University of Pardubice

Faculty of Arts and Philosophy

Word-formation in Branding

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Bachelor Paper

2017

ZADÁNÍ BAKALÁŘSKÉ PRÁCE
(PROJEKTU, UMĚLECKÉHO DÍLA, UMĚLECKÉHO VÝKONU)

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Osobní číslo: **H14054**

Studijní program: **B7310 Filologie**

Studijní obor: **Anglický jazyk pro odbornou praxi**

Název tématu: **Slovotvorné procesy používané při vytváření obchodních značek**

Zadávající katedra: **Katedra anglistiky a amerikanistiky**

Z á s a d y   p r o   v y p r a c o v á n í :

Cílem bakalářské práce je prostudovat slovotvorné procesy používané při vytváření obchodních značek. Student nejprve definuje pojmy "branding" a "obchodní značka", vymezí distinktivní rysy obchodních značek a charakterizuje význam a funkce brandingu s ohledem na adresáta. Dále na základě studia odborné lingvistické literatury, zejména z oblasti lexikologie a sémantiky, podrobně popíše vybrané procesy tvoření slov, které jsou pro oblast brandingu relevantní a jejichž cílem je upoutat pozornost adresáta. Následně provede analýzu nashromážděných obchodních značek s cílem identifikovat jednotlivé procesy tvoření slov, zmapovat jejich frekvenci výskytu a objasnit jejich užití v kontextu brandingu. Na závěr student zhodnotí převažující tendence při vytváření obchodních značek, možné interpretace významu, míru kreativity, efektivitu a vliv na spotřebitele.

Rozsah grafických prací:

Rozsah pracovní zprávy:

Forma zpracování bakalářské práce: **tištěná/elektronická**

Seznam odborné literatury: **viz příloha**

Vedoucí bakalářské práce: **PhDr. Petra Huschová, Ph.D.**

Katedra anglistiky a amerikanistiky

Datum zadání bakalářské práce: **30. dubna 2016**

Termín odevzdání bakalářské práce: **31. března 2017**

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Příloha zadání bakalářské práce

Seznam odborné literatury:

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Prohlašuji:

Tuto práci jsem vypracoval samostatně. Veškeré literární prameny a informace, které jsem v práci využil, jsou uvedeny v seznamu použité literatury.

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Souhlasím s prezenčním zpřístupněním své práce v Univerzitní knihovně Univerzity Pardubice.

V Pardubicích dne 31. 3. 2017

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Acknowledgements

Annotation

This bachelor paper discusses the word-formation in branding. The theoretical part explains branding. Furthermore, it focuses on word-formation and its processes. They are defined, their properties are described and possible classification mentioned. In the practical part, findings form the theoretical part are applied to the corpus of brand names for obtaining the result of the analysis.

Keywords

Název práce

Slovotvorné procesy používané při vytváření v obchodních značkách

Abstrakt

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá slovotvorbou v obchodních značkách. Teoretická část vysvětluje branding a značky. Následně se tato část soustředí na slovotvorbu a její procesy. Tyto procesy jsou definovány, jejich vlastnosti popsány a možné klasifikace zmíněny. V praktické části jsou poznatky z teoretické části aplikovány na vzorku obchodních značek za účelem z mapování nejčastějších slovotvorných procesů.

Klíčová slova

Contents

Introduction

This bachelor paper focuses on the use of word-formation in branding. The aim of this paper is to explain branding and to work up relevant word-formation theory with the help of linguistic literature. The theory will be applied to the analysis to obtain the results. The further aim is to map word-formation processes and investigate their tendencies used in branding. The work consists of two main parts, a theoretical and an analytical part.

The theoretical part is divided into two chapters. The first chapter deals with branding and has two subcategories where the terms brand and brand name are explained. The second chapter focuses on word-formation. This part concentrates on the terms *word* and *word-formation*. Furthermore, the second chapter is divided into several subcategories and they focus on word-formation processes. They are defined and their possible classifications and properties are described.

The analytical part uses the findings from the theoretical part and applies them to identify word-formation processes in branding. The analytical part has several subcategories. Each occurrence in the corpus has its own subcategory where further investigations are presented and summarised. Occurrences below 5% are reported together in the Minor Occurrences subcategory. The analyses are presented in order from the highest occurrence to the lowest.

1. Branding

This part of the paper deals with branding. Firstly, it tries to define it, then the focus is given to brand equities and then it explains the concept of brand management. These terms are generally believed to be the main aspects of branding. Further this chapter explains a brand and brand name.

Branding is generally believed to be one of the most important aspect of any organization, and according to Davis and Baldwin, it simply helps to attract attention and survive (Davis and Baldwin 2005, 22). Furthermore, branding is comprised of all activities which lead to building a successful brand, for example activities like creating a name, symbol or design that gives a product or organization an identity. According to Hislop, branding is the process of creating a connection between a symbol/object/emotion/perception and a product or company with the goal of driving loyalty and segregation among competitors (Hislop 2001, 6). For example, through product packaging, Toblerone Swiss chocolate has created an association thanks to triangle shaped packaging which make the company distinctive from its competitors.

Furthermore, branding focuses to enhance Brand equity, which Aaker defines as "a set of assets (and liabilities) linked to a brand's name that adds to (or subtracts from) the value provided by a product or service to a firm or/and that firm's customers" (Aaker 1995, 7, 8). He also describes four major asset categories of Brand equity. The first asset is brand name awareness, which refers to the strength of a brand's presence in the consumer's mind. Basically, ask yourself what brands you can recall from your mind when you say a product, the first brand you recall is the strongest and if only one comes up, it is a dominant brand. The second asset is brand loyalty, which is a number of loyal customers who come back to do the business with the same brand again. This asset is considered the most important one when setting the value of the brand when sold or bought, because from the loyal customer base can be predicted the future sales and profit. The third asset is perceived quality, which is a factor creating a trust of a business. Once a brand gains a damaged reputation, recovery is very difficult and sometimes impossible (Aaker 1995, 7-19). On example is Skoda which gained a bad reputation thanks to the unreliability of its products. It took many years to recover their reputation and possibly without the help of the VW brand, it would have never happened. The fourth asset described by Aaker is brand association, which is everything that consumers connect with a brand in their minds when they talk about a brand. These associations might include product attributes, a celebrity or a symbol. Associations are driven with a product identity (Aaker 1995, 25).

For example, Disney can be associated with Mickey mouse or with the United States. Aaker also mentions other proprietary brand assets categories for completeness, where as an example he mentions patents, which are connected with the brand. Furthermore, he also stresses that each equity needs an investment to enhance its asset (Aaker 1995, 8). It can be summarised that branding tries to build valuable assets for the company and these assets must be connected with the name of the brand.

When explaining branding, the concept of brand management should also be defined. According to Davis and Baldwin, to have a person or entity in control of the brand means having the brand management (Davis and Baldwin, 2005, 20). The best way to explain the purpose of brand management is thanks to Aaker's metaphor, where he portrays a brand as a ship.

"A brand can be likened to a ship in a fleet facing an upcoming battle. The brand manager is the captain of the ship, who must know where his or her ship is going and keep it on course. The other brands in the firm, like other ship in a fleet, need to be coordinated to achieve maximum effectiveness. Competitors correspond to enemy ships; knowing their location, direction, and strength is critical to achieving strategic and tactical success. The perception and motivation of customers are like the winds: It is important to know their direction, their strength and possible changes" (Aaker 1995, 21).

Furthermore, according to Temporal, brand management as a process is an attempt to control everything that a brand does and expresses, and the way in which it is perceived by consumers. It tries to influence the perceptions of audiences to ensure that people see what the brand management want them to see with respect to the brand. This means creating a brand's story and personality which makes the brand better than its competition. It involves integrated communication within the company and constant tracking of the brand and its competitors (Temporal 2010, xvii-xviii).

Branding was briefly discussed in this part of the paper. As branding is a concept where techniques are constantly changing and it is a very broad topic, it would need more space to explain everything in greater detail, however for the purpose of this paper branding was defined and the main aspects of branding as brand equity and brand management were explained.

1.1 Brand

According to the Oxford dictionary, a brand is "a type of product manufactured by a particular company under a particular name", or "an identifying mark burnt on livestock or (especially in former times) criminals or slaves with a branding iron".

<http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/brand> Both definitions seem to indicate that a brand has an identification purpose.

Furthermore, according to Batey, a product becomes a brand when something else is augmented to it like an image, symbol, perception or feeling. A brand can be a single product or it can be made up of multiple products, but its core remains a distinctive identity and image that resonates with its consumers and means more than just physical representation of the product (Batey 2008, 3).

When Batey developed his definition of a brand, he considered differences between a product and a brand. A consumer purchases a product for what it is and chooses a brand for what it means, a product sits on shelves of retailers and a brand exists in minds of consumers, a product can quickly be outdated and a brand is timeless, a product can be copied by a competitor and a brand is unique. For Batey two main conditions are absolutely fundamental to the understanding of brands, we choose brands for what they mean and brands exist in our minds (Batey 2008, 4). For example, when we see or hear the brand name Skoda, we can identify a car manufacturer and possibly recall an experience with its products. We could create an image in our minds about the product, for example, we could imagine a decent car and that it is a good value for money. When someone owns a Bentley car, it could create an image that the owner is very successful in his/ her career. This illustrates that brands have their meanings and they exist in our minds. Aaker describes it as brand recognition. Consumers recall the brand from previous encounters and why it differs from other products (Aaker 1995, 10).

Furthermore, Jones and Slater describe that brands evolved out of trademarks, which is a legal protection to an inventor's patent. They also mention that branding process developed its purpose beyond the legal role and they suggest that a brand guarantees quality and sameness of the product to consumers (Jones and Slater 2003, 19). By example of Heinz, wherever around the world consumers purchase the Heinz beans or ketchup, they have the Heinz guarantee that they get the same product with the same quality.

In addition to Batey's distinctions between a product and a brand, Jones and Slater describe an important difference – a product has a functional purpose and a brand offers additional value (Jones and Slater 2003, 31,32). Thanks to this difference, Jones and Slater came up with their definition "a brand is a product that provides functional benefits plus added values that some consumers value enough to buy" (Jones and Slater 2003, 32).

In summary, a brand differentiates the product from others and creates an image which is in our mind linked to our experience with the product and gives extra value to the product which some consumers appreciate enough that leads to purchase. It is also a promise to a

consumer - promise of quality and sameness. A brand was discussed and this paper can focus on a brand name in the following part.

1.2 Brand Name

When launching a product or a company, one of the most important decisions a management has to make is to choose an appropriate brand name (Batey 2008, 148). It is usually the first thing consumers see and it can provide important information about the brand. A brand name can be defined with the help of the Business dictionary. According to the Business dictionary, a brand name is "word(s) that identify not only a product but also its manufacturer or producer, such as Apple, Coca Cola, IBM, Mercedes, Shell, Sony, Toyota" <http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/word>.

Brand names are usually short and should be meaningful, memorable and relevant (Temporal 2010, 230). Facebook is a short name which is easy to remember and thanks to its users who can store faces of their friends, it is also relevant and meaningful. On the other hand, there are brand names which do not carry inherent meaning and the desired interpretation has to be attached with the help of marketing efforts or consumers. Such an example is Ocado, an online grocery shop. "Everyone asks us what it stands for " says Martyn Allen, in charge of branding at Ocado. "We just liked the sound of it" (Davis and Baldwin 2005, 90).

When creating a brand name, there are recommended concepts set by leading marketers which should be followed. This part of the paper does not mention whole concepts, instead it only deals with the most relevant principles for the purpose of this paper. One of the principles was already mentioned and that is brand names should be short. More specifically, according to Tai, brand names should be between one and four syllables, ideally two syllables (they have two parts the beginning and the end) as monosyllables do not look complete (Tai 2009, 123). Another convention is a name should be suggestive. According to Watkins, a brand name should evoke something about the brand (Watkins 2014, 6). Cargiant is a brand that sells pre-owned cars and its name suggests that its stock is enormous. The next principle, also mentioned, is a brand name should be meaningful. Watkins and Tai suggest that the meaning of the brand should be clear to the potential customers, not just to the owner (Watkins 2014, 8) (Tai 2009, 88). The next recommendation is a brand name should create an image. According to Watkins imagery helps to remember brand names (Watkins 2014,11-12). Tai agrees with Watkins and he also mentions only one strong image should be behind the name not hundreds (Tai 2009, 76). For example, Amazon suggests one image of something enormous. Another relevant

principle is that the name should be unique. According to Tai, a unique name helps to differentiate the brand from its competitors (Tai 2009, 150). Watkins agrees with Tai and she mentions that similar names look like copycats (Watkins 2014, 24-26). For example, naming a restaurant Mc China is not ideal and is also not recommended as it could run into issues of trademark infringement.

All these mentioned principles in the previous paragraph help to make a brand name memorable. Short, obviously, it is harder to remember a long name. Suggestive, meaningful, imagery and unique names resonate in our minds and as this paper already mentioned in the brand chapter, brands live in our minds.

Furthermore, there is one more principle and is mentioned by both marketers, Watkins and Tai and that is a brand name should be easy to pronounce (Watkins 2014, 35-38) (Tai 2009, 48-66). For example, Huawei, most people would probably find hard to pronounce and it could cause them to feel embarrassed to ask for the product in the shop, therefore losing potential customers. On the other hand, Visa is pronounced with ease and similarly in all languages, which also gave the company an advantage once it started operating globally. Finally, the last principle chosen for the paper is mentioned by Watkins and it is that a brand name should not be restrictive (Watkins 2014, 26-27). For example, Poundland where everything is for one pound. What happens if there is an inflation and products cost more, the company will lose its direction and possibly has to change its name.

All the most relevant principles of naming a brand were discussed. When creating a brand name, it should be taken into consideration that the brand name ideally should be short, suggestive, meaningful, imagery, unique, memorable, easy to pronounce and should not be restrictive. Branding, a brand and a brand name as a term were explained. This paper can now focus on word-formation in the next part of the theory.

2. Word-formation

As the aim of this paper is to analyse the word-formation in branding, this chapter deals with words and word-formation. Firstly, concepts of word and word formation are defined, followed by a comparison of the word formation theories of Plag and Bauer. Word formation processes are explored further in the following subcategories.

The easiest way of defining a word is with the use of the Oxford dictionary. According to the Oxford dictionary, a word is "a single distinct meaningful element of speech or writing, used with others (or sometimes alone) to form a sentence and typically shown with spaces on either side when written or printed" <http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/word>. When the Merriam Webster dictionary is used, it can be found that a word is something that is said, a speech sound or series of speech sounds that symbolizes and communicates a meaning usually without being divisible into smaller units capable of independent use. It is also the entire set of linguistic forms produced by combining a single base with various inflectional elements without change in the part of speech elements. Furthermore, a word is also a written or printed character or combination of characters representing a spoken word and it can be any segment of written or printed discourse ordinarily appearing between spaces or between a space and a punctuation mark <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/word>.

In accordance with these dictionary definitions, it can be seen that a word is a meaning, an element used in speech and writing, and when written or printed, it is usually surrounded by a blank space or punctuation mark. In this simple sentence *We went home.* three words can be identified as each of them communicates a meaning and it is surrounded by a space or punctuation mark. Furthermore, Plag defines properties of words as entities having a part of speech specification, words are the smallest sentence elements, words usually have one main stress and words usually are indivisible units (Plag 2003, 9). Properties of words are very similar within the definitions taken from dictionaries. In addition, a word as a term is ambiguous according to Jackson and Plag and they both identify four kinds of words. Orthographic words distinguished by spelling, phonological words distinguished by pronunciations, word-forms, which are grammatical variants, and fourthly as items of meaning, lexemes, which are the headwords of dictionary entries (Jackson 1988, 8) (Plag 2003, 11).

To define a word has been a long time problem for linguistic theory thanks to some items in some languages which users of those languages call words and are not covered by a
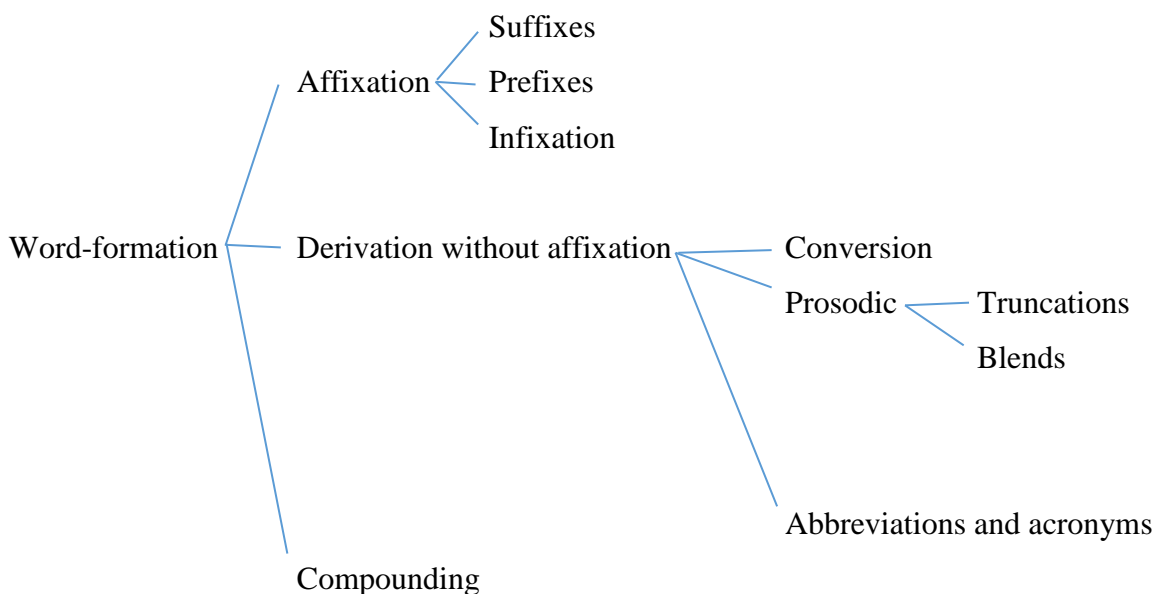
definition, however the term is defined (Bauer 1983, 8). For the purpose in the thesis, a word can be used loosely.

Word-formation can be defined, according to Bauer, as a division which deals with formation of new lexemes from given bases (Bauer 1983, 33) or according to Plag, as the study of the ways in which new words are created on the basis of other words or morphemes (Plag 2003,19). Furthermore, Plag also adds "words can be composed of smaller units, called morphemes, and that there are many different ways to create new words from existing ones by affixational, non-affixational and compounding processes" (Plag 2003, 23). In addition, Bauer states "word-formation produces complex forms, derivation produces derivatives and compounding produces compounds" (Bauer 1983, 30).

Plag and Bauer do not consider inflection as word formation. According to them, inflection does not create new meanings. Inflectional suffixes, like participial -*ing*, plural -*s*, or third person singular -*s*, do not create new lexemes, they encode grammatical categories, such as plural, person, tense or case (Plag 2003, 19-22) (Bauer 1983, 10, 11, 29). Beard confirms it as he states that inflection specifies the grammatical function of words in phrases without changing the meaning. On the other hand, derivation usually results in the derivation of a new word with a new meaning (Beard 1998, 44). Examples of inflection with suffix -*ed* and -*ing*, *playing, played*. In contrast, derivational suffix -*er, player,* creates a new lexeme.

To be able to compare word-formation classifications, this paper illustrates the way Bauer and Plag have outlined word-formation in the next following schemes.

An outline of English word-formation by Plag:
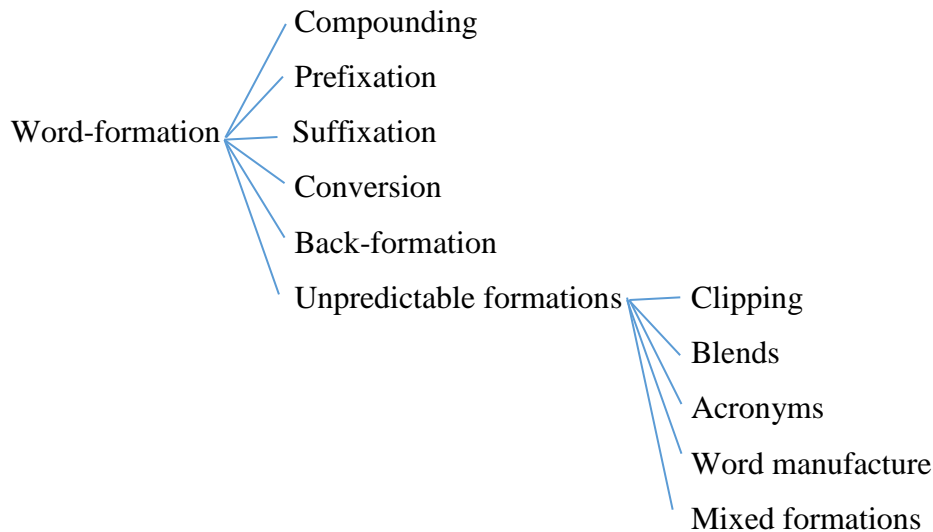
Word-formation
- Affixation
  - Suffixes
  - Prefixes
  - Infixation
- Derivation without affixation
  - Conversion
  - Prosodic
    - Truncations
    - Blends
  - Abbreviations and acronyms
- Compounding

Source: (Plag 2003, 90-203)

An outline of English word-formation by Bauer:

Word-formation
- Compounding
- Prefixation
- Suffixation
- Conversion
- Back-formation
- Unpredictable formations
  - Clipping
  - Blends
  - Acronyms
  - Word manufacture
  - Mixed formations

Source: (Bauer 1983, 201-241)

In these schemes above can be seen that both linguists coincide and have compounding as an independent group. Both linguists deal with affixation, however Plag considers infixes and Bauer does not as he claims, they are virtually unknown in English (Bauer 1983, 19). Furthermore, Plag has a category of derivation called prosodic, where he has derivation processes concerned with phonology. On the other hand, Bauer has a category of word-formation called unpredictable formations, where he has processes, which forms cannot be predicted without consideration of phonology (Bauer 1983, 232). Furthermore, Plag differs from Bauer as he categorises derivation into two groups - affixational and non-afixational and has category called truncation, where the main purpose is shortening.

In summary, authors agree and define word-formation similarly as a process which forms words from the already existing material in the lexicon. Furthermore, it can be observed that their outlines differ. This paper outlines word-formation similarly as Bauer does, into compounding, affixation, blending, conversion, back-formation, shortening, mixed formation and word manufacture (ex nihilo).

2.1 Compounding

Compounding is one of the most productive processes in English word-formation. According to Plag, it is also the most controversial one due to many unresolved issues and problems in linguistic analysis (Plag 2003, 169). This chapter will not discuss all these issues and problems

and instead, it will define compounding, describe the usual properties of compounds and examine their possible classifications.

Compounding can be defined according to Bauer, simply, as the process of putting two words together to form a third one (Bauer 1983, 11). E.g. *A paperclip, oil paper.* It is a very elegant and straight forward definition; however, it is also very elementary one and it only covers compounds containing two words. Furthermore, Bauer defines a compound as "a lexeme containing two or more potential stems that has not subsequently been subjected to a derivational process" (Bauer 1983, 29). This definition illustrates that compounding can be formed with not just two words, e.g. a *waste paper basket.* Furthermore, Plag uses a very similar method as Bauer. Firstly, he also defines compounding, rather loosely, as the combination of two words to form a new one (Plag 2003, 170). And then, he gives a full definition of a compound, "a compound is a word that consists of two elements, the first of which is either a root, a word or a phrase, the second of which is either a root or a word" (Plag 2003, 173). It can be seen that Plag is more specific in his definition of a compound and he talks about two elements and mentions all the possibilities of each element.

As compounds have been defined in the previous paragraph, this part of the paper can now try to explain some usual properties of compounds, which could help the paper to determine them in the analysis. One of the main indicators is their structure.

"The structure of English compounds

[X Y]$_Y$

X = { root, word, phrase } structure modifier

Y = { root, word } head

$_Y$ = grammatical properties inherited from Y" (Plag 2003, 175).

Plag claims the majority of compounds contain the left-hand member {X} and the right-hand member {Y}. The left-hand member somehow modifies the right-hand member (Plag 2003, 173, 174). For example, a *traffic officer* is an officer occupied with traffic or an *indoor track bike* is a bike used on an indoor track. Furthermore, the term head is generally used to refer to the most important unit, a *bike and an officer* in the given examples are heads while a *traffic and indoor track* are structure modifiers. In addition, William points to a very important systematic rule regarding compounds in English called 'The right hand side rule' which means that compound heads always occur on the right hand side (Williams 1981, 248). Furthermore, Plag states, the compound head reveals its semantic and syntactic information (Plag 2003, 173).

If the head is a noun, the compound will be a noun, e.g. *a tennis racket*, if the head is a verb, the compound will be a verb, e.g. *kick start.* Plag also mentions that heads can only be pluralised (Plag 2003, 174). If users of the language want to pluralise a compound, they have to use a plural mark on the head, not on the structure modifier. Example, *brands manager* is not the plural of a *brand manager.* The correct structure of the plural is *brand managers.* Furthermore, Allen mentions that the left hand member is typically non-referential (Allen 1978). E.g. *a dog lover* does not refer to any specific dog. Finally, the last property mentioned in this chapter regarding the structure of compounds is inseparability. When this paper dealt with words, one of the properties was that they are usually indivisible units and according to Lieber, compounds should be treated as words and members of a compound cannot be separated by a modifier. (Lieber 2005, 377). E.g. *mountain expensive bike*, *movie experienced star*. Modifiers usually should precede the compound e.g. *expensive mountain bike*, *experienced movie star*. Lieber also mentions that this rule does not mean that the right hand member cannot be a complex word e.g. *Chinese jade figure.* It means that a random modifier cannot be inserted between elements of a compound e.g. *Chinese dirty jade figure* is not acceptable (Lieber 2005, 377). In addition to structural properties, one non-structural property can be mentioned and that is the leftward stress in the majority of English compounds. Plag mentions that the majority of compounds have leftward stress e.g. *a blackboard /ˈblakbɔːd/ a brand name /ˈbrandneɪm/,* however he also claims, there are exceptions to this rule e.g. *a summer night /sʌmə ˈnʌɪt/, geologist-astronomer /dʒɪɒlədʒɪst əˈstrɒnəmə/,* most of these exceptions have certain type of semantic interpretations or they can be based on the analogy of existing compounds (Plag 2003, 177-178). Plag explains more on this topic 175-181, however this paper is not going to examine this issue as Plag's interpretations do not cover all possible cases of rightward stress compounds and several exceptions are unexplained. Furthermore, Plag states that stress can be used as a criterion for compounds as exceptions are appearing in minority cases only (Plag 2003, 178). On the other hand Bauer disagrees and states that stress is not criterial for compounds (Bauer 1983, 104-112). To summarise the discussion on properties of compounds, it could be stated that compounds can be differentiated from a sequence of words when applying these rules in combinations. However, Bauer argues that there are no criteria, neither individual nor collective, which would indisputably distinguish all compounds form phrases (Bauer 1998, 83-86). The main properties of compounds were discussed and now this work can focus on classifying compounding.

Most linguists agree on the structural classification of compounds. According to Jackson, the majority of compounds are nouns, e.g. *tooth-paste,* and they are a result of naming

a new object which has not been named before. As the meaning of a compound is in most cases transparent, it wins acceptance of users of the language. Compounds also exist in other word-classes, e.g. *deep-fry, over-charge* (verb), *sugar-free, knee-deep* (adjective), *inside* (adverb), *onto* (preposition), *myself* (pronoun) (Jackson 1988, 31). Plag and Bauer agree with Jackson and classify compounds morphologically in accordance to the result of compounding (Plag 2003, 185-198) (Bauer 1983, 202-213). Furthermore, compounds can be classified semantically and Bauer and Plag classify them into the following groups. First is endocentric which are compounds consisting of semantic heads e.g. *tennis referee,* where *referee* is the head modified by *tennis.* The second group is exocentric, also known as bahuvrihi, where the meaning is unexpressed and the semantic head is outside of the compound e.g. *hatchback* a type of car. Third is copulative, also known as dvandva. This group contains compounds where the result is a sum of elements e.g. *bitter-sweet*. Fourth is appositional where both lexemes serve as types of each other e.g. *maid-servant* is a type of maid and also a type of servant (Bauer 1983, 30-32) (Plag 2003, 185-188). Finally, one more classification of compounds according to Dressler can be mentioned here. Compounds can be classified into the two following groups - subordinate and coordinate (Dressler 2005, 275). This classification can be explained by the following examples, *tennis referee* tennis is subordinated to a referee and this compound can be classified as subordinate, s*peaker-hearer,* here there are two co-ordinated members and this example belongs to the group of coordinate compounds. It can be summarised that compounds can be classified by the word class they belong to or by their meaning.

At the end of the discussion about compounds, one more very specific group of compounds in English can be mentioned and that is the neo-classical one. According to Bauer and Plag, neo-classical compounds combine lexemes of Latin or Greek origin e.g. *photograph, astrology, paedophile*. Here are a few examples of the left hand member forms *astro-, bio-, electro-, geo-, hydro-, retro-, tele-*, and the right hand member forms *-graphy, -phile, -phobe* (Bauer 1983, 213-216) (Plag 2003, 198). As neoclassical compounding seems more like derivation, the difference between compounding and derivation is discussed in *2.2 Affixation*.

In summary, authors agree on the definition of compounds and use a very similar way to define them, only Plag seems to be more specific with his final definition. They also generally agree on their classifications. Furthermore, applying the knowledge of compound properties discussed in this chapter, one may identify compounds solely from the word sequence.

2.2 Affixation

Another very productive word-formation process in English is affixation. According to Katamba, it is possibly the most usual method of forming new words, in the sense of lexical terms (Katamba 1994, 42). This part of the paper defines affixation, then distinguishes affixation from compounding and finally classifies prefixes and suffixes. Infixation is not discussed here as Bauer and Plag agree that it is extremely rare in English (Bauer 1983, 18) (Plag 2003, 130-131). This chapter also does not deal with inflectional affixation as it was already mentioned that inflection does not create new lexemes therefore it is not considered as word-formation.

Bauer and Plag claim affixation is the process where a new word is created by adding an affix to the base (Bauer 1983, 18) (Plag 2003, 90). For example *unbelievable* is a word which has two affixes *un-* and *-able*.   According to Bauer and Plag, an affix is the term which covers all bound morphemes such as prefixes and suffixes (Bauer 1983, 18) (Plag 2003, 13). *Un-* is a prefix as Bauer and Plag claim, prefixes are attached before the base and suffixes are attached after the base (Bauer 1983, 18) (Plag 2003, 13). Therefore *-able* is a suffix. Further, Bauer and Plag define a base as a form to which an affix can be attached (Bauer 1983, 21) (Plag 2003, 13, 14). This means that the root and stem can also be a base. *Believe* is both a root and a base, *believable* is a stem and also a base. According to Bauer and Plag, bound morphemes only occur in a language if attached to at least one other morpheme (Bauer 1983, 17) (Plag 2003, 13). This means that prefix *un-* cannot be used on its own. This leads to a rule which is discussed next.

This rule distinguishes affixation from compounding. Plag states, if the affix is a bound morpheme only and cannot be used on its own, it is affixation, e.g. a bound morpheme *-er*. However, there are some affixes which can occur on their own *less* and *-less*. In this case, a free element is compared with a bound morpheme and if there is a significant difference in use between these elements, it can be assumed that they are two different items and then it is also derivation. For the given example the free element *less* equals opposite to more and on the other hand the bound morpheme *-less* equals without, which means that in this case these items are different and *-less* produces derivatives. If there is not a significant difference, the element should be classified as a free morpheme and the complex word as a compound (Plag 2003, 90, 91). However, Bauer argues that there is not a clear dividing line between compounding and derivation, as there are elements which have changed from affixes to lexemes or other way around from lexemes to affixes over a period of time. He gives examples as *-ology* and *-ism*,

these are now used on their own as lexemes, and he gives an example of a book called Isms and Ologies (Bauer 1983, 35, 36). On the other hand, these are very rare cases and this rule can be used in the analysis.

The vast majority of prefixes in English are class maintaining (Bauer 1983, 31, 216) (Plag 2003, 124). This means that a new derivative stays in the same word class as the word from which it was derived. E.g. *step-, father, stepfather.* Furthermore, according to Plag, most of the prefixes do not change the stress pattern of their bases (Plag 2003, 124). Bauer classifies prefixes into two groups, class-maintaining and class-changing. One of the examples of a class changing prefix is *en-*, which forms transitive verbs mainly from nouns, *slave to enslave* (Bauer 1983, 217). Furthermore, he also divides the class-maintaining group into the following subgroups according to the word class in which the prefix can be used. Prefixes added exclusively to noun bases, for example *mal-, malnutrition.* Prefixes used exclusively with verb bases such as *de-, destabilize.* Prefixes added exclusively to adjective bases *a-, apolitical.* Prefixes used with nouns and verbs, for example *mis- mislead, misfortune.* Prefixes added to nouns and adjectives *mid-, midevening, mid-Elizabethan.* Prefixes used with verbs and adjectives such as *circum-, circumnavigate, circumpolar,* this is a very rare subgroup. Prefixes added to nouns, verbs and adjectives for example *counter-, counteroffensive, counterdemonstrate, counterproductive* (Bauer 1983, 217-220). On the other hand, Plag classifies prefixes semantically into the following five groups. The first group quantify their bases for example, '*one', uni-, unification* and *'many', multi-, multifocal* and *'small', micro-, microscope, (macro-, semi-, over-, hyper- etc.).* The second group contains locative prefixes such as '*against', counter-, counterexample* and '*internal', endo-, endocentric* and '*between', inter-, intergalactic, (intra-, para-, retro-, trans- etc.).* The third group consists of temporal prefixes like '*before', pre-, preconcert* and '*after', post-, postmodern,* and '*new', neo-, neoclassical, (ante-, fore- etc.).* The fourth group contains prefixes expressing negation such as *de-, dis-, in-, non-, un-, unfamiliar, discharge.* The fifth group consists of prefixes which do not fit into any of the four groups, however they express diverse notions, for example *'wrong', mal-, malfunction,* and *'badly or wrongly', mis-, mistreated* (Plag 2003, 123, 124).

Suffixes are typically class-changing according to Bauer (Bauer 1983, 31). Therefore, a new derivative is usually in a different word class then the form it was derived from. Bauer and Plag classify suffixes according to the word class of the derivatives they produce into following groups. The first group is suffixes forming nouns. Here are suffixes producing nouns from nouns such as *king* plus *-dom* creating *kingdom.* In this group there are suffixes forming nouns from verbs e.g. *play, -er, player* and nouns from adjectives, for example *social, -ist,*

socialist. The second group consists suffixes forming verbs. Here we have suffixes producing verbs from nouns, for example *hospital, -ize, hospitalize* and verbs from adjectives such as *short, -en, shorten*. In English there are no suffixes forming verbs from verbs. The third group contains suffixes forming adjectives. Here are suffixes producing adjectives from nouns e.g. *politic, -al, political,* and adjectives from verbs for example *believe, -able, believable,* and adjectives from adjectives such as *green, -ish, greenish.* The fourth group holds suffixes forming adverbs. Here we have suffixes mainly producing adverbs from adjectives e.g. *short, -ly, shortly,* and adjectives from nouns for example *length, -wise, lengthwise* (Bauer 1983, 220-225) (Plag 2003, 109-123). In addition to the mentioned groups, Bauer adds another two groups, the fifth one where suffixes produce other minor word classes evident in the words *downer, suchness, thereness,* and the sixth one where English suffixes are added on foreign bases for example *terrestrial* where a Latin base is combined with *-al* which does not have a Latin origin. Both groups are very rare (Bauer 1983, 225, 226).

In summary, authors agree on the definition of affixation. Also they both categorise the two main following groups prefixation and suffixation. Furthermore, they also agree and classify suffixes according to the word class of the derivatives they produce. Bauer only differs from Plag, as he classifies prefixes according to the word class in which the prefix can be used, on the other hand, Plag classifies prefixes semantically. For the purpose of the analysis, prefixation can be classified in accordance with Plag's classification.

2.3 Blending

Blending is a very productive word formation process in English. Furthermore, according to Bauer, blending is a loosely defined umbrella term that encompasses compounding, neoclassical compounding, affixation, clipping and acronyming (Bauer 1983, 236, 237). This part of the paper tries to define blending and find a possible classification and property of blends.

According to Jackson, blending can be defined as a process of combining two words together and retaining a part of each (Jackson 1988, 34). Plag agrees with Jackson and specifies that blending omits material from one or both of the source words (Plag 2003, 155). Bauer also agrees with Jackson and adds that the result of blending has no transparent analysis into morphs and the new word is free to take as much or as little from either word as necessary or desirable (Bauer 1983, 234, 235). Katamba agrees with Jackson, however he classifies blends as compounds made in an orthodox way (Katamba 1994, 128).

Blends can be classified into the following types, according to Plag and Bauer. The first type where blends are formed from existing compounds such as *breath analyzer* to *breathalyzer, science fiction* to *sci-fi, motor hotel* to *motel.* The second type is where blends are not attested as compounds in their full forms for example *boost* from *boom + hoist*, *brunch* from *breakfast + lunch, smog* from *smoke + fog, Swenglish* from *Swedish + English* (Plag 2003 155, 156) (Bauer 1983, 234, 235).

One of the blend properties that can be mentioned is, according to Plag, the blending rule AB + CD → AD, which is observed in the majority of blends. For example, *g-oat + sh-eep → geep* and *b-oat + ho-tel → boatel.* He also claims, there can be blends where one of the BC part is not deleted, g*uess + estimate → guesstimate.* Furthermore, Plag also mentions one of the exceptions to the rule where AB + CD → AC, *mo-dulator + demodulator → modem,* however, he states that in general blends which do not correspond to the AD structure are in the minority (Plag 2003, 156,157). Another property which Plag observes, is the number of syllables in the majority of blends are the same as the number of syllables in their second elements. Such an observation can be seen in following blends, *boat, hotel→ boatel/ 1, 2→ 2, boot, hoist→ boost/ 1, 1→ 1, breakfast, lunch→ brunch/ 2, 1→ 1, Swedish, English→ Swenglish/ 2, 2→ 2, stagnation, inflation→ stagflation/ 3, 3→ 3, goat, sheep→ geep/ 1, 1→ 1* (Plag 2003, 159, 160).

Finally, it is difficult to recognize blends as some of them are so well installed in the lexicon that most speakers are unaware of the fact that they are coined from two words e.g. *boost* (Katamba 1994, 128). Bauer also describes that the clearest example of a blend is one where the etymology of the root is unclear unless it is explained (Bauer 2003, 234). To conclude, Bauer and Plag generally agree on blending and they are not in conflict.

2.4 Conversion

This part of the paper deals with conversion, which is another very productive process of word-formation. It starts with the definition and then possible kinds of conversions are mentioned.

According to Plag, Bauer and Jackson, conversion is a process where a word is converted from one word class to another without a change of form e.g. *to mail/a mail, to call/a call* (Jackson 1988, 32) (Bauer 1983, 227) (Plag 2003, 134). Furthermore, Bauer mentions there are no morphological restrictions which forms can be used for this process, therefore compounds, derivatives, acronyms, blends, clipped forms are all acceptable inputs (Bauer 1983, 226).

Plag classifies conversion into the following kinds: noun > verb, verb > noun, adjective > verb, adjective > noun and other kinds can be found, which Plag considers as marginal e.g. preposition > verb as in *down the can* (Plag 2003, 135). Bauer agrees with Plag's classification, and he also states all word classes are suitable for conversion, especially open word classes such as noun, verb, adjective and adverb. He also gives an example of conversions derived from closed word classes *up* to *up prices*. Furthermore, according to Bauer, even phrasal compounds can undergo conversions, and he gives an example of a phrase acting as an adjective - *under the weather* (Bauer 1983, 229-230). Bauer also deals with partial conversions where a noun ending in a voiceless fricative is turned into a verb by replacing the final consonant with the voiced fricative. He gives examples *belief/ believe*, *advice/advise*. However, according to Bauer, this process in no longer productive (Bauer 1983, 229).

In conclusion, scholars are in agreement when defining conversion. They also specify the same kinds of conversion and Bauer only adds phrase conversion and also deals with partial conversions.

2.5 Back-formation

This part of the paper attempts to define back-formation first and then it explains the difference when compared with affixation. Back-formation is another word-formation process and as the name suggests it is a process where something is reversed, more specifically in this case something is removed.

According to Bauer, Plag and Katamba, back-formation is a process whereby a new lexeme can be coined by deleting an affix from a base (Bauer 1983, 231, 232) (Plag 2003, 48) (Katamba 1994, 128). Such an example is *editor* producing *edit*. Bauer also states that the majority of back-formations are verbs and they usually derive from noun bases and usually are of this type *renovator to renovate* and *actor to act* (Bauer 1983, 230).

When comparing the back-formation with affixation, Bauer explains the general terms on the following formula where X and Y are form classes of lexemes and A is a particular suffix. The affixation formula is $X + A \rightarrow Y$ / *exhibit + -or → exhibitor* and the back-formation formula is $Y - A \rightarrow X$ / *editor - -or → editor* (Bauer 1983, 231). In this formula it can be observed that knowledge of a word's etymology is required to identify its back-formations.

On balance, linguists are in agreement with the definition of back-formation. Furthermore, Bauer distinguishes the difference between affixation and back-formation.

2.6 Shortening

This part of the paper deals with word-formation processes where the main purpose is to shorten the structure. It starts with abbreviations, where possible ways of creating abbreviations are mentioned, then possible orthographic appearances of abbreviations are described and also it deals with a phonological classification of abbreviations. Furthermore, clipping is another shortening process in English explored in this section. It is defined first then classified and the use of affixes *-ie* and *-y* is explained.

2.6.1 Abbreviations

According to Plag and Katamba, abbreviations can be formed by taking initial letters of words in a title or phrase to make up a new word (Plag 2003, 161) (Katamba 1994, 127). For example, *UK* taken from *United Kingdom*. Plag also claims there can be abbreviations that incorporate non-initial letters for example *BSc*, *Bachelor of Science*. Furthermore, he mentions that abbreviations can be either spelled in capital letters *(VAT)* or in lower case letters *(asap)* or in combination of both *(kHz),* with or without use of full stops. (e.g.) (Plag 2003, 161-163).

Plag classifies abbreviations into two following groups. Initialisms which are pronounced by naming each individual letter *NBA* /ɛnbiːˈeɪ/. These words cannot be pronounced as a regular word which means that phonology does not play a prominent role and rather orthography plays a more prominent role than phonology (Plag 2003, 161-163) (Katamba 1994, 127). A second group is called acronyms which are pronounced as a regular word and regular reading rules apply e.g. *NATO* (Plag 2003, 164) (Katamba 1994, 126). Furthermore, Katamba adds that they are usually spelt with capital letters, however some commonly used acronyms are being spelt as a common word after the long-term use such as *Nato* (Katamba 1994, 126).

To summarise, authors are in agreement when they deal with abbreviations. More specifically they agree on the definition and also on its classification based on phonology. Furthermore, an acronym formed with more non-initial letters then initials in its structure will not be considered as an acronym in the analysis.

2.6.2 Clipping

It seems that most linguists agree with the definition of clipping, at least Plag, Bauer and Katamba do as they all defined clipping as a process which cuts off a part of a lexeme while retaining the same meaning and reAmains a member of the same word class (Plag 2003, 154) (Bauer 1983, 233) (Katamba 1994, 124). *Exam* can be mentioned as the result of clipping which was formed from *examination*.

Clipping can be classified into two of the following major groups according to Bauer and Katamba. The first group is fore-clipping where the final part of the lexeme remains such as *plane* which was clipped from *aeroplane*. The second group is back-clipping where the initial part of the lexeme remains e.g. *comp* clipped from *computer* (Bauer 1983, 233) (Katamba 1994, 125). In addition to the major groups, Katamba claims that some lexemes can drop the middle part and he gives an example *vegan* which was formed from *veg-etari-an* (Katamba 1994, 125). Furthermore, Plag mentions that the majority of clipping is usually based on the first part of the base (Plag 2003, 154).

Furthermore, Katamba and Plag claim that clipping can be accompanied by -ie or -y suffix or without any suffix and it is very common in nicknames and familiar versions of names. Also they mention that back-clipping and fore-clipping may take place or occasionally it may be a combination of the two as in *Lizzie* or just *Liz* from *E-liz-abeth* (Katamba 1994, 126) (Plag 2003, 153). A few more examples of clipped names *Andy* from *Andrew*, *Ron* from *Ronald* and *Mel* from *Melissa*.

In conclusion, clipping shortens lexemes without changing the meaning nor the word class. Every part of a lexeme can be deleted. Furthermore, it can be observed that scholars agree on the definition of clipping and its classification.

2.7 Word Manufacture

This part of the paper describes word manufacture. It might be useful for cases where conventional word-formation processes might not be identified.

According to Bauer, the clear case of word manufacture is when a word is created ex nihilo (meaning out of nothing) without morphological, phonological or orthographic motivation. He also claims that it is rare, except in brand names e.g. *Kodak* (Bauer 1983, 239). Kodak is a brand name which is a clear example of ex nihilo. "I devised the name myself. The letter 'K' had been a favourite with me – it seems a strong, incisive sort of letter. It became a question of trying out a great number of combinations of letters that made words starting and

ending with 'K' The word 'Kodak' is the result" George Eastman, on creating the name Kodak < http://photosecrets.com/the-rise-and-fall-of-kodak>.

On the other hand, Bauer also describes the marginal cases of word manufacture. As an example he uses scientific words abstracted from long technical phrases in a way which is similar to blending and acronyming, but where the motivation is far less clear than in those cases *pemoline – **ph**enyli**mino**-oxazo**lidine**, picloram – **am**inotrich**loropic**olinic acid* where the groups of letters taken from the base have been reversed in the final word. These words certainly do not fall into any category of word-formation and may be best described as word manufacture (Bauer 1983, 239).

2.8 Mixed formations

Before this paper ends discussion on word-formation, there is yet another possibility of forming words and it is a mixture of word formations. According to Bauer, two or more word-formation processes are used and the coiner is not restricted to rules of these processes. These methods are very unpredictable. Examples are *poromeric* formed from **poro**sity poly**mer** with suffix *-**ic*** (blending and suffixation)*, scramjet* formed from *supersonic **c**ombustion **ramjet*** (initialism and compounding). Bauer also states that extreme examples of these mentioned types are best treated as word manufacture (Bauer 1983, 239, 240).

This chapter dealt with major word-formation processes such as compounding, affixation, blending, conversion, back-formation, abbreviations, clipping and also looked at word manufacture. Finally, it also described the possibility of mixed formations. The identification tools discussed in this chapter form the basis of the brand name analysis in the following analytical section.

3. Corpus Analysis

This part of the paper concentrates on the analysis. It describes the corpus and then it shows the results of the analysis in order from the highest to the lowest occurrence. Each occurrence is further analysed with the help of data and findings from the theoretical section.

The corpus contains 100 brand names randomly chosen from the internet. These brands were organised alphabetically and then information about their origins was obtained, usually from their websites and in several cases from other sources. Furthermore, in a small number of cases where the information could not be found, companies were contacted via email or through their customer support services. Once the information about brands was gathered, the theoretical data from this paper were applied to identify processes which were used for the creation of these brands. Furthermore, the brands which were created by the same process were listed together for the further analysis. The corpus can be found in *7.1 Appendix 1 The data corpus.*

3.1 Shortening

The highest occurrence in the corpus is shortening, it is found in 24 cases, which makes 24% of all the samples. These cases are mainly abbreviations as only one case of clipping is found in the corpus. A possible explanation for the high occurrence of shortened brand names is practicality. A short structure can be easily received by the recipient, is more graphically focused and less letters means a smaller chance of misspell the name.

One can hardly imagine to communicate via phone using a non-abbreviated form of a long company name such as in the case of *HSBC*, where the opening line would be '*Hello this is the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation, Mr Smith speaking, ...*', when the opening line could be '*Hello this is HSBC, Mr Smith speaking, ...*'. In these examples of opening lines, it can be seen that the eleven syllable brand name is replaced by just the four syllable brand name, which making the second opening line polished and practical, which helps recipients to receive it. Furthermore, the graphic representation of the *HSBC* non-abbreviated form on marketing materials would not be ideal as it would take most of the space and the product would be obscured by the long name. The illustration, here is the possible leaflet heading of the non-abbreviated brand form *The Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation Mortgage Loans* and on the other hand, here is the example of the heading with the abbreviated form *The HSBC Mortgage Loans*, which seems more focused. In addition to the previous points,

most of the internet users would also have a problem with typing the non-abbreviated internet address of *HSBC* as it would be easy to misspell it. The following example illustrates the point *www.hongkongandshanghaibankingcorporation.com.* On the other hand, the example of the abbreviated name internet address is *www.hsbc.com*, where the possibility of misspelling the address is very low when compared with the non-abbreviated case.

In summary, practicality plays an important role when choosing the shortened brand name as a short form is easily communicated, also graphical representations with a short name are more focused and short names lower the possibility of misspelling the brand name when looking for the brand on the internet or just typing the web address into the browser.

3.1.1 Abbreviations

Further investigation shows that abbreviations are found in 23 cases representing 23% of all brand name samples. The most common are initialisms, they are identified in 20 cases, which makes 87% of all abbreviations, further it can be found two cases of abbreviations containing initial and non-initial letters, which accounts for 9% of all abbreviations, and one acronym.

The further observation shows that all abbreviations in the corpus are constructed without the use of full stops, such as *CNN, BBC, BP, MG, UPS, MTV, TVR, DKNY, TESCO.* A possible explanation could be that they do not fit graphically and they make the structure longer. Another explanation could be that they are not relevant as receivers can still recognise abbreviations in branding without them in most cases. Furthermore, all the abbreviations are constructed using capital letters. A possible explanation could be that they are more distinct than lower case letters. Further it can be observed that most abbreviations (61% of all abbreviation samples) contain three letters such as in *UPS, CNN, IBM, KFC, RBS* and *BBC.* Three letters seem prudent as the name has a beginning, middle and end. However, if only two founders decided to use an initialism, adding an extra letter just to have a middle would seem unlikely. Furthermore, the two letter brand names e.g. *BP, MG, BT,* and four letter brand names e.g. *DKNY, ESPN, HSBC, AT&T* are represented in the corpus and each has four cases (17% of all abbreviations in the corpus) and there is only one case of a five letter brand in *TESCO* (5% of all abbreviations).

In summary, most abbreviations in branding seem to be structured using capital letters, without the use of full stops, containing two, three or four letters and are mainly initialisms.

3.1.1.1 Initialisms

Initialisms are in the majority of abbreviations. It could be suggested that when an abbreviation process takes place in branding, the most likely result will be an initialism. It is also a very effective solution for shortening long structures which could also explain the high occurrence in the corpus. Examples of initialisms from the corpus include *AMD* formed form *Advanced Micro Devices*, *IBM* formed from *International Business Machines*, *DHL* formed from *Dalsey, Hillblom, Lynn*.

Further examination of the corpus shows that initialisms are formed from structures which describe the product such as is in *AMD* which was formed from *Advanced Micro Devices*, *HTC* from *High Tech Computers*, *IBM* from *International Business Machines;* which describe the company such as in *BBC* which was formed from *British Broadcasting Corporation, BP* from *British Petroleum, RBS* from *Royal Bank of Scotland;* which are formed from founders' surnames such as in *DHL* which was formed from *Dalsey, Hillblom* and *Lynn, H&M* from *Hennes* and *Mauritz, HP* from *Hewlett* and *Packard;* and one case where a painting title was used such as in case of *HMV* which was formed from *His Master's Voice*, which seems to be an exception. Therefore, it can be stated that initialisms are mainly formed from product descriptions or business descriptions or founders' surnames.

Furthermore, in this category can be found five possible cases where an initialism process could be used for the purpose to hide the original meaning of the brand as it was no longer relevant or wanted such as in *AT&T (American Telephone and Telegraph),* here the company offers more services (such as the internet), *BP (British Petroleum)* its business activities were extended (for example the gas business)*, HSBC (Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation)* and *RBS* (*Royal Bank of Scotland)* expanded and offer services globally, in the case of *KFC (Kentucky Fried Chicken),* the New World Encyclopedia mentions that *KFC* started to use the abbreviated name to hide *fried* as it is no longer considered healthy diet option nowadays and defines this case as a pseudo-acronym <http://www.newworldencyclopedia.org/entry/Acronym_and_initialism>.

A closer look at this category also shows that there are three cases of initialisms which use ampersands e.g. *AT&T - American Telephone and Telegraph, B&Q - Block and Quayle,* and *H&M – Hennes and Mauritz.* A possible explanation could be that it is just used as a stylistic representation of *and*. However, if ampersands were replaced by *and* illustrated in the following examples *AT and T*, *B and Q, H and M*, these brands would not look as polished as with the use of ampersands and their structures would be longer. Furthermore, if ampersands were replaced by letters *A* in these already mentioned examples it would create acronyms as receivers would

not know that letters *A* are representations of *and* e.g. *ATAT*, *BAQ*, and *HAM*. Therefore, it can be suggested that an ampersand plays a stylistic role and also it is a clear representation of *and* in initialisms. In addition, it could also help to remember the brand as an ampersand is not widely used and Batey mentions that a brand containing a not commonly used letter such as *X* helps consumers to remember the name as in these following examples *Rolex, Radox* and *Xerox* (Batey 2008, 148).

In summary, most initialisms seem to be formed from product descriptions, company descriptions or founders' names. Furthermore, this process can be also used when rebranding a company name which is no longer relevant or wanted. It can also be suggested that ampersands are used for the stylistic purposes as well as for the clear representation of *and*.

3.1.1.2 Abbreviations Containing Initial and Non-initial Letters

There are only two cases in this category (9% of all abbreviations) which shows they are exceptions to the norm than anything else. In the case of *TVR* which was formed from *Trevor,* which is the first name of the founder, it seems that it is a clear exception as there is no other brand name in the corpus which would be formed just from the first name of the founder and in addition using non-initial letters. In the case of *MTV,* which was formed from *Music Television,* where *television* is a neoclassical compound formed from *tele + vision,* can be seen that some abbreviated forms which use noninitial letters are kind of initialisms formed from compound elements. This shows that *TV* could be considered as a kind of initialism, therefore *MTV* too, however, compounds are indivisible units, therefore it is considered a non-initial abbreviation in this paper. Furthermore, it can be presumed that there are many other brands using the *TV* abbreviation which means that *MTV* should not be considered a lone exception. Therefore, brand abbreviations containing initials and non-initials are not exceptions they are just the minority.

3.1.1.3 Acronym

In the corpus, there is just one example of acronym, which is represented by *TESCO,* which appears consecutively form the founder's name *T. E. Stockwell Cohen.* It can be observed that this acronym was formed mainly from initial letters and only one non-initial letter was used. Furthermore, this acronym is the only case in the corpus and when compared with the number of initialisms, it could be presumed that in branding acronyms are in the minority and probably formed coincidently when an abbreviation process takes a place.

3.1.2 Clipping

Clipping has only one representation in the corpus and that is *CO-OP*. It is a clear case of making a structure shorter and it was formed using a back-clipping from *Co-operative,* which describes the company. The numbers show that this process is not used often when a brand name is created.

In sum, shortening should be considered as a major player in branding especially abbreviations and more specifically initialisms, which is found in the majority cases (20% of all brand name samples, 87% of all abbreviations and 83% of all shortenings). The other processes such as abbreviations using initial and no-initial letters, acronym and clipping are found less frequently (17% of all shortenings). Furthermore, the most likely appearance of brand abbreviations is with use of capital letters and without using full stops. A possible reason for the use of shortened names is the practicality and occasionally to change a name which is no longer relevant or wanted.

3.2 Proper Names

The second highest occurrences in the corpus is the use of proper names, it is found in 22 cases, which makes 22% of all corpus samples. The use of a founder name is in the majority in this category as it is used in 18 cases which accounts for 82% of all proper names in the corpus. Furthermore, proper names can be categorised into the following five groups: a full name, a surname, a surname with an inflectional suffix, a geographical name and the other name.

The highest occurrence in the proper names is surnames with 12 cases (which makes 55% of all proper names in the corpus). Here are a few examples *Dell* from *Michael Dell, Heinz* from *Henri J Heinz, Cadbury* from *Jon Cadbury* and *Ford* from *Henry Ford,* where only the surnames were used for the brand names. Most of the surnames were taken from names of founders and there is only one exception in this category, where a surname was used to give tribute to someone, more specifically to *Lord Lonsdale,* who organized the first boxing match with gloves, and his surname was used for *Lonsdale.*

The second highest occurrence is a surname with an inflectional suffix which can be found in 5 cases (which makes 23% of all proper names in the corpus) e.g. *Harrods* from *Charles Henry Harrod, Twinings* from *Thomas Twining* and *Walkers* from *Joseph Walker,* where the surnames were used with an inflectional suffix *s or 's* for the brand names. All the surnames in this category are taken from names of the founders. Inflectional suffixes in

branding play the same role as when they are used conventionally, s – plural and *'s* – possessive, however according to DePuy, the strong role of the internet in marketing pushed the majority of companies using an apostrophe in their names to rebrand and omit the apostrophes from their names. In addition, some companies changed their names in this way even before the age of the internet to simplify their names (Depuy 2013). Therefore, the plural inflection *s* is ambiguous in branding and can also represent the possessive state.

The third and fourth highest occurrences are a full name which can be found in 2 cases (9% of all proper names in the corpus) e.g. *Ted Baker* and *John Lewis,* where full names of the founders were used, and a geographical name which has 2 occurrences (9% of all proper names in the corpus) e.g. *Amazon,* which was used for its vastness as the owner wanted the name which represents something vast, and *Santander,* which is the name of the town where the company started its business. The last one is the other name which has only one case (5% of all proper names in the corpus) in case of *Nike* which is the name of the goddess who personifies victory and possibly the company wanted to use this personification for their products.

In summary, most of the brands comprise of proper names use either full names or just surnames of the founders (82% of all proper names in the corpus). In addition, there can be found two geographical names, one name from Greek mythology and one surname, which was used to honour someone but it was not the founder, in this category.

3.3 Compounding

The third highest occurrence in the corpus is compounding, it was found in 20 cases, which makes 20% of all samples. Furthermore, all compound samples are nouns and the result of naming a new product or a new company by a name which has not been used in branding before.

Further it can be observed that 95% of all compounds contain two words such as in *Pizza Hut, Burger King, Coffee Republic* and *Top Gear*. There is only one occurrence, which contains three words such as in *Whole Foods Market*. It was mentioned in the branding chapter that a brand name should be short, which possibly explains the use of two words mainly. The analysis also shows that compounds in branding are usually used with a space (10 cases - 50% of all compounds) or solid (9 cases - 45% of all compounds). Only one case of a hyphenated compound was found in the corpus and that was in *Coca-Cola* (5% of all compounds). Here the possible explanation could be that the company has to choose which of the possible representations fits better to its design, as the space or hyphenation or solid formation does not change the meaning of the brand name. Hyphenated compounds are in the minority possibly

because a brand containing a hyphenation can become awkwardly long for its graphic representation. It can be seen on the example of *Coca-Cola* where the company also use the shorter name *Coke* for some of their graphic representations such as in *Diet Coke.*

Further investigations of the compounds also reveal that there are 9 cases of the *noun + noun* structure (45% of all compounds) as in the following examples *Body Shop, Pizza Hut, Cargiant, Poundland and Coffee Republic*. Most of these names suggest something about the company (78% of all noun + noun compounds) such as in *Body Shop,* which suggests that the shop offers products that look after a consumer's body; *Pizza Hut* suggests a place where a pizza can be purchased; *Poundland,* which suggests a place where everything is for a pound; and *Coffee Republic,* which suggests that coffee can be purchased in the place. Only two cases suggest something about the product such as in *Coca-Cola,* which suggests that it contains these ingredients, and *Facebook* suggests a book, in which faces can be stored by their users. Further it can be seen that the first nouns in the structures are all descriptive as they describe the product which can be purchased (*Car, Burger and Coffee*) or describe what the product can be used for (*Body* and *Face)* or describe other properties, for example the price of the product (*Pound) or* what it may contain (*Coca).* The second nouns in the structures are also descriptive and they describe places (*Land, Republic, Shop and Hut)* or characters (*King* and *giant*) or things (*book and Cola*).

Furthermore, there are 8 cases of the *adjective + noun* structure (40% of all compounds) for example *EasyJet, Pure Gym, Red Bull and Scottish Widows*. Most of these names suggest something about the company (63% of all *adjective + noun* compounds) such as in *EasyJet,* which suggests that the company provides easy traveling with their jets*; Pure Gym,* suggesting that the company provides only gyms; *Superdrug,* which suggests that company sells only high quality drugs; and *Topshop,* suggesting a high-end shop. Only three cases suggest something about the product such as in *Red Bull* which suggests the behavioural characteristic of a red bull, Strongbow suggests a property of a strong bow and *Top Gear* which suggests a product concern with cars. Further it can be seen that adjectives modify the nouns and add more description such as *pure, red, Scottish or strong.* The nouns in the *adjective + noun* structures have the same function as the second nouns in the *noun + noun* structures, they are also descriptive and describe places, characters and things (*Gym, Widow* and *Jet*).

Furthermore, there are only two cases of the structure (10% of all compounds) containing a word from the closed word classes plus a noun such as the *preposition + noun* structure in *Under Armour*, where the preposition specifies the place and the head describes the item; and the *pronoun + noun* structure in *YouTube,* where the pronoun points at the users of

the product and the head describe the product. Both mentioned examples suggest something about the product.

Furthermore, there is only one case containing the *compound + noun* structure in *Whole Foods Market*, where the compound *Whole foods* carries the meaning unprocessed, unrefined foods and modifies the head, and the entire name at the end describes the market, which offers unprocessed, unrefined foods. This example suggests something about the company.

Furthermore, it can be observed that most of the compounds in the corpus are endocentric (19 cases, 95% occurrence in compounds) such as *Poundland,* which consists of the semantic head *land* which is modified by *pound*. There is only one example of a copulative compound *Coca-cola,* where the result is a sum of the elements, in which the drink used to contain coca leaves and kola nut. It has been mentioned in *1.0 Brand Name* that a brand name should be meaningful and endocentric compounds contain the meanings in their structures therefore this could explain such a high occurrence of endocentric compounds in branding. Further it can be observed that all the endocentric compounds are subordinated and only the case of the copulative compound is coordinated.

Furthermore, the theoretical section mentions that compounding is one of the most productive processes in English word-formation and the corpus confirms that it is also a very productive way for creating brand names. Possible explanations could be that compounds can be easily decodable by the addressee which helps brand managers give a meaning to a product or company and possibly to set the company direction as in *Pure Gym* where the meaning and direction is clear as this company offers only a gym and not a swimming pool or sauna or coffee shop. Furthermore, Watkins mentions that a brand containing two words can help companies to save finances as they can purchase an inexpensive domain and an extra modification can help to differentiate the brand from its competitors which can also help customers to find the brand on the internet through search engines (Watkins 2014, 41). This could also be the reason why compounding is a productive process, especially in the case of a start-up company, which cannot yet commit substantial resources to branding. Furthermore, it can be seen that most of the compounds in the corpus are unique names for example *Red bull, Coffee Republic* and *YouTube,* which suggests that compounding could also be used for creating a unique name which can be easily trademarked.

In summary, compound brand names are nouns and the majority contain two words. These words are mainly in combination of *noun* or *adjective + noun* (85% of all brand compounds). The other combinations such as *pronoun* or *preposition* or *compound + noun*, are used less frequently (15% of all brand compounds). Furthermore, brand compounds are mainly

endocentric and subordinated (95% of all brand names). Brand compounds mainly appear with a space (50% of all compounds) or solid (45% of all brand compounds), hyphenated structures are in the minority and only found in 5% of all compounds. Elements of brand names are usually descriptive and suggest something either about the company or product. Possible reasons for the use of compounding in brands could be that they are unique, decodable by recipients without an explanation and an extra word can help to add meaning, differentiate the product and acquire an inexpensive internet domain.

3.4 Blending

The fourth highest occurrence in the corpus is blending. It was found in 15 cases, which is 15% of all samples in the corpus. Further investigations of these cases show that 47% of all blends samples are formed from existing compounds. For example, *Ebay, Npower* and *Intel* were formed from already existing compounds *Echo Bay, national power* and *integrated electronics*. On the other hand, the rest of the blends are created from word forms which are not compounds such as *Netflix, Milka and Microsoft* which were formed from *internet + flix, milk + kakao* and *microprocessor + software.* This possibly shows that both types of blends can be found in branding and none of these types is dominant.

Furthermore, the examination of the blend samples shows that the number of syllables in brand blends are not the same as the number of syllables in their second elements in the majority of cases, more precisely in 11 cases, which is 73% of all blends from the corpus. Here are a few examples from the corpus, where this observation can be seen, *echo, bay→ ebay/ 2, 1→ 2, integrated, electronics→ intel/ 4, 4→ 2, Adi, Dasler→ Adidas/ 2, 2→ 3 and Internet, phone→ Iphone 3, 1→ 2.* This does not correspond with the blend property mentioned in *2.3 Blending*, which describes that the number of syllables in majority of blends are the same as the number of syllables in their second elements. Furthermore, there is also mentioned that the majority of blends are in accordance with the blending rule *AB + CD → AD.* However, none of the blend samples from the corpus follow this rule. Therefore, occurrences of blends from the corpus can be categorised into the following four blending structures *AB + CD → ACD, AB + CD → AC, AB + CD → ABC* and *AB + CD → BCD.*

The first type is the *AB + CD → ACD* structure (6 cases - 40% of all blends from the corpus) where the blend uses the front part from the first word and the full form from the second word such as in *Nescafé* which was formed from *Nes-tle + café, Npower* from *n-ational + power, Swatch* from *s-econd + watch.* Furthermore, it can be observed that most of the *AB*

words modify the *CD* words such as in *internet phone, second watch* and *nestle café*. Moreover, in most of the cases the *A* parts seem to be long enough to allow addressees to guess the meaning when taking the *CD* words into consideration such as in *IPhone* – where *I* stands for *internet, Npower* – where *N* stands for *national, Swatch* – where *S* stands for *second*. Therefore, it can be presumed that most of this type of blends can be almost decodable without an explanation.

The second type is the *AB + CD → AC* structure (4 cases - 27% of all blend samples from the corpus) where the blend uses front parts from each word as in the example of *Intel* which was formed from *inte-grated + el-ectronics, FedEx* from *fed-eral + ex-press* and *Texaco* from *Texa-s + co-mpany*. Furthermore, it can be observed that *AB* words modify *CD* words such as in *federal express*, *integrated electronics* and *Texas company*. Moreover, the *A* parts are *fed, int, micro* and *texa* and the *B* parts are *ex, el, soft* and *co*. Some of these parts seem familiar as abbreviations such as *co* for *company* and *fed* for *federal*, however to guess the right meanings of all given examples seems very unlikely. Therefore, it can be presumed that once both words have their parts omitted, guessing the meaning of the result seems to be harder than in the previously mentioned type *AB + CD → ACD*.

The third type is the *AB + CD → ABC* structure (4 cases - 27% of all blends from the corpus) where the blend uses the full form from the first word and the front part from the second word such as in *Skype* which was formed from *sky + pe-er, Milka* from *milk + ka-kao* and *Adidas* from *Adi + Das-ler*. Furthermore, observations show that *AB* words do not always modify *CD* words in blending as in the case of *Lego* which formed from *leg* (play) + *go-dt* (well) where the *AB* is a verb post-modified by the *CD*, which is an adverb. Moreover, the *C* parts are *Das, go, ka* and *pe,* and probably none of these parts help the addressee to guess the right meaning even with the help of the *AB* words. This type of structure does not omit parts from both words and still guessing seems to be as hard as in the previous type *AB + CD → AC*. It should be taken into consideration that some of these cases of *AB + CD → ABC* do not contain word from English such as *leg* and *godt* which are Danish words.

The fourth type is the *AB + CD → BCD* structure (1 case) where the blend uses the rear part of the first word and the full form from the second word such as in the case of *Netflix* which was formed from *inter-net + flix*. In this case the guessing would be very easy as the *B* part *net* could be identified as the result of fore-clipping, therefore this case can be decodable without any problems as it looks like an ordinary compound. However, it is only one case, therefore it cannot be presumed that it is always easy to guess the result of these types of blends.

From these four types of brand blends it can be seen that some structures are more decodable than others. Especially the structure result *ACD* which seem to be the most easily

decodable and possibly this is the reason for the highest occurrence in the blend samples. Moreover, a full word in the result can also help to decode the meaning, which might explain why the majority of blends in branding consist of a full word *AB* or *CD* in the result as it occurs in 11 cases which makes 73% of all blends samples.

Furthermore, in the brand samples the *AB* word can be a noun (7 cases), an adjective (3 cases), a proper name (3 cases), a verb (1 case) and number (1 case). And *CD* word can be a noun (12 cases), proper name (2 cases) and adverb (1 case). Most of the *CD* words describe the brand such as *phone, café, watch, software* and *flix*. Also the majority of *AB* words for example *internet, national, second, federal* and *integrated* specify the *CD* words. Furthermore, all brand blend results are nouns and they name a new product or a new company.

Most of these names are unique, which gives the creator a chance to register it as a company name or trademark without impediment and get an inexpensive internet domain. They are also short, easy to pronounce and their spelling makes some of the names very suggestive. For example, *swatch* suggests something about the watch but it could be silver or second or Swiss or other; and *IPhone* suggests a phone with internet or an internet phone or a pronoun I and a phone or other. All these mentioned advantages could be the possible explanation for the use of blends in branding.

To conclude, the observations point out at the unpredictability of blending as no single brand blend complies with the blending rule $AB + CD \rightarrow AD$ and the majority of the blend samples conflict with the rule which states that the number of syllables in a majority of blends are the same as the number of syllables in their second elements. Furthermore, a majority of brand blends keep one of the words in its full form. There are four types of blends identified in the corpus $AB + CD \rightarrow ACD$, $AB + CD \rightarrow AC$, $AB + CD \rightarrow ABC$ and $AB + CD \rightarrow BCD$. A possible reason for the use of blends in branding could be that they are unique, short, easy to pronounce, suggestive, can be registered, and can ensure getting an inexpensive domain.

3.5 Word Manufacture

Word manufacture was found in 6 cases in the corpus which makes 6% of all brand samples. The theoretical part, more precisely in *2.7 Word Manufacture*, mentions that this process is rare except for the use in brand names and it can be observed that this process does not have the highest occurrence, however it is used in branding moderately. Several examples from the corpus are *Castrol* coined from *castor oil, Lexus* from *Alexis* and *Lucozade* from *glucose aid.* Furthermore, the examination of word manufacture samples shows that all the cases are not

clear ex nihilo as they each has a bases from which they were coined from. These bases are nouns or proper names such as *castor oil, googol, Christopher Cattling* and *glucose aid*. The most coinages consist of one word such as *Castrol*, *Google, Lexus* and *Lucozade,* or two words such as *Kit Kat* and *TK Maxx*. The purpose for the use of word manufacture could be that the results are short, unique and are easy to pronounce. Furthermore, uniqueness makes them easy to register as a brand and the possibility to obtain an inexpensive internet domain.

3.6 Minor Occurrences

This part of the paper investigates minor occurrences which account for 5% or below in the corpus. These are common nouns, mixed formations, borrowing and *affixation*.

Common nouns were found in 3 cases which is 3% of all the corpus samples. These cases are *Visa, Yahoo!* and *Jaguar*. *Jaguar* was used as a representation of something larger as according to Deakin it represents the abandonment of the previous motorcycle sidecars production (Deakin 2007, 145). *Visa* was used for its phonetic property, which allows almost the same pronunciation of the brand around the world as the company representatives explained; *Yahoo!,* was chosen as according to Wikipedia the owners liked its slang definition of the rural southerner *<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Yahoo!>*. There are plenty of common nouns in the lexicon and a possible explanation why they are not used more is that they cannot be registered as trademarks. For example, *Yahoo!* had to add an exclamation mark to be able to register its name. This problem could be decisive as companies probably do not want to work with brands which cannot be protected.

Mixed formations are found in 3 cases, which make up 3% of the corpus. Such examples are *UK Mail* formed from *United Kingdom Mail,* where a combination of compounding and abbreviation took a place; *Toys R us* from *Toys are us* abbreviation and compounding was used; *NatWest Bank* from *National Westminster Bank,* where blending and compounding formed the result. Furthermore, it can be observed that all the mixed formations use compounding with either abbreviation or blending. The possible reason why this is a minor process could be that most of the brand name bases might be relatively short and do not require more than one process of word-formation to be used.

Borrowing*,* according to Jackson, many words are incorporated into English from other languages through a process called borrowing (Jackson 1988, 21). One case was found in the corpus in *Acer* which was borrowed from Latin and means sharp. There is only one occurrence in the corpus therefore it cannot be observed which countries most borrowed words come from

in branding and the reason for the usage. It can only be suggested that it is a minor process in branding and a possible reason could be that the audience is not be able to decode the meaning.

Affixation is a process which has only one occurrence in the corpus and this case is not a typical affixation as it uses an English root with a Latin suffix. E.g. *Nutella* which was derived from *nut* and *-ella.* As there are no more other cases, it can only be suggested that affixation is a minor process for creating brand names.

For the completeness of the analysis, the work did not identify 5% of brand names. They were not identified as their bases were unknown. This happened for various reasons such as several companies not explaining the origin of their brands on their websites and not responding when contacted. Moreover, there are two cases where the company representatives do not know the origin of their brand name (*Weetabix, Linksys*) and one case where the founder never explained it and kept it in secret (*7up*).

For a summary of word-formation occurrences, including appearances highlighted in the analysis, refer to the summary table below.

Summary table		
Word-formation occurrence	**Subcategories**	
Shortening 24%	Abbreviation 23%	Initialism 20 %
		Abreviation init. & non-init. letter 2%
		Acronym 1%
	Clipping 1%	
Proper name 22%	Surname 12%	
	Surname with an inflectional suffix 5%	
	Full name 2%	
	Geographical name 2%	
	Other name 1%	
Compounding 20%	Noun compound (noun + noun) 9%	
	Noun compound (adj + noun) 8 %	
	Noun compound (member of the clossed class + noun) 2%	
	Noun compound (compound + noun) 1%	
Blending 15%	Structure AB + CD → ACD 6%	
	Structure AB + CD → AC 4%	
	Structure AB + CD → ABC 4%	
	Structure AB + CD → BCD 1%	
Word manufacture 6%		
Mixed formation 3%		
Common noun 3%		
Loan word 1%		
Suffixation 1%		
Not identified 5%		

4. Conclusion

To conclude this work, the aim of this paper was to map and analyse occurrences of word-formation in branding. Therefore, the aim of the theoretical part was to explain branding and to define word-formation processes and their possible classifications and properties with the help of linguistic literature. The aim of the analytical part was to apply the data from the theoretical part to the corpus to obtain information about word-formation in branding.

At the beginning of the theoretical part, the terms branding, brand and brand name were explained. The following part focused on word-formation, where concepts of word and word formation were defined first. Then processes of word-formation were chosen mainly from Bauer's theory and only shortening was added from Plag's theory. The next part of the theory concentrated on the chosen processes of word-formation. They were defined first and then possible classifications and properties were discussed. It could be seen that scholars were in agreement when defining the word formation processes which were discussed. When dealing with classifications, there were several differences. Therefore, in some cases more than just one classification was used. Furthermore, the theoretical part gathered properties of the processes for better identification.

The practical part used the information gathered in the theoretical part and applied them to the corpus containing 100 brands, randomly selected from the internet, to identify processes which were used for their formations. Furthermore, the brands which were created by the same process were listed together for the further analysis.

To sum up the results, the highest occurrence was shortening (24%). The shortening processes were abbreviations (23%) and clippings (1%). Furthermore, abbreviations were initialisms (20%), abbreviations containing initial and non-initial letters (2%) and acronym (1%). Moreover, the main tendency which was observed in shortening was the use of initialisms in capital letters without full stops.

The second highest occurrence was the use of a proper name (22%). In this category were surnames 12%, surnames with inflectional suffixes (5%), full names (2%), geographical names (2%) and other names (1%). Furthermore, the main tendency observed in proper names was the use of founders' names.

The third highest occurrence was compounding (20%). This category contained noun compounds - a noun + noun (9%), noun compounds - an adjective + noun (8%), noun compounds - a member from the closed word classes + noun (2%) and noun compounds - a

compound + noun (1%). Moreover, the main tendency observed in this category was the use of endocentric and subordinated compounds containing a noun or adjective + noun with a space or solid.

The fourth highest occurrence was blending (15%). They were structures AB + CD → ACD (6%), AB + CD → AC (4%), AB + CD → ABC (4%) and AB + CD → BCD (1%). The main tendency observed in this category was the use of blends containing one of the base words in its full form in the result.

The fifth highest occurrence was word manufacture (6%) where the main tendency observed was that the majority of cases are not clear ex nihilo as their bases were known. Following were mixed formation (3%), common noun (3%) and one case of borrowing and one case of suffixation. Furthermore, 5% of brands were not identified. The occurrence below 5% were not evaluated.

To conclude on the results, the main processes used in branding are initialisms, proper names (which use either full names or just surnames of the founders), endocentric compounding and blending. Furthermore, it can be also mentioned that the process of word manufacture is moderately used in branding.

Furthermore, it was observed that for the creation of a short name, shortening processes, blending and word manufacture could be used. For getting a unique name which can be easily trademarked and ensuring an inexpensive internet domain, blending, word manufacture and compounding could be used. For differentiation of a name which is not unique, compounding could be used. For getting a credible name, the name of the founder could be used. And for hiding an unwanted or no longer relevant name, an abbreviation could be used. Nevertheless, it should be taken into consideration that there were not enough analysed brands to state definitive results.

5. Resumé

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá slovotvorbou v obchodních značkách. Jedním z hlavních cílů této práce je popsat jednotlivé procesy slovotvorby, určit jejich specifické znaky, charakteristiku, možné klasifikace a poté tyto informace aplikovat na náhodně vybrané obchodní značky. Dalším cílem je identifikovat procesy používané v obchodních značkách a tyto slovotvorné procesy dále prostudovat a pokusit se vysvětlit důvod pro jejich používání. Tato práce se skládá ze dvou částí, teoretické a praktické. Teoretická část obsahuje dvě kapitoly a praktická obsahuje jen jednu.

První kapitola vysvětluje pojmy branding, obchodní značku a obchodní název. Nejprve jsou v této části vysvětleny termíny branding, brand equity (jmění obchodní značky) a brand management. Dále se tato část soustředí na definování obchodní značky a také vysvětluje rozdíl mezi značkou a produktem. Konec první kapitoly vysvětluje obchodní název a doporučuje, jaké by měly být jeho vlastnosti. Odborné pojmy v této kapitole jsou vysvětleny na určitých příkladech.

Druhá kapitola se zabývá slovotvorbou. Na začátku této části je definováno slovo a slovotvorba. Dále je tato kapitola rozdělena na několik podkategorií a každá z nich se zabývá slovotvorným procesem. Tyto procesy jsou nejprve definovány a následně jejich vlastnosti a možné klasifikace popsány.

Jako první je popsán proces skládání (compounding), který je velmi produktivní v anglickém jazyce. Je to proces, kde výsledné slovo je složeno ze dvou anebo více slov. Tyto složeniny se mohou klasifikovat dle výsledné struktury na: jmenné, slovesné, adjektivní, adverbiální atd. dle slovního druhu. Dále se dají klasifikovat dle významu, a to na druhy: obsahující význam (endocentric), neobsahující význam uvnitř slova (exocentric), kde výsledek je součet významů použitých slov (copulative) a kde obsažená slova jsou si navzájem druhem (appositional). Je zde také možnost rozdělit složeniny na podřízené a koordinované. Podřízené jsou ty, kde je jedno slovo podřízené druhému, a koordinované jsou ty, kde jsou slova na stejné úrovní a není žádné z těchto slov podřízené.

Následný proces, který je popsán, je odvozování (derivace), který je také velmi produktivní v anglickém jazyce pro obohacování slovní zásoby. Je to proces, který je prováděn v angličtině za pomocí afixů. Odvozená slova se mohou klasifikovat podle druhu použitých afixů na odvozené za pomocí předpon anebo přípon. Předpony se dále dají rozdělit na ty, které

mění slovní druh a na ty, které slovní druh nemění. Přípony se mohou klasifikovat podle výsledku, který vyprodukují, a to na: jmenné, slovesné, adjektivní a adverbiální.

Další proces, který je popsán v této části, vytváří takzvaná kufříková slova (blending). Je to proces, který zkombinuje dvě slova dohromady a vynechá část z jednoho nebo z obou slov. Tyto kufříková slova se dají dále klasifikovat na ty, která: byla vytvořena z existujících složenin (compounds), nebyla vytvořena z existujících složenin, což znamená použití slov, která se spolu v kombinaci v jednom významu běžně nepoužívají.

V následné podkategorii je vysvětlen proces konverze. Je to proces, kde slovo konvertuje z jednoho slovního druhu do jiného bez změny formy. Konverze se dají klasifikovat dle druhu změny, a to na změnu: ze slovesa na podstatné jméno, z podstatného jména na sloveso, z přídavného jména na sloveso, z přídavného jména na podstatné jméno a další.

Následující proces, který je popsán, je zpětná formace (back-formation). Zpětná formace je proces, při kterém je slovo vytvořeno za pomocí odebrání afixu. Nově vzniklá slova při tomto procesu jsou většinou slovesa, která vznikla z podstatných jmen.

Další podkategorie se zabývá zkracováním. Zde jsou uvedeny procesy vytvářející zkratky a je tu také uveden proces zkracování za pomoci odstřihnutí části slova (clipping). Zkratky se dají vytvářet za pomoci použití pouze iniciálních písmen slov (iniciálami) a také za pomoci použití iniciálních a ostatních písmen slov. Pokud se dá zkratka přečíst jako běžné slovo, je tento výsledek nazýván akronym. Clipping je proces, kde je část slova odstřihnuta a význam slova se nezmění a toto slovo také nezmění slovní druh. Tento proces se da rozdělit podle části slova, která byla odstřižena, na přední a zadní část střihu. Také zde může nastat i případ, kdy se odstřihne jak přední, tak i zadní část slova pro tvorbu nového tvaru.

Další uvedený proces, který je popsán, je neobvyklé sestavování slov (word manufacture). Tento proces se da vysvětlit na dvou příkladech, a to na vytvoření slova bez morfologického nebo fonologického nebo ortografického podmětu (ex nihilo) a na vytvoření slova ze slovních částí procesem, který nelze identifikovat jako klasický slovotvorný proces.

Poslední podkategorie v této části zmiňuje možnost použití více slovotvorných metod najednou pro vytvoření nového slova. Tento způsob se nazývá mix slovotvorných procesů (mixed formation).

Třetí kapitola této práce je analytická. Nejprve je zde popsán vzorek, který obsahuje sto různých obchodních značení, které byly náhodně získané na internetu. Následně jsou zde představeny výsledky, které byly získány na základě aplikování dat z teoretické části na vzorku. Výsledky jsou uvedeny v podkapitolách, které jsou představeny dle kvantitativního výskytu daného slovotvorného procesu ve vzorku od nejvyššího po nejnižší. Výskyty slovotvorných

procesů pod hranící pěti procent ve vzorku jsou uvedeny společně v jedné podkategorii. Dále také procesy určené pro zkracování jsou uvedeny v jedné podkapitole.

Každá podkategorie představí celkový výskyt slovotvorného procesu ve vzorku. Nejprve počet případů a následně uvede výskyt v procentech. Dále jsou představena podrobnější zkoumání daného slovotvorného procesu. Podrobnější analýza popisuje vlastnosti výskytů dané slovotvorné metody získané ze vzorku a také se je snaží klasifikovat. Spolu s výsledky jsou uváděny příklady ze vzorku, které jsou následně popsány. Na základě těchto výsledků se každá kategorie snaží shrnout převažující tendence v daném slovotvorném procesu. Také jsou zde uvedeny možná odůvodnění pro použití zkoumaného procesů v brandingu. V poslední podkategorii, která se zabývá slovotvornými procesy s nízkým výskytem, je vložena tabulka shrnující hlavní výsledky analýzy, které jsou zmiňovány v průběhu celé analytické části.

V závěru je shrnut obsah této práce, jak teoretické, tak i analytické části. Nejprve jsou zde zmíněny hlavní časti teoretické sekce a poté jsou uvedeny shrnuté výsledky analýzy. Tyto výsledky jsou uvedeny procentuálně a seřazeny pode výskytu slovotvorného procesu ve vzorku. U procesů, kde byl výskyt vyšší než 5 %, je také uvedena hlavní tendence při používání dané slovotvorby, která byla získána na základě analýzy výsledků jednotlivého slovotvorného procesu. Je zde také udělaný závěr o tom, jaké hlavní slovotvorné procesy se používají v brandingu. Dále jsou zde uvedeny možné motivy, které mohou nastat pří vytváření obchodních značek, a které typy slovotvorby jsou pro ně vhodné.

V příloze této bakalářské práce je přiložen vzorek, který byl použit v analýze. Je seřazen podle výskytu slovotvorných procesů a dále jsou data v těchto procesech seřazena abecedně. Také jsou zde vloženy reference, které byly použity na identifikaci jednotlivých slovotvorných procesů.

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7. Appendix

7.1 Appendix 1 The data corpus

Corpus

Shortening (24%)

    Abbreviation (23%)

        Initialism (20%)

        AMD - **A**dvanced **M**icro **D**evices - Initialism

        AT&T - **A**merican **T**elephone and **T**elegraph - Initialism

        B&Q - **B**lock and **Q**uayle - Initialism

        BBC - **B**ritish **B**roadcasting **C**orporation - Initialism

        BP - **B**ritish **P**etroleum - Initialism

        BT - **B**ritish **T**elecom - Initialism

        CNN - **C**able **N**ews **N**etwork - Initialism

        DHL - **D**alsey, **H**illblom, **L**ynn. Initialism

        DKNY - **D**onna **K**aren **N**ew **Y**ork - Initialism

        ESPN - **E**ntertainment and **S**ports **P**rogramming **N**etwork - Initialism

        H&M - **H**ennes and **M**auritz - Initialism

        HMV - **H**is **M**aster's **V**oice - Initialism

        HP - **H**ewlett **P**ackard - Initialism

        HSBC - **H**ongkong **S**hanghai **B**anking **C**orporation - Initialism

        HTC - **H**igh **T**ech **C**omputers - Initialism

        IBM - **I**nternational **B**usiness **M**achines - Initialism

        KFC - **K**entucky **F**ried **C**hicken - Initialism

        MG - **M**orris **G**arages - Initialism

        RBS - **R**oyal **B**ank of **S**cotland - Initialism

        UPS - **U**nited **P**arcel **S**ervice - Initialism

        Abbreviation with initials and non-initial letters (2%)

        MTV - **M**usic **T**ele**v**ision - Abbreviation

        TVR - **T**re**v**o**r** Wilkinson - Abbreviation

        Acronym (1%)

        TESCO - **T.E**. **S**tockwell **Co**hen - Acronym

Clipping (1%)

CO-OP - **Co-op**erative - Clipping (Back clipping)

Proper names (22%)

Surname (12%)

Babolat - Pierre Babolat - Founder's name

Bentley - H.M. Bentley and W.O. Bentley Founders' names

Boeing - William Boeing - Founder's name

Cadbury - Jon Cadbury- Founder's name

Dell - Michael Dell - Founder's name

Dyson - James Dyson - Founder's name

Ford - Henry Ford - Founder's name

Goodyear - Charles Goodyear - Founder's name

Heinz - Henry J. Heinz - Founder's name

Lonsdale - Tribute to Lord Lonsdale, who organized the first boxing match with gloves

Nestle - Henri Nestle - Founder's name

Firestone - Harvey Firestone - Founder's name

Surname with an Inflectional suffix (5%)

Foster's - W.M. and R.R. Foster - Founders' names with an Inflectional suffix

Harrods - Charles Henry Harrod - Founder's name with an Inflectional suffix

Selfridges - Harry Gordon Selfridge + s - Founder's name with an Inflectional suffix

Twinings - Thomas Twining - Founder's name with an Inflectional suffix

Walkers - Joseph Walker + s - Founder's name with an Inflectional suffix

Full name (2%)

John Lewis - Founder's name

Ted Baker - Founder's name

Geographical name (2%)

Amazon - Proper name

Santander - Proper name

Other name (1%)

Nike - Greek goddess who personifies victory - Proper name

Compounding (20%)

Noun compound (noun + noun) (9%)

Body Shop - Body + Shop - Compound

Burger King - Burger + King - Compound

Cargiant - Car + Giant - Compound

Coca-Cola - Coca (leaves) + Kola (nuts) - Compound

Coffee Republic - Coffee + Republic - Compound

Facebook - Face + Book - Compound

Pizza Hut - Pizza + Hut - Compound

Poundland - Pound + Land - Compound

RyanAir - Ryan + Air - Compound

Noun compound (adj + noun) (8%)

EasyJet - Easy + Jet - Compound

Pure Gym - Pure + Gym - Compound

Red Bull - Red + Bull - Compound

Scottish Widows - Scottish + Widows - Compound

Strongbow - Strong + Bow - Compound

Superdrug - Super + Drug - Compound

Top Gear - Top + Gear - Compound

Topshop - Top + Shop - Compound

Noun compound (member of the closed class + noun) (2%)

Under Armour - Under + Armour - Compound (preposition + noun)

YouTube - You + Tube - Compound (pronoun + noun)

Noun compound (compound + noun) (1%)

Whole Foods Market - Whole Foods + Market

Blending (15%)

AB + CD → ACD (6%)

Ebay - **E**cho + **Bay** - Blend

IPhone - **I**nternet + **Phone** - Blend

Nescafé - **Nes**tle **Café** - Blend

Nesquik - **Nes**tle **Quik** - Blend

Npower - **N**ational + **Power** - Blend

Swatch - **S**econd **Watch** - Blend

AB + CD → AC (4 %)

FedEx - **Fed**eral **Ex**press - Blend

Intel - **Int**egrated **El**ectronics - Blend

Microsoft - **Micro**processor **Soft**ware - Blend

Texaco - **Texa**s **Co**mpany - Blend

AB + CD → ABC (4%)

Adidas - **Adi Das**ler (founder's name) - Blend

Lego - **Leg Go**dt - (Danish words meaning play well) - Blend

Milka - **Milk** + **Ka**kao - Blend

Skype - **Sky Pe**er - Blend

AB + CD → BCD (1%)

Netflix - Inter**net** + **Flix** - Blend

Word manufacture (6%)

Castrol **-** coined from Castor Oil - Word manufacture

Google - coined from Googol mathematical term - Word manufacture

Kit Kat - coined from **Chr**i**st**opher **Cat**tling - Word manufacture

Lexus - coined from Alexis - Word manufacture

Lucozade - coined from Glucose Aid - Word manufacture

TK Maxx - coined from TJ Maxx - Word manufacture

Mixed formation (3%)

NatWest Bank - **Nat**ional **West**minster B**ank** - (Blending + Compounding) - Mixed formation

Toys R us - **Toys** a**re us** - (Abbreviation + Compounding) - Mixed formation

UK Mail - **U**nited **K**ingdom **Mail** (Abbreviation + Compounding) - Mixed formation

Common noun (3%)

Jaguar - A large animal of the cat family - Common noun

Visa - Official signature or endorsement on a passport - Common noun

Yahoo! - Slang for the rural southerner - Common noun

Loan word (1%)
Acer - Latin name for sharp - Loan
Affixation (1%)
Prefixation (0%)
Suffixation (1%)
Nutella - Nut + ella - Affixation (English root + Latin suffix)
Not identified (5%)
Weetabix - Not identified
Sprite - Not identified
7 up - Not identified
Pepsi - Not identified
Linksys - Not identified

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