Processes.

#### 3.1 Compounding

Fromkin ,Rodman & Hyams (57 :2014) indicate that compound words are formed by joining two or more words .Some compounds have been recently added to English such as facebook ,linkedIn ,android app ,m-commerce ,and crowdsourcing .In English language ,there is flexibility in the kinds of combinations permitted ,as the following table of compound words shows.

	Adj.	Noun	Verb
Adj.	bittersweet	poorhouse	whitewash
Noun	headstrong	homework	spoonfeed
Verb	fee-good	pickpocket	sleepwalk

When the compound consists of two words of similar a grammatical category, the compound will have the same grammatical category: noun+noun=noun, as in girlfriend, fighterbomber, paper clip, elevator-operator, landlord, mailman; adjective+adjective= adjective, as in icy-cold, red-hot, worldly-wise. In other cases, when the two words forming the compound

This definition excludes single bound morphemes such as pre-, -ceive, or -full, but it includes a single free morpheme such as bird, or a combination of morphemes like incredible.

Aitchison (54 :1999) clarifies that a morpheme is the smallest syntactic unit which cannot be cut up into smaller syntactic segments. Since morphemes vary in size, neither syllables nor length is helpful to identify them.

For Wray and Bloomer (70 :2012) the morpheme is the smallest unit of meaning. There are two types of morphemes: free morphemes that can occur alone, such as dog, smile, black, and bound morphemes that cannot be unattached like un-, -ish, and so on.

Stageberg (119-20 :2000) supposes that, in reading, the people can easily recognize words by the white spaces between them. In speech, it is possible to identify words through the way they are treated. The people usually pause during their speech to formulate their thoughts, get the sentence structure in order, and grope for the right word. The speaker doesn't

pause within words, but between them, so the pause seems to be a cue that leads to another definition of the word given by Professor Charles F. Hockett: "A word refers to any segment of a sentence bounded by successive points at which pausing is possible." "This pause may be either silent or vocalized by" u-u-u-h. "He) Ibid (121 : classifies English words, according to the type and combinations of morphemes, into simple words formed of a single free morpheme such as slay, flea, long; and complex words which consist of either two bound forms as "ex|clude" and "tele|vise" or a bound and a free form such as "tele|phone" and "lion|ess".

## 2 .Morphology

According to Crystal (1997:249) morphology is the branch of grammar which studies the structure or forms of words, primarily through the use of the morpheme construct.

Lyons (96 :1970) believes that morphology is complementary to syntax, and it is concerned with the internal structure of words) typical-

## الخلاصة

تشمل دراسة تكوين الكلمة عمليات التباين الصرفي جميعها والمستعملة في صياغة كلمات جديدة, ومن أبرز تلك العمليات هي التركيب والاشتقاق مع وجود عمليات أخرى. من المعتقد ان علم الصرف يتضمن كلا من التصريف الإعرابي الذي يُمثل تباين الكلمة ليعكس العلاقات النحوية والاشتقاق الذي يُمثل تباين الكلمة ليعكس العلاقات المعجمية, إذ تُسمى دراسة تكوين الكلمة بعلم الصرف الاشتقائي والذي يختلف عن علم الصرف الإعرابي.

تخضع عمليات تكوين الكلمة لقواعد تُحدد كيفية تكوين صنف مُعين لكلمة من صنفٍ آخر, فكانت هناك محاولات في الستينيات لدمج دراسة تكوين الكلمة مع دراسة النحو(تركيب الجمل) ولكنها لم تتجح, في حين أن أغلب الدراسات الحديثة ربطت دراسة تكوين الكلمة بقواعد معجمية.

تُسلط الدراسة الضوء على عمليات تكوين الكلمة والتي تُمثل الأبرز في تكوين مفردات جديدة ومن أهمها : التركيب, مركبات تقليدية حديثة, العمليات الاشتقاقية وتشمل إضافة بادئة وإضافة لاحقة, الاقتباس, التحويل, النحت إلتجاعي, ترديدالصدى, وعمليات غير قابلة للتنبأ وتشمل الآتي : التقليم, الاندماج, الإختصارات, صياغةالكلمة, المضاعفة, وتشكيلات مختلطة.

**الكلمات المفتاح:** تشكيل الكلمة, علم التشكل المورفولوجيا, تكوين, تركيب, اشتقاق, تصريف, علاقات نحوية, قوانين, مفردات جديدة.

## 1.Word

As long as word-formation is concerned with words ,it is worthy to shed light on the term“ word“ and its possible definitions.

Crystal (419-20 :1997) defines a word as a unit of expression which has universal intuitive recognition by native speakers ,in both spoken and written language .There are several criteria to identify words in speech .The first one is the stability of their internal structure,i.e ,their constituents have limited potential for rearrangement ,compared with the constituents of sentences that have relative positional mobility. The second criterion is the uninterruptibility or cohesiveness of words ,i.e ,no new element can be inserted within them .Another criterion which has influenced the linguists is the Leonard Bloomfield's definition of the word as a “ minimum free form ,“i.e .the smallest unit that can form ,by itself ,a complete utterance.

Stageberg (2000,120)states that a word is a free morpheme or a combination of morphemes that together form a basic segment of speech.

# *English Word- Formation: Linguistic Study*

## دراسة لغوية لتشكيل الكلمة في اللغة الانكليزية

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### **Abstract**

Generally speaking, word-formation represents all the processes of morphological variation in the constitution of words. In English language and in many other languages, the most prominent device for forming words is compounding and derivation, yet the other devices are also available. It is thought that morphology includes inflection that represents word variations showing grammatical relationships, and derivation that represents word variations denoting lexical relationships. The study of word formation is known as ‘‘derivational morphology’’ that is different from ‘‘inflectional morphology’’.

Word –formation is sometimes governed by rules which are called word-formation rules. These rules determine how to form one class of words out of another. In 1060s, many attempts were made to integrate word formation into syntax, but these attempts were not successful, and most recent studies relate word formation to the lexical rules included within the lexicon.

The study sheds light on word-formation processes which seem to be the most prominent in forming new lexemes and like compounding, neo-classical compounds, prefixation, suffixation, borrowing, conversion, back-formation, Echoism, unpredictable formations including clipping, blends, acronyms, and word manufacture (Coinage), Reduplication and mixed formation.

**Key words:** Word-formation, morphology, constitution, compounding, derivation, inflection, grammatical relationships, rules, new lexemes.

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