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INTRODUCTION

The actuality of the chosen research topic is due to the fact that vocabulary, due to its response to the surrounding reality, is constantly being improved and updated.

By studying new words and analyzing the ways, ways of their origin, education in a particular language, the researcher has the opportunity to see the most characteristic trends in the transformation of vocabulary.

As a result of constant changes in the vocabulary in the English language, as well as the intensive replenishment of new units, the linguistic comprehension of the new vocabulary is of particular practical importance.

The purpose of this thesis is to study the main ways of forming English words in press.

In accordance with the set goal, the following particular tasks are subject to solution:

- 1) to define the concept of affixation;
- 2) describe the main characteristics of affixation;
- 3) identify the differences between productive and unproductive suffixes;
- 4) to analyze the existing formations of English suffixes and the place of these units in the lexical composition of the English press language.

As the research material, English suffixes were used, selected by random sampling from the press and the online news of English.

To solve the set tasks, the following research methods were used: descriptive-analytical, classification methods, component analysis method, comparative-comparative method.

The structure of the work is determined by the goals and objectives set in the work. The thesis consists of an introduction, two chapters with conclusions to each of them, a conclusion, a bibliography, a list of dictionaries, a list of abbreviations and appendices.

The total amount of work is 30 pages. The introduction contains a substantiation of the relevance of the research topic, within the framework of it, the goals and objectives of the forthcoming work are determined.

The first chapter is devoted to an analytical review of the literature on the topic of the thesis. Particular attention in Chapter I is paid to the consideration of the concept of affixation, the difference between productive and unproductive suffixes, and ways of forming new words.

The second chapter is an analysis of the methods of formation of English productive suffixes (based on the English press and online news) and unproductive suffixes.

The conclusion contains a statement of the main results and a summary of the general results of the study.

CHAPTER I. THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS OF WORK

1.1. Definition of Affixation

A newspaper, especially a daily newspaper, makes an important contribution to people's lives. People can get information about local or international events every day because the news and information is current and accurate. But since readers can get a lot of information without fully understanding the topic of the newspaper, here the researcher will try to investigate the problem faced by the newspaper reader in order to find out data about the problem faced by the reader of the Indonesian newspaper.

The researchers discovered the difficulties of the affix in the word of sentences, and the meaning is ambiguous. Even the newspaper reader needs to understand the topic or news in the newspaper, while the readers want to understand the subject well and know the root of the problem well. If readers get information from a newspaper, they get information with them, they get even more knowledge about the English language. Readers can improve their understanding of the English language by reading this newspaper, because the newspaper offers a lot of information and many areas of English grammar such as parts of speech, messages, tenses, etc. and also from the news there is and has figurative language, moral value, educational value, etc. Understanding and learning English. Not only about context, we also need to understand word for word to further improve our English skills. From small to large, understanding word for word and then combining like English itself. Without knowing the basics, it is impossible to know everything. One of the foundations of the English language is associated with affixes (Ramelan, 1992: 109).

Affixes are all related morphemes because they never stand alone as independent utterances. A morpheme or sequence of morphemes to which an affix is added is called a stem. An affix added before a stem, as in an entry, is called a "prefix"; an affix added after the stem, such as -ment statement is called "suffixes"; an affix inserted into a stem, such as -er- is called "infix".

But in reality, the reader who is still troubled about that word has an affix, because the word that has an affix makes the reader curious about that word and that statement of the news. When people learn the language, they also learn the affixes attached to the words. However, they will find it difficult to master one or more languages without understanding the application of languages. Most of the time, people are still confused about the application of the form and its meaning, in addition, about the use of the application in the article, because one of the words has an affix and also knows what form of fixation of that word. , but did not know about the significance that really refers to the news ...

Affixation is the process of deriving new words on the basis of the existing words by the help of affixes (Plag, 2003:107). There are two kinds of affixes inflectional affixes and derivational affixes. In contrast, an inflectional affix does not change the word class and the meaning. Inflection modifies a word's form in order to mark the grammatical subclass to which it belongs. There are explanations about inflectional affixes according to Todd (1987: 45-46) Whereas derivational affixes often involve a change of class-such as the verb "attract" becoming the adjective "attractive", inflectional suffixes never involve a change of class. Inflectional morphology occurs with nouns, pronouns and verbs

In nouns, inflection marks plurality in regular noun, for examples: Book books, Chair- chairs.

And the possessive of all nouns: John john's book/books The man the man's book/books Irregular nouns often form their plurals by vowel change: Foot feet Man men Mouse mice With regard to verbs in English, inflectional suffixes are used to indicate present tense agreement: I, you, we, they > look/sing But He/she/it > look+s/sing+s And the present participle: Look+ing/sing+ing

For regular verbs the past tense and the past participle are formed by the suffix '-ed'. In this case, affixes refer to derivational affixes, which changed part of speech, the characteristics of this kind of affix are: encodes lexical meaning, is not syntactically relevant, can occur inside derivation, often changes the part of

speech, is often semantically unclear, is often restricted in its productivity, and is not restricted to suffixation.

The affixes can be categorized into three: suffixes, prefixes, and infixes.

1.2. Ways to Form New Words

The study described patterns, patterns, covering the system of derivatives of modern English. He presented the most complete list of models of synchronously divided words, substantiated the principles of productivity of such models. He gives the following definition of word formation: it is "a branch of the science of language that studies the models by which the language creates new lexical units, that is, words" [Marchand 1969: 3]. Both his contemporaries and researchers of subsequent decades note that G. Marchand successfully coped with the task arising from this theoretical setting. Word formation, quite in the spirit of structuralist tendencies, is now based on the idea of a model and its structure. "Word-formation pattern" was the key term in this area of knowledge at the time. The structuralist approach to English word formation is also presented in the works of L. Bauer and A. Hatcher [Bauer 1983; Hatcher 1960]

"Word formation is formed, exists and functions as an area of modeling motivated (secondary) names" [p. 55]. The formation of new words is carried out in the language in the overwhelming majority of cases in accordance with existing words, presented in the form of certain patterns. Such samples are considered as a kind of structure abstracted from a specific lexical content - a word-formation model, which MD Stepanova defines as "a typical structure that has a generalized lexical-categorical content and is capable of being filled with different lexical material (i.e., different lexical bases) if certain patterns of compatibility of its elements with each other" [Stepanova 1979: 522]. As you know, the Romanian scientists cited above worked in the field of Germanic word formation.

We consider in this section affix derivatives, composites, including telescopic words, and conversions. Within the framework of the cognitive analysis of word-formation categories, the subject of the study is changing. The knowledge

structures behind derivatives are subject to research. We call derivatives all the results of word-formation processes, regardless of the method of production. This will make it possible to use the word "derivative" as a generalizing word, despite the fact that in word-formation practice, derivatives are called affix derivatives.

Derivatives play a special role in cognitive word-formation analysis, since they are considered as a different, in comparison with holistic (words that are indivisible by word-formation criteria), a way of linguistic implementation of certain structures of knowledge representation.

The purpose of this section is to describe the general picture of substantive suffix word-formation models using the example of the names of an actor in modern English. The entire set of such models was obtained by the method of continuous sampling from dictionaries and works of foreign and domestic researchers of word-formation modeling [Marchand 1969; Adams 1973; Bauer 1983; Hatcher 1960]. Models $N1 + \text{suff} \rightarrow N2$

The categorical nature of the base - a noun - suggests that cognitive operations will be carried out in the subject (in a broad sense) conceptual area. On the other hand, as a result of the operation of adding a suffix, we get a noun that also belongs to the subject conceptual area.

The suffix in this case performs a subcategorizing function within one, subject conceptual area.

Above, we said that a derivative word is a linguistic implementation of a certain structure of knowledge, a certain cognitive content. And if at the first stages of derivational modeling two-component models were considered as samples for the analysis and creation of suffix derivatives, then at present the two parts of the suffix derivative are considered as a superficial realization of the conceptual structure.

The conceptual structure is not just a set of features, concepts. In the models $N1 + \text{suff} \rightarrow N2$, the concept of the stem and the concept of the suffix are linked using a predicate. For these models, the restoration of the deep or atomic predicate

is one of the most important steps in determining those structures of knowledge that lie behind the suffixed substantive derivatives.

However, the predicate cannot be reconstructed arbitrarily. If viewed as a function, then such a function is given by two arguments: the conceptual nature of the stem and the conceptual nature of the suffix. Therefore, in order to reach the propositional level of analysis, first of all, it is necessary to determine the derivational meanings of the models under consideration. Let's start our analysis with those models where the arguments define the function in the most obvious way.

These are the models: (1) N1 + (i) an > N2 (7) N1 + ese > N2 (10) N1 + i > N2 (12) N1 + ite > N2 (6a) N1 + er > N2 (1) Moroccan, Kenyan, Malaysian, Melburnian, Neopolitan, Oxfordian, Puerto Rican, Washingtonian. (7) Senegalese, Sudanese, Taiwanese, Togolese, Congolese, Genevese, Milanese, Viennese. (10) Iraqi, Irani, Israeli, Kuwaiti, Pakistani, Kabuli. (12) Yemenite, Moscovite, Tokyoite, Ulsterite, Michiganite, New Jerseyite. (6a) New Yorker, Berliner, Copenhagener, Dubliner, Humburger, Luxemburger, Finlander, Greenlander. The words created from these patterns show that their stems are the names of countries, years, states. The suffixes - (i) an, -ese, -i, -ite, -er perform a subcategorizing function in the namespace of a person.

With their help, the names of people living in these cities, countries, states are formed. Thus, the establishment of a connection between the onomasiological feature “place of residence” and “person” highlights the predicate LIVE: “a person who lives in a country, state, city, etc.”.

As for the suffixes, along with the concept of “person”, each of them also expresses some additional concepts of knowledge about the world or knowledge about a language. Thus, the -i suffix is borrowed from the Semitic languages and its use is limited to the names of the inhabitants of the countries of the East [Tsarev 1984: 141]. The -er suffix, being conceptually generalized, performs only a subcategorizing function, and the main conceptual content is expressed by the stem. So, the linguistic realization by means of suffix-derived structures of

knowledge about a person relative to his place of residence is carried out in English using these models. Their cognitive basis is the concept of “place”, which refers to the basic structures of human consciousness. However, it is obvious that the awareness of belonging to a particular country or nationality is not limited in the mind of a person only to local characteristics. As R. Jackendoff points out, a person has not only basic spatial structures (from which locative ones develop), but also structures of social cognition, the fundamental unit of which is not a physical object, but a person [Jackendoff 1997a: 1]. Concepts such as “state”, “ethnicity”, “citizenship” are related to the field of social cognition and are also included in the structure of knowledge derivatives created according to these models. The following group of substantive suffix models can be combined under the heading “Professional affiliation of a person”. (2a); (2b) N1 + (i) an> N2 (4a); (4b); (4c) N1 + eer> N2 (15a); (15b); (15c) N1 + ster> N2 (11a); (11b); (11c); (11f) N1 + ist> N2 (6b); (6d); (6e); (6f) N1 + er> N2 (2a), (2b). Musician, statistician, dietician, historian, electrician, tactician, diagnostician, cybernetician, rosarian, apiarian. (4a), (4b), (4c). Programeer, propheteer, auctioneer, gazetteer, fictioneer, weapononeer, pontoneer, budgeteer, cabineteer, summiteer, charioteer, caravaner, rocketeer, racketeer. (11a), (11b), (11c), (11f). Chaologist, chartist, accompanist, agriculturist, alchemist, agronomist, oculist, orthodontist, cartoonist, desertologist, indologist, telescopist, pastelist. (15a), (15b), (15c). Gamester, glovester, ringster (member of a merchant association created to raise prices), seamster, teamster, whipster (coachman). (6b), (6d), (6e), (6f).

Archeologer, philosopher, astronomer, treasurer, financier, tinner, confectioner, hatter, glover, jeweller, lawyer, astronomer, cinematographer, demographer, banker, miner, docker, hammerer, boater, fulltimer. The suffixes that are included in the models under consideration conceptualize an active agent in relation to professional activity. Substantive bases are associated with the objects of professional activity, tools and place of implementation of the activity. Accordingly, such a ratio of arguments sets functions as well, that is, it allows one to define deep predicates. Having the arguments “area of professional activity” and

“person engaged in professional activity”, it is possible to establish a connection between the arguments using the predicate “DEAL WITH”, while the suffix denotes an active agent, and the base is the object to which the action is directed.

For the argument relations give the following function values: DEAL WITH - programeer, gazetteer, fictioneer, weapononeer, budgeteer, charioteer, caravaner, rocketeer; TAKE PART IN - auctioneer, summiter; WORK WITH (use as instrument) - musketeer.

For one can imagine knowledge structures in which a predicative relationship is indicated by predicates: DEAL WITH gamester, glovester, sophister, teamster; WORK WITH - whipster; MAKE – punsterm, is productive for the conceptualization of professional activity with predicates: DEAL WITH - agronomist; WORK WITH - telescopist, pastelist; MAKE is a cartoonist. The -er suffix conceptualizes an active figure in the scientific and professional fields. The predicates for the derivatives of the model (6) are: DEAL WITH - archeologer, philosopher, astronomer, treasurer, financier, lawyer; MAKE - glover, jeweller; SELL - confectioner, glover; WORK WITH - hammerer, boater; WORK - miner; full-timer. How, using the obtained data, can we restore the knowledge structures behind the derivatives of the data of word-formation models? First of all, we rely on how language maps the conceptual area of “human professional activity” with the help of suffix derivatives. In English, five suffixes serve this purpose. Each of the suffixes maps its share of the conceptual area “professional human activity”: - (i) an - a professional figure in the field of various sciences, medicine.

Concepts expressed with the -ist suffix are in the same conceptual area, however it takes precedence over - (i) an in productivity. This means that in the part of the mental lexicon where knowledge about the language is stored, the pattern with -ist for a given conceptual area is more freely available than the pattern with - (i) an.

The -er suffix is at the opposite end of the semantic transparency scale from - (i) an.

As in the names of the figure of the conceptual area “place of residence”, he only categorizes the active principle.

The stem conceptualizes the object, instrument, locale, and the predicate organizes the concepts into a knowledge structure specific to each particular derivative word.

I would especially like to note the "professional status" of the suffixes -eer and -ster. Some researchers of English word formation deny them this status, referring them to derivatives, characterized by an emotional assessment with a tinge of contempt [Tsarev 1984: 142]. But for -ster, the examples of substantive derivatives given above are not contemptuous, and the same can be seen in the V + ster > N model: bandster (sheaf knitter), teamster (silk-spinner), gongster (traffic controller). It is true that the professional words with -ster are obsolete, and -er is used instead. Nevertheless, the substantive and verbal models with -ster seem to continue to retain the properties of a small rule and can become a model for creating nominations in professional activities.

It is a generally accepted fact that today the English language presupposes three most productive ways of word formation, among which are affixation (the "base + affix" model, for example, beautiful, dishonest), word composition (the "base + base" model, for example, refriend, handicraft) and conversion (model V (verb) > N (noun) or N > V, for example, to go > a go, and hand > to hand). But not all of these methods are used to the same extent; the proportion of each of them within the framework of the word-formation process is not the same.

The most popular of them are nevertheless methods - word production and word composition. They give the largest number of modern neoplasms. According to the linguists themselves, word composition, as a way of forming words, has been popularized over the past 10-15 years. The rest of the word-formation methods - lexicalization, abbreviation, reverse derivation, word-fusion - have not received due recognition [p. 35].

As already mentioned, today there are three most productive ways of word formation, which differ in the achieved result, among them:

- Word production, which includes such particular methods as affixation, reversion, conversion (the main result of its use is the creation of a derivative the words);

- Abbreviation (the result of its use is the abbreviation of a word, an acronym, as well as a word-ingot);

- Composition (the result is the creation of a compound word).

The penultimate group, as a rule, is also a merger, since both of these methods have the general character of the main operating unit [ibid: 35].

Before considering the first group of word formation - word production, it should be noted that words consist of morphemes. In turn, all morphemes are divided into two classes: roots and affixes. Affixes should be divided into the following subsystems: prefixes and suffixes.

Derived words (consisting of a root and an affix or several affixes) are formed using affixation.

Words formed in this way occupy a large part in the English lexicon. So, affixation is a way of forming words by attaching affixes to the root or stem of a word. There are several classifications of affixes in English [p. 78]. First, it should be noted that this or that suffix allows us to define a part of speech:

- 1) the suffixes of nouns in English include: -er (for example, worker, teacher), -ness (loneliness, darkness), -ing (reading, listening), -dom (freedom, kingdom), -hood (childhood, neighbourhood), -ship (friendship, relationship), -th (youth, truth);

- 2) suffixes that form adjectives: -ful (for example, stressful, careful), -less (pintless, useless), -y (snowy, tidy), -ish (childish, English), -ly (lovely), friendly (golden, woden), -some (quarrelsome, handsome);

- 3) suffixes that form verbs: -en (for example, darken, widen), -fy (classify, clarify);

- 4) suffixes that form adverbs: -ly (for example, hardly, warmly) [ibid: 80-81].

Secondly, affixes are classified as productive and non-productive. The productivity or unproductiveness of an affix is determined by comparing the number and composition of words containing it within a particular linguistic system with what

was observed in the language in previous eras of its development. Productive morphemes are those that actively participate in word production and give new words at a given period of time in the development of the language. The productive affixes currently include the following suffixes

: 1) nouns: -er, -ing, -ness, -ism, -ist, -ance (for example, player, meeting, darkness, capitalism, scientist, importance);

2) adjectives: -y, -ish, -ed, -able, -less (for example, funny, childish, educated, preferable, helpless);

3) adverbs: -ly (for example, beautifully);

4) verbs: -ize / -ise, -ate (for example, memorize, dedicate). In addition to suffixes, productive prefixes should be considered: un-, re-, dis- (for example, unsatisfied, rebuild, disappointed).

Unproductive affixes include the following suffixes:

1) nouns: -th, -hood (for example, truth, brotherhood);

2) adjectives: -ly, -some, -en, -ous (for example, friendly, handsome, darken, various);

3) verbs: -en (for example, threaten) [ibid: 82-83]. Thirdly, affixes are divided into the following two groups: borrowed and native English. Most of the English affixes were borrowed from Latin and French. Latin affixes include suffixes -ion, -tion to form nouns (for example, union, creation); suffixes -ate, -ute, -ct, -de for the formation of verbs (appreciate, distribute, collect, divide) and the prefix dis- (disagree); as well as suffixes -able, -ate, -ant, -ent, -or, -al, -ar for the formation of adjectives (curable, desperate, arrogant, descent, major, final, solar). French affixes include the following suffixes: -ance, -ence, -ment, -age, -ess to form nouns (for example, arrogance, patience, appointment, suffrage, actress) and -ous to form adjectives (dangerous : 50-51].

The prefix is defined by us as a morpheme, which in the process of its development acquired the corresponding abstract meaning, and which is placed before the word-forming basis, subjecting its meaning to change. As a rule, in morphological and semantic terms, prefixes are more independent than suffixes

and are derivative formants. The prefix is not merged into a single phonetic-morphological complex with formative suffixes, since word-formative suffixes come into close interaction with formative suffixes. As already noted, the appearance of prefixes comes from independent words (usually from service parts of speech), therefore, the meaning of the generating stem with which the prefix is combined is usually preserved to some extent, that is, it does not merge with the value of the prefix itself as a whole, as it does place at suffix. One of the fundamental factors causing the convergence of prefixing with suffixation is the similarity of the derivative relations between prefix and suffix derivatives and the corresponding productive stems. At the same time, there is also an analogy between the word-formation meanings of prefixes and suffixes, which also determines their convergence, as varieties of affix word production. Within the framework of this study, a derivative word, together with E.S. Kubryakova, we understand it as any secondary unit of nomination with the status of a word, conditioned by another sign or a set of signs [Kubryakova, 1965: 23-24].

There are fewer prefixes in both languages than suffixes, but they form more productive words. In English, many prefixes form words of different parts of speech: Dis-respect - to treat without respect 16 Im-possible - impossible The prefixes of Latin-Greek origin are also used: anti-, pseud-, sub-, super-, trans-, uni-, bi-, tri-, mono-, poly-. For example: substandard - non-standard, transnormal - abnormal, illogical - illogical, illogical - illogical, submit - obey [Word formation in English]. In addition to affixation, there are other ways of forming words in English. For example, conversion is the process of changing the grammatical category of a word without changing its form. Conversion of a noun into a verb is a fairly common phenomenon in word formation in English. At the moment, conversion has become one of the most popular and productive word formation methods. Conversion is understood primarily as such a way of word formation, which involves education from one part of speech - another, without making any changes to the external form of the word [Meshkov 1976: 120]. This method of word formation is popularized in the English language as a result of the fact that it

has an analytical structure. The main essence of conversion, as a word-formation process, lies in the fact that a shift of the functional nature from one part of speech category to another is carried out, the formation of one part of speech from the base of another without changing the form (for example, to finger from finger; to elbow from elbow and others).

Conversion word formation presupposes not only grammatical, but also semantic restructuring. At the same time, in the derived word, the semantics of the generating basis is borrowed, and its own is added to it, due to the new part of speech status. The specific nature of conversion word formation was also reflected in the fact that this phenomenon as such did not have its own permanent term for a long time. After some time, terms such as "non-affixed formation", "root formation" and others fell out of use due to their incorrectness. However, despite this, it should be noted that the term currently used is not ideal, since it has homonyms in other systems of terms [Eliseeva, 2003: 37].

The most common type of conversion in modern English is verbalization of nouns, for example: He thumbed (from noun and thumb) through the book; He chairs (from noun a chair) the chaittee; She felt her eyes tearing (from noun a tear) [Ivanova, 2009: 10]. Here are some more examples: A hammer - to hammer - hammer with a hammer Wax - to wax - rub with wax Sugar - to sugar - sugar A can - to can - preserve A bottle - to bottle - bottle Water - to wax - to word - express with the word Ruddy - to ruddy - redden up Supple - to supple - become soft Nouns in English can also be formed using the conversion from verbs: a gossip - gossip, hearing To look - a look - look To kiss - a kiss - kiss To fall - a fall - falling To ride - a ride - riding To try - a try - attempt To drive - a drive - ride

Composition (English composition) is a productive way of forming new words by combining two or more stems into a single whole [Arnold, 2012: 107]. This way of word formation in English is used much more often, in contrast to affixation, which, as a way of word formation in Romanian, plays, perhaps, a key role. English addition is more analytical than Romanian. In English words, it is quite rare to find an interfix - a connecting consonant, and even less often - a vowel

- strokesman - a representative of something, statesman - a statesman, sportsman - an athlete. In English, as in Romanian, formed words have two types of education - addition and affixation. For example: First-night - premiere First-nighter - theatergoer (frequent visitor of the institution) Kind-hearted - kind-hearted

Compound words, like all derivative words, have phraseological meaning. For example: Blackboard - a training board (not a black board) Bullfinch - a bullfinch (not a bull and a finch) Chaffinch - a chaffinch (not a chaff of bread and a finch) Greenfinch - a green one (not a green and a finch) Blackbird - a blackbird oriole (not a red bird) Yellowbird - a goldfinch (not a yellow bird) A compound word may remain similar in form to a phrase, but in function and meaning become a word: end-of-term- exam after the end of the semester, and never-do-well - sad sack. The formation of complex words based on a phrase or a sentence in English is called compression (compression). Most of the complex words are represented by nouns, and in English much more often than in Romanian, you can find 20 complex adjectives, complex verbs, complex pronouns, adverbs and particles [Word formation in English].

As an example, we can cite the following complex nouns: Workshop - workshop Godwill - benevolence Go-cart - baby carriage Bu-path - side path, sidewalk Down-fall - fall, collapse, snowfall, downpour Rasser-by - passerby

Complicated adjectives: - world Receloving - peace-loving Sunburnt - tanned Hard-working - hardworking Well-known - famous Dark - blue - dark blue

Complex verbs: To outlive - to survive, to survive To handcuff to wear - To put on whitewash To blackmail - blackmail 21 Complex adverbs: Somewhere - somewhere Complex pronouns: everyone, nobody, otherwise, moreover - more than that. Abbreviation is a procedure for reducing the number of phonemes and / or morphemes in words or phrases in the language without changing their lexical and grammatical meaning (category), as a result of which a new nominative unit or a variant of the original unit appears [Ilyina, 2012: 90].

1.3. In English, the basic types of abbreviations include: graphic abbreviations and lexical abbreviations. Graphical abbreviations are the result of

the reduction of words and phrases only within the framework of written speech, while in oral speech only the corresponding full forms are subject to use [Petrova, 2012]. Their use is driven by the need to save space and reinforce writing. For example: e.g. - for exple a.m. - In the morning (ante meridiem) p.m. - in the afternoon In English there are abbreviations that are used only in writing, but in speech they are pronounced as full words: Mr (Mister) - Mr Mrs (Mistress) - Mrs Dr (Dostor) - Doctor 22 The following abbreviations in English are used in the organizational structure of the language: etc. - and so on - (Latin et setera) - and so on i.e. - that is to say - (Latin id est) - that is NB - please note - (Latin nota bene) - note well, on a note The lexical contraction is represented as a unit of language that has not only the external (sound) side, but also externally the expressed meaning that exists in speech, as something already existing and only reproduced in it.

Abbreviations in English can be divided into five groups:

1) Initial abbreviations. This type of abbreviation is formed from the initial letters of a word denoting a concept. In total, there are two types of initial abbreviations in English: □ initial abbreviations with literal reading, such as: UK (United Kingdom) - United Kingdom the USA (the United States of America) - USA CIIIA initial abbreviations that are and are called acronyms, for example: UNESCO (United Nations Economic, Sientific, Cultural Organization) - United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, UNESCO.

2) Acronyms are understood primarily as abbreviations, which, unlike abbreviations, are read and perceived as ordinary lexical units. Acronyms are formed from different combinations of letters (both from the first letters and from the first few with the last, etc.) [p. 111]. These include abbreviation terms such as radar, laser, maser. Note that the translation correspondences of these units in the Romanian language are precisely these acronyms, and not verbose terms: radar (Radio Detion and Ranging - radio detection and determination of distance), laser (Light Amplification by Stitulatidon of Microvave Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiation - microwave amplification using induced radiation) [Ibid].

3) Syllabic abbreviations formed from the initial syllables of words included in

complex names, for example: Wi-Fi (Wireless Fidelity) - wireless Internet access

4) Partially abbreviated words, which are abbreviations formed from the initial syllables of words of the first word with a full second word, for example: T-shirt (te-shirt) - t-shirt e-mail (elctronic mail) - e-mail

1.3. The Difference Between Productive and Unproductive Suffixes

Word-forming activity of affixes may change in the course of time. This raises the question of **productivity** of derivational affixes, i.e. the ability of being used to form new, occasional or potential words, which can be readily understood by the language-speakers. Thus, **productive affixes** are those used to form new words in the period in question.

The most productive prefixes in Modern English are: *de-* (*decontaminate*), *re-* (*rethink*), *pre-* (*prefabricate*), *non-* (*non-operational*), *un-* (*unfunny*), *anti-* (*antibiotic*).

The most productive English suffixes are:

1) noun-forming suffixes: *-er* (*manager*), *-ing* (*fighting*), *-ness* (*sweetness*), *-ee* (*evacuee*), *-ism* (*materialism*), *-ance/-ancy* (*redundancy*), *-or* (*reactor*), *-ics* (*cybernetics*).

2) adjective-forming suffixes: *-able* (*tolerable*), *-ic* (*electronic*), *-ish* (*smartish*), *-ed* (*learned*), *-less* (*jobless*), *-y* (*tweedy*).

3) verb-forming suffixes: *-ize/-ise* (*vitaminize*), *-ate* (*oxidate*), *-ify* (*falsify*).

4) adverb-forming suffixes: *-ly* (*equally*).

Non-productive affixes are the affixes which are not able to form new words in the period in question. Non-productive affixes are recognized as separate morphemes and possess clear-cut semantic characteristics. In some cases,

however, the lexical meaning of a non-productive affix fades off so that only its part-of-speech meaning remains, e.g. the adjective-forming suffix *-some* (*lonesome, loathsome*).

Some non-productive English suffixes are:

1) noun-forming suffixes: *-th* (*truth*), *-hood* (*sisterhood*), *-ship* (*scholarship*).

2) adjective-forming suffixes: *-ful* (*peaceful*), *-ly* (*sickly*), *-some* (*tiresome*), *-en* (*golden*), *-ous* (*courageous*).

3) verb-forming suffixes: *-en* (*strengthen*).

The productivity of an affix should not be confused with its frequency of occurrence. The frequency of occurrence is understood as the existence in the vocabulary of a great number of words containing the affix in question. An affix may occur in hundreds of words, but if it is not used to form new words, it is not productive. For example, the adjective suffix *-ful* is met in hundreds of adjectives (*beautiful, trustful, hopeful, useful*), but no new words seem to be built with its help, and so it is non-productive.

CONVERSION

Conversion is one of the principal ways of forming words in Modern English. It is highly productive in replenishing the English word-stock with new words. **Conversion** consists on making a new word from some existing word by changing the category of a part of speech; the morphemic shape of the original word remains unchanged, e.g. *work – to work, paper – to paper*. The new word acquires a meaning, which differs from that of the original one though it can be easily associated with it. The converted word acquires also a new paradigm and a new syntactic function (or functions), which are peculiar to its new category as a part of speech, e.g. *garden – to garden*.

Among the main varieties of conversion are: 1) verbalization (the formation of verbs), e.g. *to ape* (from *ape* n.); 2) substantivation (the formation of nouns), e.g. *a private* (from *private* adj.); 3) adjectivation (the

formation of adjectives), e.g. *down* (adj) (from *down* adv.); 4) adverbialization (the formation of adverbs), e.g. *home* (adv.) (from *home* n.).

The two categories of parts of speech especially affected by conversion are nouns and verbs.

1. Verbs converted from nouns are called *denominal verbs*. If the noun refers to some object of reality (animate or inanimate) the converted verb may denote:

1) action characteristic of the object: *ape* n. > *ape* v. “imitate in a foolish

way”;

2) instrumental use of the object: *whip* n. > *whip* v. “strike with a whip”;

3) acquisition or addition of the object: *fish* n. > *fish* v. “catch or try to catch fish”;

4) deprivation of the object: *dust* n. > *dust* v. “remove dust from smth.”;

5) location: *pocket* n. > *pocket* v. “put into one’s pocket”.

2. Nouns converted from verbs are called **deverbal substantives**. If the verb refers to an action, the converted may denote:

1) instance of action: *jump* v. > *jump* n. “sudden spring from the ground”;

2) agent of the action: *help* v. > *help* n. “a person who helps”;

3) place of the action: *drive* v. > *drive* n. “a path or road along which one drives”;

4) result of the action: *peel* v. > *peel* n. “the outer skin of fruit potatoes taken off”;

5) object of the action: *let* v. > *let* n. “a property available for rent”.

The courses that made conversion so widely spread are to be approached diachronically.

Nouns and verbs have become identical in form firstly as a result of the loss of endings. When endings had disappeared phonetic development resulted in the merging of sound forms for both elements of these pairs, e.g. *carian* (v), *caru* (n) > *care* (v, n); *lufu* (n), *lufian* (v) > *love* (n, v).

The similar phenomenon can be observed in words borrowed from the French language. In French these words were of the same root but belonged to different parts of speech. In the course of time they lost their affixes and became phonetically identical in the process of assimilation, e.g. *crier* (v), *cri* (n) > *cry* (v, n).

Thus, from the diachronic point of view distinction should be made between homonymous word-pairs, which appeared as a result of the loss of inflections, and those formed by conversion.

Conclusions for Chapter I

Affixes are all related morphemes because they never stand alone as independent utterances. A morpheme or sequence of morphemes to which an affix is added is called a stem. An affix added before a stem, as in an entry, is called a "prefix"; an affix added after the stem, such as -ment statement is called "suffixes"; an affix inserted into a stem, such as -er- is called "infix".

There are four main kinds of word formation: prefixes, suffixes, conversion and compounds.

Word-forming activity of affixes may change in the course of time. This raises the question of **productivity** of derivational affixes, i.e. the ability of being used to form new, occasional or potential words, which can be readily understood by the language-speakers. Thus, **productive affixes** are those used to form new words in the period in question.

CHAPTER II. ANALYSIS OF THE WAYS OF FORMING ENGLISH SUFFIXES

2.1 Productive Suffixes

Suffixes It means some bound morphemes which are must be added before the central meaningful element of the words (Plag, 2003: 10). But in simple the suffix is the affix that use in the end of the base word. According to Mc. Charty 8 et. al (1987: 56) the suffix is come at the end of words. They help you to understand the meaning of a new word. There are four kinds of suffixes: nominal suffixes, verbal suffixes, adjectival suffixes, and adverbial suffixes.

1) Nominal Suffixes Nominal suffixes are suffixes which are used to derive abstract nouns from verbs, adjectives, and nouns. Such abstract nouns can denote actions, results of actions, or other related concept, but also properties, qualities, and the like (Plag, 2003: 86-92). It kinds are:

-age

This suffix derives nouns that express an activity or its result as in coverage, leakage, spillage, and derives nouns that denote a collective entity or quantity, as in acreage, voltage, and yardage. -al -al is used to form abstract nouns that denote an action or the result of action, such as arrival, overthrowal, recital, referral, and renewal.

-ance (with its variants -ence / -ancy / -ency)

A number of verbs take -ance to create action nouns such as absorbance, riddance, retardance. The suffix is closely related to -ce / -cy, which attaches productively to adjectives ending in the suffix -ant / -ent such as dependency.

-ant

This suffix form count nouns that refers to persons, often in technical or legal discourse, such as applicant, defendan t, disclaim ant, etc., or to substances involved in biological, chemical, or physical processes (for example: attractant, dispersant, etchant , suppressant, etc.)

-ce / -cy

This suffix added productively to adjectives in –ant / -ent (for example: convergence, efficiency, emergence, etc.) and also to nouns ending the string as in agency, presidency, regency, and so on.

-dom

The suffix –dom is semantically closely related to –hood and –ship. Its function are:

1) to form nominal which can be paraphrased as 'state of being X' as in apedom, clerkdom, slumdom, etc.,

2) to refer to collective entities, such as professordom, studentdom,

3) to denote domains, realism or territories as in kingdom, cameldom, maoridom, etc ..

-ee

It derives nouns denoting sentient entities that are involved in an event as non-volitional participants.

For example, employee denotes someone who is employed, a biographee is someone who is the subject of a biography, and a standee is someone who is forced to stand.

-eer

This suffix also used as person-noun-forming suffix, whose meaning can be paraphrased as 'person who deals in, is concerned with, or has to do with X, for example, the word such as auctioneer, budgeter, mountaineer, etc. -er (and its orthographic variant -or)

Its functions are:

1) signify entities that are active or volitional participants in an event (e.g. teacher, singer, writer, etc),

2) denotes instrument nouns (e.g. blender, mixer, toaster, etc),

3) denotes noun entities which are associated with an activity such as diner, lounge, trainer, winner, etc.,

4) creates person nouns indicating place of origin or residence (e.g. Londoner, New Yorker, New Englander).

The orthographic variant –or occurs mainly with Latinate bases ending in / s / or / t / as conductor, oscillator, compressor.

- (e) ry

Formations in - (e) ry refers to a place where a specific activity is carried out or place where a specific article or service is available that could be postulated such as bakery, brewery, fishery, pottery, etc. -ess This kind of suffix derives a comparatively small number of mostly established nouns referring to female humans and animals as in princess, stewardess, lioness, etc. -ful-ful derives measure partitive nouns from nominal base words that can be construed as containers.

It is similar to expression such as a lot of, a bunch of, etc. for example, the word cupful, handful, tumblerful, etc.

-hood

This suffix has similar meaning to –dom.

The word that is attached to this suffix expresses concepts such as state (as in adulthood, childhood, farmerhood, etc.), and collectivity (as in beggarhood, Christianhood, companionhood, etc.) - (i) an (and its variant - ean)

Formations in - (i) an seem to have the general meaning as: 1) person having to do with X (as in technician, historian, Utopian, etc.),

2) person being from X (as in Bostonian, Mongolian, Scandinavian, etc.),

3) person being the follower or supporter of X (as in Anglican, Chomskyan, etc.) -ing Derivatives with this suffix denote the processes (begging, running, sleeping, etc) or results (building, rapping, stuffing, etc.)

-ion

denotes events or results of processes which are primarily found in scientific discourse such as epoxidation and sedimentation. -ism Its function is to form abstract nouns from other nouns and adjectives.

The word with this suffix denotes the related concepts state, condition, attitude, system of beliefs or theory, as in blondism, fantasist, Parkinsonisms, conservatism, racism, revisionism, Marxism, etc.

-ist

This suffix derives nouns referring to persons, mostly from nominal and adjectival bases such as balloonist, careerist, fantasist, minimalist, etc. -ity The words, which are derived by attaching this suffix, denote qualities, states, or properties that are usually derived from Latinate adjectives (e.g. curiosity, productivity, solidity, etc.)

-ment

This suffix derives action nouns denoting processes or results from the mainly verbs. It is usually attached to monosyllables or disyllabic base words with have stress on the last syllable (e.g. assessment, endorsement, involvement, treatment, etc.)

-ness

It is considered as the most productive suffix of English. It has a close semantic relative with -ity (e.g. thingness, kindness, etc.)

-ship

This suffix forms nouns that denote state or condition. It has similar meaning with -age, -hood, and -dom. Base words are mostly person nouns as in clerkship, friendship, membership, etc.

The kinds of nominal suffix that are the suffix -age, -al, -ance / -ence / -ancy / -ency, -ant, -ce / cy, -dom, -ee, -eer, -er / -or, - (e) ry, -ess, -ful, -hood, - (i) an / -ean, -ing, -ion, -ism, -ist, -ity, -ment, -ness, and -ship. Nominal suffixes also can call as noun suffix by the formation of noun. Noun derived from other noun, noun derived from adjective or derived from verb.

2) Verbal Suffixes There are four suffixes which create verbs from other categories (mostly adjectives and nouns): -ate, -en, -ify-, and -ize here the kinds of verbal suffix according to (Plag, 2003: 92-94).

- ate

It functions is to derive verb with chemical substances as bases and its meaning are: 1) provide with X / ornative as in fluorinate, Make into X / resultative

as in methanate. Sometimes this suffix do not conform to this pattern, but being apparently no more than an indicator of verbal status. -

- en

The meaning of –en formations can be described as causative 'make (more) X.' it is mostly attached to adjectives (e.g. blacken, broaden, quicken, ripen, etc.)

- ify

Semantically, -ify shows the same range of meanings as –ize. This suffix added to three kinds of base word: to monosyllabic word, to words stressed on the final syllable, and to words stressed on the penult followed by a final syllable ending in unstressed / i / (eg humidify, solidify, etc.) - ize -ize expresses:

- 1) locatives / 'put into X' as in computerize, hospitalize,
- 2) ornative / 'provide with X' as in patinate and flouridize,
- 3) causative / 'make (more) X' as in randomize and functionalize,
- 4) resultative / 'make into X' as in carbonize and itemize,
- 5) inchoative / 'become X' as in aerosolize,
- 6) performative / 'perform X' as in anthropologize,
- 7) similitive / 'act like X' as in cannibalize and vampirize.

The suffix –ate, -en, ify, and –ize is attached to adjectives and nouns were categorized into verbal suffixes. Verbal suffixes also can call by the verb formation that derived from adjective or noun.

Adjectival suffixes that adjective derived from verb or noun. The English adjectival suffixes can be divided into two groups. The first is relational adjectives. It is adjectival suffixes whose role is to relate the noun the adjective qualifies to the base word of derived adjective.

For example, algebraic mind means' a mind having to do with algebra, referring algebra, characterized by Algebra.

The second group is qualitative adjective. This adjective can adopt qualitative meanings as in she is a grammatical genius and it can adopt a qualitative sense (Plag, 2003: 94-97). Their kinds are: -able / -ible -able / -ible has two meanings:

- 1) capable of being Xed as in breakable, readable, and deterrable,

2) liable or disposed to X as in agreeable, perishable, variable, etc.

-al

This suffix attaches mostly to Latinate bases as in accidental, colonial, cultural, federal, institutional, modal, etc.

-ary -ary

usually attaches to nouns as in complementary, evolutionary, fragmentary, precautionary, etc.

-ed

This suffix create adjective with general meaning 'having X and being provided with X.' For example: broad-minded, pig-headed, wooded, etc.

-esque -esque is added to both common and proper nouns to convey the notion of 'in the manner or style of X' as in Chaplinesque, Hemingwayesque, picturesque, etc.

-ful

The suffix -ful has the meaning 'having X and being characterized by X as in, beautiful, purposeful, tactful, etc. It is typically attached to abstract nouns.

-ic / -ical This suffix sometimes is clearly distinguished in meaning (e.g. economic means profitable vs. economical means money-saving).

-ing

It functions primarily to form present participle which can be used as adjectives in attributive positions.

-ish

This kind of suffix is attached to adjective (eg freeish, clearish, sharpish, etc.), numerals (eg fourteenish, threehundredfortyish), adverbs (eg soonish, uppish), and syntactic phrases (eg stick-in-the- muddish, out -of-the-wayish, silly-little-me-late-again-ish) to convey the concept of 'somewhat X'and vaguely X.'

-ive

forms adjective mostly from Latin such as connective, receptive, explosive, fricative, offensive, etc.

-less

The meaning of –less can be seen as antonymic to –ful, it is without X as in expressionless, hopeless, speechless, thankless, etc.

-ous

This suffix derives adjectives from nouns and bound roots, for example: curious, famous, synonymous, etc. It has some variants: -eous (e.g. erroneous, homogenous),

-ious

(e.g. gracious, prestigious), and - uous (e.g. ambiguous, continuous). Adjectival suffix that the suffix forming adjective. And the part of speech that forming adjective are verb and noun. Adjective is derived from noun, or derived from verb.

4) Adverbial Suffixes Plag in his book *Word-Formation in English* (2003: 97-98). The kinds of adverbial suffixes are the suffix

–Ly, and the suffix -wise -ly

In some formations there is a difference in meaning between the adjective and the adverb derived by –ly. For example, shortly, hardly, and dryly are semantically differ with their base words.

-wise -wise

creates adverbs from nouns, with two distinguishable groups. The first is adverbs which indicate manner / dimension adverbs whose meaning is 'in the manner of X' as in the towel wound sarongwise about his middle or indicate a spatial arrangement or movement as in the cone can be sliced lengthwise. The second group is adverbs which are made up of adverb whose meaning can be rendered as 'with respect to, in regard to, concerning X.' as in they make no special demands food- wise. Only two suffixes in the categorized into adverbial suffixes there were the suffix –ly and –wise. The suffix -ly in the adverbial suffix different with the suffix in the adjectival suffix.

2.2. Unproductive Suffixes

Unproductive are the methods of plural formation, which are remnants of ancient paradigms or borrowed from other languages, for example: supplementary forms with alternating vowels (man - men, tooth - teeth), archaic suffix -en (ox - oxen), some individual suffixes of the singular and plural numbers in borrowed nouns (antenna - antennae, stratum - strata, nucleus - nuclei, etc.); in addition, for some nouns, the plural is homonymous with the singular (sheep, fish, deer, etc.). The singular number of nouns is in most cases unmarked (has a "zero exponent").

There are a number of suffixes that are used in unproductive word formation:

- *-hood* - *neighborhood, childhood*
- *-ment* - *judgment, development*
- *-ance* - *importance, appearance*
- *-ence* - *dependence, difference*
- *-ly* - *slowly, lively*
- *-ity* - *curiosity, clarity*.

Unproductive prefixes include: *-in-* and its phonetic variants *-im-*, *-il-*, *-ir-*, which arose as a result of regressive assimilation with the initial consonant of the root. The prefix *in* is of Romanesque origin; occurs mainly in loan words; gives meaning to negation:

"Incorrect" - "correct"; "Improbable" (incredible, improbable) - "probable" (probable, plausible); Illegal - legal;

"Irregular" - "regular" (standard).

- en - prefix of Romanesque origin; in combination with the stems of nouns and adjectives forms verbs:

Enlarge, enslave, enrich;

sometimes gives them the meaning of being included in something: *"enchain" (to put on a chain, to chain), "encircle" (to surround).*

Some linguists identify the so-called dead prefixes in English. These include the prefixes *for-* and *a-* of Germanic origin. In ancient English, the prefixes *for-* and *a-* had a meaning: *for-* the meaning of destruction, cancellation, and- an

amplifying meaning. In modern English, the prefixes for- and a- have lost their meaning and merged with the root; for example, forgive, forbid, arise, awake.

In some cases, they even partially retain the Latin forms of inflection (formula plural formulae, memorandum plural memoranda).

Also, unproductive ways include changing the stress in the root of the word. The verb becomes a noun.

Conclusions on Chapter II

After analyzing the information provided, it can be concluded that neologisms appear in the language constantly as a result of the development of science, technology, culture, social relations, etc.

New words appear in the language in two ways: they either come by borrowing, or they are formed in the language itself in productive ways.

It should be noted that new words are perceived as neologisms only until the concepts they express become familiar, after which they are firmly included in the vocabulary and are no longer perceived as new.

There are productive and unproductive ways of forming words in English.

Productive ways of word formation in modern English are: 1) Composition. 2) Affixation. 3) Abbreviations. 4) Conversion. 5) Formation of verbs by adding post-verbal derivational elements.

Unproductive ways of word formation include:

- 1). Vowel alternations in the root.
- 2). Change of stress.

GENERAL CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Today, the English language, like other world languages, is undergoing constant changes and transformation, is in dynamics. The vocabulary, which is the most mobile layer of the language, reacts especially sensitively to such changes that are characteristic of the social, cultural and other spheres of life of the people speaking a particular language, since it is the word that acts as a kind of “mirror of life”. In addition, the constantly growing interest of the modern linguistic scientific direction in various aspects of the procedure for the formation of new words is due, first of all, to the fact that the word is the central unit of the language. In the framework of this study, we understood neologisms as words that are completely new lexical units for a specific historical period and stage of development of society. Words of this kind have not yet entered into active use, so their essence is not clear to everyone. Neologisms appear for various reasons, primarily as a result of social and scientific and technological progress, the emergence of new socio-economic realities, various kinds of discoveries in the scientific and technical spheres, and achievements in the cultural sphere. A distinctive feature of neologism is the absolute novelty of the word for the majority of native speakers. An educated word acts as a neologism for a fairly short time. Immediately after the word is active. enters into everyday life and makes up the vocabulary of most people, it loses the sign of novelty and passes into the group of commonly used ones. So, the concept of neologism is rather changeable in time and relative. The word remains a neologism as long as the speakers feel the novelty in it.

As a result of the analysis carried out, we can conclude that occasionalisms are words created by writers "on occasion", as a rule, according to unproductive models, which are of little predictable nature, inscribed within a certain context, practically not used in the national language.

From a semantic point of view, these words are not necessarily innovative; as a rule, their denotations are timeless. In the structure of their meaning, the emotional and emotive components are endowed with special relevance.

Their specific feature lies in the fact that the term occasionalism itself is mostly used in relation to a non-usual, non-canonical, “created”, “one-time” word, that is, ultimately, an anomalous unit of the lexical level of the language. In modern English, a huge number of ways of forming new words are found, the main of which are compounding, conversion, abbreviations, reverse word formation, the lexical-semantic way, the alternation of sounds and the transfer of stress in the word (phonological way) and others.

However, not all of these methods are used to the same extent; their role in the formation of new words is fundamentally different.

The second chapter of this work contains an analysis of the most popular ways of forming English neologisms. Among the most frequently used methods of forming neologisms are the affix method (prefix and suffix methods), compounding, conversion, abbreviation and telescope. The formation of neologisms occurs, as a rule, proceeding from the laws of the corresponding language, using its productive models of word formation. However, sometimes the creation of new words is carried out using unproductive methods of word formation.

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