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**New Trends in Word-Formation Processes in  
English: an Analysis of the Latest OED Entries**

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## **Abstract**

It is widely accepted that language changes; this change goes simultaneously with the evolution of the world. Phonetics, morphology, syntax, semantics or pragmatics have evolved and then been examined by linguistics. Word-formation processes have been a widely studied issue because of its complexity and interest; recently, the new tendencies in word-formation patterns have been a recurrent subject of study but have not been explored in great depth.

This paper aims to analyse the 712 words included in the Oxford English Dictionary (OED) during 2020 in order to obtain a pattern of the most dominant processes of formation of new words and the essential semantic fields. To this end, some previous knowledge of word-formation was essential, in addition to the need to refer to those few studies on the latest trends. Access to the OED was then required, and, by using the list with the words provided by the OED, an analysis of word-formation processes and semantic fields was carried out. But first, a selection of different sources was needed for the overview of the diverse word-formation processes.

My findings show that word formation processes have changed but perhaps not as much as expected: traditionally, compounding and affixation were the most important processes, and this continues to be this way. Nevertheless, new processes are becoming more important – clipping, blending or conversion–; at the same time, some others appear to be quite unproductive –initialisms, acronyms, reduplication or back-formation–. Besides, borrowing has been fundamental in the production of new words and its importance will be mentioned in this study, although it is not really a word-formation process.

As a result, language changes but very slowly, and the so-called minor word-formation processes are these days more important than, for instance, during the Old English period.

Apparently, both word-formation processes and semantic fields continue to be quite traditional and not much modification has taken place. Ease is going to influence the selection of the processes of formation of new words; for instance, compounding is much easier and then more productive than blending. Moreover, many words come from specialized fields –linguistics, gastronomy, fashion, health–, whereas semantic fields –such as Internet and technologies–, which were expected to be more dominant, are not so essential.

Further research could be carried out with the focus on words related to a particular semantic field, for instance, health. Studying words specifically related to the pandemic would also be valuable since Covid-19 has not finished yet. Other lines of study could also possibly delve into the patterns of formation of clippings or blendings or into the analysis of the many borrowings that were included during the referred year.

Key words: derivational morphology, new words, OED, productivity, semantic fields, word-formation processes.

## 1. Introduction

Languages of the world have been constantly updated to the latest changes of society and society and language have, in a way, evolved together. For this reason, new words are needed to refer to the new ideas and the new concepts that society incorporates. These words are formed by certain patterns known as word-formation processes. In English, compounding and affixation have been traditionally the most productive ones. As a matter of fact, during the Old English period, compounds were mainly adjectives and nouns, as today; kennings<sup>1</sup> were also frequently found especially in poetry. In the Middle English period, many of the new words formed had French roots and some processes, productive in present-day English, begin to appear as minor processes: clipping or blending. In the course of Modern English, word-formation processes became more alike to what we have in Present-day English, but affixation and compounding continued to be the most productive ones –conversion being the third most important process– (Bourcier, 1981; Millward & Hayes, 2012).

Word-formation processes such as blending, clipping, or conversion, among many others are growing in importance as years pass. These new words appear first in the speakers and are then incorporated into the different dictionaries of that language. Thus, dictionaries, such as the OED, make updates every year to change as society does. As explained by the OED (Dictionary, n.d.b), the procedure of the inclusion of those words in their dictionary is quite complex and has different steps. The terms go first to a “watch list” coming from many different sources, then they decide which ones could be included. Once the words to be included are decided, the tough labour of doing the entry starts by tracing the development of the term. Then, the remaining sections of the entry are completed. Anonymous people can propose words to

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<sup>1</sup> Kennings were compounds that denoted an image or metaphor of a word.

incorporate into the OED, but all these steps have to be done in order to finally add the term to the dictionary; and, indeed, many words are rejected.

The present paper aims to analyse the most productive word-formation processes of the words included in the OED during 2020 in order to obtain a certain pattern of productivity and analyse the new trends in word-formation processes as well as the most dominant semantic fields of those words incorporated. Before the actual analysis, I will provide a general framework of the wide range of word-formation processes available in English and the classification that will be used.

To this end, this paper is divided into different sections. The first section will present an overview of the different word-formation processes mentioning a large number of sources. Section two will provide information about the new trends in this field making reference to recent studies. The third and most important part will be devoted to the study of the 712 words included in the OED during 2020; this section will in turn be divided into two parts: the first one will deal with word-formation processes and the second one will analyse the semantic field of those same words. The paper will end with a conclusion providing a discussion of the results.



## 2. Overview of word-formation processes

As is well known, in present-day English we can differentiate many different types of word-formation processes. In this section, I will mainly focus on the description of nine of them, namely, affixation, compounding, conversion, acronyms, initialisms, clipping, blending, back-formation and reduplication.

### 2.1. Affixation

Huddleston and Bauer (2002) define affixation as “the process of forming a new base by the addition of an affix” (p. 1667), and Plag (2003) defines the term affix as “a bound morpheme that attaches to bases” (p. 72). In affixation, suffixation and prefixation are included; the former adds affixes at the end of words and the latter adds affixes at the beginning of words. According to Brinton and Brinton (2010), the addition of an affix, whether a suffix or a prefix, to a root generates at least one of these changes: a phonological change which can include a modification in stress as the case of *drama* > *dramatize*; an orthographic change as in *happy* > *happiness*; a semantic change, for example, *emerge* > *emergency*; and also, a change in the word class as in *impress* (verb) > *impression* (noun). Affixes can have different origins; they might be native –for instance, those which come from Old English– but they can also be taken from a foreign language, the most important source being French (Brinton & Brinton, 2010).

The way these different affixes are classified varies in the sources consulted. This paper distributes suffixes according to the class of the resulting form in the same way as Bauer (2002), Bauer, Lieber and Plag (2013), Brinton and Brinton (2010), Carter and McCarthy (2010), Plag (2003), Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (1995) do. Conversely, prefixes are going to be classified like Quirk et al. (1995) and Brinton and Brinton (1995), i.e. taking into account the

meaning of the prefix. However, other distributions are also possible; for instance, Bauer (2002) classifies prefixes into class-changing and class-maintaining and Huddleston and Bauer (2002) put together suffixes with prefixes.

### 2.1.1. Suffixation

As was mentioned above, suffixation is the addition of an affix at the end of the word. Suffixes can be nouns, adjectives, adverbs or verb suffixes (Bauer, 2002; Bauer et al., 2013; Brinton & Brinton, 2010; Carter & McCarthy, 2010; Plag, 2003; Quirk et al., 1995). The following are some of the nominal suffixes and their meaning according to Quirk et al. (1995) and Plag (2003): *-age* expresses an activity or even locations; *-al* designs an action; *-ance* and its variants *-ence*, *-ancy*, *-ency* create an action; *-ant* refers to people; *-ce* and *-cy* design actions; *-dom* has the meaning of stage of being something, collective entities or territories; *-ee* designs non-volitional participants; *-eer* means the person who deals with something; *-er* and its variant *-or* are used to refer to the performers of actions, instruments, entities related to an activity or for the origin of a person; *-(e)ry* indicates location and collectivism; *-ese* for nouns that design nationality and race; *-ess* used to refer to women; *-ette* refers to compact; *-ful* means measure; *-hood* refers to state and collectivity; *-(i)an* and its variant *-ean* refer to people and places and also designates a person who is a supporter of something; *-ing* for processes and results; *-ion* and its variants *-ify* and *-ification* for events; *-ism* refers to state, condition, attitude, system of beliefs or theory; *-ist* designs a person that has to do a particular activity; *-ite* means adherent to or member of a set; *-ity* used for qualities; *-let* expresses small or unimportant; *-ling* meaning minor, offspring or if the referent is human means disdainful; *-ment* used for processes and results; *-ness* means trait or property and it is the most common suffix in English; *-ship* means condition; *-ster* has a pejorative meaning; and *-ocracy* means government by.

Bauer et al. (2013), Plag (2003) and Quick et al. (1995) differentiate four verbal suffixes: *-ate*, used to refer to heterogeneous groups and in chemical substances; *-en* means to make something and it is a Germanic suffix attached to monosyllables ending in plosive, fricative or affricate; *-ify* and *-ize* are used to mean the same as concepts, such as locative, causative or resultative, among many other. Moreover, Bauer et al. (2013), Plag (2003) and Quirk et al. (1995) mention different adjectival suffixes: *-able* and *-ible*, *-al* and its variants *-ail* and *-ical*, *-ary*, *-ed*, *-esque*, *-ful*, *-ic* and *ical*, *-ing*, *-ish*, *-ive*, *-less*, *like*, *-ly*, *-ous*, and *-y*. Finally, adverbial suffixes such as *-ly* meaning in a manner of; *-ward* refers to direction; and *-wise* means also in the manner of or like something (Plag, 2003; Quirk et al., 1995).

### 2.1.2. Prefixation

As has been explained, prefixation is the addition of an affix at the beginning of the word. This type of affixes can be very different and are classified, according to Brinton and Brinton (2010) and Quirk et al. (1995), into the following categories: time and order (*after-*, *ex-*, *fore-*, *post-*, *pre-*, *re-*); place (*fore-*, *in-*, *inter-*, *sub-*, *super-*, *trans-*); degree and size (*arch-*, *co-*, *hyper-*, *micro-*, *mini-*, *out-*, *over-*, *sub-*, *super-*, *sur-* *ultra-*, *under-*); privation (*a-*, *de-*, *dis-*, *un-*); negation (*a-*, *anti-*, *dis-*, *in-*, *non-*, *un-*); pejorative (*mal-*, *mis-*, *pseudo-*); orientation and attitude (*anti-*, *contra-*, *counter-*, *pro-*); and number (*tri-*, *multi-*). Some prefixes are not productive anymore in English and have a discrete semantic value but are important since they have modified the class of the word, this is the case of *a-*, *be-*, *en-* or *em-* (Brinton & Brinton, 2010; Quirk et al., 1995).

## 2.2. Compounding

Compounding is the most common process of English word-formation (Plag, 2003). Quirk et al. (1995) define a compound as “a lexical unit consisting of more than one base and functioning both grammatically and semantically as a single word” (p. 1567). There are many different classifications of compounds. Bauer (2002) opts for a distribution that depends on the class of each of the compound elements; this is also the distribution that Bauer et al. (2013), Brinton and Brinton (2010), Huddleston and Bauer (2002) and Plag (2003) follow. However, Adams (1976), Carter and McCarthy (2010) and Quirk et al. (1995) classify them into compound nouns, compound adjectives and compound verbs and then taking into account a presumed syntactic function: subject + verb, verb + object, subject + complement, verb + adverbial, complement + noun or subject + predicative complement (Adams 1976; Carter & McCarthy 2010; Quirk et al., 1995); for instance, *headache* contains a subject and a verb, ‘a head that aches’ (Carter & McCarthy 2010).

The classification adopted by Bauer (2002), Bauer et al. (2013), Brinton and Brinton (2010), Huddleston and Bauer (2002) and Plag (2003) into compound nouns, compound adjectives and compound verbs will be reviewed below. In addition to these three types, another type of compounds will be explained, neoclassical compounds (Adams, 1976; Bauer, 2002; Bauer et al., 2013; Huddleston & Bauer, 2002; Plag, 2003).

### 2.2.1. Compound nouns

Compound nouns are the biggest group of compounds and have two parts; the first element is the modifier and the second element is the head; from a semantic point of view, they can be classified into endocentric and exocentric (Bauer, 2002; Plag, 2003). In endocentric compounds, “the compound is a hyponym of the grammatical head” (Bauer, 2002, p. 30), as

the case of *armchair* designating a type of chair. Exocentric compounds are “hyponyms of some unexpressed semantic head” (Bauer, 2002, p. 30) for example, *bluebell* is a hyponym of *plant*. Moreover, an appositional compound is a hyponym of each of the elements that form the compound and this is also the case of *maidservant* (Bauer, 2002). It is worth mentioning that there is another type of compound noun: the copulative or dvandva compound that designs compounds formed by different entities, does not have a clear head and it is neither a hyponym nor an element on itself, for example, *Bosnia-Herzegovina* (Bauer, 2002; Huddleston & Bauer, 2002; Plag, 2003).

From a morphological perspective, nominal compounds can be formed by noun + noun, adjective + noun, verb + noun, particle + noun, adverb + noun, verb + verb and noun + verb (Bauer, 2002; Bauer et al., 2013; Huddleston & Bauer, 2002). The most productive type of compound is noun + noun (Bauer et al., 2013; Huddleston & Bauer, 2002).

### 2.2.2. Compound adjectives

Compound adjectives can be composed by noun + adjective, verb + adjective, adjective + adjective, adverb + adjective, noun + noun, verb + noun, adjective + noun, particle + noun, noun + verb, verb + verb, adverb + verb and particle + verb (Bauer, 2002; Huddleston & Bauer, 2002). Furthermore, compound adjectives with an adjective in the second element of the word often have a noun in the first element, and the most common compound adjective is noun + adjective (Huddleston & Bauer, 2002). Noun + adjective compounds can indicate comparison or intensification, for instance, *bone-dry*; they can also design extent such as *shoulder-high* which are called measure terms; and they can have an element that functions as a modifier, for example, *oil-rich* indicating *rich in oil* (Huddleston & Bauer, 2002). Adjective + adjective is also another quite productive class of compound adjective, and the two elements have a relation of coordination or subordination (Huddleston & Bauer, 2002).

### 2.2.3. Compound verbs

Compound verbs are the smallest class in the word-formation process of compounding (Huddleston & Bauer, 2002). Most of the compound verbs are formed by backformation and conversion (Bauer, 2002; Huddleston & Bauer, 2002). Compound verbs are very few, but can also be classified depending on the type of components: noun + verb, noun + noun, adjective + noun, preposition + noun, preposition + verb or verb + verb (Bauer, 2002; Huddleston & Bauer, 2002).

### 2.2.4. Neoclassical compounds

Adams (1976), Bauer (2002), Bauer et al. (2013), Huddleston and Bauer (2002) and Plag (2003) include neoclassical compounds in the process of compounding. However, Quirk et al. (1995) include them in the process of affixation. Furthermore, Plag (2003) defines neoclassical compounds “as forms in which lexemes of Latin or Greek origin are combined to form new combinations that are not attested in the original languages” (p. 155). These forms are not free forms, i.e. they cannot occur in an independent form (Bauer et al., 2013). Initial combining forms, which occur in initial position, and final combining forms, which occur in final position, are two types of neoclassical compounds (Bauer et al., 2013; Huddleston & Bauer, 2002; Plag, 2003). *Retroflex* (*retro-* ‘backwards’), *morphology* (*morpho-* ‘figure’) or *biodegradable* (*bio-* ‘life’) are examples of initial combining forms; and *suicide* (*-cide* ‘murder’), *astrology* (*-logy* ‘science of’), *telescope* (*-scope* ‘look at’) or *democracy* (*-cracy* ‘rule’) are examples of final combining forms (Plag, 2003). A minority of elements might be added at the end or at the beginning of words as *morph-l-morph* or *phil-l-phile* (Bauer et al., 2013). Most of the neoclassical compounds are nouns (Bauer et al., 2013).

### 2.3. Conversion

Conversion, also named functional shift by Brinton and Brinton (2010), is defined as “the use of a form which is regarded as being basically of one form class as though it were a member of a different form class, without any concomitant change of form” (Bauer, 2002, p. 227). An example of conversion is the verb *humble* which comes from the adjective *humble*, or the preposition *anti* coming from the prefix *anti-* (Huddleston & Bauer, 2002). In many cases, it is difficult to state which of the forms was the first one formed. Nevertheless, there are examples of conversion in which knowing the original form is much easier as the meaning of the word born after conversion is more complex than the original word and the meaning of the word of origin is included in the word. The nouns *bottle* and *butter* are more basic than the verbs *to bottle* and *to butter* (Bauer et al., 2013; Brinton & Brinton, 2010; Huddleston & Bauer, 2002).

The most productive type of conversion involves the change from nouns to verbs or from verbs to nouns (Carter & McCarthy, 2010). Besides conversion between nouns and verbs, conversion between adjectives and nouns, and between adjectives and verbs is also essential (Bauer, 2002; Huddleston & Bauer, 2002). Moreover, prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs, interjections and affixes can also be involved in the process conversion (Bauer, 2002).

In the process of conversion, a change of stress can occur (Bauer, 2002; Plag, 2003). Plag (2003) puts forward that this shift of stress happens in pairs of noun and verb; this is the case of *construct* or *abstract* which as a verb are pronounced with the accent on the last syllable while as a noun have their accent on the first syllable (Bauer, 2002; Plag, 2003). This shift of stress also occurs with phrasal verbs that have the stress on the preposition and the corresponding noun has the stress on the first element, for example, *to push up* and *a push-up* (Bauer, 2002; Plag, 2003). During the process of conversion, a change in the sonorization of

the final consonant can also take place (Bauer, 2002). According to Bauer (2002), this change is called partial conversion and happens when a noun that ends in a voiceless fricative turns into a verb by changing the final consonant to a voiced fricative, for instance, *advice* (noun) and *advise* (verb) or *belief* (noun) and *believe* (verb).

## **2.4. Initialisms and acronyms**

Initialisms and acronyms are formed by abbreviation; both are words formed by taking the initial letters of a phrase and can be spelt with uppercase or lowercase letters (Brinton & Brinton, 2010; Plag, 2003). Nevertheless, depending on the way these abbreviations are spelt and pronounced, they are classified into initialisms or acronyms (Brinton & Brinton, 2010; Plag, 2003). Initialisms are pronounced letter by letter, while acronyms are articulated as a word (Brinton & Brinton, 2010; Plag, 2003). *MTV* is an example of an initialism as it stands for *Music and Television* and it is read letter by letter, whereas the acronym *radar* stands for *Radio Detection and Ranging* and is read as a word. Brinton and Brinton (2010) and Plag (2003) distribute these words in initialisms and acronyms; however, this is not always the case. Adams (1976) and Quirk et al. (1995) classify these word-formation processes under the label of acronyms, and Bauer (2002) and Huddleston and Bauer (2002) refer to what Brinton and Brinton (2010) and Plag (2003) call initialisms as abbreviations.

## **2.5. Clipping**

Clipping can be considered another type of abbreviation; Bauer (2002) defines clipping as “the process whereby a lexeme (simple or complex) is shortened, while still retaining the



same meaning and still being a member of the same form class” (p. 233). Different terms are used to designate each of the parts of the process of clipping: the word of origin is the original; the eliminated one is the superplus; and the residue is the one kept and forms the new word (Huddleston & Bauer, 2002).

Bauer (2002), Brinton and Brinton (2010), Huddleston and Bauer (2002) and Quirk et al. (1995) classify them taking into account the way the clipped term is formed and also their productivity. The first and main pattern to form clippings is keeping the beginning and eliminating the end as in *ad* or *advert*, coming from *advertisement*. The second type removes the beginning of the word, for instance, *cello* from *violoncello*. In the less frequent type, the middle remains, and the beginning and the end are the superplus: *flu* from *influenza*. Huddleston and Bauer (2002) include these types of clippings in the category of plain clippings and add another category, embellished clippings, to refer to those forms that are clipped and then an affix is added to them. *Soccer* is an example of an embellished clipping as abbreviates the form *association football* and adds the suffix *-er*.

A great number of clippings are monosyllabic words (Bauer et al., 2013). These non-hypocoristic clippings express diminution and familiarity with the object or concept referred to (Bauer et al., 2013). Furthermore, clippings are often found in informal and colloquial contexts (Adams, 1976; Bauer, 2002; Brinton and Brinton, 2010; Huddleston & Bauer, 2002; Quirk et al., 1995). Clipped words might be formed from adjectives, nouns, verbs, or even phrases, and the syntactic category of the base does not change when clipping the word (Bauer et al., 2013).<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>2</sup> Note that Bauer et al (2013) include in the process of clipping “ellipsis in lexicalized phrases” (p. 403), for instance, *fries* for *French fries* or *the House* for *the House of Representatives* or *the State House*.

## 2.6. Blending

Huddleston and Bauer (2002) define the process of blending as “the formation of a word from a sequence of two bases with reduction of one or both at the boundary between them” (p. 1636) and, as Brinton and Brinton (2010) put forward, blending implies two processes: clipping and compounding. Bauer et al. even (2013) define blends as “compounds where at least one constituent lacks some of its phonological material” (p. 458). Blends can be distributed into different categories. Huddleston and Bauer (2002) distinguish four categories, depending on the formation of the word: the first part of the first base is kept and the second base is kept in a whole (*paratroops: parachute + troops*); the first base remains unchanged and the second base keeps the final part (*newscast: news + broadcast*); the blend keeps the beginning of the first base and the final part of the second base (*heliport: helicopter + airport*); or the two forms overlap as the central part is common in the first and second bases (*sexploitation: sex + exploitation*).

Brinton and Brinton (2010) differentiate two types of blends depending on their origin. The first type are compounds that already existed and are shortened to form the blend; in these blends, the first base modifies the second base, for example, *sci-fi* which is a kind of fiction and not a kind of science. The second type does not originally come from compounds and designs concepts characteristic of the two elements, for instance, *brunch* referring to a mixture of a breakfast and a lunch. Bauer et al. (2013) maintain that the most common combinations are, in order of productivity: noun + noun, adjective + noun, adjective + adjective and verb + verb. It is worth noting that blends are not longer than the longer base of the elements contained in the blend (Huddleston & Bauer, 2002).

## 2.7. Back-formation

The process of back-formation is to “derive a morphologically simple word from a form which they analyse, on the basis of derivational and inflectional patterns existing in English, as a morphologically complex word” (Brinton & Brinton, 2010, p. 107). Back-formation tends to occur in denominal verbs (Bauer, 2002; Carter & McCarthy, 2010; Quirk et al., 1995). An example of back-formation is *baby-sitter* in which the suffix *-er* is dropped and the word *baby-sit* is then formed (Bauer, 2002; Huddleston & Bauer, 2002). As happens with conversion, it is quite difficult to know which one is the first form, although the date of attestation of the two words or the frequency—the longer word has a higher frequency—help to know this (Bauer et al., 2013). Back-formation also occurs in inflected words, for instance, *pea* comes from *pease*—a form perceived as plural, but was singular and uncountable (Bauer, 2002).

## 2.8. Reduplication

Reduplication is “a process similar to derivation, in which the initial syllable or the entire word is doubled, exactly or with a slight phonological change” (Brinton & Brinton, 2010, p. 100). In English, it is not a productive word-formation process, and most of them belong to the children’s language—*boo-boo*—or to a context of humour. Moreover, words formed by reduplication are generally associated with informality (Brinton & Brinton, 2010; Quirk et al., 1995). Bauer et al. (2013) make a clear and specific classification of words by reduplication with three different groups; firstly, those in which both elements are homophonous, as in *woof-woof*; secondly, there is a slight difference on the vowel sound and the consonant sound remains unchanged, for instance, *flipflop*; thirdly, the foot remains the same and the onset changes, this

is the case of *easy peasy*. Reduplication can explain different ideas: alternation, onomatopoeia or intensification, among many others (Brinton & Brinton, 2010).

### 3. New trends in English word-formation

New words are mainly created if a name is needed to refer to a new concept (Harley, 2006). The Global Language Monitor (2018) estimates that each day more than 14 words are created in the English language, which would be more than 5000 a year. In recent years, some studies have been carried out on how new words are formed nowadays. Moreover, Bauer (2002) refers to a word-formation process as productive “if it can be used synchronically in the production of new forms, and non-productive if it cannot be used synchronically in this way” (p. 18).

Heynen (2008) puts forward that the most important sources of neologisms are compounding, clipping, blending, acronyms, derivation –which in this paper is called affixation–, coinage<sup>3</sup>, conversion and borrowing<sup>4</sup>. Compounding is one of the most productive word-formation processes (Heynen, 2008). Heynen (2008) considers that, in recent years, compounds usually “hint at already existing words” (p. 6), for instance, *shopgrifting* is used to refer to the action of wearing an item and then giving it back to the shop and hints at *shoplifting* (Heynen, 2008). On Twitter, *shopgrifting* was for the first time used on 13 June 2007–more precisely a tweet that says “Learning about shopgrifting” (Jonathan Vaught, 2007)–, but this word is not that common since only eight tweets contain it and the OED does not even include it.

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<sup>3</sup> Coinage is “the process of finding totally new words” (Heynen, 2018, p. 9). Many of these terms are the names for brands such as *iPod*. The process of coinage has phonological restrictions meaning that sounds have to follow a certain phonological pattern.

<sup>4</sup> Borrowing is not included in the word-formation processes but is a source of new words. These are terms coming from other languages, as in the case of the French language during the ME period.

Clipping is also quite productive (Heynen, 2008). In 2008 –the year in which Heinen’s book was published–, one of the newest terms formed by clipping was *blog* clipped from *weblog*. The name *weblog* came to be used in the nineties and then at the beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century the word *blog* appeared (Harley, 2006).

Affixation is also quite productive; Heynen (2008) also explains that, in recent years, many neologisms formed by affixation are related to sexuality. For instance, words such as *bisexualism*, *homosex* or *asexualized*, among many others, were included in the OED in March 2018 and have an extended use on Twitter. Nishimoto (2004) makes a thorough study on the degree of productivity of some suffixes in the British National Corpus: the most productive suffixes are *-ish*, *-ness*, and *-ee* and the least productive ones are *-th*, *-ment* and *-ion*.

In the article “How new words are born”, published in *The Guardian*, Bolde (2016a) makes a study of the different word-formation processes and maintains that, during the 20<sup>th</sup> century, the most productive process was acronymy, especially during the wars in order to facilitate communications. Nevertheless, Bolde (2016a) asserts that acronyms have lost importance these days since the same acronym can refer to many different concepts. For Bolde (2016a), today the most productive process is blending. Blends constantly appear in everyday life (Balíaeva, 2019; Bodle, 2016b). This word-formation process is not recent since, for instance, *smog* (*smoke* + *fog*) was first attested in 1905 (Bodle, 2016b). Nowadays, blending is one of the most productive word-formation processes and is increasing its use (Balíaeva, 2019, Heynen, 2008). It is used for politics (*Brexit*: *British* + *exit*), youth slang (*brovember*: *bro* + *November*), journalism (*Brangelina*: *Brad Pitt* + *Angelina Jolie*) or even advertisement (*Frappuccino*: *frappé* + *cappuccino*) because blendings are attention-catching (Balíaeva, 2019). Some of the words formed by blending are used to refer to the combination of two languages, for example, *Hinglish* –formed by *Hindi* and *English*– (as cited in Heynen, 2008).

The most productive patterns of blends are, namely, blends with clipping, blends with overlapping and blends with both (Mirzaie, 2014). An example of blend with clipping is *framily* which puts together *friend* and *family* and is used to refer to those people who are friends but are like family (Mirzaie, 2014). *Framily* is used on Twitter by English speaking people and also by Spanish and German speaking people; even the Macquarie Dictionary (2018) –a dictionary of Australian English– named *framily* as word of the year in 2017. However, *framily* is not included in the OED. An example of blend with overlapping is *slanguage* that includes *slang* and *language* (Mirzaie, 2014) and the use of this word is more extended than the one of *framily*. *Slanguage* is included in the OED and defined as “a form of slang” (Slangism, 2019). *Foolosopher* is an example of blend with both, overlapping and clipping, which joins *fool* and *philosopher* to refer to a person with no prudence (Mirzaie, 2014) and this word was already included in the OED version of 1897; therefore, it is not that new. The most productive ones are blends formed by clipping, followed by those formed by both of them and finally blends formed by overlapping (Mirzaie, 2014).

Nowadays, the fields that give more new words to the English language seem to be the internet language, advertising, trademarks, science, entertainment and lifestyles (Heynen, 2008). In the internet language, the *e-* prefix, for instance, has been used for many expressions to refer to anything related to the internet (Crystal, 2004). However, this prefix is not so new since it was already mentioned in the *Oxford dictionary of new words* (1991) and the American Dialect Society named it word of the year in 1998 (Crystal, 2004). In *The New York Times*, the first time that the word *e-text* was employed was on 8 November 1998 in the article “On language; the e-lancer eats a Bagelwich” by William Safire.

It is precisely on this language of the internet that Liu and Liu (2014) focus their study of word formation processes. Liu and Liu (2014) study word-formation processes of the English

Netspeak. According to them, compounding is the most productive word-formation process of Netspeak (73.8%), 93.5% of which are compound nouns. One of these compound nouns is *fleshmeet* defined by Liu and Liu (2014) as “people chatting online make a date to see each other in the real world” (p. 25). On Twitter, the word *fleshmeet* was first used on 14 September 2007 in a tweet that says “hi... well, since we have one friend in common outside Twitter, I hoped to fleshmeet him some day” (Miguel Lopez, 2007) and appears in more than 80 tweets. The second most productive word-formation process of Netspeak is blending. This is the case of the word *wedsite*: a website with information about somebody’s wedding (Liu & Liu, 2014).

In the study of words taken from *Word Spy* that Liu and Liu (2014) carry out, only 13 English words are formed by affixation, only two of them being composed by prefixation. Such is the case of the word *ungoogleable* with extended use on Twitter, for example, this tweet: “ok but 'The Suicide Squad' is a very stupid and ungoogleable name for a sequel to a film called 'Suicide Squad’” (Molly Martian, 2021). In the same line, only two acronyms and two conversion cases are found together with an only instance of clipping.

Mustafa, Kadasamy and Yasin (2015) conducted some research on the most common word-formation processes in everyday communication on Facebook focusing on Malaysian young adults. In this field, the most productive types are, in this order, acronyms, blending and clippings. Malaysians tend to use short words because of their non-stop lifestyle: they do not have much time to write, so they shorten words (Mustafa et al., 2015).

As was mentioned above, the internet language is one of the essential sources to look for new words and analyse their word-formation processes; some of these words are included in the OED. The OED makes a minimum of four updates to their dictionary every year and is therefore a good place to look for recent words. The OED compilers are aware of the existence of terms from many different fields and contact people of many different sectors of society to



include those specialised words (Flood, 2018). For instance, in 2018, the OED included words related to parenting after asking the forum *Mumsnet*; the forum proposed many words, and not all of them were included. *Babymoon* or *baby-led weaning*, known as *BLW*, were among the ones included, but *apocalypse* was not added (Flood, 2018). In 2019, words related to Hawaiian cuisine, *poke*, or words related to Star Wars, such as *Jedi*, were added (Petter, 2019). This dictionary also includes words of other English varieties. In 2017, words of Indian English were included: *chakka jam* referring to the “blocking of a road as a form of civilian protest” (Salazar, 2017), or *dadagiri* meaning “the use of one’s power and authority to intimidate others” (Salazar, 2017). Table 1 shows the number of words added to the OED between 2012 and 2020:

Year	New entries to the OED
2012	1050
2013	468
2014	562
2015	516
2016	843
2017	535
2018	1183
2019	621
2020	712

Table 1

6490 words were added to the OED from 2012 until 2020. Ratih and Gusdyan (2018) carried out a research study on the word-formation processes found in the OED between the years 2012 and 2016 by analysing some of the words added in that span of time. According to them, these terms can be classified into eight word-formation processes. In this period of five years, the most productive processes are affixation (46%), followed by compounding (27%),

blending (12%), clipping (7%) and then acronyms, folk-etymology<sup>5</sup>, borrowing, abbreviation and back-formation as minor processes.

All in all, there is no consensus on the most productive word-formation processes of the English language. According to these studies, compounding and affixation continue to be among the most productive ones but, in recent years, blending and also clipping are becoming more and more important for the formation of new words.

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<sup>5</sup> Ratih and Gusdyan (2018) define folk etymology as a source of new words which is quite similar to borrowing, but “the speaker changes the form or the pronunciation” (p. 27) of the word.

#### 4. New words in 2020: an analysis of the recent entries in the OED

During the year 2020, seven different updates were implemented to the OED. In the updates, changes are classified by alphabetical order into, namely, new word entries, new sub-entries, new senses and additions to unrevised entries (Dictionary, n.d.d). New sub-entries, new senses and additions to unrevised entries will be out of the scope of this paper. My analysis will specifically concentrate on the 712 new word entries of the seven different updates which were added to the OED during 2020. Table 2 shows the distribution of the new entries in the seven different updates:

Month	New entries added to the OED in 2020
January	162
March	147
April	14
June	94
July	18
September	160
December	117

Table 2

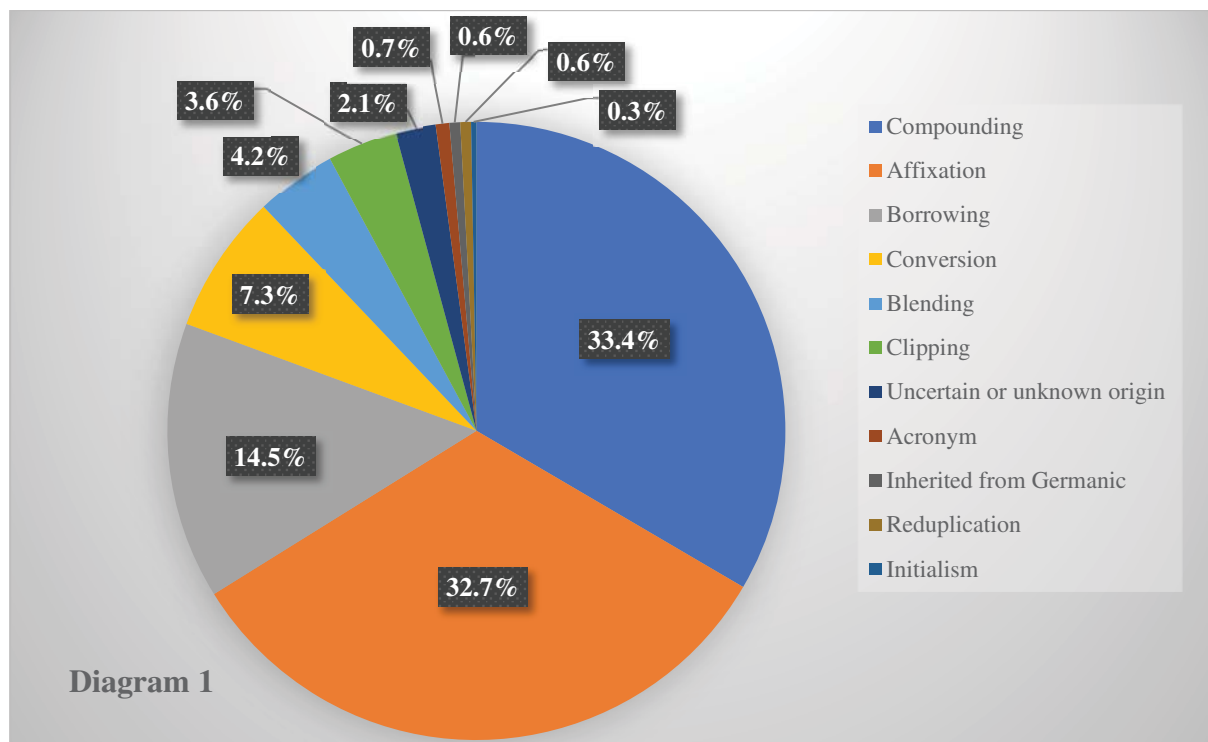
For the study that follows, an in-depth analysis has been carried out in order to classify the 712 words according to certain labels. The words were first classified in terms of their word-formation processes taking into account the useful information provided by the OED. Then, the words were classified attending to their semantic field. To this end, I had to read the different definitions and look for common semantic labels to group the words. Finally, I scrutinized all the data and obtained some relevant results which will be shown in the diagrams below. For obvious reasons of space, only some words are going to be used as examples of the labels mentioned throughout these pages; all the words, together with their detailed information can

be found in alphabetical order in Appendix 1. Each of the entries includes category, word-formation process and semantic field.

In this respect, it cannot be forgotten that the year 2020 is marked by Covid-19, which affected all sectors of all the world; the pandemic has also had an impact in language; new words have appeared and their use and connotations have also been influenced and altered. This semantic changes and lexical enrichment in English can be clearly observed by paying attention to the words added to the OED during 2020 during this unprecedented situation. Then, 32 words related to the pandemic were included in the entries of April and July.

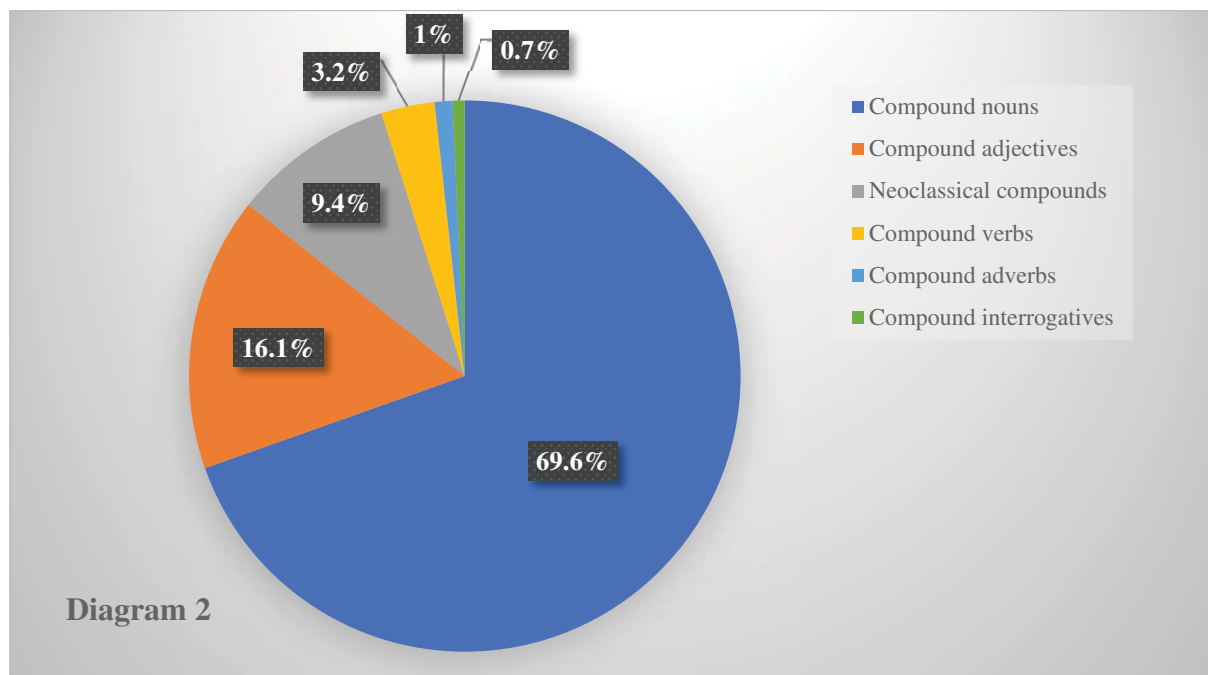
#### **4.1. Word-formation processes of the OED during 2020**

For the study that follows, 712 words are going to be classified into the different word-formation processes that were mentioned at the beginning of this paper in order to observe their productivity during 2020. As shown in diagram 1, OED new entries will be classified in affixation, compounding, conversion, initialisms, acronyms, clipping, blending and reduplication. Moreover, some new labels are going to be added since they cannot be included under these word-formation processes: words inherited from Germanic, borrowings, and words of uncertain or unknown origin.



#### 4.1.1. Compounding in the OED during 2020

The most productive word-formation process is compounding (33.4% of the total number of words), which coincides with the results obtained by Plag (2003). As explained in section 2.2. above, compounds can be classified into compound nouns, compound adjectives, compound verbs and neoclassical compounds. Nevertheless, in the words added to the OED during 2020, in addition to these four types of compounds, compound adverbs and compound interrogatives also appear. In diagram 2, I show compound terms divided into these labels.



As in the study carried out by Plag (2003), the most productive type of compounding is compound nouns (more than two-thirds). Among them, the most productive type, as Bauer et al. (2013) and Huddleston and Bauer (2002) had already stated, is noun + noun with more than two-thirds, followed by adjective + noun and verb + noun.

Good examples of new words from this group are, among others, *birthing room*, a compound noun formed by the noun *birthing* and the noun *room*. This word has two different meanings: the most general meaning refers to the place in a hospital that is prepared for a woman giving birth, and then in the United States this word is also used to refer to a room in the house “to use during childbirth”; however, the specific meaning of the United States is historical. Other compound nouns that could also be mentioned here are *suicide belt* which has the meaning of a region where the rates of suicide are higher and also refers to the belt with explosives used by a suicide bomber. *Physical distancing*, formed by an adjective and a noun, is employed these days with the meaning related to Covid-19 but has a more general meaning referring to keeping a distance with a person not just in a disease situation.

Compound nouns are followed, at a considerable distance, by compound adjectives (16.1%) in accordance with the literature mentioned in the overview. As stated by Huddleston and Bauer (2002), the most common combination is noun + adjective. This is the case of *chuckheaded* refers to a person who is not intelligent. *Awesomesauce* is a compound adjective formed by *awesome*, an adjective, and *sauce*, a noun, and is used to refer to something which is “extremely good; excellent”.

Neoclassical compounds are also quite productive<sup>6</sup>. There are three words related to a *phobia* that are neoclassical compounds; one of the most interesting ones is *coulrophobia*, first used in 1997<sup>7</sup>, which is the fear of clowns. It is composed of the first element of unknown origin and *phobia*, coming from Latin. As stated in the overview, compound verbs are not really productive, only nine words are compound verbs and most of them are formed by noun + verb. *Skim-read* is an example of a compound verb formed by *skim*, a verb, and *read*, a verb; it means “read in a rapid [...] manner” and can be transitive or intransitive. Only three words are

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<sup>6</sup> Bauer (2002) states that the forms that create neoclassical compounds, which come from Latin and Greek, are called combining forms by the OED. Most of the words containing a combining form in the OED were, in this paper, integrated into the label of neoclassical compounds; however, there were some words labelled under other categories. This is the case of *chatbot*, considered by the OED a compounding of the noun *chat* and the combining form *-bot* formed by the clipping of the word *robot*, but, in this study, this word is classified as a blend since it combines the word *chat* and *robot*.

<sup>7</sup> Some words which were incorporated into the OED during 2020 have a quite old first attested use, as the case of *coulrophobia* –there are words having an older first attested use–. The OED refers to this kind of words as a “new word from the past” (Dictionary, n.d.a) since they “escaped inclusion” (Dictionary, n.d.a) and now are incorporated.

compound adverbs as *next tomorrow*, coming from Nigerian English and meaning “on the day after tomorrow”. Finally, two words are compound interrogatives.

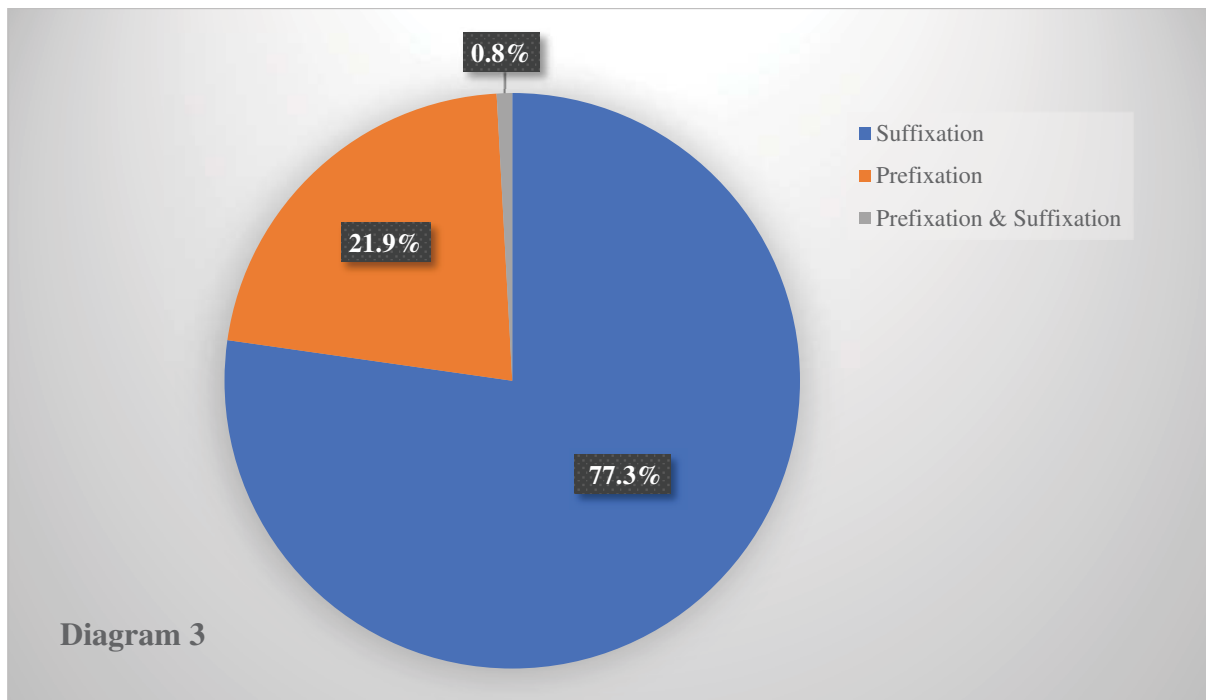
In their studies, Heynen (2008) and Liu and Liu (2014) point to the importance that the word-formation process of compounding has today, and there is clear evidence of this in my study. As a matter of fact, putting two words together with no changes can be considered the easiest form to refer to a new concept. From the moment that the endings of words started to be lost, compounding has always been among the most productive word-formation processes. Thus, if someone wants to talk about a soup that contains chicken, the simplest term and the most appropriate one would be chicken soup. The word *chicken soup* is then added to the dictionary during 2020.

Combinations of different types can be made and many concepts can be referred to just by putting together two terms. It is quite easy to understand a term formed by two words because it is just putting the meaning of the two words in one. By contrast, words formed by other word-formation processes require further knowledge that make communication more difficult. As noticed in the coming pages, practicality and avoiding misunderstandings is key in communication. Then, this is perhaps the reason why compounding is more productive than other processes such as acronymy, initialism, or blending. Ease is going to be key in the productivity of word-formation processes.

#### 4.1.2. Affixation in the OED during 2020

The word-formation process of compounding is closely followed by affixation (32.7%). As is well known, words formed by affixation can be divided into three groups depending on the place where the affix is added: suffixation, prefixation, and prefixation and suffixation at once. This division is shown in diagram 3.





In affixation, the most productive process is clearly suffixation. Diagram 4 below shows the most productive suffixes of the 712 words<sup>8</sup>.

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<sup>8</sup> It is worth noting that only those suffixes that form more than one word are present in the diagram. These suffixes only form one word: *-ad, -age, -al, -an, -ane, -ant, -ase, -ate, -ee, -ese, -esque, -ette, -i, -ical, -in, -ite, -itis, -ity, -ize, -le, -less, -ous, -s, -ship, -speak, -st, -wards* and *-y*.

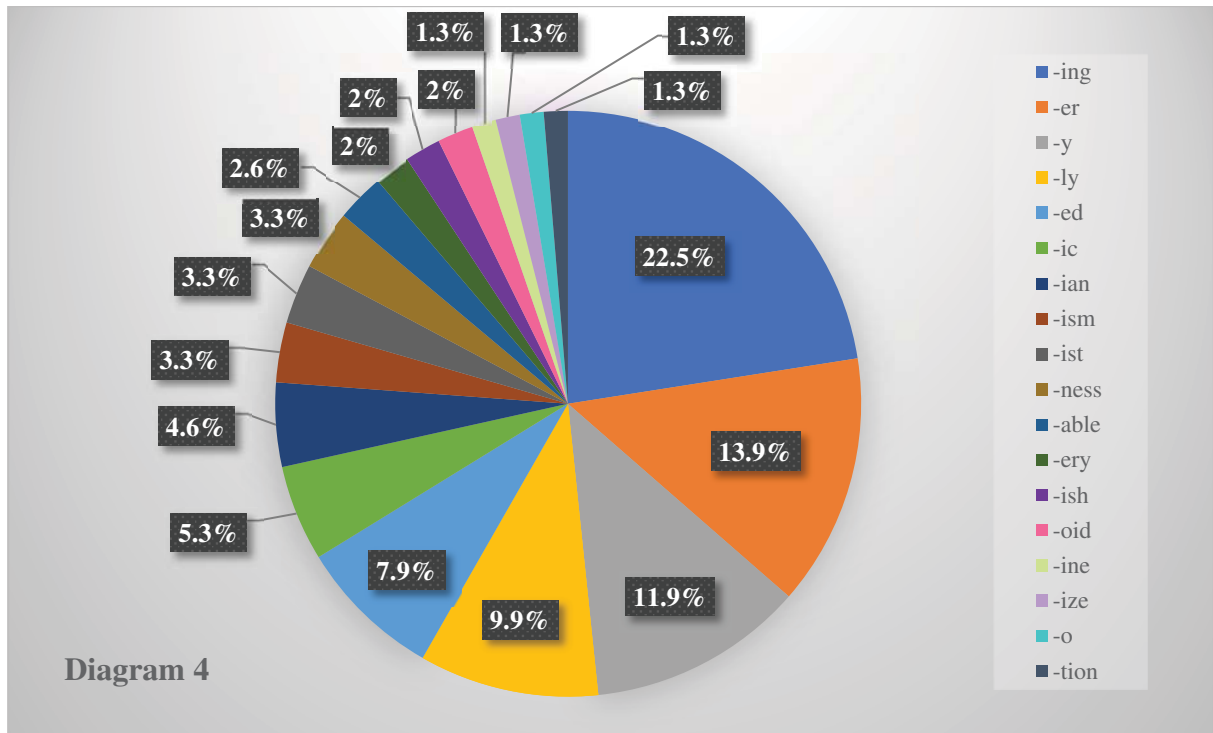


Diagram 4

The most productive suffix is *-ing*, followed by *-er*, *-y*, *-ly* and *-ed*. A word formed by the most productive suffix is *futzing* with the meaning of “ineffectual or trifling activity; messing about; tinkering”. Another interesting word these days is *frontliner* which is formed by *front line*, a noun, and the second most productive suffix *-er*. *Frontliner* can mean two different issues: “a person positioned on the foremost line, row, or part of something” and a person who works as the employee who is in contact with clients in an organization. The words added in July are related to the pandemic; *frontliner* is one of these, and it is employed to talk about the doctors who are in the front line of a hospital. Most of the words formed by the suffix *-y* end in *-ie* as the case of the colloquial term *mouthie*, a synonym for mouth.

Suffixation is followed by prefixation. Diagram 5 shows the most productive prefixes.

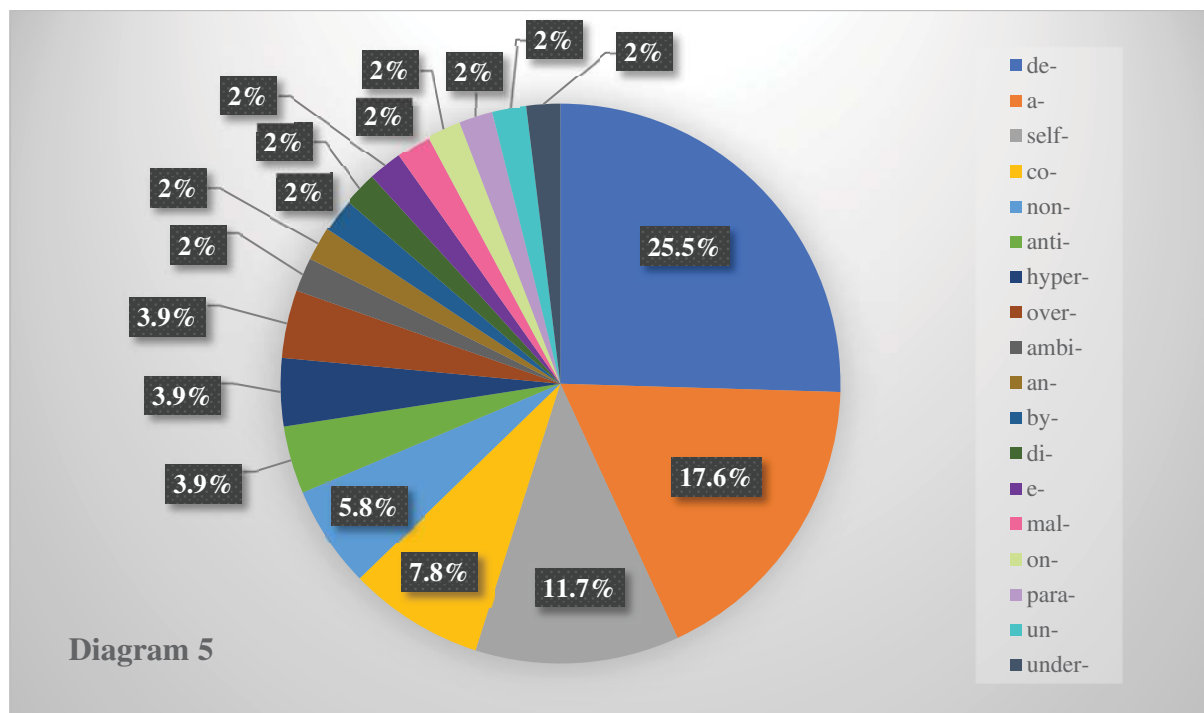


Diagram 5

The most productive prefix is *de-*, followed by *a-*, *self-* and *co-*. The verb *deprioritize* is one of the words formed by the most productive prefix meaning to diminish the importance of any issue. *Amelodic* is composed by the prefix *a-* and the adjective *melodic* referring to “not containing, composed of, or characterized by melody; not melodic”. It is worth stating that, during 2020, the prefix *self-* formed words of the vocabulary associated today to Covid-19: *self-isolate*, verb; *self-isolated*, adjective; *self-isolation*, noun; *self-quarantine*, noun, *self-quarantine*, verb; and *self-quarantined*, adjective. Another interesting word is *comorbidity* formed by the quite productive prefix *co-* and then the noun *morbidity* and is used to refer to “the coexistence of two or more diseases, disorders, or pathological processes in one individual”. *Comorbidity* is a noun that was added in July 2020 in the words included because of coronavirus; the adjective *comorbid* was also added in this update. Furthermore, there are two words that are formed by suffixation and prefixation at a time; one of them is *self-isolating* –formed by the prefix *self-*, the verb *isolate* and the suffix *-ing*.

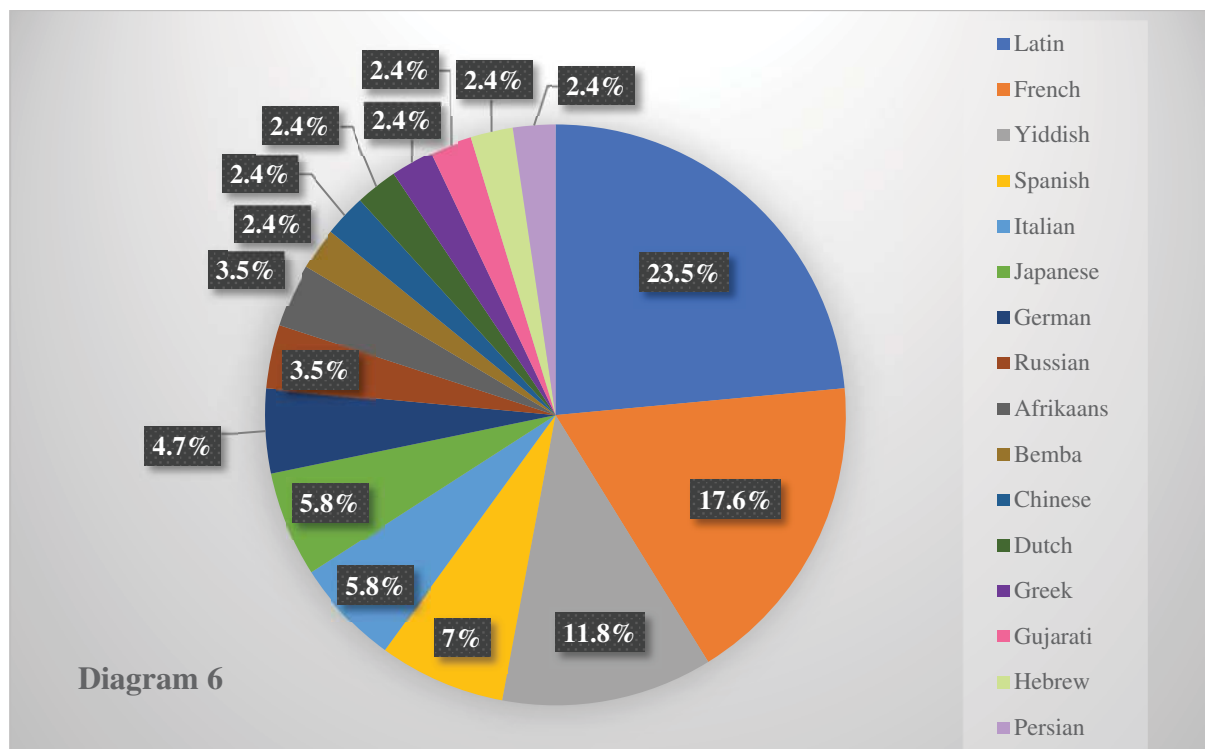
In the study that Ratih and Gusdyan (2018) completed on the OED words between 2012 and 2016, the most productive process was affixation followed by compounding whereas in my analysis the result is slightly reversed. Liu and Liu (2014) refer to the productivity of suffixation over prefixation and this does coincide clearly with my study. Nowadays, words tend to be formed by suffixation and prefixation is not really productive. If we focus on suffixation, the results obtained by Nishimoto (2004), different from mine, are worth mentioning. The three most important suffixes that Nishimoto (2004) points out, only *-ness* appears in diagram 4 with only 5 words. Curiously enough, Nishimoto's (2004) most productive suffix is not even used in my 712 terms. Of the 18 suffixes included in the diagram above, six were not mentioned in the first section of this paper: *-ian*, *-ery*, *-oid*, *-ine*, *-o* and *-tion*. *-ian* is specially used to form words that refer to a person that belongs to a place.

#### 4.1.3. Borrowing in the OED during 2020

Borrowing is the third most productive source of new words during 2020, but it is not really a word-formation process. 103 words went into the English language during 2020 just by taking them from other languages; the languages of origin of these terms are highly diverse. Diagram 6 below shows the most important languages of borrowing during 2020<sup>9</sup>.

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<sup>9</sup> Only those languages which gave two words or more to the English language during 2020 are included in the diagram. The following are the languages that only brought one word: Arabic, Icelandic, Irish, Fon, Hausa, Hawaiian, Hindi, Malay, Maya, Mikasuri, Okanagan, Pashto, Persian, Portuguese, Sanskrit, Southern Sotho, Tagalog, Turkish, Ukrainian, Welsh and Zulu.



There are six words that come from two different languages, for instance, *farmacia*, called traditionally in English a *pharmacy*, comes from Spanish and Italian. The most important language source is Latin. Latin gave to the English language 20 words; among them is *metallous*, which is a synonym for *metallic* and, according to the OED, has a rare use today. Latin is, as can be seen, a source of words that are not that important today and most of them are marked by the OED as dead, obsolete or rare. Nevertheless, as can be seen, it does not really matter to the OED that the new words added are used or not.

French has always been an essential source of new words to the English language, and this was also the case during 2020. 15 French concepts came during 2020 and five of them are related to gastronomy: *macaron* is a dessert that consists of two biscuits and in the middle of them has a merengue, or *perlage* referring to “the aggregation of tiny bubbles which forms on the surface of a glass of sparkling wine, champagne”. Furthermore, Yiddish brought to the English language 10 terms during 2020, among them, *farbrengen* referring to a typical gathering of Judaism.

Spanish brought to the English language 6 words and among them, there are many interesting concepts. One of them is *pincho*, a noun with two meanings. In Spanish and Basque cuisine, it is the food eaten before lunch or dinner and which has a toothpick to put all the food together. This meaning of *pincho* was first attested in the *Times Recorder* –a newspaper in Zanesville (Ohio)–. In Spanish and Latin American cuisine, *pincho* also means “a portion of grilled or roasted meat served on a skewer”. Besides, *anejo* is a noun or an adjective and is used to refer to tequila or rum –and also wine although in the OED this use does not appear– that is “aged in the barrel for at least a year”. The word *anejo* is *añejo* in Spanish and the Spanish meaning of *anejo* is something or someone attached to or that it depends on something or someone and it is used to refer to the supplement of a scientific journal or even to a church that depends on another church in the same village (Anejo, n.d.).

5 words came to the English language from Italian: *fonduta* is a dish with cheese, milk, cream, eggs and with sliced truffle all over and first attested in the *Vogue* magazine, or *fondamenta*, “in Venice: the bank alongside a canal for use of pedestrians”. 5 words came from Japanese, among them, *bokeh*, a technical process in photography.

As can be seen in the diagram above, a good number of languages gave words to the English language during 2020. Some of them are spoken in nations that traditionally gave many words to the English language –French, Latin, Spanish or Italian– but there are many more languages that are not common –Yiddish, Afrikaans, Gujarati, Bemba or Persian–. This points to the globalization that today exists and that also affects semantics. There are English-speaking countries in many different continents and the OED does not only add terms that are used in the United Kingdom –those coming from French, Italian or German– but also those concepts that are used in other English-speaking cultures.

English is a Germanic language. There was a common Germanic language that divided into different branches: North, West and East. English comes from the West Germanic branch and Afrikaans, Dutch, German and Yiddish were also languages of this branch. Therefore, the relation of these languages continues to be in some way important as 19 terms coming from these four languages were introduced in the OED during 2020. Borrowing is, indeed, an easy way to introduce new words to the language, just by taking them from other languages and introducing them to yours. Not surprisingly, these days many new words entering the world languages come from other cultures, as can be seen in Spanish which is integrating and adapting a high number of words coming from English.

#### 4.1.4. Conversion in the OED during 2020

Conversion is the fourth source of new words during 2020 with 52 words. As stated by Carter and McCarthy (2010), the most productive type of conversion is the change from nouns to verbs or from verbs to nouns and this is the case of this study. The verb *LOL*, used in the language of the internet, is an example of a concept formed by conversion since the noun or interrogative *LOL* –an initialism of *laughing out loud*– was already in the dictionary. All the words formed by conversion, as expected, have a form already included in the OED with a different category.

The OED labelled those words that have its origin in a proper noun as words coming from proper nouns. Nevertheless, in this analysis, these words are going to be classified as conversion since Brinton and Brinton (2010) and Plag (2003) put forward that conversion also includes these terms. This is the case of the verb *Zoom* or *zoom*, first attested in Twitter in 2014, which comes from the proper name *Zoom* and means to video-chat using the *Zoom* application.

It is curious that in section 4 none of the articles and different sources consulted gave much importance to the process of conversion, and this does not really agree with my study where conversion is essential for the formation of new words. Thus, it is quite easy to form words via conversion since no change is needed to have a new term. Ease is a key point in the formation of new words and conversion is a simple and practical word-formation process.

#### 4.1.5. Blending in the OED during 2020

30 words were formed by blending. As was mentioned in the overview, there are different patterns for the formation of blends. In this study, the most productive ones are, in this order: the first base remains unchanged and the second base keeps the final part; the first part of the first base is kept and the second base is kept in a whole; finally, the beginning of the first base and the final part of the second base remain. Most of them are formed by a noun + noun, the same as compound nouns. *Shero* is formed by blending under the criteria that I am using to classify these 712 words; however, the OED classifies it as compounding. *Shero* is a colloquial term that combines *she* and *hero* and is a synonym for *heroine*. *Athleisure* is formed by the blending of *athletic*, an adjective, and *leisure*, a noun, and is used to refer to a type of clothing that is “casual, comfortable [...] designed to be suitable for both exercise and everyday wear”.

Another interesting word formed by blending is *Jewfro* referring to the characteristic hair of a Jewish. This word is considered by the OED as a variant or alteration of another lexical item, in particular, from the word *afro* after *Jew*; nevertheless, according to the explanation of the first section, this word is a blending of *Jew* and *afro*<sup>10</sup>. It is worth stating that only over a

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<sup>10</sup> Of the 712 words, 22 are variants of another lexical item according to the OED. In this paper, this label was eliminated and these words were included under different labels: some of them are blending –*adorkable*, *Kollywood* and *Segway*–, others compounding, conversion, clipping or affixation. Some of them are words of unknown or uncertain origin as I was not able to classify them under any other label.



half of these words are considered as blending by the OED, so according to their criteria there are even less. This happens with many words in addition to *shero* or *chatbot: bukateria*, *dashcam*, *dexamethasone*, *infodemic* or *interrobang*, among others. During 2020, blending is not as essential as Bolde (2016b) stated, but is quite important. Compounding and blending are, in a way, quite similar because both put together two lexemes to form a word. Nevertheless, the fact that in compounding the terms remain unchanged and in blending the words are modified is a key issue to explain why compounding is more productive than blending. As explained above, ease is quite important in language and forming words by compounding is much simpler and easier than with blending since no reductions are needed.

#### 4.1.6. Clipping in the OED during 2020

Clipping is the fourth most productive word-formation process and the fifth source of new words during 2020. In the OED most of the words introduced in 2020 are formed by keeping the beginning and eliminating the end, which was stated in section 2.5 as the main way of forming clippings. The abbreviations of the word *Covid-19* are formed by clipping: *C-19*, *Covid*, *CV* and *CV-19*. Another word formed by clipping is *corona* from *coronavirus*. *Coronavirus* is a word formed by the compounding of *corona* and *virus* and was first included in the dictionary in June 2008, although the entry was updated in July 2020. In addition to words related to Covid-19, many other words were created by clipping, for example, *b-day* from the word *birthday*.

In the section on recent trends, clipping was already pointed to as one of the important word-formation processes. These days shortening of words is becoming more and more common since, due to this non-stop lifestyle, rapidity in sending messages is essential. The restricted number of words in a tweet is also one of the reasons for the shortening of terms.

Social media is making language change and this is seen, for instance, in the number of clippings.

#### 4.1.7. Acronyms and initialisms in the OED during 2020

Only five words are created by acronym and three of them are related to the Covid-19. *Covid-19* is, according to the OED, formed by the clipping of the phrase *coronavirus disease 2019*. Nevertheless, under the criteria exposed in this paper, this word is an acronym; my classification agrees with what Al-Salman and Haider (2021) state in their analysis of neologisms related to Covid-19. Only two words are formed by initialism, for instance, in knitting and sewing, *UFO* standing for unfinished object. Neither acronyms nor initialisms were productive word-formation processes during 2020, perhaps because acronyms create confusion as can refer to many different issues. Using acronyms or initialisms between people of different workplaces who are not used to specialized vocabulary can create problems and interruptions in the communication process. Thus, speakers tend to use terms formed by compounding or affixation because they avoid bewilderment and misunderstandings.

#### 4.1.8. Reduplication in the OED during 2020

Four words were included formed by reduplication in the OED during 2020, although the OED does not call them reduplication. According to the OED, *foo-foo* is perhaps an imitative or expressive formation; nevertheless, according to my criteria exposed in the first section of the paper, *foo-foo* is formed by reduplication and refers to “an ineffectual or effeminate man” or to a “perfume, cologne or aftershave”. Conforming to the OED, *chop-chop* is formed by conversion of the word *chop*; however, again according to my criteria, this term is a reduplication of the word *chop* and means “corruption in public life”, a Nigerian and Ghanaian English term. In the OED, *easy-osy* and *fool-fool* are considered compounds, but

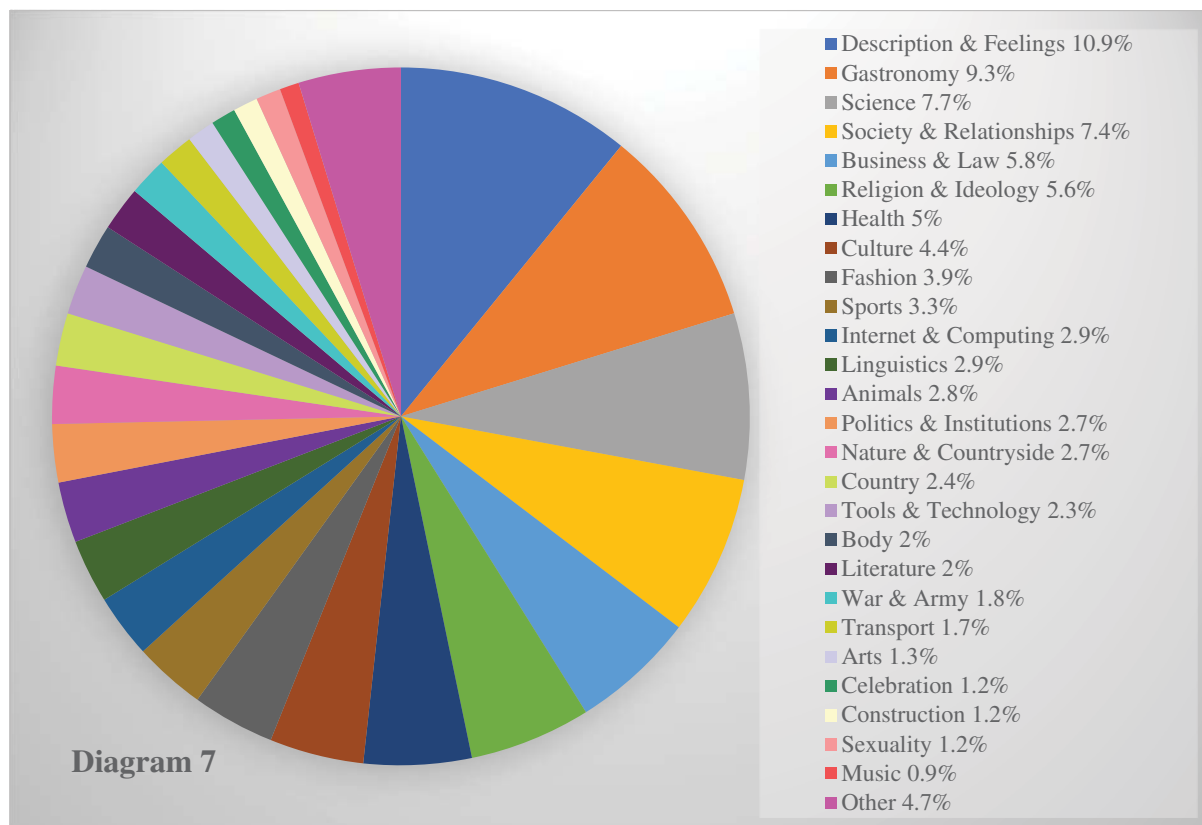
following my classification they can be seen as examples of reduplication. The productivity of reduplication is very low; it is too difficult to form a term by reduplicating. However, it is more productive than I expected.

#### 4.1.9. Words inherited from Germanic and of unknown or uncertain origin in the OED during 2020

Some words were directly inherited from Germanic and included during 2020. The four of them are obsolete or have a rare use, for example, *beewort* is a plant that attracts bees and was first attested in early Old English. There are a few words that neither the OED nor I was able to categorize and are under the label of unknown or uncertain origin. From the word-formation processes included in the overview, back-formation is the only one that does not appear during 2020 as it is not productive anymore.

### **4.3. Semantic fields of the words included in the OED during 2020**

The 712 words can be classified into different semantic fields depending on the meaning. The OED terms were classified into 27 different labels: description and feelings, gastronomy, science, society and relationships, business and law, religion and ideology, health, culture, fashion, sports, internet and computing, animals, linguistics, politics and institutions, nature and countryside, country, tools and technology, body, literature, war and army, transport, arts, celebration, construction, sexuality, music and other. It is worth noting that other classifications are also possible. Some of the words have more than one meaning and, if those meanings belonged to different semantic fields, these were labelled under more than one category. Diagram 7 below shows the most dominant semantic fields.



The most productive semantic field is, according to my classification, description of an object or an individual and feelings; most of the words are used to refer to a person. *Topophilia*, designating the love for a place, or *dumbass*, synonym for *idiot*, are under this label. The importance that the expression of emotions and anything related to description might have to do with the fact that today society tends to pay attention to the people as individuals, instead of understanding them as a group, which would imply that the particular cases are more important than just the whole society. Humanity focuses on each particular cultural identity and tries to understand and know the feelings; this is perhaps the reason why there are so many words related to description and feelings.

Furthermore, “description and feelings” is followed closely by gastronomy. Many words are related to gastronomy, and this probably has to do with the increasing rise in interest that people have for gastronomy and especially for avant-garde gastronomy. Many of these gastronomy terms come from other languages and then from other cultures (*currywurst*,

*macaron, couscoussier* or *christophene*). Under this label, other concepts related to gastronomy are also added, for instance, *bukateria*, a type of restaurant. Not surprisingly, science is the third most productive semantic field. This category includes words related to biology, chemistry, astronomy, mathematics, among many others<sup>11</sup>. Most of them are specialized terms of the scientific field such as *geosmin*, an organic compound. New scientific investigations continue to be done and new specialised words continue to be added to the dictionary.

“Society and relationships” is the next most productive field. Under this label, words about social relationships, among other issues, are included; this is the case of *ohana* meaning “a family, including members of an extended family, as well as close friends and associates” coming from Hawaiian. “Society and relationships” is a source of new words perhaps because of globalization which implies contact with people from different cultures of the world. Furthermore, “business and law” contains terms such as *deleverage* belonging to the semantic field of business and referring to the action of paying a debt. Moreover, religion and ideology is also quite broad and, in addition to words related to religion and ideology, beliefs and mythological issues are also included.

As can be expected, in 2020, health was one of the most important semantic fields. Terms related to Covid-19 are included under this label. Nevertheless, not only words concerning the disease are added here; this is the case of *seroma*: “a localized accumulation of serous fluid in a part of the body”. Most of the terms related to Covid-19 were already mentioned in the sections above; the year 2020, is marked by the coronavirus that paralyzed the world and this had an important effect on semantics and many more terms will be included in

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<sup>11</sup> Note that words related to Covid-19 are not included here and are classified under the category of health.

the near future. Some words have been formed because of this pandemic situation; however, these concepts have nothing to do with health, an example is *infodemic*.

Moreover, culture is quite productive, but issues related to literature, music and arts are not included under this label. Fashion is quite a specific label but its productivity is relatively high; included under this category are clothes –*bridge coat*–, make-up –*brownface*– or even shops –*craft shop*–. The fashion industry gives employment to many people around the world and it is constantly being updated, then new fashion concepts need to be added to the dictionary. The semantic field of sports is also quite specialized and gave a large number of terms, such as *game day*. New terms related to sports appear because more and more people have, these days, the interest of getting into them and there is a general concern that sport goes together with health –many people do sports, but also watch them.

My study does not agree with Heynen’s (2008) in the importance that the “internet and computing” has as a source for new words: it is the 11<sup>th</sup> most productive semantic field. There are words included under this category that do not belong to the internet language and belong to the semantic field of computing –for example, *cyber safety*–. Under the label of animals, in addition to animals, words concerning them were also added, such as *hen-day*. Moreover, linguistics includes linguistic concepts, and most of them are terms used to refer to languages (*Hindi-Urdu*).

As shown in the diagram above, there are many more labels, some interesting ones being the following: politics and institutions with terms related to the elections, among others; nature and countryside containing many terms related to agriculture; country with any concept concerning them –flags, nations, areas, nationalities, places, issues characteristic of a particular place, inhabitants, etc–. Many of the words about sexuality were added to the OED during 2018; however, these words continue to be included in the OED during 2020. Some words could not

be classified because they are from very specific fields –calligraphy, for instance– and were labelled as “other”.

Topics such as fashion, sports, gastronomy, linguistics, arts, literature, science, health or religion and ideology are constantly updated since more studies and productions continue to be done. Some other labels –such as construction, transports, nature and countryside or war and army– are surprisingly found in 2020, although it seemed that all of them had already been included. Among the fields mentioned by Heynen (2008) only the internet and science are key during 2020.

The OED pays attention to the different English-speaking countries. This is the case of the 29 words taken from Nigerian languages introduced in January. Terms also taken from other English-speaking countries and areas were added, namely, Scotland (*coddie*), Canada (*schlocky*), Australia (*jewie*), Ghana (*chop-chop*), South Africa (*garrick*), etc. Words of different registers are also included, for instance, colloquial terms (*mouthie*, *kvetching*, *noonie*), humorous (*mentionitis*) or slang (*jerkweed*). It is worth devoting a few lines to the terms coming from the same word. For example, words that come from *breast*, *bridge*, *chicken*, *Christianity*, *cook*, *delete*, *edit*, *farm*, *garbage* or *Jew*. These words belong to different semantic fields and word-formation processes.

## 5. Conclusion

After this analysis, it can be concluded that language does not change very fast in terms of word-formation. In the processes of word-formation, there have been some changes, but compounding and affixation have traditionally been and continue to be the essential ones. Borrowing has become quite important: the high number of words that are included in the Spanish and Galician languages from English is a good way to illustrate this phenomenon. Moreover, conversion is the easiest word-formation process since no change is needed, and it is quite productive. Ease is important in the patterns of word-formation since communication has to be effective and with no misunderstandings –compounding and conversion are simpler than acronyms, initialisms or blending–. Blending is not as important as some scholars suggest, perhaps because it is mainly used in informal speak –slang, by young people, etc.– and these words are not immediately introduced in the OED.

The internet and the non-stop lifestyle have an effect on language with the use of clippings; however, acronyms and initialisms are not that common and people continue to use the most traditional word-formation processes. Acronyms and initialisms create confusion, and this restricts their use. It is especially noticeable that many words come from other cultures; apparently, the OED compilers take a look at other cultures and societies in order to have a broader scope. Besides, many words are included from many specialized fields such as linguistics, gastronomy, fashion, or health which again shows the open-mindedness of the OED scholars. This seems to indicate that words coming from the Internet and technologies might not be so relevant as expected since other traditional semantic fields continue to be among the most productive ones.

The OED shows language changes, and it is constantly updated. In 2020, the pandemic has an important effect on language, and this is seen and noticed by the OED. Further research



might be necessary to study only new words related to Covid-19, since, during 2020, 32 words of the total number were related to Covid-19 and, most probably, more words from that field will be included in the coming years. New words such as *vaxhole*, *coronely*, or *covidiot* could be added. In the same way, other words related to new political processes such as the Brexit, like the word *brextpat*, or words taken from the internet language that are especially employed by young people such as *VSA* –*very sound advice*– could be incorporated soon. Furthermore, *tea* now used to mean *gossip* could be also added. Most of these new words pointed here have already been included in the Urban Dictionary which is more up-to-date than the OED. This is because the OED has a stricter procedure to include their new words, whereas the Urban Dictionary is just updated by anonymous people with no restrictions.

All in all, the OED is a good source to look for new tendencies and new patterns in the processes of word-formation. However, language has not changed as much as I expected, and perhaps in the coming years, or even centuries, conversion, blending, acronymy, clipping or reduplication will become more and more popular. Word-formation processes change slowly, but some new tendencies can be found in the latest OED entries that have been analysed in this paper.

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## Appendix 1

The words added to the OED during 2020 are organized in alphabetical order with their category, word-formation process and semantic field.

1. Acheronian, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – religion and ideology
2. adorkable, adj.: blending – description and feelings
3. adult, v.: conversion – society and relationships
4. adulting, n.: affixation (suffixation) – society and relationships
5. a-eastell, prep.: affixation (prefixation) – country
6. A-game, n.: compounding – society and relationships
7. agric, adj. and n.: clipping – nature and countryside
8. alkannin, n.: borrowing from German – science
9. all-dressed, adj.: compounding – gastronomy
10. ambient lighting, n.: compounding – nature and countryside, internet and computing
11. ambiently, adv.: affixation (suffixation) – other
12. ambigue, n.: borrowing from Latin – linguistics
13. ambira, n.: borrowing from Portuguese – music
14. ambisyllabic, adj.: affixation (prefixation) – linguistics
15. ambitus, n.: borrowing from Latin and French – politics and institutions
16. ambix, n.: borrowing from Latin – science
17. ambrotypic, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – art
18. ambulance car, n.: compounding – transport
19. ambuscading, n.: affixation (suffixation) – war and army
20. ambuscado, v.: conversion – war and army
21. ambushing, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – war and army

22. ambushing, n.: affixation (suffixation) – war and army
23. ambystomatid, adj. and n.: borrowing from Latin – animal
24. ambystomid, adj. and n.: borrowing from Latin – animal
25. amchur, n.: borrowing from Hindi – gastronomy
26. ameiosis, n.: affixation (prefixation) – science
27. ameiotic, adj.: affixation (prefixation) – science
28. amelanosis, n.: affixation (prefixation) – science
29. amelanotic, adj.: affixation (prefixation) – science
30. ameliorant, n.: affixation (suffixation) – science
31. ameliorism, n.: affixation (suffixation) – religion and ideology
32. ameliorist, n. and adj.: affixation (suffixation) – religion and ideology
33. ameloblastoma, n.: compounding – health
34. amelodic, adj.: affixation (prefixation) – music
35. amelogenesis, n.: compounding – health
36. amende, n.: clipping – business and law
37. amenitize, v.: affixation (suffixation) – society and relationships
38. amenitized, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – construction
39. amenorrhoeic, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – health
40. amensal, adj. and n.: affixation (prefixation) – science
41. amensalism, n.: affixation (prefixation) – science
42. ameristic, adj.: affixation (prefixation and suffixation) – science
43. amethopterin, n.: compounding – science
44. amin, n.: borrowing from Persian – politics and institutions
45. anecdota, n.: blending – society and relationships
46. anecdotally, adv.: affixation (suffixation) – society and relationships, linguistics



47. anecdoting, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – society and relationships
48. anecdoting, n.: affixation (suffixation) – society and relationships
49. anejo, adj. and n.: borrowing from Spanish – gastronomy
50. anelastic, adj.: affixation (prefixation) – business and law
51. anemochore, n.: compounding – science
52. anemochorous, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – science
53. anemotactic, adj.: compounding – science
54. anemotaxis, n.: compounding – science
55. anemotropic, adj.: compounding – science
56. anepigraphic, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – other
57. anergic, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings, science
58. anergy, n.: borrowing from Greek – description and feelings, science
59. aneucapnic lamp, n.: affixation (suffixation) – tools and technology
60. aneutronic, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – science
61. Anglosphere, n.: compounding – linguistics
62. anighst, adv. and prep.: affixation (suffixation) – country
63. antennation, n.: affixation (suffixation) – animal
64. anti-Semitism, n.: affixation (prefixation) – religion and ideology
65. antitail, n.: affixation (prefixation) – science
66. antpitta, n.: compounding – animal
67. April Fool's, n. and int.: clipping – culture
68. ar, int.: uncertain or unknown origin – description and feelings
69. arr, int.: uncertain or unknown origin – culture
70. assault rifle, n.: compounding – war and army
71. assault weapon, n.: compounding – war and army

72. athleisure, n.: blending – fashion
73. Atlanticism, n.: affixation (suffixation) – war and army
74. Atlanticist, n. and adj.: affixation (suffixation) – country, politics and institutions
75. awedde, adj.: conversion – description and feelings
76. awe-inspiringly, adv.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings
77. awel, n.: inherited from Germanic – tools and technology
78. Awendaw, n.: conversion – gastronomy
79. awesomesauce, adj.: compounding – description and feelings
80. awestell, prep.: affixation (prefixation) – country
81. awfulize, v.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings
82. awfy, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings
83. awfy, adv.: affixation (suffixation) lit– description and feelings
84. Babemba, n.: borrowing from Bemba – country
85. back sass, n.: compounding – society and relationships
86. back-sass, v.: compounding – society and relationships
87. bagel, v.: conversion – sports
88. bak kut teh, n.: borrowing from Chinese – gastronomy
89. bak kwa, n.: borrowing from Chinese – gastronomy
90. Baka, n.: borrowing from Japanese – war and army
91. bake, n.2: uncertain or unknown origin – body
92. bakeable, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – construction
93. baked-in, adj.: compounding – other
94. baker's boy, n.: compounding – business and law
95. Baker's cyst, n.: compounding – health
96. bakfiets, n.: borrowing from Dutch – transport

97. bakgat, adj. and int.: borrowing from Afrikaans – description and feelings, society and relationships
98. Bakhtiari, n. and adj.: borrowing from Persian – society and relationships, fashion
99. Bakhtinian, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – literature
100. baktun, n.: borrowing from Maya – other
101. baku, n.1: borrowing from Japanese – religion and ideology
102. bakufu, n.: borrowing from Japanese – politics and institutions
103. Bakwena, adj. and n.: borrowing from Southern Sotho and Tswana – country
104. bakya, n. and adj.: borrowing from Tagalog – fashion
105. balun, n.: blending– internet and computing
106. Barthesian, n. and adj.: affixation (suffixation) – religion and ideology
107. bash, n.2: clipping – construction
108. basher, n.3: affixation (suffixation) – construction
109. bateau lit, n.: borrowing from French – tools and technology
110. bauer, n.: borrowing from German – nature and countryside
111. b-day, n.: clipping – celebration
112. beanhond, v.: acronym – society and relationships
113. bear dancing, n.: compounding – culture
114. bear flag, n.: compounding – country, business and law
115. bear hunter, n.: compounding – sports
116. bear hunting, n.: compounding – sports
117. beardo, n.: affixation (suffixation) – fashion
118. Beardsleyan, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – art
119. Beardsleyesque, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – art
120. beard-stroking, adj.: compounding – society and relationships

121. beard-stroking, n.: compounding – society and relationships
122. bear-fighting, n.: compounding – description and feelings, culture
123. Béarnais, n. and adj.: borrowing from French – country, linguistics
124. beewort, n.: inherited from Germanic – nature and countryside
125. Bemba, adj. and n.: borrowing from Bemba – country
126. bialy, n.: borrowing from Yiddish – gastronomy
127. Bialystok, n.: borrowing from Yiddish – gastronomy
128. bird colonel, n.: compounding – war and army
129. birth stain, n.: compounding – religion and ideology, health
130. birth story, n.: compounding – culture, literature, religion and ideology
131. birthing room, n.: compounding – health
132. bliss point, n.: compounding – business and law
133. blue-light, v.: conversion – transport
134. board sport, n.: compounding – sports
135. bobèche, n.: borrowing from French – tools and technology
136. bochur, n.: borrowing from Yiddish – description and feelings
137. bogosity, n.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings
138. Bohemish, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – country, linguistics
139. bohunkus, n.: conversion – society and relationships, description and feelings,
- body
140. bokeh, n.: borrowing from Japanese – art
141. BOLO, n.5: acronym – business and law
142. bombogenesis, n.: compounding – science
143. booze can, n.: compounding – gastronomy
144. Born, n.: conversion – science

145. bornane, n.: affixation (suffixation) – science
146. Born–Haber, n.: conversion – science
147. bornyl, n.: affixation (suffixation) – science
148. bottle episode, n.: compounding – culture
149. bottle show, n.: compounding – culture
150. bread bowl, n.: compounding – gastronomy
151. bread flake, n.2: compounding – gastronomy
152. bread hook, n.: compounding – body, gastronomy
153. breadbox, n.: compounding – gastronomy
154. breeding, n.: affixation (suffixation) – gastronomy
155. breadthening, n.: affixation (suffixation) – other
156. breast drill, n.1: compounding – nature and countryside
157. breast feeder, n.: compounding – health
158. breast pad, n.: compounding – health, fashion
159. breast shield, n.: compounding – fashion, animal
160. breast-beat, v.: compounding – description and feelings
161. breast-beater, n.: compounding – description and feelings, culture
162. breast-beating, adj.: compounding – culture
163. breaster, n.: affixation (suffixation) – fashion, health
164. breastfeeding, adj.: compounding – health
165. breast-shot, adj.: compounding – tools and technology
166. breathwork, n.: compounding – science
167. brewstered, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings
168. bridge coat, n.2: compounding – fashion
169. bridge-burning, adj.: compounding – other

170. bridge-burning, n.: compounding – other
171. bridger, n.1: affixation (suffixation) – construction
172. Brightonian, n. and adj.: affixation (suffixation) – country, linguistics
173. brik, n.: borrowing from Arabic – gastronomy
174. brinicle, n.: blending – nature and countryside
175. broigus, adj. and n.: borrowing from Yiddish – description and feelings, society  
and relationships
176. brownface, n.: compounding – fashion
177. buka, n.: borrowing from Yoruba and Hausa – gastronomy
178. bukateria, n.: blending – gastronomy
179. bumfle, n.: affixation (suffixation) – fashion
180. bumfle, v.: conversion – other, fashion
181. bumfly, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – fashion
182. buzzer beater, n.: compounding – sports, other
183. by-catch, n.: affixation (prefixation) – animal
184. C-19, n.: clipping – health
185. cab sav, n.: clipping – gastronomy
186. cab, n.5: clipping – internet and computing
187. cab, n.6: clipping – gastronomy
188. cab-over, adj. and n.: compounding – transport
189. cab-over-engine, adj.: compounding – transport
190. cake boy, n.: compounding – gastronomy
191. cake cutting, n.: compounding – gastronomy
192. cakeage, n.: affixation (suffixation) – gastronomy
193. caked-on, adj.: compounding – fashion

194. cakery, n.: affixation (suffixation) – gastronomy
195. Calvin cycle, n.: compounding – science
196. camped-up, adj.: compounding – culture
197. Candian, n. and adj.: affixation (suffixation) – country
198. candy apple, n.: compounding – gastronomy
199. candy box, n. and adj.: compounding – gastronomy, art
200. candy coating, n.: compounding – gastronomy, description and feelings
201. candy-coat, v.: compounding – gastronomy, description and feelings
202. candy-coated, adj.: compounding – gastronomy, description and feelings
203. candygram, n.: compounding – celebration
204. carnitine, n.: affixation (suffixation) – science
205. cartoonish, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – culture
206. Channel Islander, n.: affixation (suffixation) – country
207. chatbot, n.: blending – internet and computing
208. chatterbot, n.: blending – internet and computing
209. Chicagoese, adj. and n.: affixation (suffixation) – country, linguistics
210. Chicagoland, n.: compounding – country
211. chichi, n.2: borrowing from Japanese – body
212. Chichimec, n. and adj.: clipping – country
213. Chichimeca, n. and adj.: borrowing from Spanish – country
214. chickee, n.: borrowing from Mikasuri – construction
215. chicken factory, n.: compounding – animal
216. chicken fat, n.: compounding – gastronomy
217. chicken finger, n.: compounding – gastronomy
218. chicken glove, n.: clipping – fashion

219. Chicken Licken, n.: conversion – description and feelings
220. Chicken Little, n.: conversion – description and feelings
221. chicken noodle soup, n.: compounding – gastronomy
222. chicken scratch, n. and adj.: compounding – culture
223. chicken soup, n.: compounding – gastronomy
224. chicken tender, n.: compounding – gastronomy
225. chickenhead, n. and adj.: compounding – description and feelings
226. chicken-headed, adj.: compounding – description and feelings
227. chickeny, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – gastronomy
228. chickie, n.: affixation (suffixation) description and feelings
229. childbearer, n.: compounding – health
230. chin-stroking, adj.: compounding – description and feelings
231. chin-stroking, n.: compounding – other
232. chokehold, n.: compounding – sports
233. chop-chop, n.2: reduplication – politics and institutions
234. chrain, n.: borrowing from Yiddish – gastronomy
235. Chrissie, n.: affixation (suffixation) – celebration
236. Christ almighty, n., int., adv., adj.: compounding – religion and ideology
237. Christ Jesus, n. and int.: conversion – religion and ideology
238. christenly, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – religion and ideology
239. Christian Scientism, n.: compounding – religion and ideology
240. christianing, n.: affixation (suffixation) – religion and ideology
241. Christianocategorian, n.: borrowing from Latin – religion and ideology
242. Christianophobia, n.: compounding – religion and ideology
243. Christly, adv.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings



244. christophene, n.: borrowing from French – gastronomy
245. Christophobia, n.: compounding – religion and ideology
246. Christotokos, n.: borrowing from Latin – religion and ideology
247. Christwards, n. and adv.: affixation (suffixation) – religion and ideology
248. Christy, n.2: conversion – religion and ideology
249. chuckheaded, adj.: compounding – description and feelings
250. chutzpadik, adj.: borrowing from Yiddish – description and feelings
251. clocking, n.3: affixation (suffixation) – art
252. clock-punching, n. and adj.: compounding – description and feelings
253. clockwork orange, n.: compounding – description and feelings
254. clockworky, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings
255. coboss, int.: clipping – animal
256. cod jigger, n.: compounding – tools and technology
257. cod jiggling, n.: compounding – gastronomy
258. cod war, n.: compounding – war and army
259. codable, n.: affixation (suffixation) – internet and computing
260. coddie, n.: affixation (suffixation) – gastronomy
261. coddler, n.2: affixation (suffixation) – gastronomy
262. code duello, n.: compounding – sports
263. code switch, n.: compounding – linguistics
264. code switch, v.: compounding – linguistics
265. codeathon, n.: compounding – internet and computing
266. co-decision, n.: affixation (prefixation) – society and relationships, politics and institutions
267. code-hop, v.: compounding – sports

268. code-hopper, n.: compounding – sports
269. code-hopping, adj.: compounding – sports
270. code-hopping, n.: compounding – sports
271. coden, n.: blending – business and law
272. code-named, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – other
273. code-share, n.: compounding – business and law
274. code-share, v.: compounding – business and law
275. code-sharing, n.: compounding – business and law
276. codespeak, n.: affixation (suffixation) – linguistics
277. code-switching, adj.: compounding – linguistics
278. coding, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – science
279. Codium, n.: borrowing from Latin – science
280. codominance, n.: affixation (prefixation) – nature and countryside
281. codworm, n.2: compounding – animal
282. cold press, n.: compounding – tools and technology
283. cold-press, v.: conversion – tools and technology
284. cold-pressed, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – tools and technology
285. comorbid, adj.: affixation (prefixation) – health
286. comorbidity, n.: affixation (prefixation) – health
287. conibear, n.: conversion – animal
288. contact tracer, n.: compounding – health
289. contact tracing, n.: compounding – health
290. Cook Islander, n.: affixation (suffixation) – country
291. Cook Islands Maori, n. and adj.: conversion – country, linguistics
292. cook-chill, adj. and n.: compounding – gastronomy

293. cook-chilled, adj.: compounding – gastronomy
294. cooked-up, adj.: compounding – gastronomy
295. cook-freeze, adj. and n.: compounding – gastronomy
296. cookie jar, n.: compounding – gastronomy, business and law
297. Cookie Monster, n.: conversion – description and feelings
298. cooking spoon, n.: compounding – gastronomy, society and relationships
299. cooking ware, n.: compounding – gastronomy
300. cookless, adj.2: affixation (suffixation) – gastronomy
301. cookset, n.: compounding – gastronomy
302. cook-up, n.: conversion – description and feelings
303. cookware, n.: compounding – gastronomy
304. Cordyceps, n.: borrowing from Latin – science
305. corona, n.3: clipping – health
306. coulrophobia, n.: compounding – society and relationships
307. couscoussier, n.: borrowing from French – gastronomy
308. Cousin Sally, n.: compounding – country
309. Covid, n.2: clipping – health
310. Covid-19, n.: initialism – health
311. CPAP, n.: acronym – health
312. craft shop, n.: compounding – business and law, fashion
313. crafter, n.: affixation (suffixation) – business and law, description and feelings
314. crafternoon, n.: blending – celebration
315. craftivism, n.: blending – art
316. craftivist, n.: blending – society and relationships
317. craftsmanly, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings

318. credential, v.: conversion – society and relationships
319. credentialling, n.: affixation (suffixation) – society and relationships
320. cruncher, n.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings, body
321. crybully, n.: compounding – description and feelings
322. cucamelon, n.: blending – nature and countryside
323. currywurst, n.: borrowing from German – gastronomy
324. CV, n.: clipping – health
325. CV-19, n.: clipping – health
326. cyber safety, n.: compounding – internet and computing
327. dandy candy, n.: compounding – gastronomy
328. danfo, n.: borrowing from Yoruba – transport
329. dashcam, n.: blending – internet and computing
330. declaw, v.: affixation (prefixation) – animal, other
331. de-extinction, n.: affixation (prefixation) – animal
332. delayer, v.: affixation (suffixation) – fashion, business and law
333. deletable, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – other
334. delete button, n.: compounding – internet and computing
335. delete key, n.: compounding – internet and computing
336. delete, n.: conversion – internet and computing
337. deleter, n.: affixation (suffixation) – other
338. deleverage, v.: affixation (prefixation) – business and law
339. deleveraging, n.: affixation (prefixation) – business and law
340. delexical, adj.: affixation (prefixation) – linguistics
341. Delft blue, adj. and n.: compounding – art
342. Delhiite, n.: affixation (suffixation) – country

343. deli, n.1: borrowing from Turkish – war and army
344. Deliac, adj.: borrowing from Latin – science
345. delicense, v.: affixation (prefixation) – business and law
346. delignify, v.: affixation (prefixation) – nature and countryside
347. delime, v.: affixation (prefixation) – tools and technology
348. deliming, n.: affixation (suffixation) – tools and technology
349. delimiting, adj.: affixation (prefixation) – other
350. delink, v.: affixation (prefixation) – other, business and law
351. delinkage, n.: affixation (prefixation) – other
352. delinking, n.: affixation (suffixation) – business and law
353. delinquent, v.2: affixation (prefixation) – other
354. deliverology, n.: compounding – politics and institutions
355. demandeur, n.: borrowing from French – business and law, politics and institutions
356. denialism, n.: affixation (suffixation) – religion and ideology
357. denialist, n. and adj.: affixation (suffixation) – religion and ideology
358. deprioritize, v.: affixation (prefixation) – other
359. destigmatizing, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – religion and ideology
360. destigmatizing, n.: affixation (suffixation) – society and relationships
361. dexamethasone, n.: blending – science
362. dinucleotide, n.: affixation (prefixation) – science
363. Dobson unit, n.: compounding – science
364. dulce et decorum est, n. and phr.: clipping – religion and ideology
365. dulce et decorum, n.: clipping – religion and ideology
366. dumbass, n.: compounding – description and feelings

367. dystopic, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – culture
368. easy-osy, adj. and n.: reduplication – description and feelings
369. edit., n.1: clipping – literature
370. editionalize, v.: affixation (suffixation) – literature
371. editionalized, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – literature
372. editionalizing, n.: affixation (suffixation) – literature
373. editioned, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – literature
374. editioning, n.: affixation (suffixation) – literature
375. editorialism, n.: affixation (suffixation) – literature
376. editorialization, n.: affixation (suffixation) – literature
377. editing, n.: affixation (suffixation) – literature
378. either-way, adj.: conversion – business and law
379. ember months, n.: compounding – other
380. Emirati, n. and adj.: affixation (suffixation) – country
381. enoughness, n.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings
382. eugenical, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – science
383. e-waste, n.: affixation (prefixation) – internet and computing
384. eyefully, adv.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings
385. eyelessness, n.1: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings
386. eyelessness, n.2: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings
387. fankle, n.: conversion – society and relationships
388. farbrengen, n.: borrowing from Yiddish – celebration
389. farkakte, adj.: borrowing from Yiddish – description and feelings, other
390. farm holder, n.: affixation (suffixation) – nature and countryside
391. farm shop, n.: compounding – nature and countryside, business and law

392. farm stay, n.: compounding – nature and countryside
393. farm team, n.: compounding – nature and countryside, sports
394. farmacia, n.: borrowing from Italian and Spanish – health
395. Farmer Giles, n.: compounding – nature and countryside, health
396. farmette, n.: affixation (suffixation) – nature and countryside
397. farmhouseey, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – nature and countryside
398. farm-in, n.: compounding – business and law
399. farming, n.1: affixation (suffixation) – other
400. farmout, n.: conversion – business and law, sports
401. farmscape, n.: compounding – art, nature and countryside
402. farmsteader, n.: affixation (suffixation) – nature and countryside
403. farm-to-market, adj. and n.: compounding – transport
404. farmtown, n.: compounding – nature and countryside
405. feke, n.: uncertain or unknown origin – business and law
406. finna, v.: uncertain or unknown origin – other
407. flag-off, n.: conversion – sports
408. fletched, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – war and army
409. follically, adv.: affixation (suffixation) – body
410. follicly, adv.: affixation (suffixation) – body
411. follicularly, adv.: affixation (suffixation) – science, body
412. followee, n.: affixation (suffixation) – society and relationships, internet and  
computing
413. follow-me, adj. and n.: compounding – society and relationships, transport
414. Fomor, n.: borrowing from Latin and Irish – religion and ideology
415. Fon, n.2 and adj.2: borrowing from Fon – country, linguistics

416. fonctionnaire, n.: borrowing from French – politics and institutions
417. fundamenta, n.: borrowing from Italian – transport
418. fonduta, n.: borrowing from Italian – gastronomy
419. fons et origo mali, n.: borrowing from Latin – culture
420. fontina, n.: borrowing from Italian – gastronomy
421. foodware, n.: compounding – gastronomy
422. foo-foo, n.: reduplication – description and feelings
423. foofy, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings
424. fool-fool, adj.: reduplication – description and feelings
425. foolproof, v.: conversion – other
426. Foucauldian, adj. and n.: affixation (suffixation) – other
427. franger, n.: blending – health
428. froideur, n.: borrowing from French – description and feelings, society and relationships
429. frontliner, n.: affixation (suffixation) – society and relationships
430. fumfer, v.: affixation (suffixation) – linguistics
431. futzing, n.: affixation (suffixation) – other
432. game day, n.: compounding – sports
433. garba, n.: borrowing from Gujarati – culture
434. garbage patch, n.: compounding – society and relationships
435. garbageologist, n.: compounding – business and law, other
436. garbageology, n.: compounding – science
437. garbhagriha, n.: borrowing from Sanskrit – religion and ideology
438. garbure, n.: borrowing from French – gastronomy
439. garrick, n.: uncertain or unknown origin – animal



440. gee-whizzery, n.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings
441. geosmin, n.: affixation (suffixation) – science
442. gist, v.2: conversion – literature, society and relationships
443. glatt kosher, adj.: borrowing from Yiddish – gastronomy
444. gotch, n.2: borrowing from Ukrainian – fashion
445. gravitropic, adj.: compounding – science
446. gravitropism, n.: compounding – science
447. griefer, n.: affixation (suffixation) – internet and computing
448. grieving, n.: affixation (suffixation) – internet and computing
449. guber, adj.: clipping – politics and institutions
450. gypster, n.: affixation (suffixation) – business and law
451. gypsy's, n.: clipping – body
452. half-baken, adj.: compounding – description and feelings
453. hanukkah, n.: borrowing from Hebrew – religion and ideology
454. helicase, n.: affixation (suffixation) – science
455. hellscape, n.: compounding – nature and countryside
456. hen feather, n.: compounding – animal
457. hen scat, n.: compounding – culture, science
458. hen scrattin, n.: compounding – science
459. hen, n.2: maybe inherited from Germanic – celebration
460. hench, adj.: clipping – body
461. hen-day, n.: compounding – animal
462. hendship, n.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings
463. henna, v.: conversion – other
464. Hennigian, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – science

465. Henotikon, n.: borrowing from Latin and Greek – politics and institutions
466. henpecking, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – society and relationships
467. henpecking, n.: affixation (suffixation) – society and relationships
468. Henriad, n.: affixation (suffixation) – literature
469. Henry VIII, n.: conversion – politics and institutions
470. Henry, n.1: conversion – other
471. hen-skin, adj. and n.: compounding – fashion
472. Henslow's sparrow, n.: compounding – animal
473. heterophilic, adj.2 and n.: compounding – society and relationships, sexuality
474. Hindi-Urdu, n.: compounding – linguistics
475. Hindko, n. and adj.: borrowing from Pashto – linguistics
476. Hinduish, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – country
477. Hinduistic, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – religion and ideology
478. Hinduness, n.: affixation (suffixation) – religion and ideology
479. Hindustan, n. and adj.: conversion – linguistics
480. hiraeth, n.: borrowing from Welsh – description and feelings
481. homeware, n.: compounding – tools and technology
482. house dad, n.: compounding – society and relationships
483. house mom, n.: compounding – society and relationships
484. house mum, n.: compounding – society and relationships
485. humidex, n.: blending – science
486. hypervigilance, n.: affixation (prefixation) – description and feelings
487. hypervigilant, adj.: affixation (prefixation) – description and feelings
488. implicit bias, n.: compounding – religion and ideology
489. infodemic, n.: blending – culture

490. interrobang, n.: blending – linguistics
491. i-waldes, adv.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings
492. jam, adj.2: uncertain or unknown origin – sexuality
493. janny, n.: affixation (suffixation) – other
494. Japhetan, adj. and n.: affixation (suffixation) – religion and ideology
495. Jeez Louise, int.: conversion – description and feelings
496. jeezly, adj. and adv.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings
497. Jeezum, int.: uncertain or unknown origin – description and feelings
498. jerkweed, n.: compounding – description and feelings
499. Jesus God, int.: compounding – description and feelings
500. Jesusy, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – religion and ideology
501. Jew town, n.: compounding – country
502. Jew York, n.: blending – country
503. Jewdar, n.: compounding – culture
504. jewel case, n.: compounding – fashion, music
505. jeweller's shop, n.: compounding – fashion, construction
506. Jewfro, n.: blending – body
507. Jew-hating, adj.: compounding – religion and ideology
508. Jew-hating, n.: compounding – religion and ideology
509. jewie, n.: affixation (suffixation) – animal
510. Jewish American, n. and adj.: compounding – country
511. Jewish Christianity, n.: compounding – religion and ideology
512. Jewish-Christian, n. and adj.: compounding – religion and ideology
513. jinx, int.: conversion – linguistics
514. Kannywood, n.: blending – culture

515. Kawasaki, n.: conversion – science
516. kibitz, n.: conversion – culture, society and relationships
517. kitchen sink, v.: conversion – business and law, society and relationships
518. kitchen, n.2: uncertain or unknown origin – body
519. kitchenalia, n.: compounding – gastronomy
520. kitchened, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – gastronomy
521. kitchen-sinking, n.: affixation (suffixation) – society and relationships, business  
and law
522. kitchie, n.: affixation (suffixation) – gastronomy
523. K-leg, n.: compounding – body, society and relationships
524. Kollywood, n.: blending – culture
525. kompromat, n.: borrowing from Russian – politics and institutions
526. kvetching, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings
527. kvetchy, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings
528. laksa, n.: borrowing from Malay – gastronomy
529. Lane cake, n.: compounding – gastronomy
530. lit bateau, n.: borrowing from French – tools and technology
531. lob ball, n.: compounding – sports, politics and institutions
532. LOL, v.: conversion – internet and computing
533. love bomb, n.: compounding – description and feelings, society and relationships
534. love-bomb, v.: conversion – society and relationships
535. love-bombing, n.: compounding – society and relationships
536. macaron, n.: borrowing from French – gastronomy
537. mal-intent, n.: affixation (prefixation) – business and law
538. mama put, n.: compounding – gastronomy

539. mechanoid, n. and adj.: affixation (suffixation) – tools and technology
540. megalodon, n.: borrowing from Latin – other
541. mentionitis, n.: affixation (suffixation) – society and relationships
542. MERS, n.2: acronym – science
543. metallous, adj.: borrowing from Latin – construction
544. morache, n.: borrowing from Spanish – music
545. mouthie, n.: affixation (suffixation) – body
546. mud run, n.: compounding – sports
547. mumbly, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings
548. Muskoka chair, n.: compounding – tools and technology
549. nanoplastic, n.: compounding – science
550. newst, adv.: clipping – description and feelings
551. next tomorrow, n. and adv.: compounding – other
552. nomen sacrum, n.: borrowing from Latin – religion and ideology
553. non-indigene, adj. and n.: affixation (prefixation) – country
554. non-job, adj. and n.: affixation (prefixation) – business and law
555. non-Trinitarian, n. and adj.: affixation (prefixation) – religion and ideology
556. noonie, n.: uncertain or unknown origin – body
557. novichok, n.: borrowing from Russian – politics and institutions
558. nutritionism, n.: affixation (suffixation) – science
559. ohana, n.: borrowing from Hawaiian – society and relationships
560. okada, n.: conversion – transport
561. olinguito, n.: borrowing from Spanish – animal
562. onboarding, n.: affixation (suffixation) – business and law
563. on-brand, adj.: affixation (prefixation) – business and law

564. oobleck, n.: uncertain or unknown origin – science
565. ordu, n.: borrowing from Persian – culture
566. overshare, v.: affixation (prefixation) – society and relationships
567. oversharer, n.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings
568. oversharing, n.: affixation (prefixation) – society and relationships
569. papercraft, n.: compounding – art
570. parapublic, adj.: affixation (prefixation) – politics and institutions
571. passive aggression, n.: compounding – description and feelings
572. pass-remarkable, adj.: compounding – society and relationships
573. PEP, n.2: acronym – health
574. perlage, n.: borrowing from French – gastronomy
575. physical distancing, n.: compounding – health, society and relationships
576. pincho, n.: borrowing from Spanish – gastronomy
577. pitchy, adj.2: affixation (suffixation) – music
578. plant-based, adj.: compounding – science
579. pound shop, n. and adj.: compounding – business and law
580. price gouge, n.: compounding – business and law
581. price gouger, n.: compounding – business and law
582. price-gouge, v.: conversion – business and law
583. pronoid, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings
584. pronoid, n.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings
585. puggle, n.2: conversion – animal
586. pussivant, v.: conversion – other
587. quiet, int.: conversion – society and relationships
588. quilling, n.2: affixation (suffixation) – politics and institutions

589. R0, n.: blending – health
590. raas garba, n.: borrowing from Gujarati – culture
591. real-time clock, n.: compounding – internet and computing
592. sabrage, n.: borrowing from French – gastronomy
593. sand-baked, adj.: compounding – description and feelings, gastronomy
594. sandboxing, n.: affixation (suffixation) – internet and computing
595. schlockey, n.: blending – sports
596. scoopable, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings
597. scootram, n.: compounding – transport
598. sef, adv.: uncertain or unknown origin – description and feelings
599. Segway, n.: blending – transport
600. self-isolate, v.: affixation (prefixation) – health
601. self-isolated, adj.: affixation (prefixation) – health
602. self-isolating, adj.: affixation (prefixation and suffixation) – health
603. self-isolation, n.: affixation (prefixation) – health
604. self-quarantine, n.: affixation (prefixation) – health
605. self-quarantine, v.: affixation (prefixation) – health
606. self-quarantined, adj.: affixation (prefixation) – health
607. Semiticist, n.: affixation (suffixation) – linguistics, literature
608. send-forth, n.: compounding – celebration
609. septagonal, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – science
610. septate, n.: affixation (suffixation) – science
611. septile, adj.1 and n.: borrowing from Latin – science
612. septuplicate, adj. and n.: borrowing from Latin – science
613. seroma, n.: compounding – health

614. Shabbat goyah, n.: compounding – religion and ideology
615. shaliach, n.: borrowing from Hebrew – religion and ideology
616. shelter in place, n.: conversion – society and relationships
617. shelter in place, v.: compounding – society and relationships
618. shero, n.: blending – culture
619. shticky, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings
620. side hug, n.: compounding – sports, society and relationships
621. side-load, v.: compounding – other, internet and computing
622. silent alarm, n.: compounding – tools and technology
623. silent auction, n.: compounding – business and law
624. silent birth, n.: compounding – health
625. silent butler, n.: compounding – gastronomy
626. silent commerce, n.: compounding – business and law
627. silent disco, n.: compounding – celebration
628. silent number, n.: compounding – internet and computing
629. silently, adv.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings
630. Sinixt, n. and adj.: borrowing from Okanagan – country
631. Sinti, n. and adj.: borrowing from German – country
632. sit-mat, n.: compounding – tools and technology
633. skim-read, v.: compounding – literature
634. skim-reading, n.: compounding – literature
635. slobberiness, n.: affixation (suffixation) – sexuality
636. slobberknocker, n.: compounding – sports
637. slobbery, n.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings
638. slobbing, n.: affixation (suffixation) – sexuality



639. social distancing, n.: compounding – society and relationships
640. social isolation, n.: compounding – society and relationships
641. spaff, v.: uncertain or unknown origin – sexuality, business and law
642. speculoos, n.: borrowing from Dutch – gastronomy
643. spin-o-rama, n.: compounding – sports
644. spiriting, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings
645. spiritly, adv.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings
646. spiritus mundi, n.: borrowing from Latin – culture
647. spiritus, n.: borrowing from Latin – religion and ideology
648. squeeze chute, n.: compounding – animal
649. St Christopher, n.: conversion – religion and ideology
650. steek, n.3: conversion – fashion
651. steek, v.4: conversion – fashion
652. steeked, adj.3: affixation (suffixation) – fashion
653. steeking, n.4: affixation (suffixation) – fashion
654. stink eye, n.: compounding – society and relationships
655. stromboli, n.: conversion – gastronomy
656. suicide belt, n.: compounding – health, war and army
657. suicider, n.: affixation (suffixation) – health, war and army
658. Suisse muslin, n.: compounding – fashion
659. suiter, n.2: affixation (suffixation) – fashion
660. tag rugby, n.: compounding – sports
661. tat, n.9: clipping – culture
662. tat, v.5: clipping – culture
663. tatted, adj.2: affixation (suffixation) – culture

664. tea-bag, v.: conversion – business and law, sexuality
665. teabagger, n.: affixation (suffixation) – business and law, religion and ideology
666. teabagging, n.: affixation (suffixation) – business and law, sexuality, internet and computing
667. tender, n.4: clipping – gastronomy
668. theanine, n.: affixation (suffixation) – science
669. theonomous, adj.: compounding – politics and institutions
670. tinker man, n.2: compounding – other
671. tinker woman, n.: compounding – other
672. tinkerman, n.1: compounding – animal
673. tinkerman, n.3: compounding – sports
674. tin-kettler, n.: affixation (suffixation) – culture
675. titted, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – body
676. Tivertine, n.: borrowing from Italian – construction
677. tokunbo, adj.: borrowing from Yoruba – business and law
678. top bin, n. and adv.: compounding – sports
679. topophilia, n.: compounding – description and feelings
680. traffic, adj.: conversion – transport
681. transatlanticist, n.: affixation (suffixation) – country, politics and institutions
682. travel centre, n.: compounding – culture
683. travel guide, n.: compounding – culture
684. travelling stockman, n.: compounding – animal
685. traversière, n.: borrowing from French – music
686. triaged, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – fashion, science
687. triaging, n.: affixation (suffixation) – fashion, science

688. triclosan, n.: compounding – science
689. UFO, n.2: initialism – fashion
690. unconscious bias, n.: compounding – description and feelings
691. underskilled, adj.: affixation (prefixation) – business and law
692. unfathom, v.: affixation (prefixation) – culture
693. unterfirer, n.: borrowing from Yiddish – celebration
694. V-card, n.: blending – sexuality
695. verse, v.4: conversion – sports
696. vinarterta, n.: borrowing from Icelandic – gastronomy
697. vot, pron.: uncertain or unknown origin – linguistics
698. Vote, n.2 and adj.: borrowing from Russian – country, linguistics
699. vote-a-rama, n.: blending – politics and institutions
700. Vo-Tech, adj. and n.: blending – culture
701. vote-wise, adj.2: compounding – politics and institutions
702. votive candle, n.: compounding – tools and technology
703. vuvuzela, n.: borrowing from Zulu – music
704. wankstain, n.: compounding – sexuality, description and feelings
705. waterblommetjie, n.: borrowing from Afrikaans – nature and countryside
706. weak sauce, adj. and n.: compounding – description and feelings
707. wiele, v.: inherited from Germanic – society and relationships
708. yeshiva bochur, n.: compounding – culture
709. yiddo, n.: affixation (suffixation) – religion and ideology, sports
710. zhuzh, n.: uncertain or unknown origin – fashion
711. zhuzhy, adj.: affixation (suffixation) – description and feelings
712. Zoom, v.2: conversion – internet and computing