Jihočeská univerzita v Českých Budějovicích

Pedagogická fakulta

Katedra anglistiky

Bakalářská práce

Compound Nouns and Noun Phrases

Složená podstatná jména a jmenné fráze

Vypracovala: Michaela Bartušová, AJu-SVu, 3. ročník
Vedoucí práce: Mgr. Ludmila Zemková, Ph.D.

České Budějovice 2017

Prohlášení

Prohlašuji, že svou bakalářskou práci jsem vypracovala samostatně pouze s použitím pramenů a literatury uvedených v seznamu citované literatury.

Prohlašuji, že v souladu s § 74b zákona č. 111/1998 Sb. v platném znění souhlasím se zveřejněním své bakalářské práce, a to v nezkrácené podobě elektronickou cestou ve veřejně přístupné části databáze STAG provozované Jihočeskou univerzitou v Českých Budějovicích na jejích internetových stránkách, a to se zachováním mého autorského práva k odevzdanému textu kvalifikační práce. Souhlasím dále s tím, aby toutéž elektronickou cestou byly v souladu s uvedeným ustanovením zákona č. 111/1998 Sb. zveřejněny posudky školitele a oponentů práce i záznam i o průběhu a výsledku obhajoby kvalifikační práce. Rovněž souhlasím s porovnáním textu mé kvalifikační práce s databází kvalifikačních prací Theses.cz provozovanou Národním registrem vysokoškolských kvalifikačních prací a systémem na odhalování plagiátů.

V Českých Budějovicích dne 21. 4. 2017   ....

Michaela Bartušová

Poděkování

Tímto bych chtěla velmi poděkovat své vedoucí bakalářské práce Mgr. Ludmile Zemkové, Ph.D. za odborné vedení, cenné rady a za její vstřícnost a ochotu. Mé poděkování patří též školám Základní škola a Mateřská škola Golčův Jeníkov a Gymnázium Havlíčkův Brod, které mi umožnily zadání testů, jež se staly podkladem praktické části mé bakalářské práce.

Anotace

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá problematikou složených substantiv v anglickém jazyce, konkrétně jejich tvořením a užitím. Teoretická část je zaměřena na popis a výskyt kompozit v angličtině a jejich zvláštnosti. Stěžejním jevem práce jsou substantivní kompozita, jejich druhy a způsoby jejich tvoření. Praktická část zjišťuje, jak velký problém činí zkoumaná kategorie kompozitních substantiv žákům druhého stupně základní školy a žákům nižšího stupně gymnázia. Na základě dotazníku zkoumá, jak se dokážou vypořádat s pravidly tvoření kompozit a s výjimkami při tvoření složených substantiv v současné angličtině.

Abstract

The thesis deals with the rules of compound nouns in English language, specifically with their formation and usage. The theoretical part focuses on the description and occurrence of compounds in English and their specific features. The focus is given to compound nouns, their types and ways of formation. The practical part investigates how complicated these issues are for pupils of primary schools and for pupils of eight-year grammar schools. Based on a questionnaire, it explores how pupils can understand the rules of the compound formation and the exceptions connected to the formation of compound nouns in English language.

Contents

1. Introduction

The thesis *Compound Nouns and Noun Phrases* focuses on one of the most productive word-formation processes in English language which is the process of compounding.

During my studies I was frequently asked by many friends whether they should write certain compound words with a gap, without a gap or rather with the use of a hyphen and whether it remains grammatically correct. Those questions left me wondering whether and how this issue is taught in primary schools and eight-year grammar schools where children's vocabulary starts to take its form.

The thesis is divided into a theoretical part describing the grammar rules of compound nouns and the practical part exploring compound nouns in particular examples.

The initial part of the thesis describes the most important word-formation processes. In this part, processes of derivation, conversion, shortenings, and coinage are described. One chapter is dedicated to the process of compounding and compound words in general. In this chapter, issues connected to compounds in other languages, distinction between compounds and noun phrases, classification of compounds and their specific features are covered. The core of the thesis is devoted to compound nouns as the largest subgroup of all compound words with the focus on their types and specific features like their plural form and their stress placement. In the practical part, the thesis investigates, on the basis of a specially designed test, how children of primary schools and grammar schools are able to use and understand compound nouns.

I.   Theoretical Part

2. Word Formation

Prior to exploring compound nouns, the topics of word-formation and word-formation processes should be discussed together with compounding as one of the most important word-formation processes.

Word-formation is a tradition indication. It is surely useful but, on the other hand, it does not generally cover all possible ways of forming words. The rules of word-formation depend on what counts as a word in different languages.

According to Jesenská, as word-formation processes are considered:

- derivation;
- compounding;
- conversion;
- shortenings (such as blending, clipping, acronyming etc.);
- coinage.

Jesenská further states that from the viewpoint of word-class, word-formation processes can be also divided into two groups:

- class-changing (derivation, conversion, back-formation and compounding belong to this group);
- class-maintaining (derivation, clipping, blending, compounding, acronyming and initialisms belong to this group).

As reported by Crystal, the four main ways of forming new words are prefixation, suffixation, conversion and compounding. Secondary types of word-formation are reduplication and abbreviation such as clipping, acronyming, and blending. On the other hand, Vogel perceives derivation, compounding, conversion and abbreviation (clipping, acronyms and blends) as main word-formation processes and back formation and reduplication as minor word-formation processes.

2.1. Inflection vs. Word-formation

In English language, there is sometimes a problem with distinguishing between inflection and word-formation and this chapter mentions the difference between them.

Berk (1999:53) conveys that inflectional operations can be distinguished from word-formation operations by a range of practical criteria but he claims that even those criteria are problematic. One criterion is that '*an operation of word-formation may impose membership in a particular part-of-speech class, but an operation of inflection cannot'*. (Berk 1999:53) Therefore the part of speech of an expression resulting from a word-formation process may be different from that of the original expression(s). On the other hand, the part of speech of an expression created by the process of inflection cannot change. The other criterion of how to distinguish between inflection and word-formation is the criterion of completeness: '*inflectional operations tend to be complete; operations of word-formation tend not to be'*. (Berk 1999:53). Berk further describes other criteria for distinguishing between inflection and word-formation, e.g., the inflectional operations are in most cases semantically regular. However, word-formation processes are in many cases less than fully regular in their semantic effect. He also claims that the inflection, in contrast with word-formation, is synthetically determined.

2.2. Derivation

Hais defines derivation as a process in which new words are created by adding a prefix or a suffix. He also claims that the prefixes added to a word change the meaning of the word but they do not change a word class of the word. The majority of prefixes in English language comes from the Latin-Greek origin and Hais (1991:322) mentions the most common of them:

- un-: for example, *able - unable*, *certain - uncertain* or *to mask - to unmask;*
- in-: (*im-* before labial consonants, *il-* before l, *ir-* before r) for example, *ability - inability, human - inhuman, justice - injustice, possible - impossible, legal - illegal* or *regular - irregular;*
- dis-: for example, *to agree - to disagree, to continue - to discontinue* or *obedient - disobedient.*

In addition, Hovorková (2004:20) names prefixes that distinguish incorrect performance (ill-: *ill-prepared*, mis-: *misunderstanding*, *misbehave*, mal-: *maltreat*, *maltreatment)*, interaction, membership, refusal or approval (co-: *cooperation*, *coexist*, counter-: *counterweight*, contra-: *contradict*, pro-: *pro-English*, anti-: antimilitarist), low, reduced, high, increased degree (under-: *undercooked*, super-: *supernatural*, ultra-: *ultrasonic*, over-: *overpopulated*, sub-: *subnormal*, multi-: *multipurpose*, mini-: *miniskirt)* and relationship between numbers (mono-: *monolingual*, bi-: *bilateral*, uni-: *unilateral).*

Hais further states that derivation using suffixes is more common in English language than derivation using prefixes and, in contrast with prefixes, the majority of English suffixes is of the English origin. Using suffixes creates not only nouns but also adjectives, verbs, and adverbs. Hais (1991:324) also shows several examples of suffixes deriving nouns such as names of persons or suffixes deriving collective and abstract nouns: -er: *to speak - speaker*, -ee: *to address - addressee*, -eer: *mountain - mountaineer*, -ess: *lion - lioness*, -ist: *copy - copyist*, -ster: *young - youngster*, -age: *short - shortage*, -cy: *normal - normalcy*, -hood: *brother - brotherhood*, -dom: *free - freedom*, -ion (-ation, -tion, -sion, -ssion): *to operate - operation, to combine - combination, to include - inclusion, to submit - submission.*

Hovorková (2004:19) offers several examples of suffixes deriving adjectives, verbs and adverbs:

- suffixes deriving adjectives from nouns and verbs: -ful: *hopeful,* -ical: e*conomical*, -like: *childlike*, -able: *admirable*, -ful: *forgetful*, -ive: *attractive;*
- suffixes deriving adjectives from adverbs and adjectives: -some: *longsome*, -ish: *smallish*, -ward: *westward*, -ly: *kindly;*
- suffixes deriving verbs: -en: *thicken*, -ify: s*implify*, -ize, -ise: *standardize*, *standardise;*
- suffixes deriving adverbs: -ly: *beautifully*, -wise: *crosswise*, -ways: *crossways*.

2.3. Conversion

Following Hovorková, the conversion is a transformation of a word from one word class to another. Hovorková (2004:22) gives several different types of conversion with examples.

- – Noun to verb conversion: for example, *hand* as a noun means part of the body and *hand* as a verb means to give something to someone.
- – Adjective to verb conversion: for example, *clean* as an adjective means net or pure and *clean* as a verb means to wash something to be clean.
- – Adverb to verb conversion: for example, *down* as an adverb means location or direction, on the other hand *down a*s a verb means to lay something somewhere.
- – Verb to noun conversion: for example, *look* as a verb means to gaze but *look* as a noun means rather a view or a sight.
- – Adjective to noun conversion: for example, the adjective *cold* means a quality to be cool while *cold* as a noun means an illness.
- – Noun to adjective conversion: for example, the noun *chief* means boss but *chief* as an adjective means main or major.

According to Hais (1991:320), the partial conversion also exists and he gives several examples:

- – verb to noun conversion (the noun does not have a plural form): *to bathe* and *to have a bath* or *to smoke* and t*o have a smoke;*
- – adjective to noun conversion (the noun does not have a plural form with -s ending): *beautiful* and *the beautiful* or *English a*nd *the English;*
- – noun to attributive adjective conversion (it is not possible to create comparative and superlative forms using the adjective): *iron* and *an iron bar* or *leather* and *a leather binding*.

2.4. Shortenings

Based on Jackson and Zé Amvela, the shortenings include processes such as clipping, backformation and initialism. Clipping is a process during which only a part of the stem is retained. Either the beginning (*lab* from *laboratory*), the end (*phone* from *telephone*),

or the middle can be retained (*flue* from *influenza*). In many cases, the clipped form replaces the original form completely (for example *bus* from *omnibus* or *car* from *motorcar*). (Jackson and Zé Amvela 2007:102) Backformation is creating a new word from an existing word by shortening this word by omitting a morpheme. Initialism is, as reported by Jackson and Zé Amvela (2007:103), an extreme kind of clipping where only the initial letters of words (sometimes initial syllables) are put together and used as words (for example *BD* from *body odour*). In case that the letters are pronounced as individual lexical units, they are called acronyms. When they are pronounced with the names of the letters of the alphabet, they are called alphabetisms or abbreviations.

Based on Jesenská, shortenings also include blends which can be according to Jackson and Zé Amvela (2007:101) defined as a new lexeme built from parts of two (or more) words in the way that the constituent parts can usually be readily identifiable (for example, *brunch* from breakfast + lunch).

2.5. Coinage

According to Hatch, coinage is a process of creating a new word in cases when a new word is needed because no suitable borrowed words or no native words are available. There are some rules that should be followed when coining a new word. Firstly, the form of the coined word must suit the language phonology (for example, if a person wants to create a new name for a product they probably would not name it *Thdep* or *Swmrl* because it does not fit the English sound patterns). The other important thing is to try to invent a combination of sounds that seems to illustrate the main characteristics of the product (for example, if a product's small size should be highlighted, the name of the product should end with the letter *y*, *e* or *i*). Sometimes finding a suitable name for a company's new product seems to be very difficult and therefore companies may sometimes spend a large amount of money to find the right combination of sounds and letters for their specific product.

2.6. Compounding vs. Derivation

This chapter briefly mentions the topics of compounding and derivation and differences between these two terms.

In Bauer's work, there is an interesting chapter about dividing between the process of compounding and the process of derivation. As an example, the forms *ism* and *ology* can be given because they are used, mainly in the form of plural, as lexemes (Bauer even states that there exists a publication called *Isms and Ologies*). (Bauer 1983:35) It is possible that in the future lexemes containing these and similar elements will be considered compounds instead of derivatives.

3. Compounding

As mentioned above, compounding is one of the word-formation processes and as Štekauer states it is the most difficult way of adding new words to the English lexicon. The word *compound* comes from the Latin word *componere* which means 'to put together'. (Kavka 2006)

In Plag's words, compounding (also called composition) is a process of combining of two already existing words to create a new one. It is also important to know that at least in the case of compound nouns, other new words can be repeatedly attached to an already existing compound to create a new one (e.g. *university teaching award committee member training*) which is called recursivity. (Plag 2003:171)

Bauer's definition of a compound (1983:28) is that the form is marked as a compound in case that two (or more) elements that could be used as stems are combined to form another stem. A compound can be therefore qualified as a lexeme that contains two or more potential stems.

In other words, based on Jesenská (2015:59), it can be said that compounding is a hugely productive word-formation process during which two (or more than two) morphemes are put together to create a single form, e.g. *forget-me-not, pickpocket, teapot, anyone* etc.

An interesting fact mentioned by Molhova (1976:141) is that all compound words have, from the point of view of lexicology, leastwise one synonym (e.g. *trades man - a man who trades*, *ice-cold - cold as ice* or *fire-proof - proof against fire*).

Similarly, Hatch (1995:191) announces that it is possible to say the same thing without the compound (e.g. *I like cakes that are chocolate* or somebody can say *I like chocolate cakes*) which is the reason why some people may wonder why they should actually create compounds. The reason why compounds are created in English is stated by Hatch who says that '*compounds are useful ways of condensing information and they add variation to the way we refer to concepts in discourse. For example, in a composition we might begin by talking about cuts in education and then later refer back to this as education cuts'.* (1995:191) Compound words offer speakers new ways of referring to the same information as well as condense the information which is why they are often used in advertisements, announcements and for newspaper headlines.

According to Vogel (2007:18) compounds exist in different forms. He states these three possible forms:

I.   Solid compounds (those are written as a single word)
II. Hyphenated compounds (those are written with the use of a hyphen)
III. Open compounds (those are written with the use of a gap)

3.1.   Compounds in Other Languages

Compounds exist in many languages and for that reason this chapter describes the rules of compound formation in German, Greek and Latin, French, Czech, Spanish and English language.

Jesenská shows different examples of compounds in German, Greek, Latin and French.

- *Compound words are quite frequent in German, where they are conventionally written in solid form, e.g. Eisenbahn ('ironway' = railway).* (Jesenská 2015:59)
- *In Greek and Latin, they are typically joined by thematic vowels, such as the -i- of Latin agricultura, the -o- of Greek biographia.* (Jesenská 2015:59)
- *In French, however, one kind of compound has the form of a prepositional phrase, e.g. arc-en-ciel ('arch in sky' = rainbow); another French compound consists of a verb-noun phrase: grate-ciel ('scrape-sky' = sky-scraper).* (Jesenská 2015:59)

Kavka also deals with the topic of compounds in other languages. He is mainly concerned with compounds in Czech, German, Spanish and English. Compounds in Czech are not as frequent as in German or English.

Czech compounds cannot be created ad hoc and the composition must be rule governed. These rules mainly apply to word-base forms and they include phonetic alternations at the morphemic suture. In the Czech lexicon, only noun compounds or adjective compounds can be found, and, interestingly, no verb compounds. The least numerous group of Czech compounds is the one with compounds consisting of two nouns (*zvěrolékař* - vet, *jihovýchod* - south-east). (Kavka 2006:16)

German compounds are specified as combinations of two or more constituents where the words are originally independent. In many cases a compound consists of three or even

more constituents and in such a case the first or the second element is a compound (*Bahnhofsrestaurant* - railway-station restaurant). (Kavka 2006:16)

The process of compounding in Spanish is less productive than in German. In Spanish, there is a great number of compounds hardly understandable for people ignorant of diversity of the standard Spanish language or a special jargon. In contrast with German and English, the Spanish compounds include only two constituents and they are created only by combination of nouns and adjectives in these patterns: N+N, A+A, N+A or A+N (for example, *agridulce* - sweet-and-sour). (Kavka 2006:16)

In English, compound words occur in all word classes which Carter and McCarthy (2006:480) show in these examples:

- nouns: *daydream, teabag, boyfriend*;
- adjectives: *heartbreaking, homesick, lonesome*;
- verbs: *babysit, nickname, daydream*;
- adverbs: *nevertheless, nowadays, good-naturedly*;
- pronouns: a*nyone, nobody, anybody;*
- numerals: *one-third, fifty-five, thirty-seven*;
- prepositions: *into, upon, onto;*
- conjunctions: *although, whenever*;
- interjections: *super-duper, tick-tock, clever-clever*.

3.2.   Distinction Between Compound Words and Noun Phrases

In certain cases, it is difficult to distinguish between compound words and noun phrases. This issue is covered by many authors and this chapter focuses on ways to recognise a compound word. These methods are described by different authors.

According to Adams, if a noun is premodified by another noun, participle, an adjective, or a nominalization, the result can be either a free phrase or a compound in which the premodifying element has lost its independence. Sometimes it is desirable to resolve whether the sequence is a compound or a noun phrase. In this case, as Adams states, a test can be applied to learn whether the first element can be separated from the head. An important thing is to know whether the adjective can be modified by an adverb or not.

According to this procedure, it can be determined whether the sequence is a noun phrase or a compound.

Adams (1973:57) shows this detecting procedure on two examples: *small talk* and *wet day*. It is possible to say *a very wet day* but *very small talk* cannot be used. Then there is a question whether the word can occupy the predicative position in a sentence where the head noun would serve as a subject. It is meaningful to say *the day is wet* but *the talk is small* makes no sense. Based on that, it can be safely deduced that *small talk* is a compound and that *wet day* is a free phrase. Adams (1973:57) also claims that this test is reliable in separating sequences that people would like to think of as compounds from those which they feel are free phrases.

In a similar way, applying this test to recognize a compound is suggested by Hatch (1995:190) who investigates whether words like *very* or *rather* can precede a compound and as well as Adams he concludes that it makes no sense when these words are put before the compound (for example, one can say *very tall man* because it is a noun phrase but it makes no sense when we say *very spacecraft* because it is a compound).

Jackson and Zé Amvela also deal with this problem of distinction between compounds and noun phrases and they state that besides their syntactic ground, compounds in English can be distinguished from phrases either on the phonological or semantic ground. On the phonological ground, compounds are often recognized from the phrases by their stress pattern and a juncture between two words.

According to Ryder, a large number of at least adjective + noun and noun + noun compounds are distinguished by the main stress on the first element. Jackson and Zé Amvela (2007:93) show it on the example of *black board* and *black-board*. *Black board* has potentially a primary stress on each word and there is a juncture between the two words. On the other hand, the compound *black-board* has only one primary stress on the first element and no juncture. We can observe the same rule on the example of ˈblack ˈbird and ˈblackbird or ˈhard ˈcover and ˈhardcover.

Hatch confirms this theory by saying that a compound can be distinguishable from phrases by the stress placement on the first part of the compound.

On the semantic ground, compounds can be distinguished from phrases by the fact that they tend to acquire specialized meanings, therefore they are becoming very much like

idioms. Jackson and Zé Amvela (2007:94) state that *'only in rare cases is the meaning of a compound derived from that of its constituents in the literal sense'*. Mostly, the meaning of at least one element of the compound is somehow obscured. For example, *a black board* does not have to be black (it can be also green) and can be made of material other than just wood.

In conclusion, it can be claimed that the described syntactic, phonological and semantic features work concurrently and give a strong binding force to a compound and therefore make it quite distinct from a phrase.

3.3.   Classification of Compound Words

As mentioned before, a compound must consist of at least two elements which do not have to belong to the same class. According to Jackson and Zé Amvela (2007:96), in case that the two elements of the compound belong to the same class (for example, noun + noun or verb + verb compounds), it can be supposed that the resulting compound belongs to the same word class as well. But in case that the two elements of the compound belong to different word classes, the classification of the resulting compound cannot be taken for granted. Jackson and Zé Amvela state a general rule concerning this issue. The general rule is that the word class of the last element of the compound defines the class of the whole compound.

According to the word class, we can distinguish these types of compounds:

1. Noun compounds

Noun compounds are characterised by the structure: any root + noun = noun compound. The first element can be either a noun, a verb, an adjective, or an adverb while the second element has to be a noun. Some examples of noun compounds are: N + N (modifier-head): *ash-tray* or *arm-chair*, V + N (verb-object): *dare-devil* or *pick-pocket*, Aj + N (modifier-head): *black-bird*, *hard-cover*, Av + N (not syntactic): *after-thought*, *back-talk*. (Jackson and Zé Amvela 2007:96)

2. Verb compounds

Verb compounds also have their characteristic structure which is any root + verb = verb compound. It is necessary for the second element to be a verb while the first

12

element may be either a noun, a verb, an adjective or an adverb. Verb compounds are for example: N + V (object-verb): *baby-sit*, *house-keep*, V + V (co-ordinate): *dive-bomb, drop-kick*, Aj + V (not syntactic): *dry-clean, white-wash*, Av + V (modifier-head): *down-grade*, *over-do*. (Jackson and Zé Amvela 2007:96)

3. Adjective compounds

Adjective compounds are characterized by the structure: any root (except verbs) + adjective = adjective compound. The second element must be a verb while the first element can be either a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. In English, verbs with adjectives are not combined. There are some examples of adjective compounds: N + Aj (not syntactic): *ox-eyed*, *sea-sick*, Aj + Aj (co-ordinate): *south-west*, *blue-green*, Av + Aj (modifier-head): *off-white*, *near-sighted*. (Jackson and Zé Amvela 2007:96)

4. Adverb compounds

Adverb compounds are characterized by the structure: adverb + adverb = adverb compound. An example of adverb compounds can be: Av + Av (co-ordinate): *in-to*, *through-out*. (Jackson and Zé Amvela 2007:97)

Kavka (2006:27) classifies compound words as nominal compounds, adjectival compounds, verbal compounds and he also adds other types of compounds including class genitive + N (*bird's nest*, *dog's ear*), repetitive (*fifty-fifty*, *ping-pong*), back-formation (*housekeep*, *lip-read*), conversion (*waterproof*), multi-element (*forget-me-not*, *bread and butter*), string (*public schoolboy*, *dead-letter office*), and miscellanea (*breakdown*, *twenty-two*, *know-how*).

According to Jackson and Zé Amvela, compound words can be classified into sub-groups according to the type of syntactic relationship which exists between the two elements. These groups can be labelled as syntactic compounds and non-syntactic compounds. Syntactic compounds are compounds in which the elements are put together according to syntactic rules that also operate elsewhere in English phrase structures. This group includes most compounds and is therefore the most important. Non-syntactic compounds are compounds in which the association of roots disobey syntactic rules. This group of compounds is also smaller than the first one. Both these groups of compounds are

characterised by the fact that the relationship between the elements is vastly condensed. Therefore they are pictured as short-cuts for longer and more complex phrase structures.

According to Jackson and Zé Amvela (2007:97), syntactic compounds can be further classified as either endocentric compounds or exocentric compounds:

Endocentric: one or both elements is the head of the compound. They can be either co-ordinate (two head roots), for example *boyfriend* (boy who is a friend/friend who is a boy) or subordinate (only one head root), for example *armchair* (chair with arms) - this is called a modification structure.

Vogel (2007:18) describes endocentric compounds as those remaining in the same category as its elements. In that way, endocentric compounds can be endocentric formally, which means that a compound persists in the same word class as the head (for example the compound *workbook* is classified as a noun as well as the base). They can be also endocentric semantically which means that a compound keeps a semantic relation to its head (for example *deckchair* is a type of chair).

Exocentric: neither root is head, for example *pick-pocket* (a person who picks pockets). (Jackson and Zé Amvela 2007:97)

According to Vogel (2007:18), formally exocentric compounds belong to a different word class than their head or both their elements (for example, the compound *downturn* is classified as a noun but it is composed of an adverb *down* and a verb *turn*). Semantically exocentric compounds refer to an entity different from those referred to by its elements (for example, *redneck* is an expression implying a person, it is not type of a neck). This group of compounds is, according to Plag, also called the bahuvrihi compound which is a term from the ancient Sanskrit grammar.

Because of not following the rules of syntax, non-syntactic compounds cannot be classified systematically. They include structures such as: N + Aj (for example *air-sick*) or Av + N (for example *back-tailed*). (Jackson and Zé Amvela 2007:97)

Plag (2003:177) discusses another type of compound words which is characteristic by containing two elements, both referring to the same entity (e.g. *geologist-astronomer*), those words are called copulative compounds.

3.4.   Neoclassical Compounds

According to Kavka, neoclassical compounds are made of so called combining forms which are elements of mostly Greek and Latin origin. Plag defines neoclassical compounds as forms created by the combination of lexemes of Greek and Latin origin with the purpose to create new combinations not asserted in the original language (therefore their name is neoclassical). As examples of combining forms *hydro-*, *eco-*, *bio-*, *-phile* or *-phobe* can be given. (Kavka 2006:66)

Bauer points out that these elements may seem like affixes because they have certain features typical for affixes but, despite that, there exists evidence that combining forms cannot be regular affixes. The reason for such a claim is that final combining forms can be combined with initial combining forms, which is in contrast to affixes that cannot be combined mutually. Combining forms can be also combined with either whole words (e.g., *morpho-syntax*, *hydro-electric*) or with bound roots (*scientology*, *glaciology*) but they cannot stand alone (as free forms). (Plag 2003:200)

Plag further alerts that the stress placement of neoclassical compounds is distinct from that of other compound words as neoclassical compounds do not usually have their stress on the left-hand constituent. In the majority of neoclassical compounds, the main stress occurs on the right-hand element.

The discussion of neoclassical compounds Plag concludes with saying that '*these formations possess a number of interesting formal properties that distinguish them from the other types of compound.*' (Plag 2003:203)

3.5.   The Structure of Compounds

As reported by Plag (2003:173), the majority of compounds has a modifier-head structure meaning that the left-hand element modifies, to a certain degree, the right-hand element (for example, in *knee-deep water,* the word *knee-deep* informs us about the depth of the water). The head is generally the most significant element from which the compound inherits the majority of its semantic and syntactic information. English compounds are very special in terms of having their head exclusively on the right-hand side (e.g., if the head is a verb, then the whole compound will be a verb).

3.6. Stress Position in Compounds

According to Kavka, compounds are marked by either single primary stress or double stress which may cause troubles because a lot of noun phrases carry double stress, too. Even despite this fact, the majority of linguists share the opinion asserting that the constituents of a compound are merged by single stress. This presumption functions in most cases but the status of special compounds cannot be disowned (*common sense*, *young lady,* or *fellow-man*) in which both constituents are stressed. (Kavka 2006:28) Kavka attempts to find some tendencies in regular stress placement in compounds and he comes to a conclusion that compounds have an initially-positioned primary stress placement, except for several cases in which the second constituent carries a higher semantic value.

From Ryder's point of view many authors claim that at least noun + noun compounds and adjective + noun compounds have a primary stress on the first constituent. Similarly, compounds resulting from the process of conversion or back-formation have an initial primary stress as in *water-proof*, *housekeep* or *dry-clean*. (Kavka 2006:31)

Plag narrows his discussion about stress placement on nominal compounds and suggests that compounds have a strong tendency to be stressed on the first element (it is called the compound stress rule) in contrast to phrases which tend to be stressed on the final element (nuclear stress rule). An exception is created by copulative compounds which have rightward stress placement.

This also applies to compounds with temporal or locative meaning (e.g., *a summer night* or *the Boston marathon*) and to those that can be paraphrased as 'made of' or 'created by' (e.g., *silk tie* or *a Shakespeare sonnet*). (Plag 2003:177) Plag concludes his investigation of the stress placement by saying that '*we can say that there are good arguments to treat compounds with rightward stress indeed as systematic exceptions to the otherwise prevailing compound stress rule.*' (Plag 2003:178)

3.7. Plural of Compounds

The topic of compound plural creation is covered by Dušková (2012:43) who says that compounds not containing a noun create their plural form by the regular ending attached to the last constituent (e.g. *forget-me-nots*, *merry-go-rounds*, *grown-ups*).

Thompson (1986:27) states other examples of the plural creation such as compounds with the pattern of verb + er or noun + preposition + noun where the first word is made into its plural form (*hangers-on*, *runners-up*, *sisters-in-law*, *ladies-in-waiting*).

Plag (2003:174) who also discusses this topic conveys that during pluralizing a compound, the plural form occurs on the head, not on the non-head (e.g., *park commissioners*).

3.8. Noun Compounds

Fergusson and Manser (1998:70) state several of most frequent types of noun compounds:

- Noun + noun compound (for example, *bookshop, coffee table, pocket money*)
- Noun + adjective (for example, *mother superior, secretary-general, court martial*)
- Adjective + noun (for example, *half-truth, goodwill, black eye*)
- Noun + adverb (for example, *passer-by, hanger-on*)
- Verb + adverb (for example, *flyover, knockout, breakdown*)
- Noun + preposition or conjunction + noun (for example, *gin and tonic, father-in-law*)
- Adverb or preposition + noun (for example, *downside, underclothes*)
- Single letter + noun (for example, *T-shirt, x-ray*)
- Other combinations (for example, *forget-me-not, down-and-out*)

4. Compound Nouns

This part of the thesis focuses on compound nouns in detail.

Murphy describes compound nouns as a form in which two nouns are put together. Noun + noun can be used to mean one thing, person, idea etc. Murphy further states that the first noun functions as an adjective and it is usually in its singular form, but in many cases the meaning is plural. For example, a *bookshop* is a shop where people can buy books. Similarly, an *apple tree* is a tree on which apples grow. In the same way, the expressions *a four-week trip* (weeks are not used), or *two 14-year-old girls* are created (not years). (Murphy 2012:160) The majority of authors such as Bauer, Hatch, or Plag have agreed on the fact that compound nouns are the largest subgrouping of all compound words.

4.1.   Types of Compound Nouns

Many authors divide noun-noun compounds in different ways. Some of them were chosen to demonstrate these different approaches.

Firstly, Ryder suggests three different types of compound nouns: deictic compounds, novel compounds and established compounds. He also describes the problem as '*one of the problems in evaluating work on compounds is that investigators do not always define the types of forms they consider to be compounds*'. (Ryder 1994:8) Therefore the assumption that all noun-noun combinations are compounds could be made.

Deictic compounds are newly created compounds that were coined in order to gratify the need of a fleeting discourse and that do not have the aspiration to enter the language permanently. It means that their essential meaning is related to the situation in which they are used, i.e., the meaning is determined by both the sentential context and the non-verbal context. In the case of deictic compounds, the context is so powerful that even a compound with its established meaning can be used deictically with a meaning completely dissimilar to its formal one.

The other type are **novel compounds** that are also newly created compounds that do have the aspiration to enter the language permanently. Therefore a novel compound has to be interpretable so that people can understand it without the knowledge of the context. There is a compound which is sometimes not expected to become a permanent one, however, it is

being frequently used in a narrow group of people so the compound will eventually become independent of the context.

To demonstrate these two definitions of deictic and novel compounds on an example, the expression *bike girl* can be used. (Ryder 1994:9) The deictic compound *bike girl* was created when a girl parked her bicycle in the vestibule of a graduate department so a label *bike girl* was invented. Even if this incident occurred only once, the compound started to be frequently used by people and means *'the kind of person who would inconsiderably leave a bike in the vestibule where everyone will trip over it'*. (Ryder 1994:9)

And finally, if a compound is used by a society as a whole, not just by a limited group of people, it becomes an **established compound**. Similarly as in the case of deictic compounds, the meaning of them is in one case fully predictable but rather unpredictable in another. If people know the word (which means that the compound is included in their lexicon), they are able to interpret it in various contexts, but if the word is not included in their lexicon the predictability is very limited. The problem is that established compounds can experience a meaning drift over time so the original relationship is eventually not included in the meaning at all. This meaning drift can be demonstrated on the example of *bike girl* whose meaning shifted from the above mentioned one to 'a very inconsiderate person'. Sometimes the compound even becomes opaque - for example, the word *horseradish* (Ryder 1994:11) for which nobody can find a rational inter-noun semantic connection.

According to Alexander (1988:36), the category of compound nouns can be considered under several headings.

- Compound nouns in place of phrases with *of*: compound nouns are often used for things which are closely associated (for example, *a car key*) instead of using *of* when somebody wants to say that one thing is a part of another (*the key of the car*).
- Compound nouns which refer to place: these compounds consist of words where one of them refers to a place and the second word to something that is located in that place (for example *a kitchen sink, a bank safe*). Also place names belong here (*London Airport, Moscow Stadium*). Both words are stressed but not hyphenated.

- Compound nouns which refer to streets and roads: these compounds are not hyphenated.
- Compounds including the word *street* have the stress on the first syllable (*Baker Street*), on the other hand, compounds containing the word 'road' have both elements stressed (*Oxford road*).
- Compound nouns which tell something about their purpose: those are compounds containing two elements where the second element proposes a use related to the first element (*a meeting point*, *a can-opener*).
- Compound nouns which tell about materials and substances: in these compounds, the first element refers to a substance or material while the second element refers to something that is made of this substance or material (*a gold watch*, *a cotton blouse*).
- Compound nouns which classify types: the first element of the compound can be understood as an answer to the question: What kind of? *(a horror film*, *a seat belt)*.
- Compound nouns which refer to containers (*a teapot*, *a sugar bowl*)
- Compound nouns which relate to time: one element refers to the time at which an activity takes place (*morning coffee*, *an evening dress*).
- Compound nouns formed with 'self', 'man', 'woman' and 'person' (*self-control*, s*elf-denial*, *a fireman*, *a horseman/woman*, *a salesperson*).
- Proper nouns with two or more parts (*Longman Books*, *a North Sea oil rig*, *a Ford car*).

Thomson (1986:31) discusses the different typology of compound nouns: noun + noun (*Tower Bridge*, *river bank* or *hitch-hiker*), noun + gerund (*fruit picking*, *bird-watching* or *surf-riding*) and gerund + noun (*dining-room*, *swimming pool* or *waiting list*). There are several ways in which these combinations can be used: 1. Whenever the second noun is part of the first one or belongs to the first one (*picture frame*, *college library*). However, there is an exception concerning words denoting quantity (*lump*, *part*, *piece*, etc.) that cannot be used hereby (*a piece of cake* or *a slice of bread*). 2. The first noun denotes the place of the second noun (*city street*, *street market*). 3. The first noun denotes the time of the second noun (*Sunday paper*, *spring flowers*).4. The first noun denotes the material of which the second noun is made (*silk shirt*, *stone wall*). 5. The first noun denotes the power or fuel that is used to operate the second noun (*petrol engine*, *gas fire*). 6. The name of a product

can be followed by the name of the work area where it is produced (*fish-farm*, *gold mine*). 7. Listed combinations are frequently used for occupations, hobbies, sports and the people who practise them (*wind surfing*, *pop singer*) and for competitions (*football match*, *car rally*). 8. The first noun can in many cases shows what the second noun means or is concerned with (*train tickets*, *car insurance*). In a similar way, names for committees, departments, conferences etc. can be created (*education department*, *housing committee*).

Another author dealing with the typology of compound nouns is Huddleston (2002:1646-1647) who classifies them into two main categories: noun-centred compound nouns (e.g., *girlfriend*, *tearoom* or *blackbird*) and verb-centred compound nouns (e.g., *bus driver*, *fox-hunting* or *life-guard*). Verb-centred compound nous are the ones which have the lexical base of a verb as the head element or those whose head element is formed from a verb by suffixation or conversion (for example, *driver* and *hunting* are created from verbs by the process of suffixation while *guard* is created via conversion). In the case of such compounds, the meaning depends on the meaning of the verb (*bus driver* is a person who drives buses). Concerning noun-centred compound nouns, their head element is primarily a noun (for example *friend* in *girlfriend* is exclusively always a noun) and almost exclusively their first component is a dependent one and the final one is the head.

4.2. Plural of Compound Nouns

This chapter focuses on the plural form of compound nouns that can be created in many ways.

The topic of the plural creation is covered in the work of Thomson (1986:27) who states that most often the ultimate word of the compound is made into its plural form (*boy-friends* or *travel agents*). The different form of the plural comes when the compound contains *man* or *woman;* in such cases both parts are made into plural (*women drivers* or *men drivers*).

Dušková (2012:43) asserts that in case that the compound consists of two nouns in an appositional relationship, the second noun forms the plural (*fountain pens*, *lady-singers* or *Lord Mayors*). As well as Thomson, Dušková (2012:43) states that in composites containing *man* or *woman* both elements form the plural (*menservants*, *women drivers*). But in the case of non-appositional compounds the component *man* or *woman* do not change (*woman-haters*).

4.3.   Stress Placement in Compound Nouns

As mentioned above, Kavka assumes that stress carrying constituent is the one that bears a higher (or the highest) semantic value. In the case of noun-noun compounds, the first element is understood as 'more important' therefore this constituent in most cases carries the primary stress as well as in most nominal compounds.

Thomson also deals with the topic of the stress placement in compound nouns and he states three findings:

1) In noun + gerund as well as in gerund + noun compounds, the first constituent is stressed under the condition that there is an idea of purpose (1986:32). This rule also works for combinations used for occupations, sports, hobbies and the people who practise them (*pop singer*, *sheep farmer* or *water skier*) and for combinations where the first noun can reveal what the second one means or is concerned with (*plane tickets*, *ghost story* or *telephone bills*). (Thomson 1986:32)

2) In contrast with Kavka, Thomson claims that in the case of noun + noun combinations both elements are stressed but he also asserts that there are exceptions, for example, *hitch-hiker*, *river bank,* or *petrol tank*. The same double stress pattern functions in combinations where the second constituent is a part of the first one (*college library*, *garden gate,* or *shop window*), in combinations where the first noun refers to the place of the second one (*corner shop*, *street market* or *city street*), and in combinations where the first element refers to the time of the second one (*summer holiday*, *Sunday paper*, *spring flowers*). (Thomson 1986:31) But, inevitably, in all three cases there are also certain exceptions.

3) An equal stress placement on both elements occurs in place-name combinations such as *Waterloo Bridge*, *Leicester Square* or *King's road* (Thomson 1986:32).

II.   Practical Part

5. Introduction

The practical part of the thesis focuses on compound nouns taught in primary schools and eight-year grammar schools. The thesis mainly explores schoolchildren's knowledge of compound nouns, including their translation and the schoolchildren's ability to use them.

For the research, two schools were chosen where pupils of the ninth class of a primary school and the fourth year of an eight-year grammar school were tested. The first tested group were pupils of the primary school in Golčův Jeníkov and the second tested group were pupils of the grammar school in Havlíčkův Brod.

6. Preparation of the Test

At first, it was learnt that children of the above-mentioned primary school are taught using a textbook called *Way to Win* while at the grammar school a textbook *Success* is being used.

In order to be able to create a test examining children's knowledge of compound nouns, a list of all compound nouns which occurred in their textbooks in the last three school years was made. At the primary school, topics of textbooks *Way to Win 7*, *Way to Win 8* and *Way to Win 9* were used during the lessons and, similarly, at the grammar school, topics of textbooks *Success* (elementary) and *Success* (pre-intermediate) were discussed. The vocabulary in all these five textbooks was studied and the list of all compound nouns which occurred there was made.

A list of compound nouns included in the book *Way to Win 9*

Bricklayer - zedník

Bridegroom - ženich

Careers adviser - poradce pro volbu povolání

Convenience food - polotovary

Coral reef - korálový útes

Curriculum vitae - životopis

Half board - polopenze

Human rights - lidská práva

Job interview - pracovní pohovor

Lorry driver - řidič nákladního auta

Sheep station - ovčí farma

Ticket inspector - revizor

Bag lady - paní bez domova, která má všechen svůj majetek v taškách

Crown jewels - korunovační klenoty

Classmate - spolužák, spolužačka

Headteacher - ředitel školy

Cotton mill - přádelna

Paper mill - papírna

A list of compound nouns included in the book *Way to Win 8*:

Cloakroom - šatna

Computer nerd - počítačový maniak

Couch potato - domácí povaleč

Doorbell - zvonek na dveřích

Fitness machine - posilovací stroj

Grapefruit - grep

Guidebook - průvodce

Keyboard - klávesnice

Oil rig - vrtná plošina

Oil tanker - ropný tanker

Pipeline - potrubí

Pocket money - kapesné

Speed limit - maximální rychlost

Staff room - sborovna

Table tennis - stolní tenis

Timetable - rozvrh hodin, jízdní řád

Travel card - jízdenka

Tube station - stanice metra

TV programme - televizní program

Secret Service - tajná služba

Fish fingers - rybí prsty

A list of compound nouns included in the book *Way to Win 7*:

Chicken leg - kuřecí stehno

Cycle track - cyklistická stezka

Drinking water - pitná voda

Emergency services - pohotovostní služby

Fire brigade - požární sbor, hasiči

Fisherman - rybář

Fortune-teller - kartářka, věštkyně

Lifeboat - záchranný člun

Lifejacket- záchranná vesta

Model train - model vlaku

Music studio - hudební studio

Newspaper - noviny

Party service - firma na pořádání večírků

Peanut butter - arašídové máslo

Penfriend - kamarád na dopisování

Police officer - policista

Police station - policejní stanice

Power station - elektrárna

Tuna-fish - tuňák

Wheelchair - vozíček

Rocket flare - signální raketa

This survey implies that the children attending the ninth class of the primary school in Golčův Jeníkov should know and be able to use sixty compound nouns included in their textbooks discussed during their last three school years.

A list of compound nouns included in the book *Success: Elementary*:

Birthday - narozeniny

Boyfriend - přítel

Classroom - třída - místnost

Scotland - Skotsko

Stepfather - nevlastní otec

Stepmother - nevlastní matka

Teenager - mladistvý, nezletilý

Seafood - jídlo z mořských živočichů

Surfboard - surfovací prkno

Bedroom - ložnice

CD player - CD přehrávač

Flatmate - spolubydlící

Football - fotbal

Newspaper - noviny

Babysitter - osoba hlídající děti

Bookshop - knihkupectví

Firefighter - hasič

Hairdresser - kadeřník, kadeřnice

Lifeguard - záchranář/ka

Police officer - policejní důstojník

Postman - pošťák

Postwoman - pošťačka

Swimming pool - bazén

Armchair - křeslo

Bathroom - koupelna

Bus station - autobusové nádraží

Cupboard - skříňka

Fireplace - krb

Homework - domácí úloha

Housewarming - oslava nastěhování se do nového bytu, domu

Lighthouse - maják

Living room - obývací pokoj

Post office - pošta

Traffic lights - semafory

Train station - vlaková stanice, zastávka

Washing machine - pračka

Bagpipes - dudy

Cheeseburger - cheesburger, sýrová bulka

Cookbook - kuchařka

Country dancing - country tanec

Lunchtime - čas oběda

Record player - gramofon

Birthplace - místo narození

Computer game - počítačová hra

Computer program - počítačový program

DVD player - DVD přehrávač

Home cinema - domácí kino

Course book - učebnice

Evening dress - večerní šaty

Sales assistant - prodavač/ka

Sunglasses - sluneční brýle

Timetable - rozvrh hodin

Watercolour - vodová barva, akvarel

Bullet point - odrážka (v textu)

Cassette player - kazetový magnetofon

Headphones - sluchátka

Keypad - klávesnice

Message board - místo na webu, kde se může napsat zpráva

Shopping centre - nákupní centrum

Text message - textová zpráva

Video game - videohra

Baseball cap - kšiltovka

Campsite - kemp

Entertainment industry - zábavní průmysl

Flight attendant - letuška, palubní stevard

Guesthouse - penzion

Guidebook - turistický průvodce

Key ring - kroužek na klíče

Teddy bear - plyšový medvídek

Water skiing - vodní lyžování

Baseball - baseball

Basketball - basketbal

Exercise classes - hodiny/lekce cvičení

Exercise machine - stroj na cvičení

Goalkeeper - brankář

Mineral water - minerálka

Table tennis - stolní tenis

Volleyball - volejbal

Culture shock - kulturní šok

Ice rink - kluziště

Rainforest - deštný prales

Theme park - tematický park

Town council - městská rada

A list of compound nouns included in the book *Success: Pre-intermediate*

Crime novel - kriminální román

Home town - rodné město

Mother tongue - mateřský jazyk

Website - webová stránka

Campsite - kemp

Guesthouse - penzion

Honeymoon - líbánky

Motorbike - motorka

Wheelchair - vozíček

Youth hostel - mládežnický domov

Classmate - spolužák

Cloakroom - šatna

Lipstick - rtěnka

Pocket money - kapesné

School days - období chození do školy

Textbook - učebnice

Farmhouse - farma

Masterpiece - mistrovské dílo

Moonlight - měsíční svit

Nightmare - noční můra

Alarm clock - budík

Bookshelf - police na knihy

Childminder - opatrovatelka

Corkscrew - otvírák na lahve

Dustbin - odpadkový koš

Vacuum cleaner - vysavač

Businessman - obchodník

Ice cream - zmrzlina

Lifestyle - životní styl

Milkshake - mléčný koktejl

Peanut - arašídový ořech

Pineapple - ananas

Snack bar - bistro

Bottle bank - kontejner na skleněné lahve

Fortune teller - věštkyně

Power station - elektrárna

Sea level - úroveň/hladina moře

Shoelace - tkanička do bot

Stomach-ache - bolest břicha

Strawberry - jahoda

Video-conferencing - video konference

Businesswoman - obchodnice, podnikatelka

Part-time - částečný/pracovní úvazek

Salesperson - obchodník

Footstep - krok

Wedding ring - zásnubní prsten

Game show - soutěžní program   Newsagent - novinový stánek

Headline - titulek, název   Soap opera - telenovela

The second research of the textbooks' vocabulary exposes that pupils of the fourth year of the eight-year grammar school in Havlíčkův Brod should know and be able to use 133 compound nouns included in their textbooks during their last three school years.

Finally, the two lists of compounds were compared to learn which of them had been taught in both schools and it was discovered that 11 of them were corresponding:

Classmate   Fortune-teller

Cloakroom   Newspaper

Guidebook   Police officer

Pocket money   Power station

Timetable   Wheelchair

Table tennis

These 11 words were included into a test and two more words that were taught differently at each school were added as well. According to both textbooks, these words have different translations from Czech to English and that is why it was decided to insert these words into the exercise concerning the translation from Czech to English.

One word is *posilovací stroj* which is translated as either *fitness machine* (according to *Way to Win*) or *exercise machine* (based on *Success*). The other word is *klávesnice* which is translated as either *keyboard* (in accordance with *Way to Win*) or *keypad* (on the basis of *Success*). Both translations are certainly correct but the fact that the expressions were taught differently at each school had to be taken into consideration.

Lastly, these 13 words were inserted into the test that was distributed in both schools. Before that, the issues connected to compound nouns in English language were briefly explained in each class.

7. The Test

1. In each pair of words, choose and circle a compound noun / V každé dvojici slov zakroužkujte to slovo, které je složené substantivum

Dream room   Cloakroom

Woman teller   Fortune-teller

Table tennis   Game tennis

2. Translate into Czech/ Přeložte do češtiny

Pocket money

Wheelchair

Power station

3. Translate into English/ Přeložte do angličtiny

Noviny

Posilovací stroj

Klávesnice

4. Choose the second part of the compound noun/ Vyberte druhou část složeného substantiva

Time /life, table, clock/

Guide /book, person, work/

Class /friend, mate, table/

Police /children, person, officer/

5. State some compound nouns that you know/ Napište složená substantiva, která znáte

8. Analysis of the Test

For the test, it was decided to use a combination of both English and Czech language for the reason that the pupils of the ninth class and the pupils of the fourth year of the eight-year grammar school might not be able to translate the instructions of exercises which would have had an impact on their performance in the distributed test.

In the first exercise, there were three pairs of compound words and in each pair of these words, only one could be marked as a compound noun. Pupils' task was to decide which of the offered expressions are compound nouns and to circle them.

For the first pair, words *dream room* and *cloakroom* were chosen. Pupils should circle *cloakroom* because it is a compound noun while *dream room* is a casual noun phrase. On this pair of words it was examined whether pupils were more likely to mark a word written without a gap as a compound or not.

Secondly, words *woman teller* and *fortune-teller* were used; *woman teller* is a noun phrase and *fortune-teller* a compound noun. In this case, it was examined whether children were more likely to circle a hyphenated word as a compound or not.

In the last pair of words, words *table tennis* and *game tennis* were used. *Table tennis* is a compound noun while *game tennis* is a noun phrase. On this pair, pupils' ability to distinguish a compound from a noun phrase where both words are written in the same way (i.e. with a gap between them) was studied.

The second exercise of the test involved translating compound nouns from English to Czech. In this exercise, pupils' knowledge of compound nouns included in their textbooks and their ability to translate them into Czech language was surveyed. The main focus was on whether the children translated these compounds literally or if they had known the one-word translations (for example, whether they translated *pocket money* as *kapesné* or *kapesní peníze*). For this exercise, the above-mentioned *pocket money*, *wheelchair* and *power station* were used. According to *Success* and *Way to Win* textbooks, *pocket money* should be correctly translated as *kapesné*, *wheelchair* as *vozíček* and *power station* as *elektrárna*.

In the third exercise, pupils' task was to translate given Czech expressions into English as compound nouns. These expressions were *noviny* which should be correctly translated as *newspaper*, *posilovací stroj* which can be translated as either *fitness machine* (according

31

to *Way to Win* textbook) or *exercise machine* (on the basis of *Success* textbook) and *klávesnice* which can be also translated differently as either *keyboard* (in accordance with *Way to Win* textbook) or *keypad* (in compliance with *Success* textbook). This exercise mainly focused on pupils' knowledge of compound nouns included in their textbooks and on their ability to write them properly. The focus was put on whether the children wrote compounds using a hyphen, without a gap, or, contrarily, with the usage of a gap.

The penultimate exercise was again focused on pupils' knowledge of compound nouns. Their task was to choose correctly the second part of the compound noun and they always had three options from which they could choose. Compound nouns *timetable*, *guidebook*, *classmate,* and *police officer* were included.

Finally, the last exercise was focused on whether the children were able to remember compound nouns on their own because their task there was to write whatever compound noun they knew.

9. Results of the Test

The first tested group were children from Golčův Jeníkov and the test was completed by 30 pupils on the whole. The second group filling in the test were children from the grammar school in Havlíčkův Brod where 31 pupils were present.

9.1. The First Exercise

In the primary school in Golčův Jeníkov, the first exercise was completed by 18 pupils without a mistake. The least problematic pair of words for the distinction between a compound noun and a noun phrase was the first one (*dream room* and *cloakroom*). Here, 28 pupils correctly marked *cloakroom* as a compound and only two of them circled the noun phrase or no of these words. In the second pair of words (*woman teller* and *fortune-teller*), 26 pupils correctly marked *fortune-teller* as a compound. The most problematic pair of words was *table tennis* and *game tennis* where 23 children marked *table tennis* as a compound, six children marked *game tennis a*s a compound and one pupil handed the test without an answer.

In the grammar school in Havlíčkův Brod, 23 pupils completed the first exercise without any mistake. The most problematic pair of words in the test was, surprisingly, the first one where pupils should decide which one of the pair *dream room* and *cloakroom* is a compound noun. Three pupils made a mistake there by marking *dream room* as a compound rather than *cloakroom*. In the case of the pair of words *woman teller* and *fortune-teller*, all but one (who did not give the answer) correctly marked *fortune-teller* as a compound noun. In the third pair of words, two pupils circled *game tennis* rather than *table tennis* and two of them did not answer at all.

Distinguishing Between *Cloakroom* and *Dream Room*

5; 8%

56; 92%

■ Cloakroom   ■ Dream room
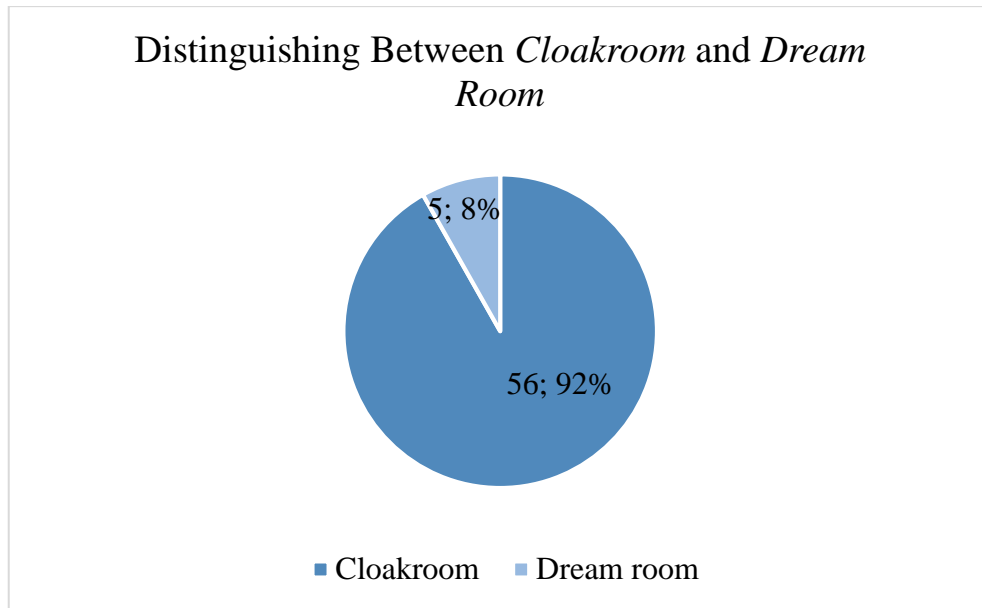
Figure 1 - The overview of correct answers in distinguishing between cloakroom and dream room

The results of this exercise showed that in the first pair of words containing *dream room* and *cloakroom*, the majority of children from both schools correctly chose and circled *cloakroom*. *Cloakroom* was chosen 56 times which is 92% majority while *dream room* only five times, which equals only 8% of occurrence.

It is thought that the correct decision made by most children was caused by the fact that *cloakroom,* as opposed to *dream room,* was written without a gap and therefore more resembled a compound word.

Distinguishing Between *Woman Teller* and *Fortune-teller*

5; 8%

56; 92%

■ woman teller   ■ fortune-teller
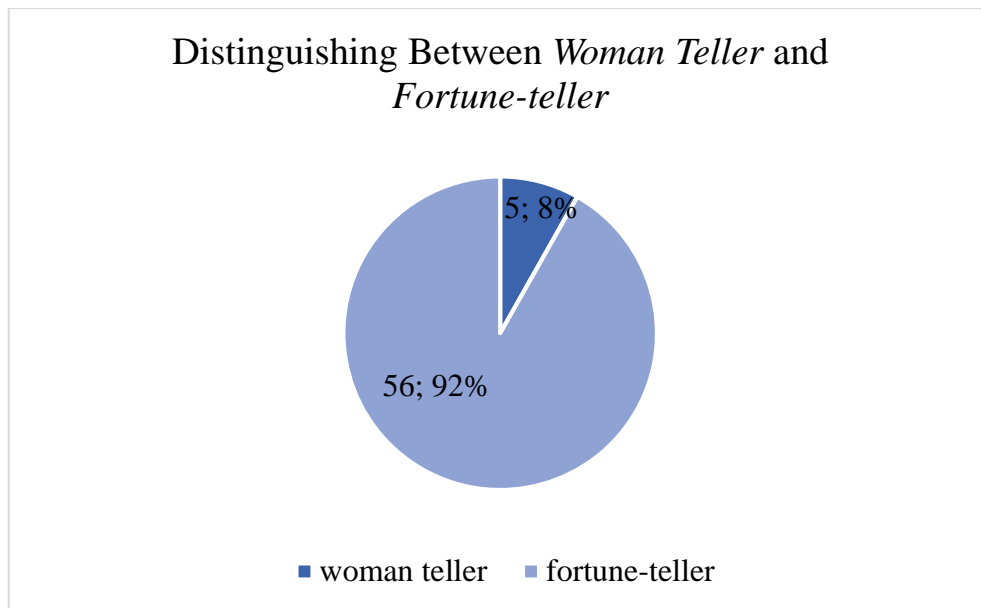
Figure 2 - The overview of correct answers in distinguishing between woman teller and fortune-teller

Similarly, in the second pair, the majority of pupils correctly marked *fortune-teller* written with the use of a hyphen because in their minds this expression probably more resembles a compound word.

Distinguishing Between *Game Tennis* and *Table Tennis*

11; 18%

50; 82%

■ table tennis   ■ game tennis
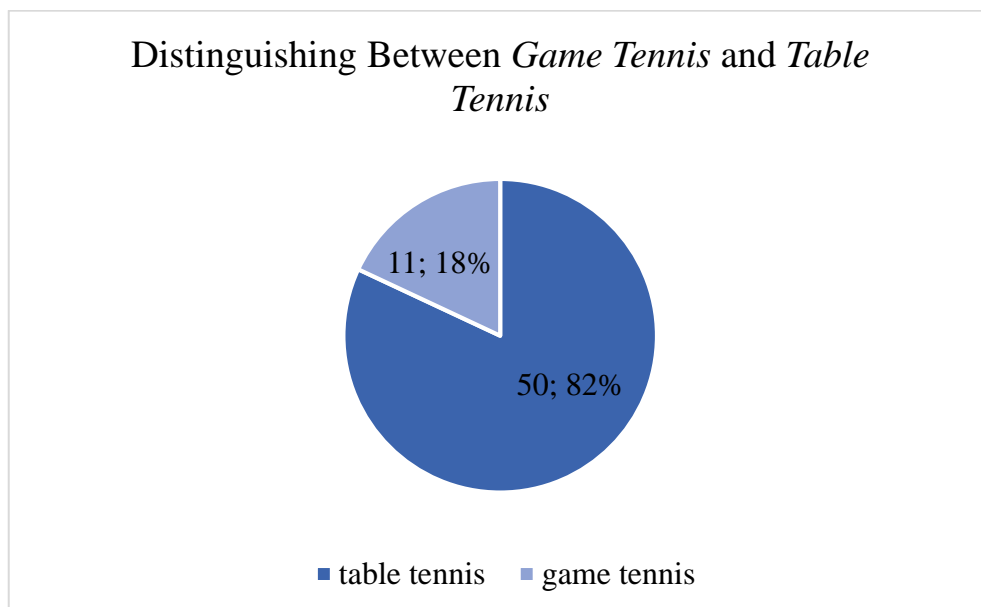
Figure 3 - The overview of correct answers in distinguishing between game tennis and table tennis

The last pair was the most difficult one for the distinction because both words were written with a gap so they seemed very similar. It is thought that most children who marked *table tennis* as a compound noun were led by their knowledge of vocabulary and by the fact that this compound is one of the most common and frequently used compound nouns.

9.2. The Second Exercise

In the second exercise completed by pupils of the primary school, the least problematic compound for the translation from English to Czech was *pocket money*. Fourteen pupils translated this word correctly as *kapesné*. The translation *peněženka* occurred four times and the rest of translations included words like *drobáky*, *malé kovové mince*, *žetony*, *peníze*, *účtenka*, and *práce*. *Wheelchair* was translated correctly as *vozíček* 12 times. In case of this word, 12 children gave no answer and seven children inserted answers such as *kolečkové křeslo/židle*. Other responses included *vozík pro postižené*, *měkká židle*, *vířivka*, *křeslo/židle*, *autosedačka*, *kancelářská židle,* and *židle na kolečkách*. Children had the greatest difficulty with the translation of the word *power station*. Only two of them translated this compound as *elektrárna*. Eleven of them did not answer and the remaining ones gave answers such as *běžecký stadion*, *stanice*, *zastávka*, *benzínka*, *čerpací stanice*, *nabíjecí stanice*, *nádraží*, *stadion,* and *nabíječka*.

From the grammar school's test results it is clear that the least problematic was the translation of the compound *power station*. Surprisingly, 28 pupils, which is the vast majority, translated this word as *elektrárna*. Two of them wrote *nabíječka* as the right translation and only one translated *power station* as *benzínka*. The compound noun *pocket money* was correctly translated as *kapesné* by 20 children. The second most common translation occurring in tests was *peněženka* as well as in tests distributed in Golčův Jeníkov. The above-mentioned translation *peněženka* occurred four times just as in Golčův Jeníkov primary school. The translation *drobné peníze* occurred three times and only one pupil did not try to translate this expression. Other translations like *balíček peněz*, *úspory,* or *záložní peníze* were given. The most problematic word to translate in the grammar school was *wheelchair* which was translated as *vozíček* by only six children. The same number of children wrote *invalidní vozík* and expressions such as *křeslo*, *vozíček pro postižené lidi*, *křeslo na kolečkách* or *točící židle* were given several times. However, 12 of them translated *wheelchair* with the use of 2 words as *kolečkové křeslo/židle*.
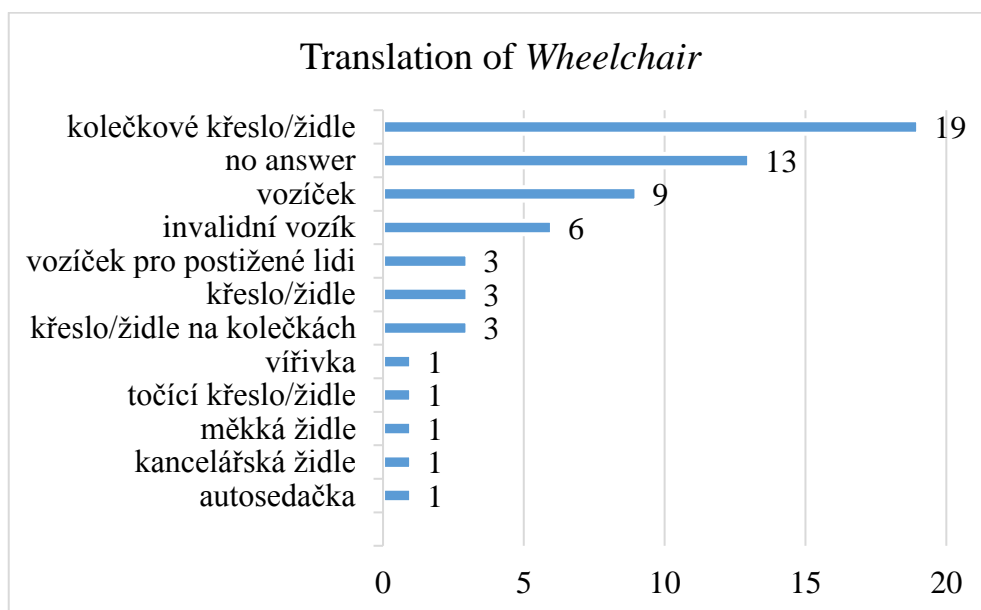
Translation of *Wheelchair*

kolečkové křeslo/židle	19
no answer	13
vozíček	9
invalidní vozík	6
vozíček pro postižené lidi	3
křeslo/židle	3
křeslo/židle na kolečkách	3
vířivka	1
točící křeslo/židle	1
měkká židle	1
kancelářská židle	1
autosedačka	1

Figure 4 - The overview of all answers given by pupils of both schools

Translation of *Power Station*

elektrárna	30
no answer	11
nabíječka	4
benzínka	3
stanice	3
zastávka	2
nabíjecí stanice	2
čerpací stanice	1
nádraží	1
běžecký stadion	1
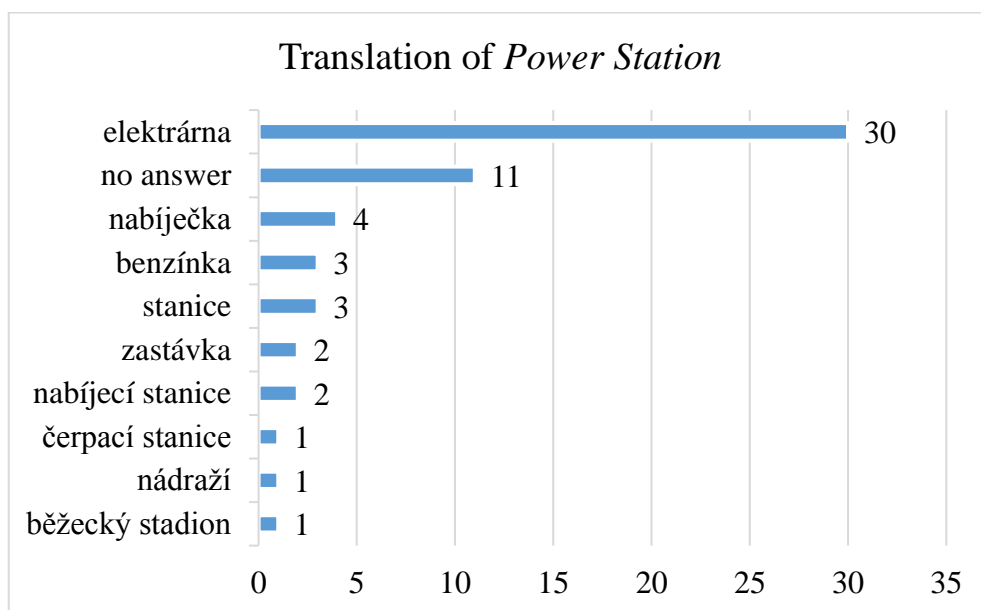
Figure 5 - The overview of all answers given by pupils of both schools
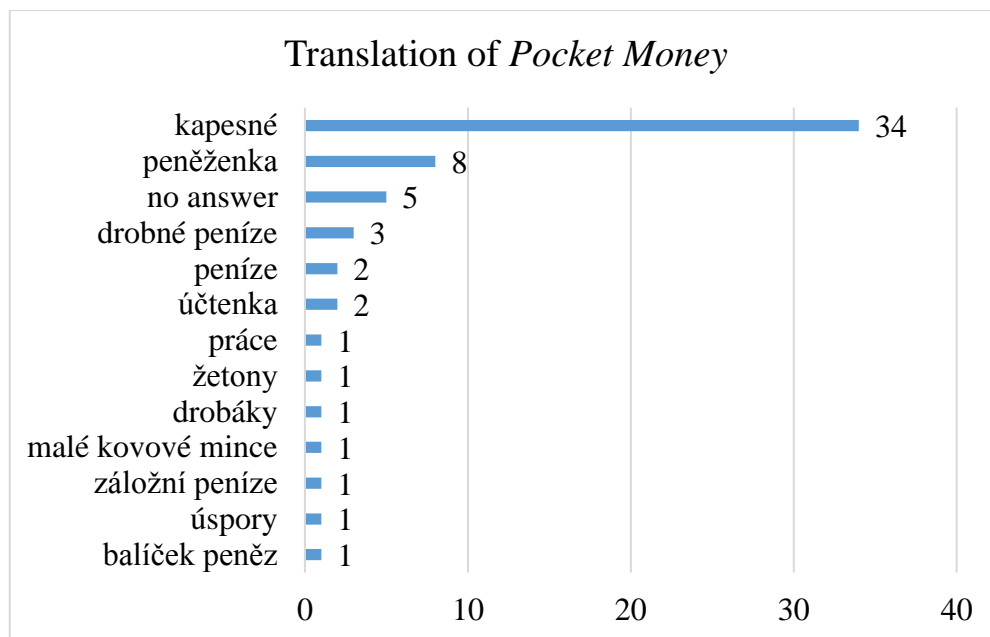
Figure 6 - The overview of all answers given by pupils of both schools

According to these results, this exercise analysis can be concluded by saying that most pupils used one word expressions as translations rather than two or more words expressions. It can be observed on translations of *pocket money* as well as *power station*. There is only one exception which is the word *wheelchair* and it was translated as two-word expression *kolečkové křeslo/židle* in both schools.

9.3.   The Third Exercise

The third exercise was concerned with the translation from Czech to English.

In the primary school, children had the biggest difficulty with the word *posilovací stroj* because 12 of them did not translate it at all and only nine of them translated this compound as *fitness machine*; however, seven of these correct answers were written without a gap. The majority of children in the class were able to correctly translate *noviny* as *newspaper* and *klávesnice* as *keyboard*. The translation *newspaper w*as inserted 23 times and three tests were handed in without an answer. Two children stated plural (*newspapers*) as the correct answer and the translation *news* occurred in other two tests. In the case of *klávesnice*, 23 pupils perceived *keyboard* as the right translation (only one of these 23 answers was written with a gap), six of them did not answer and two pupils translated the expression as *electrictable* and *computertable*.

In the grammar school, the greatest difficulty with translation concerned the word *posilovací stroj* which no one at all translated as *exercise machine* which is the translation included in their textbook's vocabulary. Unexpectedly, 22 pupils did not try to translate *posilovací stroj* into English. Two of them translated it as *workout machine* as well as *workbench*. Other translations given by pupils of the grammar school included, for example, *workmachine*, *benchpress*, *movement*, *strengthmachine,* or *bodymaking machine*. The word *noviny* was correctly translated as *newspaper* by 27 children, three wrote the plural form *newspapers* and only one translated *noviny* as *news*. For pupils of the grammar school, the easiest word to translate was the word *klávesnice* which was 28 times translated as *keyboard* and only two of them did not answer. Surprisingly, none of them used the translation *keypad* which is included in the vocabulary of their textbooks. Instead, they answered with *keyboard* which was taught in the primary school Golčův Jeníkov according to their textbook *Way to Win*.
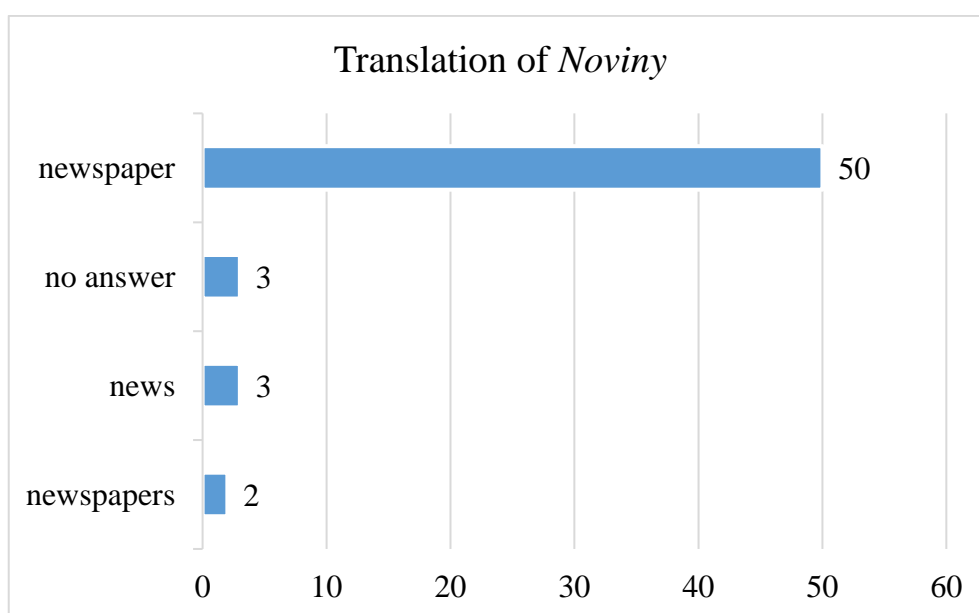

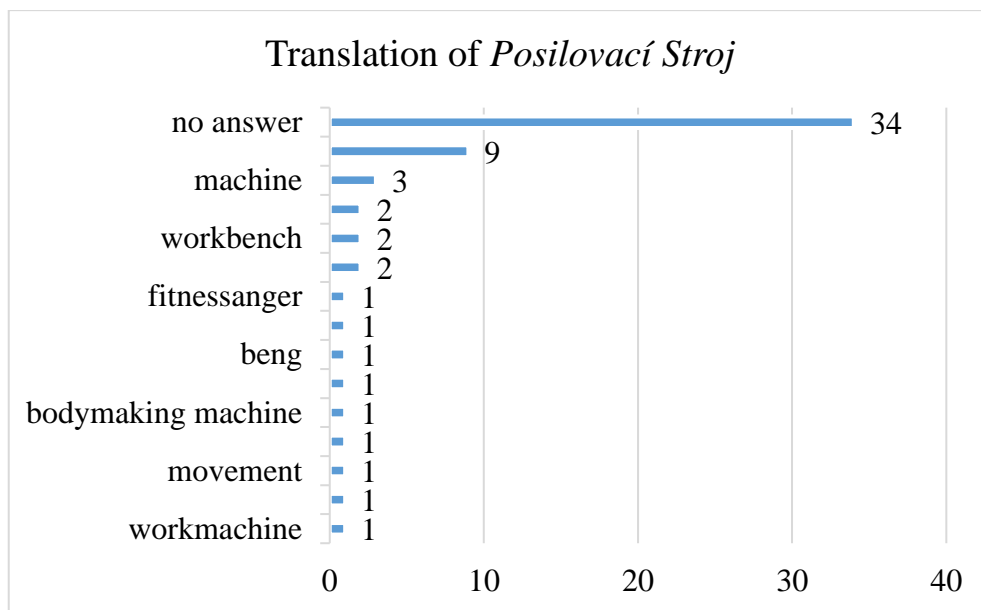*Figure 7 - The overview of all answers given by pupils of both schools*

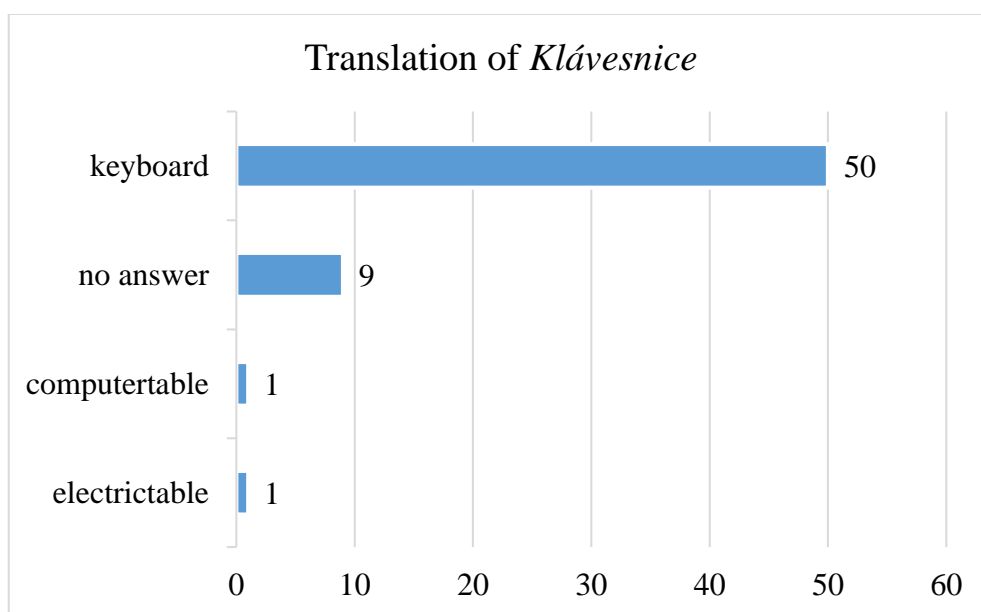*Figure 8 - The overview of all answers given by pupils of both schools*

Figure 9 - The overview of all answers given by pupils of both schools

From the graphs, it can be seen that pupils of both schools wrote words without using gaps in their translations (for example, the expression *fitness machine* was written as *fitnessmachine* in seven cases). Words written with a hyphen did not occur at all. From this observation, the conclusion that pupils have a tendency to write compound words without gaps between them was made (sometimes even in cases where the gap is necessary).

9.4.   The Fourth Exercise

The fourth exercise was successfully and without any mistake completed by 12 pupils of the primary school on the whole. *Timetable w*as the most problematic compound in this exercise because only 18 children chose the second part correctly. Six of them marked *timelife* as a compound as well as *timeclock* and 2 of them did not mark anything. *Guidebook* was correctly chosen by 21 pupils. Three of them chose *guidework* and five of them did not choose any answer. *Guideperson* was marked only once. The last but one compound in this exercise was not so problematic as 23 children marked it correctly and only one did not give any answer. Three children marked *classfriend* as well as *classtable* as the right compound. Lastly, *police officer* was the least problematic compound because 27 pupils chose the second part of the compound correctly, only one of them did not give the answer and two of them chose *policeperson*.

In the grammar school, 28 pupils completed the fourth exercise successfully without a single mistake. All but one pupils correctly marked *table* as the second part of the compound noun to create *timetable*. The one who gave the wrong answer marked *timelife* as a compound. For children, the most problematic compound noun was *guidebook* because two of them chose *person* as the second part of a compound and one marked *guidework* as a compound. The last but one tested compound (i.e. *classmate*) was also not problematic for the reason that only one pupil did not choose any second part but the rest of them correctly chose *classmate*. However, one pupil marked *person* as the second part to the word *police*, the rest of them correctly answered that the right compound noun is *police officer*.
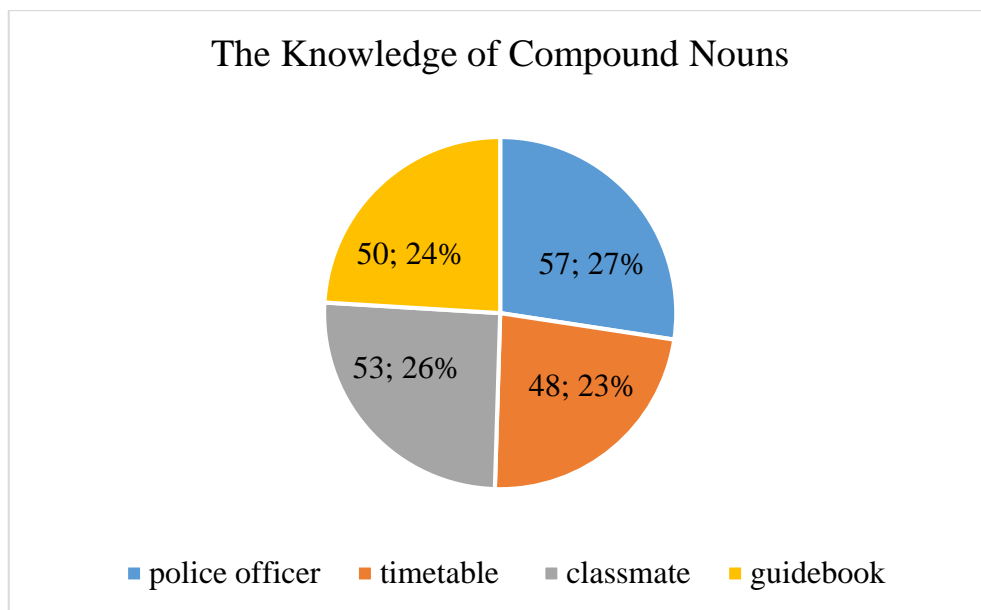
The Knowledge of Compound Nouns

50; 24%   57; 27%

53; 26%   48; 23%

■ police officer   ■ timetable   ■ classmate   ■ guidebook

Figure 10 - The overview of the pupils' knowledge of the stated compound nouns

The exploration in this exercise indicates that the most frequently used and the most common word which is known by pupils is *police officer*. On the other hand, *timetable* is less known and less common among children because they very often marked *timelife* or *timeclock* as a compound. *Classmate* is also a commonly known among school children while *guidebook* is less common.

9.5. The Fifth Exercise

In the fifth exercise, children's task was to state as many compound nouns as they know.

After all tests had been checked, it was discovered that children from the primary school Golčův Jeníkov were able to remember 103 different words on their own. Some of these words were compound nouns but many of them were different types of compound words (e.g., compound adjectives) and also a lot of derived words occurred.

The test included these words stated by pupils of the primary school Golčův Jeníkov:

Ralecar, motorbike, deadman, catwoman, batman, boyfriend, girlfriend, deadisland, deadwomen, computer game, tuningcar, swimming pool, blackbird, basketball, football, baseball, bedroom, spider-man, desktop, light bulb, airsoft, bathroom, policeman, superman, grandmother, grandfather, shotgun, half-time, slenderman,

gentleman, bestfriend, longman, powerpoint, outlook, toilet paper, booklet, blackboard, ticket inspector, ice bear, butterfly, platform, classroom, policewoman, England, Ireland, wonderfull, stressful, something, someone, anything, anybody, anywhere, understand, gayfriend, hotweels, schoolmate, class friend, school book, living room, ironman, floorball, volleyball, ice hockey, snowboard, skateboard, water ball, restroom, dinner room, grandpa, bedrock, mockingjay, trickplayer, Hollywood, power grid, homeless, Milky Way, reindeer, minecraft, barman, pencil case, kindergarden, Microsoft, classbook, sunshine, cheerful, childhood, childgarden, skyscraper, birthday, ice-cream, softball, paintball, eyebrows, hairstyle, bricklayer, marchbook, handball, hairdresser, sunset, strongmachine, pole dance

Among 103 word stated, 53 of them were compound nouns. The most frequent compound nouns adduced by pupils were *boyfriend* (stated 25 times) and *girlfriend* (stated also 25 times). The word *boyfriend* was a compound that was used for explanation of compound noun grammar rules before distributing the test which can be a reason why this word was used so many times. The word *girlfriend* was not mentioned in front of the class but still it was used just as often as *boyfriend* and the reason for that can be a semantic similarity of these two words.

A large group of compounds included in completed tests belongs to a sports category or denote a specific kind of sport equipment. *Football* was mentioned 12 times because it is probably the best-known sport among children as well as *floorball* and *basketball* that were both mentioned seven times. *Volleyball* was stated six times, *baseball* two times and *ice hockey* as well as *pole dance* and *handball* were given as the answer once. Also some other words concerning sports were mentioned (e.g., *snowboard*, *skateboard*, *water ball*). All these words were written without a spelling mistake and correctly with or without a gap. The above-mentioned compounds are not included in *Way to Win* vocabulary so pupils did not learn them at school, probably on the Internet, on TV or somewhere else.

Often compounds such as *batman*, *catwoman*, *ironman* and *spider-man* were mentioned. Children also did not learn these compounds from the textbooks but probably somewhere else (from TV, comics and so on).

Also names of rooms (e.g. *classroom*, *living room*, *bedroom*, *bathroom* and *restroom*) and occupations (e.g. *ticket inspector*, *policewoman*, *policeman*, *bricklayer*,

barman and *hairdresser*) were quite often stated. Most of these compounds are included in their textbook's vocabularies and pupils wrote them correctly.

Many times, children remembered and stated also other words included in *Way to Win's* vocabulary, for example, *birthday*, *swimming pool*, *computer game*, *motorbike,* or *ice cream*.

Surprisingly, children were able to remember a diverse range of different compound nouns that they did not learn from their textbook's vocabularies. Those words were, for example, *railcar*, *shotgun*, *half-time*, *schoolmate*, *powerpoint*, *toilet paper*, *school book*, *blackboard*, *ice bear*, *butterfly*, *desktop*, *light bulb*, *dinner room*, *bedrock*, *power grid*, *hairstyle,* or *pencil case*.

Mostly, children wrote all these compounds without a gap which was in some cases incorrect (for example in *dinner room*, *power grid* and *pencil case* where children often did not use the gap).

In accordance with the test, it was learnt that pupils often confused compounds with derivatives because it was found that many times some results of derivation (mainly suffixation) were stated in the fifth exercise instead of compounds. Those words were, for example, *booklet*, *wonderful*, *stressful*, *childhood*, *homeless,* or *cheerful*. Children correctly noticed that the words are not base words although they did not realize that *-let*, *-ful*, *-less* or *-hood* are not the whole words but suffixes which is the reason why these words cannot be classified as compounds.

In many instances children stated adjectival compounds rather than compound nouns which can be caused by the fact that their vocabulary is not so rich yet or that it is just a result of inattention. Often words like *superman*, *grandfather*, *grandmother*, *gentleman*, *someone*, *anything*, *blackbird* or *Milky Way* occurred. All these words are indeed compounds but they are adjectival compounds.

Pupils attending the grammar school in Havlíčkův Brod were able to invent 116 different words.

The test included these words stated by pupils of the grammar school in Havlíčkův Brod:

Bathroom, weekend, Sunday, touchpad, notebook, textbook, workbook, exercise book, girlfriend, roof-top, blackbird, blackboard, snowboard, butterfly, eyelashes,

lipstick, basketball, football, necklace, waterfall, washing machine, microwave, bookshop, armchair, roommate, dollhouse, cupcake, capital city, wildlife, leaflet, outdoor, shop assistant, playground, hedgehog, hotdog, mobile phone, shoe laces, boyfriend, greenhouse, classroom, blueberry, doorbell, house boat, pencil case, fireplace, best friend, lifehack, battleship, wrestling machine, fill station, homeless, volleyball, bedroom, bodyguard, policeman, eye-shadow, eyebrows, home mate, jellyfish, earrings, chopstick, homework, housework, hairstyle, playboy, playstation, television, doorway, fireman, battleship, bookshelf, coalmine, softball, baseball, dish-washer, lovebirds, step-mother, step-father, swimming pool, fairy tale, form-tutor, faraway, upstairs, downstairs, stomach-ache, soulmate, fire worker, pay rise, teambuilding, workbench, team-mate, skateboard, moonlight, brown bird, business woman, fire-fighter, sunshine, bodybuilder, sometimes, sunset, hotel room, football player, sunlight, sightseeing, microphone, dust bin, give up, tidy up, dress room, outside, indoor, inside, grandparents, grandmother, grandfather, guinea pig

From the above-mentioned list of words, 68 of them were compound nouns. Similarly, as in the primary school, the most frequently stated compound nouns were *boyfriend* and *girlfriend*. The difference is that in the grammar school the compound *boyfriend* was used 14 times unlike *girlfriend* which was used 24 times. Here, the same conclusion as in the case of the primary school was made which is that most children stated *boyfriend* because it was mentioned during the explanation of compound noun grammar rules and *girlfriend* was used so many times because it is a very similar word.

Children from the grammar school surprisingly did not state names of sports as compound nouns as often as children in the primary school. *Football* as well as *basketball* was given as the correct answer 4 times and *volleyball w*as written only two times.

Very frequently names of commonly used things (e.g., *shoe laces*, *lipstick*, *mobile phone*, *necklace*, *earrings*, *dust bin* or *eye-shadow*) or parts of the body (e.g., *eyebrows* or *eyelashes*) were responded with in the test.

On the other hand, the most written compound nouns by pupils of the grammar school were compounds belonging to a category of words concerning school. The compound *textbook w*as mentioned five times. Similarly, the words *exercise book*, *notebook* and *workbook* were stated by children quite often. *Notebook* appeared four times in the tests as

well as *exercise book* and *workbook* was stated three times. The compound *classroom* was stated five times and *pencil case* appeared twice.

Names of rooms and house equipment were responded with many times, similarly as in the primary school. The word *bedroom w*as stated five times and *bathroom* appeared four times in the tests. Other names of rooms as *hotel room* or *dress room* occurred, too. The compound noun *armchair* occurred three times and *bookshelf* was stated twice. *Washing machine* was given as the answer even three times but in one case it was written with the use of a hyphen. Some other words as *dish-washer*, *fireplace*, *doorbell* or *swimming pool* also occurred in the tests.

Only two names of jobs appeared in the test. *Policeman* was answered with four times and *fireman* occurred three times. *Fire-fighter* appeared twice in the tests. In one case, it was written as a hyphenated compound and in the other as an open compound (i.e., with the use of a gap). Other names of jobs included in the tests were for instance *bodyguard*, *shop assistant,* or *football player*.

Names of animals frequently occurred in the tests which was in contrast with the primary school where names of animals did not occur very often. For instance, *butterfly*, *guinea pig* and *hedgehog* or *jellyfish* were stated many times.

Interestingly some less known words among school attending children were also responded with (e.g., *house boat*, *dollhouse*, *cupcake*, *teambuilding*, *battleship*, *battlefield*, *moonlight*, *sunlight,* or *soulmate*).

In contrast with the primary school, children attending the grammar school did not confuse compound nouns with derivatives. Only in one case the word *leaflet* occurred.

On the other hand, in the grammar school, pupils often confused prepositions with nouns because they frequently stated words including a preposition as compound nouns (e.g. *outdoor*, *upstairs*, *downstairs*, *outside*, *indoor* or *inside*).

Similarly to children of the primary school, pupils of the grammar school often responded with compound adjectives (e.g., *greenhouse*, *blackbird*, *wildlife*, *softball*, *blueberry,* or *best friend*) instead of compound nouns.

The majority of the compounds given by children are included in Success' vocabulary (e.g., names of sports, occupations or commonly used names of things as *lipstick*

or *shoelace*) but children were also able to invent a lot of words that are not included in their textbook's vocabulary (e.g. *jellyfish*, *hedgehog* or *dustbin*).

The stated compounds were mainly written correctly with or without a gap and children were able to use a hyphen in cases where it was necessary. Only one word that was written incorrectly without a gap was *guinea pig*. From the test, it was also discovered that children prefer to write compounds as open compounds (i.e., with the use of a gap) rather that hyphenated (i.e., with the use of a hyphen) where both options are possible. For instance, words *eye-shadow* or *team-mate* were written without the hyphen each time.
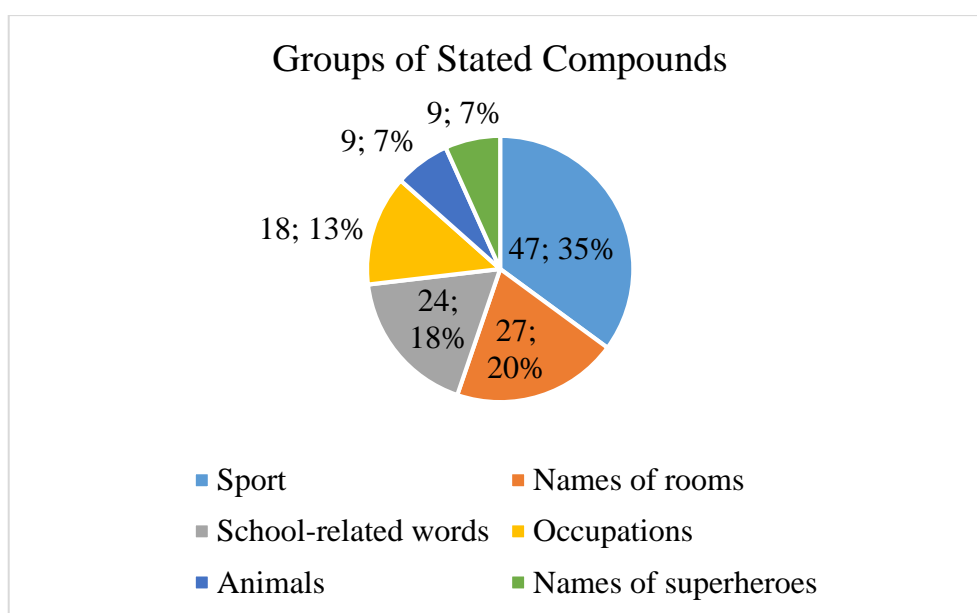
Figure 11 - The overview of occurrence frequency of particular groups of words

The graph shows that the most frequently compound nouns given by children of both schools were different types of sport. Words concerning sports were stated 47 times in both schools altogether. The second most-used group of compound nouns were names of rooms that occurred 27 times. In the third place, there are school-related words that were remembered 24 times by pupils of both schools. In the next place, there are names of occupations stated 18 times on the whole. The last group of compound nouns often written in the tests are animals occurring, as well as names of superheroes, nine times in both schools.

10. Conclusion

The theoretical part of my thesis aimed to describe the problematics of compound nouns in English with the main focus on their specific features, types, and ways of creation. Firstly, I described the topic of word-formation in general where I focused on the processes of derivation, conversion, shortenings, coinage and compounding. After covering main types of compound words I devoted the rest of my thesis to compound nouns where I described their types and specific features in the field of their plural form creation and their stress position.

The main aim in the practical part of the thesis was to learn how difficult the compound noun formation is for pupils of primary schools and eight-year grammar schools. For that reason, I chose two schools where I compared vocabularies of their textbooks and created a test exploring pupils' knowledge and ability to use compound nouns and I distributed it in these schools.

After a detailed analysis of all answers included in the test I came to many interesting findings. From the results of the first exercise, I learned that pupils surely recognize a compound noun when it is written as a closed compound or as a hyphenated compound. Results of the second exercise dealing with a translation of compound nouns from English to Czech language exposed that pupils mainly decided to write one word expression as the translation rather than two or more words expressions. Similarly, the third exercise concerning a translation of compound nouns from Czech to English language showed that pupils mainly translated words as closed compounds rather that open or hyphenated compounds. The fourth exercise and its results exposed the compound noun *police officer* is known by pupils the most. The fifth exercise was the most interesting one as pupils were tasked to state some compound nouns on their own. From the research, I came to the conclusion that the majority of compound nouns known by pupils belong to a category of sport as 35% of pupils stated some kind of sport as a compound noun.

Besides these findings, contents of all tests enabled me to compare both schools among themselves. What surprised me the most was that both groups of pupils were able to remember almost the same amount of compound nouns in the fifth exercise. I thought that I would be able to expose some essential differences during researching concerning whether the stated words are compound nouns or not. But when I went through these stated words I found out that 51% of words stated by pupils of the primary school were compound nouns

which is not such a great difference compared to words stated by pupils of the grammar school where the number of compound nouns was 59%.

On the other hand, the great difference between these two groups of pupils was clear in the second and the third exercise where pupils of the primary school often did not even try to translate compounds in contrast to grammar school's pupils who did not give any answer only sporadically. Words stated by grammar school's pupils were also almost exclusively written without mistakes while pupils of the primary school sometimes spelled words incorrectly with missing letters or with some other spelling mistakes.

To conclude, I can see certain gaps in the knowledge of the primary school's pupils in comparison to grammar school's ones but I can say that before seeing the completed tests I expected the gap to be more significant than it actually was.

11. Závěr

Teoretická část mé bakalářské práce se zabývá popisem problematiky kompozitních substantiv v anglickém jazyce se zaměřením na jejich zvláštnosti, druhy a způsoby tvoření. Na začátku práce jsem obecně popsala téma slovotvorných procesů, kde jsem se zaměřila na procesy derivace, konverze, zkracování, tvorby nových slov a kompozice. Poté, co jsem popsala nejrůznější druhy anglických kompozit, jsem zbytek své teoretické části věnovala kompozitním substantivům, kde jsem zmínila jejich druhy a zvláštnosti týkající se především tvorby plurálu a umístění hlavního přízvuku u těchto slov.

Hlavním cílem praktické části mé bakalářské práce bylo zjistit, jak náročná je problematika kompozitních substantiv pro žáky základních škol a nižších stupňů gymnázií. Pro tyto účely jsem si zvolila dvě školy, kde jsem provedla srovnání slovíček obsažených v jejich učebnicích, a následně vytvořila test zjišťující znalost a schopnost užívání kompozitních substantiv žáky těchto dvou škol.

Následně, po detailní analýze všech odpovědí uvedených v testech, jsem získala mnoho zajímavých poznatků. Z výsledků prvního cvičení vyšlo najevo, že žáci bez problémů poznají kompozitní substantivum, a to v případě, pokud je toto slovo psáno bez mezery nebo s pomlčkou. Výsledky druhého cvičení, zabývajícího se překladem kompozitních substantiv z anglického do českého jazyka, odhalily, že žáci se ve většině případů rozhodli uvést pro překlady spíše jednoslovné výrazy než dvou nebo více slovné výrazy. Taktéž z třetího cvičení zabývajícího se překladem z českého do anglického jazyka je jasné, že žáci volili pro překlady spíše jednoslovné výrazy než dvouslovné výrazy s použitím mezery nebo pomlčky. Čtvrté cvičení a jeho výsledky odhalily, že žáci nejlépe znají a užívají kompozitní substantivum *police officer*. Páté cvičení bylo ze všech cvičení nejzajímavější, a to z toho důvodu, že žáci měli za úkol uvést jakákoli kompozitní substantiva, která znají. Z průzkumu těchto slov, který jsem provedla, vyšlo najevo, že většina kompozitních substantiv, které děti znají, patří do kategorie sportu, jelikož 35% dotazovaných žáků v tomto cvičení uvedlo jako kompozitní substantivum nějaký druh sportu.

Mimo jiné, odpovědi obsažené v testech mi také umožnily porovnat výsledky žáků z obou škol mezi sebou. Nejvíce ze všeho mě překvapilo to, že v pátém cvičení byly obě skupiny žáků schopny vymyslet téměř stejný počet kompozitních substantiv. Zprvu jsem si myslela, že během zkoumání, zda jsou tato slova opravdu substantivní kompozita, uvidím nějaké zásadní rozdíly mezi znalostmi žáků základní školy a žáků navštěvujících gymnázium.

Následně, po zkontrolování všech slov, jsem zjistila, že 59% slov uvedených žáky gymnázia byla kompozitní substantiva, což není tak zásadní rozdíl v porovnání se žáky základní školy, jejichž uvedená slova obsahovala 51% kompozitních substantiv.

Na druhou stranu, velký rozdíl mezi těmito dvěma skupinami žáků byl viditelný ve druhém cvičení, kde se žáci základní školy velmi často ani nesnažili odpovědět v protikladu ke gymnazistům, kteří jen výjimečně neuvedli žádnou odpověď. Dalším rozdílem bylo, že slova uváděná žáky gymnázia byla téměř vždy napsaná bez jediné chyby, zatímco žáci základní školy občas psali slova nesprávně, s chybějícími písmeny nebo jinými gramatickými chybami.

Závěrem bych chtěla říci, že z výsledků testů pozoruji nějaké rozdíly ve znalostech žáků navštěvujících gymnázium a žáků základní školy, avšak před rozdáním testů jsem očekávala, že rozdíly mezi nimi budou mnohem větší, než tomu ve skutečnosti je.

12. Bibliography

ADAMS, Valerie. *An Introduction to Modern English Word-formation*. London: Longman, 1973. ISBN 0-582-52194-7.

ALEXANDER, Louis G. *Longman English Grammar*. London: Longman, 1988. ISBN 0-582-55892-1

BAUER, Laurie. *English Word-formation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1983. ISBN 0-521-28492-9.

BERK, Lynn M. *English Syntax: From Word to Discourse.* New York: Oxford University Press, 1999. ISBN 0-19-512353-0.

CARTER, Ronald and Michael MCCARTHY. *Cambridge Grammar of English: A Comprehensive Guide: Spoken and Written English Grammar and Usage.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2006. ISBN 978-0-521-67439-3.

CRYSTAL, David. *Rediscover Grammar*. Third edition. Harlow: Longman, 2004. ISBN 978-0-582-84862-7.

DUŠKOVÁ, Libuše. *Mluvnice současné angličtiny na pozadí češtiny*. Čtvrté vydání. Praha: Academia, 2012. ISBN 978-80-200-2211-0.

FERGUSSON, Rosalind and Martin H. MANSER. *The Macmillan Guide to English Grammar*. London: Macmillan, 1998. ISBN 0-333-67861-3.

HAIS, Karel. *Anglická mluvnice*. Čtvrté vydání. Praha: Státní pedagogické nakladatelství, 1991. ISBN 80-04-24717-2.

HATCH, Evelyn Marcussen. *Vocabulary, Semantics and Language Education.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1995. ISBN 0-521-47942-8.

HOVORKOVÁ, Martina. *Přehledná anglická gramatika*. Plzeň: Fraus, 2004. ISBN 80-7238-310-8.

HUDDLESTON, Rodney and Geoffrey PULLUM K. *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2002. ISBN 978-0-521-43146-0.

JACKSON, Howard and Etienne ZÉ AMVELA. *Words, Meaning, and Vocabulary: An Introduction to Modern English Lexicology*. Second edition. London: Continuum, 2007. ISBN 978-0-8264-9017-9.

JESENSKÁ, Petra. *Selected Topics on English Word-formation*. Banská Bystrica: Belianum, 2015. ISBN 978-80-557-0934-5.

KAVKA, Stanislav. *Compounds and Compounding: (An Attempt at a Complex View)*. Ostrava: Ostravská univerzita v Ostravě, Filozofická fakulta, 2006. ISBN 80-7368-216-8.

MOLHOVA, Jana. *Outlines of English Lexicology*. Third edition. Sofia: Naouka i izkoustvo, 1976.

MURPHY, Raymond. *English Grammar in Use: A Self-study Reference and Practice Book for Intermediate Learners of English: with Answers*. Fourth edition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2012. ISBN 978-0-521-18906-4.

PLAG, Ingo. *Word-formation in English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2003. ISBN 978-0-521-81959-6.

RYDER, Mary Ellen. *Ordered Chaos: The Interpretation of English Noun-noun Compounds*. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1994. ISBN 0-520-09777-7.

ŠTEKAUER, Pavol, Salvador VALERA-HERNÁNDEZ and Lívia KÖRTVÉLYESSY. *Word-formation in the World's Languages: A Typological Survey*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2012. ISBN 978-0-521-76534-3.

THOMPSON, A. J. *A Practical English Grammar*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1986. ISBN 0-19-431342-5.

VOGEL, Radek. *Basics of Lexicology*. Brno: Masarykova univerzita, 2007. ISBN 978-80-210-4272-8.

Textbooks

BETÁKOVÁ, Lucie a Kateřina DVOŘÁKOVÁ. *Angličtina 7: Way to Win: pro základní školy a víceletá gymnázia*. Plzeň: Fraus, 2006. ISBN 80-7238-389-2.

BETÁKOVÁ, Lucie a Kateřina DVOŘÁKOVÁ. *Angličtina 8: Way to Win: pro základní školy a víceletá gymnázia*. Plzeň: Fraus, 2007. ISBN 978-80-7238-399-3.

BETÁKOVÁ, Lucie a Kateřina DVOŘÁKOVÁ. *Angličtina 9: Way to Win: pro základní školy a víceletá gymnázia*. Plzeň: Fraus, 2008. ISBN 978-80-7238-673-4.

MCKINLAY, Stuart and Bob HASTINGS. *Success: Pre-intermediate.* Harlow: Pearson Longman, 2007. ISBN 978-0582-85397-3.

PARSONS, Jennifer. *Success: Elementary*. Harlow: Pearson Longman, 2007. ISBN 978-1-405-85191-6.

13. List of Figures