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Noun Phrase in English: Its Form, Function and Distribution in Text

DIPLOMOVÁ PRÁCE

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„Prohlašuji, že jsem tuto diplomovou práci vypracovala samostatně a uvedla úplný seznam citované a použité literatury.“

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ABBREVIATIONS

[BNC]	Examples from the British National Corpus
[COCA]	Examples from the Corpus of Contemporary American English
[AR]	My examples, suggestions of translation, etc.
[DC]	Dan Campbell, native speaker of English, 27 years old, British, living in the Czech Republic for 6 years, Czech University education
[KR]	Kathy Reichs (2008), followed by page
[KK]	Kristýna Kučerová (2008), followed by page
[WP]	Walker Percy (1990), followed by page
[Bones]	TV series <i>Bones</i> , followed by the title of the episode
[Everwood]	TV series <i>Everwood</i> , followed by the title of the episode
[HIMYM]	TV series <i>How I Met Your Mother</i> , followed by the title of the episode
[Scrubs]	TV series <i>Scrubs</i> , followed by the title of the episode
[Cold Case]	TV series <i>Cold Case</i> , followed by the title of the episode
[Desperate Housewives]	TV series <i>Desperate Housewives</i> , followed by the title of the episode

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1. Introduction

In my thesis, I will concentrate on noun phrase and its form. I will analyse the constituents of a typical noun phrase, standing both in premodification and postmodification, and I will focus on the exceptions from the expectations.

I will, however, concentrate in more detail on two possible constituents of a noun phrase – on the resulting noun + noun configurations, where the first noun is the premodifier of the second noun, i.e. the head noun, and on the so-called quotational compounds (both as a modifier and the head of a noun phrase).

In the first part I will compare an originally English text to its official Czech translation. The reasons are to find as many various noun phrases as possible, and to overview the similarities and differences in both languages. The noun + noun structure is one of the most frequent possibilities of modifying the noun phrase. It means that the head nouns will be very diverse and the extralinguistic situations will not be limited from the point of view of semantics. In the analysis I will therefore focus not on the general features of these configurations in detail, but I will concentrate on a less frequent case, i.e. premodifying noun in plural.

It is important to stress that these configurations of relatively freely connected nouns are different from compound nouns and fixed expressions in strong semantic relationship, e.g. *a rocking chair* as opposed to *a plastic chair*. I will focus more on the free combinations of nouns.

Since the noun + noun configurations are quite frequent, there was no need to collect and analyse the data long time beforehand. The necessary information and data was easily found everyday in the newspaper or the corpora.

The same, however, does not apply in the case of the quotational compounds. These expressions are not so frequent in the language. If I say “not so frequent” (especially compared to adjectives or nouns modifying the head noun) I have in mind the fact that many of the expressions are formed for one situation only, usually not repeated after that. On the other hand, as these expressions are on a scale, many of them have already shifted from the periphery towards the core of the language, and have become fixed and therefore used more often. It is because they are a very convenient, accurate and economical way of describing objects, people, situations, etc. Therefore, in order to be able to analyse them, it was necessary for me to create a set of examples in advance. This supportive corpus is in Appendix I. It has been created over several

months of reading (newspapers, fiction, advertisements, etc.) and listening (radio, films and series, everyday conversation with native speakers, etc.). This data is then the basis for searching the corpora for similar examples. The corpora used here are namely the British National Corpus (hereafter only BNC) and The Corpus of Contemporary American English (hereafter only COCA¹).

A quotational compound is an expression that is cut out of its original environment and as a whole used in a different syntactic position, e.g. *I will take this food away with me.* – *take-away food*, etc. The origin of quotational compounds may range from short phrases (*face-to-face conversation*) to finite clauses (*all-you-can eat menu, the I-didn't-do-it look in her face*). It is expected that the quotational compounds are preferred in spoken conversation rather than in written text. From their nature, it is also believed that many of these expressions are created only for one specific purpose in one specific situation, and are not likely to be repeated in future, especially not by different speakers. On the other hand, the expressions cannot be strictly divided into two (or more) generally described groups. They are on a scale, where on one pole are these just described expressions, and towards the other pole there are expressions that were repeated over time, and therefore have become fixed and stable in the language, e.g. *a merry-go-round, a drive-through store*.

In the thesis, I will analyse whether there are some more frequent patterns that are more likely to be repeated, what head nouns are possible to be pre- or postmodified by a quotational compound, and what extralinguistic situations are likely to be described by a quotational compound. Several notes will also deal with situations when the quotational compound is translated in the Czech language. Because of the analytical nature of the English language and syntactic nature of the Czech language, it is expected that the differences will be reflected in the frequency and usage of the quotational compounds.

In the theoretical part I sum up several approaches to the noun + noun structures and the quotational compounds, in which parts I use the authors' terminology. This theoretical background is then used for a detailed analysis in the practical part. I take some of the examples provided by the authors and analyse and compare them together with the additional examples from the corpora.

This thesis is supposed to show the less frequent possibilities of pre- and postmodification of a noun phrase. I will focus on examples, which are in grammar

1 All examples are quoted with their original punctuation.

books described as marginal cases (e.g. quotational compounds that are often treated as a peripheral example of a phrase in modifying position (Quirk 1985, 1563) and are not described by a special term at all). Therefore by saying “less frequent”, I mean expressions that are not taken for granted to be used in every spoken situation, as their frequency compared to other pre- or postmodifiers, is significantly lower (as compared for example to an adjective in pre-modification).

The aim is then to describe the expressions and thus explain the possibilities for employing them in the utterance/text.

2. Theoretical preliminaries

2.1 Introduction to the theoretical part

In the first part of my thesis I will provide the theoretical background for further analysis carried out in the practical part. I will focus on noun phrase and its modifiers, specifically the expressions and parts of speech that can constitute the attribute both in premodification and postmodification. A detailed analysis will then deal with noun + noun structures, where the first noun modifies the second one – the head of the phrase, and with the so-called quotational compounds.

Therefore I will begin with the available definitions and approaches necessary for further analysis. The data for the analysis comes from my own supportive corpus and then I have enlarged the list of these examples by examples from BNC and COCA.

I develop and enlarge the topic already discussed in my bachelor thesis called *Sequence of Adjectives in the English Noun Phrase* (Ryšavá 2008).

2.2 Definitions

2.2.1 Noun phrase

Quirk (1985, 1238–1350) describes the noun phrase in detail, both from the point of view of morphology and syntax. As he suggests, a noun phrase may have different functions in a sentence, the typical being the subject and object. The simplest noun phrase consists of an article and a head. The head may be modified in two ways – it can be premodified and/or postmodified.

Premodification can be most typically expressed by an adjective (*some expensive furniture*), but other options are common as well: a participle (*a very interesting mind, a retired teacher*), a noun (*his life story*), genitive (*his fisherman's cottage*), an adverb or adverb phrase (*round-the-clock service, this is the in thing at present*), or a sentence (*his what-do-you-call-it cottage*).

Postmodification may consist of a prepositional phrase (*the car outside the station*), a non-finite clause (*the dog barking next door, a report written by my colleague, the ability to use his hands, the ability of using his hands*), a finite clause – a relative clause (*the news that appeared in the papers this morning*). Some minor possibilities of postmodification are an adverb phrase (*the road back*), or an adjective (*something different*).

Except for modifiers, determiners are a very important part of a noun phrase.

Determiners may be divided into predeterminers (*all*), central determiners (*the, this, some*), and postdeterminers (*three, many, few*) and therefore the noun phrase could be e.g. *all the three blond girls in blue jeans came to the party*.

To sum up, the premodification and postmodification possibilities may consist of following constituents (Quirk 1985, 245):

The girl

The blonde girl

The blonde girl in blue jeans

The blonde girl wearing blue jeans

The blonde girl who is wearing blue jeans

She

is my sister.

In my bachelor thesis (Ryšavá 2008) I concentrated on the sequences of adjectives in the English noun phrase. The main concern was the order of adjectives in premodification, what the tendencies in ordering adjectives are (semantic, stylistic criteria) and what other, originally other parts of speech apart from adjectives, may stand in premodification of a noun phrase (e.g. noun as in *a stone wall*). Apart from the sequences of primary adjectives, as in:

- (1) *She also wore **black spiky, button-up ankle boots, a baggy black cardigan and enough stainless steel jewellery to make a dinner service***². [BNC HTL 3106],

there were also several other possibilities of forming a sequence of premodifiers in the noun phrase.

One of the most typical possibilities of expressing the premodification of a noun phrase is a participle, both present and past, cf.:

- (2) *Previously **frozen uncooked meat** can be refrozen as long as it has been cooked, but don't re-cook anything more than twice*. [BNC C9F 1987]

- (3) *For her, any unit of discourse can be used as the 'frame' of a metaphor, the only*

² Some of the examples (1, 2, 4) quoted directly from the text (Ryšavá 2008), examples (5, 6, 7, 8) are from the Appendix I, examples (3, 9, 10, 11) are newly added to the overview.

*constraint being that the **corresponding metaphoric ‘focus’** must be a unit at a level beneath that of the frame.* [BNC G1N 509]

The conclusion is that formal point of view (i.e. present or past participle) is not decisive when considering the position of the participle in premodification of the noun phrase. Neither present or past participles precedes the other, thus the semantic point of view is the most important factor when sequencing the premodifiers. The present and past participles are not mutually exclusive, as proven by the following example:

- (4) *The end result is an extremely **well-written, amusing narrative** which I commend to everyone fortunate enough to have known the Club and particularly to those who will know it in the future.* [BNC AMY 19],

as well as both forms of the participles may stand in one sequence with one (or more) another adjective (cf. 5, 6):

- (5) *Getty still embodied **the old-fashioned American ethic** of thrift.* [BNC ACS 86]
- (6) *It was stiff with blue and brown uniforms, the blue being mostly Waafs and the brown American airmen, plus **a few pasty-looking American girls** — ‘rejects’ as they were unkindly called.* [BNC B3F 773]

Other examples show that apart from adjectives and the above-mentioned participles, a noun is also a common participant of the premodification of the noun phrase. Example of a noun + noun structures range from fixed expressions and phrases:

- (7) ***The rocking chair creaked** in the dark.* [BNC FS8 517]
- (8) *The term ‘nuclear’ rather than ‘atomic’ is appropriate from this time onwards because **the first American hydrogen bomb** was tested in November 1952.* [BNC ABA 573],

to more freely connected words, as in:

- (9) *Are you, or are you not, a Dundee Sunday league football player?*
[BNC K5J 2604]
- (10) *In the arrangement in my act, the song floats on top of a piano sonata: it's the Brechtian thing of throwing responsibility for the sentiment to your audience.*
[BNC A54 141]
- (11) *At the top of it was a high stone wall with a rustic door inset.* [BNC AEB 2589]

A more detailed analysis of structures including two nouns, while one being in the function of a premodifier of the following noun (i.e. a head noun), will be provided in the following chapters.

In my bachelor thesis (Ryšavá 2008) I have distinguished a group of phrases where the expected order in the sequence of adjectives was somehow disrupted. A very large groups of adjectives were exactly these expressions. As I suggest the usual, or better to say expected, order of adjectives in the chain of adjectives in premodification, described from the left to the right (Ryšavá 2008, 34), is:

1. a) emphasis (*certain*)
b) size (*big, large*)
2. a) importance (*important*)
b) subjective emotional evaluation (*impressive, elegant*)
3. time definition (age or date/time, when something happened)
4. time characteristics (how long) (*long-running, two-day*)
5. touch (a characteristics that can be identified by feeling a subject)
(*smooth*)
6. shape (*round, square*)
7. a) colour (*black, red*)
b) outer characteristics, appearance (*fragile, steely*)
8. a) material (*plastic*)
b) origin (*Chinese*)

9. a) converted noun (*stone wall*)
b) participle (*painted*)

Apart from other exceptional cases, the above-mentioned large group of exceptions are fixed expressions whose semantic ties are so strong that these two (or in some cases, even though quite rare cases, three) words stand together and no other adjective can be inserted, e.g. (Ryšavá 2008, 19):

- (41) *Haslam admits that being the focal point of all the national publicity that inevitably surrounds the British **coal industry** is not something that he relishes.* [BNC A6L 1238]
- (42) *There are no easy chairs, save for **a single wooden rocking chair**; no cushions, save for three ornamental ones in a corner.* [BNC A0P 86]
- (43) *The history of the German people between 1933 and 1945 can sometimes read like **a particularly nightmarish Gothic fairy tale**.* [BNC K5L 2011]

2.2.2 Classification of words according to parts of speech

Before continuing any further the most important point here is to decide whether the noun that modifies the head noun as an attribute (as in *the stone wall*) becomes formally an adjective or if it remains a noun. Syntactically there is no difference, as none of the conclusions limit the position – which is an attribute in premodification.

There are, however, two possible results from this shift. One of them are compounds (e.g. *a hand brake*, in some cases already spelled as one word: *a motorcycle*) in which, as it is often believed, there is only one stress and it is on the first element (Quirk 1985, 1332); the other is a relatively free combination of two nouns (or as also called denominal adjective and a primary noun), (e.g. *a steel chair*) where each constituent will be assigned the main stress.

First of all, I need to establish the attitude to parts of speech. Dušková (2006, 23) describes the three main criteria for dividing words into groups according to their part of speech: morphological, syntactic and semantic (i.e. lexical), and later (Dušková 2006, 31) adds one more – phonological (stress, or alternation of the stem vowel). The crucial, and the most typical, criteria for the Czech language are definitely the morphological

criteria, as the morphemic structure of the word, especially its ending, is a clear sign of the part of speech (*ukamenova-t, kamenn-ý*). Morphological criteria are less important in the English language, because of the limited system of inflections, thus many words remain unchanged even if fluctuating among different classes when being used in a sentence.

(12a) *A child threw a **stone** at a horse which bolted.* [BNC HXV 899]

(12b) *I thought it was made of **stone**, but to my horror I discovered it was made of cement blocks.* [BNC BMD 295]

(12c) *A low **stone** wall ran across the far side of the square.* [BNC B1X 2595]

(12d) *Then, one by one, they were **stoned** to death.* [BNC AC7 1641]

In these cases, the applied insight for deciding is the syntactic point of view. The morphological viewpoint is useful only in cases of affixation, such as words ending with -able are adjectives, -dom or -ment indicates nouns, the suffix -ify is typical for verbs. Also the alternation of stem vowel helps to decide about the part of speech, cf. *long* versus *length*, *strong* versus *strength*, etc.

Phonology is used more in English than in Czech in the decision-making process, in cases of words with the same spelling, so-called homographs, e.g. *import* (N) and *import* (V), *absent* (Adj) and *absent* (V). Here it is necessary to take the position of stress into consideration.

Dušková (2006, 24) explains what conversion is:

“Schopnost vyskytovat se beze změny tvaru ve funkci různých slovních druhů se nazývá konverze. V angličtině se široce uplatňuje právě v důsledku toho, že mnoho slov má z hlediska slovnědruhové příslušnosti neutrální tvar.”

And on the following pages (24–30) she describes the most frequent examples of conversion.

The most frequent type of conversion is in the case of **a noun and a verb**. There are three subgroups – a) if the word is etymologically originally a noun (e.g. *a hand* and *to hand*, the verbs can be further modified, cf. *hand in, hand out*); b) if the word is originally a verb (e.g. *to bend* – *a bend*); or c) it is very difficult to determine whether it

was the noun or the verb, that came first into the lexicon. Especially deverbative nouns are frequently found in fixed verbonominal phrases following verbs such as *have, give, take, make, get*, etc.

(13) *I'll **have a shower** when you have finished in there.* [BNC GVP 796]

Conversion is also quite typical for transition in the groups of **nouns and adjectives**. Typical examples of a conversion of an adjective into a noun are the adjectives/nouns describing people, cf. *adult, criminal*. These adjectives frequently describe collectives (*the young – mladí*, or also *mládež*) or an abstract character (*the beautiful – krásno, the supernatural – nadpřirozeno*). The names of nations are also included in this group (*the English – Angličané*).

A total conversion of a noun into an adjective is rarer, for example: *top (vrchol and horní)*.

However, partial conversion is more typical for the English language, especially in case of adjectivization of nouns. The difference between total and partial conversion is that in case of the partial conversion the changes are applied only on the syntactic level, i.e. in total conversion, the adjectival characteristics of a noun are determined by the position in the sentence, premodifying the noun, nominal characteristics of an adjective are indicated by using an article, while in partial conversion, some affixation occurs (*long – length*).

Dušková (2006, 27) continues with the mutual position of nouns, the first being the modifier, the latter being modified. This simple point is crucial for understanding the meaning, because e.g. *a drawing competition* compared to *a competition drawing*, are obviously different in meaning. The noun that is converted into the adjective than (mostly) loses contrast of number, cf. *trousers* compared to *a trouser leg*. Possibilities of the premodifying noun in plural are discussed in the practical part of this thesis.

To compare these ideas, the following groups are based on Quirk (1985, 1560–1563), additional examples are drawn from the BNC.

a) a noun becoming a verb (*bottle = to put into a bottle, cash = to change into cash*, etc.):

(14a) *The growing trend towards private toll roads and **bridges** is directly contrary to our environmental needs.* [BNC K5H 3936],

where *bridges* is a plural form of a noun. In the following sentence the same word is used as a verb in past tense form:

(14b) *All these links have **bridged** quite unbelievable distances.* [BNC CDX 1576]

Plural (14a) should not be confused with using the verb in third person singular (14c):

(14c) *An image in his art that **bridges** the gap between the commercial and the fine.*
[BNC K57 1538],

where there is the same formal structure of the lexical unit, but the morpheme *-s* expresses a completely different meaning.

b) the reverse process is **a deverbal noun** (*desire, love, cover, etc.*):

(15a) *She turned to **walk** back, then decided to jog.* – verb [BNC A0R 2067]

(15b) *It was a **walk** full of surprises.* – noun [BNC A0F 1340]

While following the track of the word *walk* (I do not mention the part of speech on purpose), it is possible to come to examples, limited as they may be, where the verb/deverbal noun stands in the attributive position and becomes (syntactically) a secondary adjective, cf. the first mentioned example of *walk*; the latter (*shortish*) *walks* is a deverbal noun:

(15c) *Contents: detailed **walk directions** are given for 18 shortish walks – all around 5 miles – in this overlooked part of the country.* [BNC CME 1144]

c) originally **an adjective** shifting **to a noun** (not very frequent examples) (*I'd like two pints of bitter, please = type of beer; As a football player, he's a natural = a naturally skilled player, etc.*):

(16a) *In the primary school, drama is most successful when it emerges as a **natural** development from children's play.* [BNC CCV 1400]

(16b) *At golf he was a **natural**, though conversely his struggles to become a tournament player were such that he nearly gave up to take a club job.*
[BNC AHU 992]

d) an adjective becoming a verb (*calm = to make calm, dry, etc.*):

(17a) *Flowers last longer if kept in a **cool** place and given a high phosphate feed once a month.* – adjective [BNC A70 2171]

(17b) *Allow to **cool** slightly so the topping turns crisp and serve warm.* – verb
[BNC C9F 1906]

It can exist in the shifted meaning and then towards colloquialism, both as a noun or as a verb:

(17c) *That is such a **cool** movie!* [BNC KPP 907]

(17d) *Hey, **cool** it, baby!* [BNC GUD 1693]

e) a noun becoming an adjective (*reproduction furniture – The furniture is reproduction, etc.*)

(18a) *No envelope either, just a slip of **paper**, folded in two, containing a brief typewritten message.* [BNC HH8 2889]

(18b) *Recently it has become possible to convert simultaneously wood chips of a hundred or more hardwood species into paper pulp, which is important, as it is estimated that **paper** consumption will increase more than that of timber.*
[BNC J18 1372]

(18c) *But within a few moments we were sipping extra-dry martinis from **paper** cups, then eating cold chicken and tinned ham, with beer chilled by the sea.*
[BNC CHG 2089]

f) This last group deals with **rare expressions** which occur in the English language. English is more “playful” than Czech, and thus representatives of various parts of speech may occasionally fulfil a different syntactic function. Quirk (1985, 1562–1563) presents the minor categories of conversion e.g.: *It tells you about the how and*

the why of flight. The nominal nature is stressed by the definite article, and the whole structure is used as means of language economy. To avoid structures like: *the answer(s) to how, why (etc.) can be found*, it is possible to use:

(19) ***The hows, whys, and wherefores are available from N.B.*** [BNC C9J 64]

The nominal nature here is not expressed through an article but through the -s morpheme representing the plural.

Quirk (1985, 1563) continues with examples such as: *If you oh-oh again, I won't go on with my story.*, *They downed tools in protest*. Besides these examples he mentions expressions converted into adjectives from phrases: *an up-in-the-air feeling*. These are examples also analysed in this thesis, i.e. phrases whose original syntactic structure is clearly recognizable even if they are used in other syntactic position, e.g. as in this case attributive position.

Mathesius (1961, 40–41) summarizes the problem of classifying words into categories according to the parts of speech they represent. The obstacle in a clear categorizing is based on the question what the substance of different parts of speech is. There are two main viewpoints for classifying words: the semantic and the syntactic. The former divides words into categories according to the extra-linguistic reality, i.e. nouns are words that denote objects, adjectives describe constant, not changing aspects, while the meaning of verbs lies in describing aspects that change in front of the observer. The latter point of view, the syntactic perspective, describes the individual categories of parts of speech according to what syntactic role they represent in a sentence; thus a noun is a word that may be employed in the position of a subject and/or object, an adjective may stand in the position of an attribute, and the verb functions as the predicate. As Mathesius adds, both these points of view overlap to a large extent, thus a clear division cannot be strictly imposed.

The question thus arouses whether the nouns used as attributes should be formally transmitted into the group of adjectives, or whether they should remain nouns. Nevertheless, as mentioned above in this thesis, I have mostly preferred the syntactic standards, therefore I describe phrases such as *a stone wall*, *a paper cup*, *a plastic bottle* formally as a phrase consisting of two nouns where the first one (or ones) premodifies the following noun. This is because of the missing or very limited affixation

possibilities that are very helpful when classifying Czech words, cf. *kámen* versus *kamenný*, or *papír*, *papírový* and even *zabalit (do papíru)*.

However, to provide the other point of view, Mathesius (1961, 43) claims that nouns standing in premodification of another noun become adjectives, and he provides four ways of proving that:

1) the adjective originating from a noun stands in the same position as other primary adjectives and they may even be in the same phrase, connected by the copulative conjunction *and*, e.g. *She is quite vulgar and commonplace*.

(20) *The Great Exhibition of 1851 – that gigantic public relations job for Britain’s economic supremacy at the time – had been housed in **a vast glass and iron building**, itself a confirmation of the country’s “workshop of the world” status, and romantically dubbed the Crystal Palace.* [BNC HSG 63],

where the word order in the noun phrase *a vast glass and iron building* is relatively fixed as far as the position of the adjective *vast* is concerned, while *glass* and *iron* could simply be swapped which would not change the meaning.

2) The denominal adjectives are differentiated from the nouns that they modify by another primary adjective, e.g. *evening paper* → *evening radical paper*.

This could be a useful viewpoint, however, I would dare to disagree, as the position of adjectives in the premodification of a noun phrase tends to be fixed and their order is relatively universally accepted by native speakers. The phrase *evening radical paper* did not have any results neither in BNC nor in COCA. Nevertheless, there is a certain flexibility in the order, thus slightly different versions may be possible.

3) The head noun may be replaced by the pro-form word *one* with the adjective remaining in premodification: e.g. *Electric engines were still so imperfect at that time that they were much more expensive than the steam ones*.

(21) *The bed was **a cheap iron one**.* [BNC G13 1061]

4) Furthermore, the adjective that was formed through conversion may be modified by an adverb, in the same way as the primary adjectives could be modified, e.g. *That's a too London point of view.*

In this case I cannot use the same noun/adjective as in the previous examples as *iron* expresses an absolute state of a matter thus is ungradable. The same would be in case of *stone* or *leather*, i.e. nouns used in premodification.

There is also the other process (Mathesius 1961, 43–44), i.e. the conversion of an adjective into a noun, or the process of using an adjective in the position of a noun. This is, however, a very rare method of conversion in the English language. The Czech language has examples such as *sucho*, *dobro*, or some professions, cf. *hajný*, *vrátný*. English nouns originating from adjectives are for example *the dead*, *the Almighty*. These expressions rarely denote a singular entity, they rather refer to plural: *the poor* – *chudí*; and some examples differentiate singular from plural by adding the suffix -s: *the red* as compared to *the reds*.

Now a question arises, as many authors mention a phenomenon very close to already discussed conversion. However, the below mentioned examples are not results of shifting words from one group of part of speech into another, but these shifts occur within one part of speech.

To provide a broader point of view, Mathesius (1961, 58–63) describes the transition between different categories of parts of speech as a change that considerably influences the basic meaning of the relevant word. He compares the Czech and the English languages, claiming that also the Czech language knows several examples of word class transition, e.g. (Mathesius 1961, 58) *Proti čtyřicetihodinovému pracovnímu týdnu byl hlavně průmysl.* (*Especially industry was/were against the 40-hour working week.* [AR³]) where the noun *průmysl* (*industry*) is meant for the representatives of the area of industry, as opposed for example to *služby* (*services*). As it is seen, the transition of the noun *industry* does not mean a change of the part of speech, but it is only a case of an abstract noun used as a concrete noun. The situation in English is very similar to Czech, cf.

(22) *His address implied that schools and teachers were no longer equipping young people to meet the requirements of **industry**. If **industry** were unable to draw on a suitably trained and appropriately educated work-force, how could Britain*

3 My suggested working translation

be expected to make its way in the world's markets? [BNC CLY 439]

The change from an abstract to a concrete noun is only one possibility, there is also the option of changing a proper noun to a common noun, even though the capital or small letters are not a reliable indicator of the proper/common noun shift:

(23a) *In the early years, Stevenson described himself as having been a **Jack** of all trades.* [BNC K5J 1352]

(23b) *Are you a **jack** of all trades or do you prefer to specialize?*⁴[BNC ARS 495],

or a countable to an uncountable noun:

(24) *Try lower fat **cheeses**, such as Edam, Camembert and Brie.* [BNC A70 1611],

where the plural noun does not indicate bigger amount of the mentioned cheese, but the different kinds of this food, which is later undoubtedly explained by naming the kinds of cheese.

Quirk (1985, 248) expresses a similar opinion, he describes these shifts as “reclassification”.

From my point of view, conversion is a shift of the word used in one syntactic position to a different syntactic position, i.e. the result changes the syntactic characteristics but not the semantic or formal nature. Therefore I would prefer the idea that the words do not move to different groups of parts of speech. It means that in the case of using a noun to premodify another noun (*a gold ring*) the resulting structure is noun + noun, the first word is a morphological noun, and from the syntactic viewpoint an attribute.

As a result of the possibility of a noun premodifying other noun, several configurations occur in the English language. The scale of expressions ranges from relatively freely connected words to fixed phrases, and thus the compounds originate. Mathesius (1910) analyses these expressions. In this article he focuses on how it is possible to distinguish a compound noun from a phrase. The criteria for the decision are both semantic and formal.

⁴ Note that even though jack-of-all-trades would be considered a quotational compound, it is not hyphenized.

Mathesius stresses that, in fact, the word order is not the main decisive feature, as some of the phrases may include three individual words which fall into different patterns. The first possibility is that the first member (either an adjective or a noun) modifies the other two members of the phrase which stand closely together, e.g. *mammoth tea party*, or *steam lifeboat*. The pattern here is $A \overline{B} C$. The other group of examples can be described as the structure $A \overline{B} C$. As it is to be seen, the last word in the chain is the only that stands as an individual, and is modified by the two preceding words which are closely connected. Mathesius provides the examples such as *music-hall programme*, *King's Bench judge*, etc. The semantic relationships between the words are very important for understanding the structure, and consequential translation.

(25) *Plant **new fruit trees** carefully and give adequate support until established.*
[BNC ACY 1280],

where both adjectives modify the head noun: *new trees* and *fruit trees*, while the ties in the following example have a different character, cf.:

(26) *For men under 20, the **job offer arrival rates** are at least nine times higher than for men aged 55 and over (at the mean wage), emphasising how difficult it is for older unemployed men to obtain a job.* [BNC H9A 248]

This example shows that the same features (i.e. different patterns) are valid not only for three-word expressions, but also for longer sequences.

The syntactic viewpoint is based on the word order. As the usage of endings in the English language has been reduced and in many cases there are only small or no differences between parts of speech, there are less possibilities for the English language to formally create some compounds (this fact is best to be proven in comparison to the other Germanic language – German, e.g. *das Zeugenzimmer*, *e Unterbeamtenfrage*, etc.). On the other hand this allows the English language to form compounds and phrases in a different way – simply by putting two (or more) words next to each other, and thereby forming fixed idiomatic phrases and expressions (*art exhibition*), and compounds (*music hall*, *rocking chair*).

2.2.3 Quotational compounds

This section of the theoretical part is devoted to the phenomenon of the quotational compounds. I will present summaries of several articles discussing these expressions. The most interesting articles are by Mathesius and Vachek, who both compare the English to the Czech languages.

Nosek (1985, 159) defines these expressions: “Quotational compounds are multiword groups such as *hand-in-glove* or *bride-to-be*”.

Nosek also claims that quotational compounds occur in both Czech and English, but are more frequent in the English language, and on the other hand, quite rare in the Czech language. His Czech examples are e.g. *přetrhdílo*, *neznaboh*, *strašpytel*, etc.

Czech quotational compounds usually consist of two words – *nezna-boh* – while the English quotational compounds may contain two, but also more words: *take-it-or-leave-it proposition*.

Nosek provides several examples of quotational compounds and their counterparts in the Czech language, an example in Czech is *budižkničemu*, an English example is *good-for-nothing*. It is, however, not usual for both languages to have the equivalents expressed by a quotational compound. Thanks to the analytical nature of the English language there are many more examples of the quotational compounds in English than in Czech, thus it is less likely for the Czech language to provide matching quotational compound, or to have a quotational compound while English prefers a “common” primary adjective, noun or adverb. On the other hand, because of the Czech morphosyntactic rules it is easier to use a paraphrastic description, such as: *nevím, jak se jmenuje*. – *what’s-his-name*. In some cases the situation is easier and thus provides for more possibilities of translation (Nosek 1985, 161):

(27) *He is a hand-in-glove with the police.*

a) *Je jedna ruka s policií.* (analytical)

b) *Je sčuchnutý s policií.* (synthetic)

c) except of his suggestions of translation, other possibilities could be:

ad analytical) *Je zajedno s policií.* [AR]

Jde ruku v ruce s policií. [AR]

ad synthetic) *Je spolčený s policií.* [AR]

Even though there are ways to translate the statement in an analytical way, a quotational compound is not one of them. Of course there are many more possibilities, not all of them, however, would correspond the stylistic idiomatic nature of the original statement, e.g. *Spolupracuje s policií*.

The other group, i.e. quotational compounds in English and not in Czech, includes: *zákulisní klepy* – *behind-the-scenes gossip*, *každodenní* – *day-to-day*, or *snadnoupoužitelný* – *easy-to-use*. This group, as mentioned, is much larger and is very heterogeneous.

Mathesius (1961, 32) describes the phenomenon of quotational compounds as a situation when a sentence is used as a noun, or noun compound. This is, however, not an accurate description of these words, as they do not have to become nouns, their morphological status is difficult to be stated without a context, and the importance of the syntactic point of view is undeniable. When discussing the original phrase *thank you*, one can see that it can change into a noun, an adjective or a nominal part of the copula, cf.

(28a) *Well, I've spent a year doing what the Thing's told me and I've never had so much as a "thank you", said Masklin. [BNC CEU 970]*

(28b) *Following the meeting a card was sent and a thank you letter has been received. [BNC HX8 2520]*

(28c) *It's our thank you as well. [BNC KP1 8389]*

Based on that, I would not claim that the quotational compounds are nouns, but I would prefer describing them as nominal sentence members whose status can only be described in context and within the sentence.

Dušková also (2006, 20) mentions quotational compounds. The difference between Czech and English considering the belonging to the specific classes of parts of speech is obvious, and has been discussed above. One of the results following from these differences is for example the occurrence of compounds in English that are very rare in the Czech language. Apart from blending (*smog* as a result of blending *smoke* and *fog*), Dušková also discusses the quotational compounds. Similarly to above-mentioned approaches, she describes the origin of quotational compounds, as shifting of a part of a clause into a different syntactic environment, e.g. *What you need is a pick-me-up*. Dušková also describes them as a productive way of forming new words, some

of them occurring for one case only, e.g. *the swallowed-up-by-the-earth theory*.

Quotational compounds are definitely more frequent in the English language than in the Czech language. They are a productive way of word formation, new and new examples occur in the language almost every day. Most of them, however, are formed only for the sake of one situation. These ad hoc quotational compounds used to describe a specific situation, are universally understood, but then mostly forgotten or not repeated. Nevertheless not all of these expressions necessarily have to be used just once and never again. Some of them, due to the language economy, stay in the language long enough to become a permanent part of the core lexicon. I will prove this on the example of the *do-it-yourself* (shop), which can be furthermore abbreviated and then the *DIY* (shop) is a very convenient expressions.

As Vachek (1960) states, also in the Czech language there are many words and expressions that are very close to what is called quotational compounds. It is, however, not a surprise, that these words do not correspond to the English words and expressions described by the same term. There are several differences in these examples, ranging from spelling (English quotational compounds are often spelled with hyphens, e.g. *all-you-can-eat menu*, while Czech quotational compounds are spelled as one word, e.g. *budižkničemu*) to morphosyntax (English quotational compounds may fulfill different syntactic positions, e.g. attribute: *do-it-yourself shop*, or a nominal part of a copula *she is a lady in waiting*, while Czech quotational compounds are heads of the noun phrases, i.e. morphologically they are nouns: *budižkničemu* or, more frequently adverbs: *jaksepatří, zdařbůh*)

Vachek (1960, 110) continues that the spelling of the expressions does not correspond to the adverbial it was derived from, but the common origin is obvious (*dokonce* compared to the original *do konce*). The adverbial consists of two separated words which still contain the original meaning, while the meaning of the individual words is no longer transparent in the expression. This may be proven by replacing some of the components in the adverbial by a synonym, e.g. *do závěru* instead of *do konce*. Even though *do konce* is more common than *do závěru*, the meaning is understood and clear and these two expressions can be used interchangeably, cf.:

(29a) **Do konce** závodu zbývají jen tři kilometry. [AR⁵]

(30a) **Do závěru** závodu zbývají jen tři kilometry. [AR]

5 (29 + 30) My suggestions as a native speaker.

This replacement of a part of the expression is possible with the adverbial only, it is not possible for a speaker to use the same way of changing the expressions when talking about the quotational compound, cf.:

(29b) *Na oslavu narozenin přišla **dokonce** i Maruška.* [AR]

(30b) * *Na oslavu narozenin přišla **dozávěru** i Maruška.* [AR]

Similarly, the replacement of individual parts of a quotational compound in English is usually not possible. However, when dividing the quotational compounds in English into two groups, one shows the examples where the replacement is possible, while the other group is composed of fixed expressions common in the language of the speakers and every disruption or change of the expression is considered to be a violation of a rule.

The second mentioned group are those expressions that are frequently used in the everyday language, e.g. the *all-you-can-eat menu* or *do-it-yourself shop*. These quotational compounds are generally considered fixed units, and the replacement of individual parts would thus lead to a smile of a native speaker at best, or to a misunderstanding at worse. In the finite sentence it is considered correct to use synonyms:

(31) *Let's go to the restaurant on the corner of the street, they have a perfect menu, and for 5 pounds you can **eat/taste/dine/take** as much as want.* [AR⁶]

Not all of these synonyms can be used in the same context. In the process of choosing synonyms it is necessary to take into consideration the overall situation (formal or informal social situation, speaker and hearer's social status, etc.), but there is a real, though partially limited, possibility for the speaker to choose the alternative expression. In the examples (32 and 33) below, one can see the individual alternatives:

(32) *Another of my friends – the only one who comes into this category – is as plump as I am, and when we go out together we **eat as much as** we want, whenever we want.* [BNC ADG 1061]

6 My suggestion after a consultation with a native speaker.

(33) *Have a, **take as much** as you like, there's another packet there.* [BNC KB0 280]

In a fixed quotational compound such change of the word order or word choice would not be possible:

(34) *'**All you can eat**' buffets were exactly that, accompanied by limitless supplies of soft drinks.* [BNC HP6 815]

Note that even though quotational compounds are usually written with hyphens between individual parts of the expression, this example, drawn from the BNC, poses a different situation. Hyphens are not used and the fact that this is a unified expression is stressed by using the quotes which help to create a coherent unit.

To find out whether combinations are possible I have searched for the expression *all you can take*, both in BNC and COCA. There have been no results in BNC, and only 4 examples in COCA, none of them, however, an example of a quotational compound. These sentences only contained the phrase *all you can take* (such as in *all you can take to comfort yourself in the process* [COCA:2003:NEWS:Denver]). That is why the example (35) is not possible:

(35) * *This restaurant has **an all-you-can-take menu** at lunchtime.* [AR]

The same in/variability possibilities could be shown in other examples. Bellow are listed possible and impossible examples for the already mentioned fixed expression *do-it-yourself*:

(36) *Edward Ryman, 58, twice smashed his wife with a club hammer and used a '**do it yourself garotte**' to strangle her, Nottingham Crown Court was told.*
[BNC CBF 9599]

Once again in this example the quotes compensate for using hyphens to create a coherent unit. However, neither in BNC nor in COCA, hyphens are common means

for unifying phrases, cf.

(37) *To help do this a number of consultants now run carefully devised training programmes and there are a variety of excellent **do it yourself handbooks**.*

[BNC AYJ 818]

There are no doubts that the expression *do it yourself* in the previous example is a quotational compound in the syntactic position of an attribute. One can see that the phrase as a unit modifies the following noun *handbooks*, which is one argument in favour of the quotational compound; also the preceding adjective *excellent* is another attribute in premodification. Generally, as a whole this is a noun phrase with the head noun and a multiple attribute consisting of an evaluative adjective and a quotational compound.

To return to the original statement, i.e. the potential interchangeability of individual components of a quotational compound, the sequence searched in the corpora was *do it on your own*. As predicted, the only examples with the sequences were not examples of quotational compounds, cf.:

(38a) *Or you ca (sic), if you can **do it on your own**, brilliant!* [BNC KGU 1663]

(38b) *You can **do it on your own** or you can get together with family and friends.*
[BNC A00 39],

while none of the examples proved the ability to alternate, thus **I like the do-it-on-your-own shop in out town* is a very unlikely expression.

Some authors claim that among Czech quotational compounds belong also words such as *tlučhuba*. Vachek (1960, 114), however, claims that compared to the English quotational compounds, these expressions do not follow one of the most important rules, i.e. they do not retain the syntactic structure of the original phrase *tluč hubou*. This is the result of the synthetic nature of the Czech language, which needs to add an affix or to change the word so that it fits the system of the parts of speech.

Claiming that, Vachek states that the only example of a pure quotational compound in the Czech language is the noun *budižkničemu*, a word that remains indeclinable and the morphemic structure is clearly influenced by syntax. The English

counterpart of it, *good-for-nothing*, shows the same characteristics. It needs to be stressed that the indeclinable nature of the Czech word *budižkničemu* shifts the word to the periphery of the language, while the same phenomenon keeps the English *good-for-nothing* example in the core.

Vachek (1960, 115) also adds that other examples of quotational compounds in the Czech language may be found in the register of names, typical examples being *Skočdopole*, *Osolsobě* or *Nechod'domů*. But after these names became used frequently in the language, they adopt the plural (*Skočdopolovi*) and the female variants of the names are used as well (*Mrs Skočdopolová*). The names are not used to describe, but simply to identify the individuals, and that is why they can be adjusted according to the extra-linguistic situation.

Vachek (1976, 320–323) explains that the fact why the quotational compounds are formed is because of the analytical nature of the English language and by the smaller differences between parts of speech, especially compared to the Czech language. As the Czech language is a highly synthetic language, quotational compounds are actually quite rare. The reason is that quotational compounds are usually indeclinable, which is not a problem in English, but it limits their using in Czech.

English quotational compounds are typical for their structural ambiguity. From the formal point of view they do not differ from the sentence or phrase they originate from and thus their morphological structure is clearly influenced by the syntactical rules. However, when the quotational compound is used as a noun, it is possible for it to adopt an affix of plural, cf.:

(39) *My two older sisters, Theresa and Kat, were **know-it-alls**.*

[COCA:2011:FIC:Bk:HisUnexpectedly]

To compare, Mathesius (1961, 30–34) explains that quotational compounds are formed by taking a sentential structure and by using it in the function of a substantive compound. He provides examples: *the-did-not-goes*, and *the have-nots* as opposed to *the haves*. His translation of these examples proves the fact, that the Czech language does not use these compounds too often, and the most common way of translating them is to paraphrase them: *ti, kdo něco nemají* (*the-have-nots*). To this group, Mathesius includes expressions such as *the lock-out*, and *the die-hards* (*ti, kdo se nedají*,

nesmiřitelní).

Mathesius here compares not only the English with the Czech language, he also gives several examples in German. According to him, there are several groups of compounds in English, apart from the already mentioned quotational compounds, he also distinguishes groups depending on the origin of the compounds. They can be divided according to the parts of speech of the words that the compounds consist of (*bratro + vrah*, both are nouns), or according to the mutual relationship of the individual part forming the compounds. In the Czech qualifying adjective *tmavomodrý*, the first part modifies the second part, English counterpart would be expressed either by two individual adjectives *dark blue*, where the *dark* modifies the *blue*, or in case of the colour scheme *navy* or *navy blue* would be a possibility.

Still using the example of colour, Mathesius continues with the adjective *běločervený*, in which case the first part does not modify the second part, but they are equal. These are so-called copulative adjectives. In English there are also examples of the copulative adjectives, the typical example being *black and white*.

However, even *black and white* may have different meaning in different contexts, first and probably the most frequent association that occurs with *black and white*, is *black and white films/photographs* or *black and white television*:

- (40a) *From nuclear strike to conventional attack/reconnaissance, all the changes in the roles that the Starfighter carried out are detailed, in company with a very comprehensive collection of /colour/ and /black and white/ photographs.*
[BNC CLU 987]
- (40b) *What is it about PolaGraph that sets it from **all the other black and white films?***
[BNC APL 103]
- (40c) *There is **a black and white television** on an orange crate.* [BNC HGL 1554]

In all above-mentioned examples, the expression *black and white* describes facilities which mediate the *black and white* picture reality, however, in fact the viewer sees all shades of grey. In the examples bellow, I show examples where this is not so definite, cf.:

- (40d) *Oh, it's a nice little young **black and white cat**, very white Stray cat.*
[BNC KBK 3716]

(40e) *She put on the **black and white dress**, hesitating a moment as she looked at herself and thought, it's too smart.* [BNC HJH 3420],

the cat in the former example (40d) may or may not be of different shades of grey. More likely, however, the cat's fur is coloured in two colours only, the black colour and the white colour. Similarly, the dress in the latter example is probably made of fabric that has black and white stripes, dots, checks, etc. To avoid any doubts, one more example shows the reality clearly:

(40f) *His cap was **a black and white check** to go with black and white shoes and **a black and white striped shirt**.* [BNC A5C 80]

When discussing the meaning of the phrase, it is necessary to be careful about the semantic relationship within the phrase. The above-mentioned examples were proven to include both the colours *black and white* as one unified whole. In the following example, however, the relationships have different ties:

(40g) *It raises questions as to the type of relationship which exists between **black and white people** and, furthermore, the type of society that those involved in the practice are creating.* [BNC CRW 634],

where the sequence *black and white* is a result of ellipsis, cf. *between black people and white people*. The meaning here are two different races, it is not expected that the people would be both *black* and *white*.

Moreover, the phrase *black and white* occurs in a slightly different environment and its meaning is shifted toward abstraction:

(40h) *You live in **a very black and white world**.* [BNC ASN 1662],

referring not to the impossibility of the addressed person to see colours, but describing a person who tends to see only two sides of everything not taking into consideration anything, any compromise between these two poles.

The previous examples show that copulative adjectives in English tend to be connected with the copulative conjunction *and* or by hyphen, rather than stand next

to each other without any connection at all.

2.2.3.1 English-Czech interface

Quotational compounds are more typical for every-day speech, rather than for technical or scientific styles. They are used both ad hoc by people to describe their attitude to a specific situation, person, subject, etc., or they are used frequently and thus they become fixed expressions in the language. Especially the former group of quotational compounds is typical for their subjective emotional markedness; for that reason they are preferred in colloquial style, but they are also frequently used in newspapers and magazines.

The newspaper and magazine articles authors employ both fixed expressions and even clichés in their texts, usually to facilitate their work and the reader's understanding, and new words, neologism, and ad hoc expressions, to make their language special.

The language of newspapers is typical for being very innovative and also for using a large number of neologisms. These expressions are frequently created ad hoc, for one situation only, without any previous reference and can be characterized by a high degree of surprise and unpredictability. Nevertheless even that has limits – though the readers do not have to understand the specific expressions, the meaning needs to be recoverable from the context.

Knittlová (1977, 74) describes the specifications of the journalistic style by naming several features, one of them being neologisms, e.g. *laser*. She also talks about the inventiveness in forming new words, cf. *Nixonomics – economics that was during the Nixon era*, common are also condensed structures (*British appointed civil servants*) and quotational compounds, e.g. *flight-on pledge*, *stop-tour plea*. From the point of view of a renowned translator, Knittlová mentions that these expressions are impossible to translate word by word, and that the most frequent way of translating them would be a paraphrasis. This supports my original idea of the necessity of substitutions and other solutions than a literal translation. It means that these expressions, used in English to condense the sentence and to express thoughts economically, needs to be extended when translating into Czech.

3. Practical part

3.1 Introduction to the practical part

In the practical part I will apply the theoretical background overviewed in the previous sections. I will compare two texts, an originally English text and its official Czech translation, to see the possibilities of pre- and postmodification of the English noun phrase, and some of the tendencies when translating in the Czech language.

Nevertheless, the most attention will be paid to the noun + noun structures, i.e. what noun phrases express the most often, and what the reasons for having the premodifying noun in plural (e.g. *jobs fair*, etc.) are.

Detailed analysis then outlines the most frequent quotational compounds that have already become fixed expressions, also what the most typical and the most frequent head nouns premodified by the quotational compounds are, and finally I will show the examples and expressions formed for only one specific situation, thus not likely to be repeated on a daily basis.

3.2 Noun phrases – English-Czech interface

To compare noun phrases in both English and Czech, I have been using a text, a part of originally an English novel (a contemporary American writer Kathy Reichs (2008) and her novel *Bones to Ashes*) and the official Czech translation (*Kosti na popel*, translator Kristýna Kučerová (2008)). To meet the requirements to have a text with as many possible noun phrases, I have purposely chosen a part of text including a quotational compound, and several paragraphs before and after it. I wanted the sample to be as various as possible.

It is a sample of 531 words, which is long enough to contain several different examples of noun phrases. My aim here was not to look for phrases and their repetition in one text, I was simply looking for noun phrases, and then their Czech translation.

The first step was to choose noun phrases that consisted of more than only a determiner and a head. The majority of the expressions contained at least one or more modifiers, most frequently an adjective, but in a lot of examples consisted of the structure noun + noun. These were the examples that I have focused on most (and I have already mentioned the sample was purposely chosen to include a quotational compound, i.e. two kinds of expressions that I wanted to analyse more closely).

The noun phrases with at least one modifier were then divided into several

groups. But before a closer analysis of the modifiers, I would like to briefly discuss the translation possibilities of phrases expressing possession or belonging to someone or something.

The most obvious means of expressing this are possessive pronouns. However, it is a known fact that frequency of using possessive pronouns is much higher in the English language than in the Czech language (where the equivalent meaning is expressed through reciprocal particles of verbs, object pronouns, etc.). It means that sometimes the pronoun is omitted completely, as the meaning is understood anyway, see the example from the fiction sample:

(44a) *Our plan was to meet at the departure gate.* [KR, 156],

where the possible translations could be:

(44b) *Plán byl sejít se u odletové brány.* [AR],

or the translator chooses a smooth way:

(44c) *Podle plánu jsme se měly setkat u odletů.* [KK, 122].

Either way, the possessive pronoun is omitted since in the Czech language it would be redundant. In other examples the pronoun has to remain in the sentence:

(45a) *Her flight had landed at 10:07.* [KR, 156]

(45b) *Její letadlo přistálo v deset nula sedm.* [KK, 122]

The omission of the pronoun would cause misunderstandings.

The last remark is devoted to expressions where the belonging is expressed by a proper name. Here the most frequent strategy in translating the phrases is changing the premodification in English into postmodification in Czech, cf.:

(46a) *Jasper Fforde novel* [KR, 157]

(46b) *román Jaspéra Fforda* [KK, 122]

(47a) *Titanic bow* [KR, 157]

(47b) *paluba Titanicu* [KK, 123],

and sometimes a prepositional phrase is employed, cf.:

(48a) *the Neiman Marcus bag* [KR, 158]

(48b) *taška od Neimana Marcuse* [KK, 123]

Now I will turn to phrases with modifiers. As already suggested, it was not a coincidence that the sample includes a quotational compound, two, to be specific. I will start with it.

(49a) (i) *Dorval's "welcome to Canada" immigration line usually makes (ii) Disney World's snake-back-and-forth-through-the-ribbon-maze queue look short.*
[KR, 156]

(49b) *V porovnání s frontou u pasové kontroly před dorvalským nápisem „Vítejte v Kanadě“ je řada čekatelů před hadí horskou dráhou v Disneylandu docela krátká.* [KK, 122]

In the Czech version the translator has chosen a more specific way of expressing the idea. The original version does not specifically describe the fact that the people stand in front of a sign that reads “Welcome to Canada” (see later the group of signs, T-shirts or refrigerator magnets which are common situations for using a quotational compound). The more explicit translation is definitely used to facilitate the readers understanding of the situations. For the same reason the translator chooses to use Disneyland, instead of the original Disney World (in (49a, ii)), as the former is better known in the Czech Republic, and the latter is frequently mistaken for the first one anyway.

The second example is not an official term for the attraction, but it is a easy and clear way of describing how it looks like and what the purpose of it is. To express the same attitude in the Czech language, a relative clause would have to be used, my suggestion is.:

(49c) *bludiště, kde se chodí tam a zpátky, dokud člověk nenajde cestu ven* [AR],

which would be a long and unnecessary way of description, considering the fact that it is not important for development of the plot, or on the other hand a simple version of it could be used: (49d) *bludiště* [AR], as the metaphor is clear enough, the author describes a long queue. In neither case, however, a Czech quotational compound equivalent would be used.

In the following lines, there are the other noun phrases found in the text, divided into several groups, according to their grammatical structure.

3.2.1 An adjective in premodification

The biggest group, as suggested, contains examples where the modifier is an adjective. This is the most common structure of the phrase, therefore the high occurrence is not surprising. Also, in most cases, the Czech translations of these phrases follow the same structure, i.e. an adjective as a premodifier and a noun as a head of the phrase. The adjectives express colour (*a pink Stetson* [KR, 158] – *růžový stetson* [KK, 123]), size (*a big mer-cee* [KR, 158] – *hlasité mérsí* [KK, 123]), or evaluation (*a high-beam smile* [KR, 158] – *rozzářený úsměv* [KK, 123]), etc.. This group does not bring any surprising translations either.

3.2.2 Noun + noun structures

The second largest group, as regards the number of examples in the text, are noun + noun structures, where the former noun is the premodifier of the latter – head noun. The fact that this is the second biggest group is not accidental or surprising either. These structures are used very often in the English language.

Similarly to Quirk (1985, 1332), who claims that the noun + noun combinations may frequently be paraphrased by a prepositional phrase, and divides the main types into groups expressing source – result (*a metal sheet*), part-whole (*clay soil*), place (*a top drawer, a garden fence*), time (*a morning train, a night sky*), and whole-part (*a board member*), I will divide the phrases into several groups according to the semantics of the phrase.

In the following lines Quirk (1985, 1332) also stresses the fact that “the semantic relations ... indicate no clear boundary between noun phrase and noun + noun compound”. The decisive features are according to him **stress** on the first element (in case of a compound) and possibility of **substituting** one for the second constituent (in case of a phrase).

In the fiction sample analysed here, there were 8 noun phrases of the structure noun + noun (compare to also 8 phrases with adjective in premodification). As already mentioned, groups that I have suggested for the noun + noun structures are very close to Quirk's. The first and very common is the expression of time: *a noon flight* [KR, 156], where the Czech translation would be practically the same, i.e. besides the obvious necessity for the formal change of the noun *poledne* into the adjective *polední*, the premodification remains the same, i.e. *polední let* [KK, 122]. The periphrastic translation *let, který letí v poledne* [AR] would sound unnatural and redundant.

Next group, according to semantics of nouns in premodification, are nouns expressing place, here it is *the island city* [KR, 157]. As in the previous section, also here the translation may be literal, only with the change of a noun into an adjective, i.e. *ostrovní město* [KK, 122], with the possible periphrastic translation *město (, které je) na ostrově* [AR]. However, not all noun phrases from the original text follow the same pattern in the translation. The following example, which could be included into this group of expressing place (or into another group describing purpose) is the *face cream* [KR, 157]. The premodifier was omitted in the official translation – *krém* [KK, 123]. In other cases, the possible Czech equivalent would be *krém na obličej* [AR] (more often than *obličejový krém* [AR], even though both possibilities are used). Therefore the change here is from premodification to postmodification.

Into this group I also include the phrase *a microphone voice* [KR, 158], as the periphrasis of it could be *a voice that comes from a microphone*, and also the phrase *a saddlebag shoulder purse* [KR, 158]. The inclusion of the latter example may be aggravated by the multiple premodification, therefore several more specific groups would have to be created, or the existing groups would have broader meaning and would include more various examples. I have decided for the latter option with several subcategories, therefore the semantics of the noun phrase *a saddlebag shoulder purse*, could be described as expressing place – *shoulder* as a place where the bag is worn, and/or appearance description and origin – as regards to *saddlebag*. However, considering more and more examples the number of semantic groups could become too high and thus the system would not be suitable.

A very big group with examples typical for these configurations are the noun + noun structures describing the material, e.g. *steel bridge, leather shoes, gold ring*, etc. A representative example from the fiction sample for this group is *a polyester*

sports jacket [KR, 157], where again the other possibility would be purpose or appearance (*sports*). Here again one can see that a simple division into groups depends on various points of view. On the other hand, the group that would be called appearance could be established basically in all mentioned groups. For example when discussing the group of materials, everything made of this material would then have the appearance of it: *gold ring, wood bench*. In case of *a sports jacket*, this could be most likely included as purpose, it is worn during a sports activity.

Based on these groups and already established semantic groups, I continue my analysis with examples from BNC and COCA. I concentrate on nouns that do not receive the possessive 's, but remain formally unchanged, the form of the words remains the same as it would be in the function of a head noun. As it was proven by this fiction sample, the noun in premodification of another noun is a frequent way of premodification. Therefore it was not so necessary to collect examples and create a supportive corpus based on the noun + noun structures, as it is in case of quotational compounds. I started with the fiction sample, divided the examples into several groups according to their meaning, and then searched for more examples in the BNC and COCA to enrich the groups by more authentic noun phrases consisting of a noun in premodification. In the process I have found many more examples in the texts, so the set of examples was rather extensive at the end of the search. I have also added some more groups according to the semantics of the nouns in premodification. Therefore I suggest several groups that are generally the most frequent cases of noun in premodification, the ideas are supported by examples from corpora. The listing of the groups is not extensive and does not reflect the hierarchy according to the frequency of using the nouns in premodification.

3.2.2.1 Noun + noun structures – evidence from corpora

Based on the above-mentioned examples, the suggested groups according to semantics of the noun in premodification, are: **material**, **purpose**, **place** and **time**. In the following section one more group will be added, according to new examples found during the analysis, it is **belonging**, specifically part-whole, and whole-part relationship.

(1) **Material:** here belong the nouns that express the material used when producing, building, or anyhow creating an object expressed by the head noun:

(50) *They were richly dressed and each one carried a leather bag.* [BNC G23 140]

(51) *Most airborne noise is generated outside the house, and enters through **thin glass windows**.* [BNC ECJ 1416]

In these cases it is important to distinguish between the noun in premodification:

(52) ***The gold ring** was exquisitely ornamented with tiny pearls.* [BNC CCD 725],

and the adjective form of it, i.e. *golden*, which describes something that only seems to be gold, or that has the appearance of gold:

(53a) *Daisy is having **her long golden hair** plaited by giggling young woman.*
[BNC ARB 2568]

(53b) *So why does the myth of **the golden age** persist?* [BNC CRF 1234]

Not all expressions, however, necessarily embrace this distinction, cf.:

(54) ***Her apple-green light wool suit** reminded them all that spring would one day come.* [BNC AB9 221]

(55) *Leeming's clothes, consisting of **his woollen suit**, white socks and black shoes, were laid out on a chair.* [BNC CML 2995],

even though *woollen* is more frequent than *wool* (as premodifier), cf. (BNC – *wool* 187 in 98 texts, *woollen* 488 in 250 texts; also, *woolen*⁷ is more frequent in COCA, 617 examples, *woollen* 41⁸). But the point is that both *wool* and *woollen* mean the same.

Of course, a different meaning has *wool* in the following example:

(56) *where they worked **as wool buyers*** [BNC CEK 361]

in this contexts it could not be replaced by *woollen*⁹.

One more text proves the possible interchangeability, within this text the speaker

7 American English spelling

8 COCA includes 4,530 examples of *wool*, even though not all the examples are examples of *wool* as a premodifier.

9 Similarly *wool production*, *wool barons*, etc.

used both *wool* and *woollen* in premodification:

(57a) *So we were good at the mass produced area for Marks and Spencer making **nice wool garments** like that.* [BNC GYN 189],

and the same text included:

(58b) *in the cold climes where they've got **a nice woollen spun yarn*** [BNC GYN 90],

even though in one case the speaker corrects the utterance:

(58c) *We became very famous for exporting **wool** er **woollen clothes** and knitwear.*
[BNC GYN 99]

This is a very extensive group as it also includes examples where the material, expressed by the premodifying noun, is not used to make something, but to describe an ingredient:

(59) *Deli-roasted chicken, cream of **chicken soup**, and canned biscuits make a quick and-tasty version of this favorite.* [COCA:2010:MAG:SouthernLiv]

(60a) *And there is a bar of **milk chocolate**.* [BNC AN7 1171]

which may also be used as a whole in premodification of another head noun:

(60b) *Oh she said they do sort of **milk chocolate drinks**, thirty five pence each see.*
[BNC KBG 2076]

(2) **Purpose:** in this group belong examples where the modifying noun describes a purpose of the head noun, the way of using it, or the intention.

(61) *Within minutes they had quite voluntarily created **a shoe shop**.* [BNC BNG 233]

(62) *Any such calculation should be done 'manually' only if a useful check on **data***

preparation would thereby provided. [BNC K8Y 1024]

(3) **Belonging** – expressing part-whole or whole-part relationship.

(63) *It was empty apart from a round wooden table, **a large golden picture frame** on one wall and a cupboard.* [BNC AMB 399]

(64) *Every morning she opens **her own house door** and converts her home into a business.* [COCA:2008:ACAD:AnthropolQ]

(4) **Place:** this is a group of examples where the premodifying noun describes a place of origin, location or application.

(65) *So he walked to the park and sat on **the park bench** and let his thoughts pass through his head.* [BNC KAV 244]

(66) ***My table lamp** has been in my family for almost 100 years.*
[COCA:2004:MAG:CountryLiving]

(67) ***The small hospital room** was painted dark green.* [BNC HTW 1767]

As the distinction is quite general, the individual groups overlap in many cases. Here it could be argued that for example *a house cellar* describes a whole-part relationship, which shows that the dividing into groups is not prescriptive, but descriptive.

Also here, a subgroup could be distinguished, specifically phrases in which the premodifying noun is a proper noun:

(68) *With **our London office**, we are perfectly placed to compete with solicitors all over the country, and, what's more, we charge less.* [BNC G2K 1052]

(5) Last, but not least, the following group contains examples with the **time** specification:

(69) *Mitchell was ticketed on **an afternoon flight** from Chicago to Newark.*

- (70) *Most people send Christmas cards at **Christmas time**, but do you know who invented them?* [BNC CCJ 319]

This does not mean, however, that one noun is strictly placed into one group and thus shows the same or similar features in all contexts. Consider, for example, the noun *wood*. First of all there are two meanings of the word – the countable, i.e. the forest, and the uncountable, i.e. the material.

The examples of uncountable *wood* in premodification can be grouped as follows:

(a) material:

- (71a) *Martha sat down on **a rough wood bench** in the yard and pulled off one shoe to show her grandmother her sore toes.* [BNC APU 872]

- (71b) *Cramp the workpiece to the upper board and by means of **a wood block** ensure that in lines up with the edge of the top board.* [BNC A0X 1495]

and when considering wood block as a whole, longer phrases may occur:

- (71c) *Therein lies the popularity of tiled and **wood block floors**, the patterns of architectural fabrics and fenestrations.* [BNC ADX 581]

When describing a material, an adjective is also used:

- (72) *At the police station Rita sat on **a wooden bench** and answered the questions.* [BNC A0R 377]

The premodifying noun *wood* may also represent a material for further work, i.e. head noun expresses activity (and/or the person performing the activity) not the result:

- (73a) *The Spaniards brought with them sophisticated craft traditions that included **wood carving**, embroidery, weaving, furniture making and silversmithing.*

[COCA: 2002:MAG:AmericanCraft]

(73b) *Rarely is a **wood carver** also a painter, although when a wood carver creates a new and unique icon case he may pay a painter he knows well to paint it before taking it to a shopkeeper to promote its sale.*

[COCA:2009:ACAD:AfricanArts]

(b) purpose:

(74) *Then apply waterproof **wood adhesive** to joints, assemble and secure with brass screws. [BNC AM5 295]*

The most common examples of countable *wood* are description of (a) **place**:

(75) *We drove five miles along the heavily-traveled Route 9-W, and then followed a half mile of **wood road** to the point where the boat was located.*

[COCA:2004:MAG:SatEvenPost].

Some of these phrases have already become a term, cf.

(76a) *Take care around the nests, because **wood ants** have a vicious bite!*

[BNC CME 672],

and than as a whole in creates longer sequence with another noun:

(76b) *On the way up, look out for **several wood ant nests**. [BNC CME 670],*

where the pattern is [N+N] N.

In general in longer sequences of premodifiers, nouns tend to be closer to the head noun, usually they are preceded by other premodifiers (e.g. participles, adjectives, etc.), i.e. they tend to be closer to the head, i.e. occupy the prehead position:

(77) *She went scarlet, speechless with rage as she glared at him in the sunlit interior of the car, eyes burning over his hard profile and **sexy black leather jacket*** [BNC JYD 2120],

where the usual sequencing of adjectives is to be seen, i.e. from the most general adjective expressing evaluation, followed by an adjective expressing colour to the premodifying noun standing directly in front of the head noun.

In case of several nouns in premodification it is important to realize the relationship between them. As it was seen in example (71c and 76b) which is described as [N+N] N, as compared to:

(78) *The couple were in London to record **a breakfast TV show***. [BNC CBC 5726],

where the pattern is N [N+N], which are mostly examples of compound nouns premodified by one more noun. In some situations the whole phrase can become a term again:

(79) *The owner pays £500 into **the business bank account***. [BNC HW9 536],

or phrase may be enlarged to the pattern [N+N] [N+N], cf.:

(80) *Choosing **a suitable foreign currency bank account** may mean shopping around, not necessarily for the highest interest rates but for the best service available*. [BNC CBX 1624]

3.2.3 Participles

To return back to the fiction sample, the following groups again deal generally with noun phrases found in the text.

After sections with the adjective + noun and noun + noun phrases, the following one includes participles, in both premodification and postmodification. I start with phrases where the Czech translation is equivalent to the English original, e.g. *upcoming events* [KR, 157] – *nadcházející akce* [KK, 122], or *arms spread like Kate Winslet* [KR, 157] – *ruce roztažené jako Kate Winsletová* [KK, 123].

On the other hand here is an example with a different translation: *a Sherpa pack-*

muling Neiman Marcus and Louis Vuitton [KR, 158]. To understand this expression, it is necessary to know that *Neiman Marcus* and *Louis Vuitton* are well-known, luxury trademarks of clothes and accessories; and also to understand the irony of the verb *pack-mule*. The Czech translation needs to be more specific for the readers to perceive the meaning, e.g. *šerpa vlekoucí tašky od Neimana Marcuse a Louise Vuittona* [KK, 123].

3.2.4 Other possibilities of premodification or postmodification

Other examples from the sample are noun phrases including a prepositional phrase again both in premodification and postmodification. The Czech equivalents often correspond, with only slight changes, cf. *flight to Moncton* [KR, 156] – *let do Monctonu* [KK, 122]. Nevertheless, this is a group with very diverse examples and thus very diverse translation possibilities. Here the context is crucial: *A man with a story* [KR, 158] – *muž s příběhem; muž, který má co říct/vyprávět* [AR], etc. is in this case translated very loosely: *Večer bude mít co vyprávět* [KK, 123].

Also, resulting from the nominal nature of English, as compared with the verbal nature of Czech, the equivalents may differ widely, cf. *the tide of faces passing by* [KR, 156] – *obličejů valící se kolem* [KK, 121], where the Czech verb properly expresses the English *tide + pass by*.

Generally, the Czech language usually prefers dividing the original long premodification into premodification and postmodification, cf. *a tall blonde-haired girl* – *vysoká dívka s blondatými vlasy* [AR]. In this text, however, there is the opposite process. The sentence in the original text is: *Billboards proclaim upcoming events with risque double entendre* [KR, 157]. The translator has chosen this elegant solution: *Nebezpečně dvojsmyslné plakáty propagují nadcházející akce* [KK, 122].

3.3 Premodifying noun in plural

The following part also deals with the noun in premodification, specifically with cases where this noun is in plural, even though the tendency is to use the premodifying noun in singular. There are several factors influencing the choice of plural over singular, the most important being the attempt to avoid ambiguity. Therefore, there is a difference in meaning of singular and plural. Quirk (1985, 1334) presents the example of *a branch supervisor* and *a branches supervisor*, and describes the first one as an expression that is “vague and may be interpreted as ‘supervisor of a branch or branches’” while

the latter example clearly shows that there are more branches supervised by one person. Similarly, cf. :

- (81) *Also, **fashion jobs fair** featuring local employment opportunities, 8:30 a.m. to noon.* [COCA: 2002:News:Denver],

describes a fair where there are more than one job presented, while:

- (82) *Consider all sides before taking **a job offer**.* [COCA:2010:MAG:Essence],

describes the offer of only one specific job.

The same principle is applied when the plural of the premodifying noun is used to emphasize the larger amount of individual parts. Therefore the following examples show situations in which the premodifiers point to a group of people with the same occupation or situation:

- (83) *Yesterday at **the teachers conference** it turned out that you are our best student.* [COCA: 1996:FIC:AntiochRev]

- (84) *On our way home we tried to find **a Mothers Day card** for Mark to send to his Mum.* [BNC GXM 481]

The fact that plural designates more than one object is well seen especially when there is a numeral in the noun phrase, cf. :

- (85) *Are you seriously asking me to do something for **twenty dollars difference** a night?* [BNC HH0 3710]

Typical examples of premodifying nouns in plural are also pluralia tantum, i.e. expressions that do not exist in a singular form.

- (86) *When demonstrating **educational gymnastics lessons**, the teacher educator modeled how to have students explore different ways to roll, to jump, and to transfer weight.* [COCA:2004:ACAD:Education]

- (87) *NRA chiefs believe they should not have to pay rates on **their regional headquarters building** and workshops in Warrington.* [BNC K4E 758]

This is, however, not the case of all of them, as for example *trousers* as modifier change the form to a singular, even though they otherwise do not have the singular form:

- (88) *I have them in **my left-hand trouser pocket**.*
[COCA:2006:SPOK:NPR_Morning]

Using singular or plural cannot be explained by the semantics of the head noun, as in the following examples the head noun is the same, but the singular in the former example may be explained by the fact that the word *shoes*¹⁰ is not plurale tantum (despite the fact that no one would buy only one shoe), while *clothes* in the latter exists only plural.

- (89) *My husband works in **a shoe shop**.* [BNC JY0 2066]

- (90) *I promoted to assistant manageress in **a clothes shop**, and worked a further eight months before leaving to have my first child.* [BNC CDK 987]

In this section I have presented several examples of premodifying noun in plural, and what the possible situations are, the examples are based on the search in BNC and COCA. It is not possible to categorically state that noun in premodification has to be in singular, as it was seen in the previous sentences.

The most frequent reason for having the premodifying noun in plural seems to be the necessity or need to stress the plural nature of the premodifier, its constitution of individual separate parts; and the fact that the premodifier does not have the singular form, i.e. it is a plurale tantum.

10 Zero examples of *shoes shop* in COCA, and only one in BNC: *It houses Debenhams, Gap, the Virgin Megastore, Dolcis shoes shop, Miss Selfridge and many other fashion units and eateries.* [BNC ED7 2024] – and here it is only because of the fact that it is a shop called *Dolicis Shoes*.

3.4 Quotational compounds

3.4.1 Working definition of quotational compounds

Based on previously discussed definitions of examples (e.g. Dušková 2006, 20), a quotational compound is a phrase or even a whole sentence taken out of its original environment and then, without any or very little changes, used in a different syntactic environment. The resulting consequences of such a shift are then for example the different syntactic roles in the sentence, i.e. originally a clause becomes a one-word expression used as (for example) an attribute, cf.

- (91) *Michael and Katy skipping hand in hand through the fields, the jaunty, laughing, Guinness swilling, **devil may care** Darby with his pub stories.* [BNC A6C 824]

or the same phrase from COCA:

- (92) *Suddenly, I'm like, **Devil may care**, forget it, caution to the wind.*
[COCA:2008:SPOK:CNN_Newsroom],

where the phrase is an expletive phrase, however, in an analysis, it could not be counted to finite clauses as it is only a comment pointed to emotional meaning, not syntactic. Nevertheless, it is possible to assume that the original finite clause would be: *The devil may care about this, it is not important.*

Therefore the next step in the analysis is the decision-making process of specifying which expressions belong to quotational compounds and which not. The analysis is based on examples by the authors mentioned in the theoretical part and additional examples are used to support the hypotheses.

Dušková (2006, 20) presents examples both with originally a finite verb: *What you need is a pick-me-up*, with a non-finite verb: *hard-to-get items*, but also without any verb at all: *an out-of-the-way place*.

Vachek's examples (1960, 112) include similar phrases, he presents *an out-of-the-world place* (compare the previously stated Dušková's *out-of-the-way*). This is again an example of a quotational compound without a verb, either finite or non-finite, and still it is described as a quotational compound. It is a prepositional phrase that is taken out of its original context and re-used in a different context and in a different syntactic function.

Unfortunately, the whole environment of the sentence is not known, but using the BNC example where there is the sentence in which a phrase *out-of-the-way* (*out-of-the-world* seems to be less frequent version of the phrase with the same meaning¹¹) could appear, cf.:

(93a) *We share costs, but the cost of living is very low in **this out of the way corner of Greece**.* [BNC G2B 1134]

(93b) *But he only muttered the same excuse about having **a little out of the way place** he wanted to show me.* [COCA:2000:FIC:CanadianFic],

and one more example with the phrase, here in an abstract meaning:

(93c) *He's got to go on for another ten lines, piling on **more and more out of the way references** to classical paradises so that he can give it all away for God.*
[BNC KRH 4406]

In both examples it is possible to trace the original finite clause to a clause with a copula verb, ad (93a): *This corner of Greece is out of the way.*, ad (93b): *the place was out of the way*, ad (93c): *the references were out of the way*. It is transparent that when the phrase is taken out of the context, the copula verb is omitted as it would be redundant. Thus the phrase may be used in an attributive position.

Other mentioned quotational compounds (Vachek 1960, 112) include a verb: *a never-do-well, a never-to-be-forgotten date*.

There is one more example provided as a representative of a quotational compound, namely *butterfly-fashion* with the suggested translations *jako motýlek, motýlkovitě*. In my opinion, however, these expressions are closer to a noun + noun structure than to a quotational compound. That is why I would not include these configurations into this group. Examples like these may be translated in the Czech

11 The results from BNC were: *out of the world* with 100 random examples, none of them was a quotational compound, while *out of the way* with 100 random examples included 2 examples of quotational compounds.

COCA provided 156 examples of *out of the world*, none of them was a quotational compound, and 3065 examples of *out of the way* in the sample of 100 random results, there were 3 examples of quotational compounds. The numbers of occurrences are not very high, on the other hand it proves that there is at least 5 examples of *out of the way* as a quotational compound in 200 results from both BNC and COCA, while zero examples of *out of the world* as a quotational compound, in the same number of results from both corpora.

It does not, however, mean, that it does not exist at all, it only show a lower frequency of it.

language also by the phrase *á la* or *ve stylu*. The phrases are rather idiomatic descriptions of a kind of activity or nature of something.

(94a) *Měl na sobě černý oblek **á la** šedesátá léta.* [AR¹²]

(94b) *He was wearing **a black suit in the sixties style.*** [AR]

(94c) *Above centre: minis, donny caps and patent boots and shoes – all authentic **Sixties style*** [BNC A7N 1052]

(95a) *Předvedl pantomimu **á la** Charlie Chaplin.*[AR]

(95b) *He performed an original pantomime **in Charlie Chaplin style.*** [AR]

(96) *George O’Grady, the Tournament Director, pointed out that Mason’s action was in defiance of Rule 19, which states that “the ball shall be struck at the hole with the head of the club and not pushed, scraped or spooned”, in short, not **the Steve Davis style.*** [BNC HJG 1353]

(97) *We made **a Starsky and Hutch style raid** down either side of the “ruin”.*
[BNC BMF 857]

Nevertheless it is important to be careful not to confuse it with sentences such as:

(98) *Another great aspect of **Dicken’s style** is the way he is able to manipulate your feelings towards character.* [BNC KA1 560],

where the point is not to compare somebody’s style to Dickens (as it was in the example of Chaplin or Davis, and Starsky and Hutch) but here directly Dicken’s style is being described.

Quoting the same article (Vachek 1960, 115), there is the example *good-for-nothing* (here used in the position of a noun – *one of the silliest good-for-nothings*) whose subsuming into the group of quotational compounds may be questionable as well.

Here, however, I would show two more examples – Dušková’s (2006, 20) *swallowed-up-by-the-earth* and back to *out-of-the-way*, and Vachek’s (1960, 112)

12 My own suggested examples (94a, 95b), it is an intuitive example of a native speaker of Czech

out-of-the-world, and use the same argument, i.e. that the possible original sentence could be:

(99a) *The land is **good for nothing** than.* [BNC B7K 601]

(99b) *He's **good for nothing** but trouble.* [BNC G1M 476],

and now re-using the phrase in a different syntactic role would be transparent (*it is good + good for nothing – a good-for-nothing*), the process is based on a word-for-word transposition of a part of one sentence into another sentence with the simultaneous change of syntactic roles of individual sentences members to the syntactic role of one coherent unit.

In other situations, however, when a sequence of several words is cut out of the sentence and used as a quotational compound, several necessary changes need to be realized for the lexical unit to be used in a different syntactic role. The necessary changes vary according to the context. In some cases the whole expression is originally a verb phrase and thus, to be able to stand in the attributive positions, it must form a participle, an auxiliary verb (e.g. of a passive voice) must be omitted, etc.

Using Dušková's example again (2006, 20), cf.:

(100a) *The **swallowed-up-by-the-earth** theory. Teorie, že se propadl do země.*¹³,

it is possible to retrace the presumable original wording of the phrase. The possibilities are obvious, one of them would be the literal equivalent of the Czech sentence:

(100b) *The theory that he was **swallowed by the earth**. He was/must have been **swallowed by the earth**.*

(100c) (...) *of warriors **was swallowed up by the earth**, and the island of Atlantis in like manner was **swallowed up by the sea** and vanished.* [BNC ASR 256],

or more informal version, cf.:

(100d) *The theory that he got **swallowed by the earth**.* [AR],

13 There were no examples of a quotational compound *swallowed-up-by-earth* in BNC or COCA. It does not mean that the phrase is not a quotational compound. The explanation is that this phrase was formed as a nonce example rather than a universally used description of lost people or things.

where the change was the omission of the auxiliary verb (*was*) or the copula verb (*got*). Other options include:

(100e) *(I think that) the earth swallowed him.* [AR]

Here the change may not be seen at first glance, as formally both the forms correspond, but after a closer look, it is to be seen that the quotational compound consists of a past participle, while this version contains a verb in simple past tense. To elaborate on the potential options, I can imagine situations like:

(100f) *I don't believe that you think that the earth can swallow a person.* [AR]

And as the possible alternations of the object following *swallow*, the sentence could also be:

(100g) *If rain doesn't come soon, there will be no vines or raisins and the desert will swallow up the fertile land.* [BNC C9F 307],

out of which the quotational compound would be *swallowed-up-by-the-desert*. In this example, however, the changes were deeper than only a simple change of time. Thus this sentence would not be the structure taken and re-used in a different context.

On the other hand, the speakers do not always have to stick to a precise wording in the original text. The process here is then based on the inferred meaning, when the speaker wants to express the same idea with less words (the principle of language economy) but at the same time (s)he wants to avoid repetition.

3.4.2 Narrowing the scope

I had to determine which examples to include into my analysis. It is important to understand that not all expressions with hyphens are quotational compounds and not all quotational compounds necessarily need to be formed by using hyphens (moreover if it was already stated above that BNC and COCA corpora do not always use hyphens in the examples).

I exclude examples such as *well-behaved child*, *30-day free trial*, *20-year-old wife*, *breath-taking view* or *a hard-working man*, including the frequent adjectives

well-known. As Leech (2002, 364–365) explains, these expressions are sometimes called compound premodifiers, and “these are combinations of words which function as a single adjective or noun”. He provides examples such as *a brand-new car*, *camera-ready copy*, etc.

The term “quotational compounds”, that I use, was used by Czech authors, e.g. Vilém Mathesius or Josef Vachek. Other linguists either use the same term, or include these expressions under one umbrella of “compounds”. Quirk (1985, 1567) describes the compound as “a lexical unit consisting of more than one base and functioning both grammatically and semantically as a single word. In principle, any number of bases may be involved, but in English, except for a relatively minor class of items, compounds usually comprise two bases only, however internally complex each may be.” He does not mention the expressions that would be called quotational compounds, only while describing various possibilities of conversion, he includes some, from his point of view, marginal examples of phrases that can become adjectives by the way of conversion, e.g. *an up-in-the-air feeling* (Quirk 1985, 1563).

It is therefore not clear if there is any universal term describing exactly the examples such as *the less-is-more attitude* [COCA:2011:MAG:HarpersBazaar] or *the danger of stick in the mud complacency* [BNC AND 79]; and how, and whether, to distinguish these phrases from expressions like *face-to-face conversation* [BNC CTY 230].

Without strict restrictions and limits it would be possible to continue listing these phrases to examples such as *up-to-date fashion* [BNC CGV 227] or to already mentioned compound modifiers, e.g. *long-term contract* [E9P 620]. I mention these examples because they also match the definition which describes quotational compounds as phrases taken out from one environment and used in another syntactic environment, cf. *but once a commitment is made it is for the long term* [BNC K94 2567].

There is not enough space for a comprehensive, detailed analysis of all situations here. Therefore I have based my analysis on examples that include some verb form, either finite or non-finite, i.e. expressions whose original structure can be unambiguously described as clause or semi-clause. This does not mean that I have decided to overlook the above-mentioned examples, they will be included, however only marginally.

To sum up, in my opinion, the most typical quotational compounds seem

to originate in a sentence, regardless the fact whether finite or non-finite, even though the whole predicate may not be preserved in the quotational compound, therefore my analysis is based mainly on these examples. Other examples would stay in the periphery of this group.

3.4.3 Data

The examples that will be used in the following sections are taken from various sources. The expectation is that the quotational compounds will be used in both spoken and written language, even though their usage is restricted by several factors and not all phrases will be used in both spoken and written text.

To find examples in both British and American English, I used the corpora – the British National Corpus (BNC) and the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA). However the assumption that I could simply enter words with hyphens and I would get relevant examples was not fulfilled. After a detailed analysis of examples found in the corpora, I have realized that not all quotational compounds in the sentences are spelled or transcribed with hyphens. On the other hand, as already discussed, the examples of quotational compounds were either bound together using quotation marks:

(101) *If such extra-curricula activities were well organised, they could be useful and educational, but they should not detract from study or emphasize **the ‘get rich quick’ ideology**.* [BNC CG0 1116]

or simply by putting words next to each other without any punctuation at all:

(102a) ***know it all attitude*** [BNC KDA 3843]

(102b) *We have **a get rich quick philosophy** where everything is geared to maximum profits.* [BNC G1J 719]

In these examples the presence of the quotational compound is realized only by knowing the syntactic rules of the English sentence. The reason why some examples in BNC or COCA are spelled with hyphens and some without is not clear.

I have also used my own supportive corpus into which I have included examples from miscellaneous areas. The corpus is based on examples from textbooks and

grammar books, everyday conversations with native speakers, several examples come from British and American newspapers, and high number of examples were used in various contemporary TV series and films. This is how I have succeeded in preparing a corpus with wide-ranging sentences and examples.

Spoken utterances tend to contain more ad hoc structures than written texts, with the exception of written texts simulating spoken conversation, such as “conversational novels”, and scripts of films and series, i.e. some examples were pronounced in conversation, some were written to be spoken, and some were meant to be written and then read.

To sum up, the analysis is based on very diverse examples, ranging from spontaneous spoken conversations via semi-prepared speech to carefully chosen lexical units in a written text.

3.4.4 A tentative grouping of quotational compounds

As I have already suggested in the theoretical part of this thesis, there are two main groups when analysing the quotational compounds from the point of view of frequency of using them and from the point of view of their constancy at the same time. These groups can be simply described as (1) fixed phrases¹⁴, and (2) ad hoc examples.

Both groups have several common features, and on the other hand some features are typical for only one of these groups. The common feature would be one of the reasons to use a quotational compound. Generally, it is the language economy, very typical for the English language.

On the other hand it is expected that the examples from the first group could be used both in spoken and written language, while structures from the second group would be, for their nature, preferred in spoken language, mostly in informal and colloquial discourse.

3.4.4.1 Fixed expressions

The first group of examples are phrases that were used repeatedly in the same or very similar extralinguistic contexts that they have become a part of the steady layer

¹⁴ It is quite relative what can be called a “fixed” phrase. It is necessary to understand, that these expressions cannot be divided into two individual groups, because they are more likely on a scale running from repeatedly used, thus stable phrases at one end, to examples used usually only once at the other end. Also it happens that some expressions are used as ad hoc expressions, then repeated several times, and thus they become fixed. The process is dynamic.

of the language. These phrases are popular for their aptness. Instead of a complicated or tedious description of the situation, a quotational compound may be a convenient way for describing it in much less words and time. The already discussed and analysed example of *a do-it-yourself shop* is one of these situations. Others include, e.g.

(103) *That's a **thank you letter** for Ann's birthday.* [BNC KBW 12624]

(104) *Get a **Refer-a-friend Bonus** right now!* [an advert for an online poker¹⁵]

The latter expression is very common nowadays with the rising popularity of online games. Here the mentioned bonus is money that one can spend on playing, the bonus can be various points or money, etc. The alternative phrase to this one may be: *recruit-a-friend bonus*, which has the same meaning and it is absolutely transparent what the reader is supposed to do (cf. later discussed group of instructions). As the purpose of these advertisements is to gain as many players as possible, to simplify the process of referring to a friend, the websites provides *the recruit-a-friend guides* or *recruit-a-friend referral programs*. In the world of computer and computer online gaming, this is a phrase to know.

Moving to another typical and widely used expressions, the examples will be:

(105) *I guess tickets for our game will be really **hard to get items**.* [BNC J1J 119]

(106) *It's not a **fly by night firm**.* [BNC FUL 1612]

(107) *To Daniel she would never matter. Never matter because everyone else, **the fly by-night boys**, mattered more, in a drove?* [COCA:2006:FIC:Triquarterly]

The shift in meaning of the phrase *fly-by-night* is a proof of the fact that the phrase has already settled in the language, cf. the definition¹⁶:

Adjective [attributive] – unreliable or untrustworthy, especially in business or financial matters: *cheap suits made by fly-by-*

15 April 30, 2012, <http://www.celebpoker.com/referafriend>

16 April 7, 2012, <http://oxforddictionaries.com/definition/fly-by-night?q=fly+by+night>

night operators

Noun (also **fly-by-nighter**): an unreliable or untrustworthy person.

For this reason any alternations to this phrase are not possible, **drive-by-night*, **go-by-night*, etc.

Other frequent examples of fixed quotational compounds used on daily basis would include, cf.:

(108) ***a wake up call*** [BNC K1T 2486],

in which there is basically no other collocation besides *call*, there were 989 results of *wake-up call* in COCA, even though only one in BNC. Following examples:

(109a) ***stay at home fans*** [BNC CH3 7161]

again without hyphens,

(109b) ***stay-at-home mom*** [COCA:2011:SPOK:NPR_TalkNation],

where this example is only to illustrate, there were many more results for *stay-at-home mom/mother/mommy* or *dad/father* in COCA, other results from COCA are: *stay-at-home person, housewife, wife, husband, spouse, parent(s), nurturer* or *artist, patient*, where again the head noun may be more modified, ***stay-at-home suburban mom*** [COCA:2006:News:USAToday], or ***stay-at-home mother of five*** [COCA:2005:News:Denver]. And the head noun does not necessarily have to be a human being, cf.: *When it comes to shopping convenience, nothing beats **the stay-at-home ease** of buying by catalog or Internet.* [COCA:2004:News:Houston], or others (again examples from COCA): *stay-at-home vacation, instructional methods, machines.*

A little different example is:

(109c) *Working from underground, Mandela leads an effort to organize a national **stay-at-home strike** on May 29-31.* [COCA:1990:News:AssocPress],

in which the *stay-at-home* does not describe a person or a thing situated at home, but in this case the phrase is more of an instruction to stay at home.

All of the previous examples are expressions that have become relatively fixed in their form, as the frequency of using these structure in everyday language is quite high, even if sometimes in slight changes. Nevertheless, these expressions tend to collocate with the head noun, and this head noun can be alternated by a semantically close expression.

Returning to the *do-it-yourself* phrase, the possible collocations follow from the nature of the phrase and also the situations in which it would be used are mostly restricted to the actions of a handyman. It means that such person would read *a do-it-yourself magazine* [BNC CCY]; would use *the do-it-yourself manual* [BNC H61 555] or *the do-it-yourself handbook* (as in example 37), (s)he would probably prefer *a do-it-yourself shop* [BNC H0Y 59] and it (s)he is lucky enough, (s)he can win *a do-it-yourself Man of the Year award* [BNC HRF 1679].

Another example of a quotational compound in an attributive role with more possible head nouns is *one-size-fits-all*, cf.:

(110) *Critics say **Europe’s one-size-fits-all approach** to the Euro made it bound to all to fail of a recession hit.* [COCA:2010:SPOK:Fox_Baier],

followed by *one size fits all solutions*, “*one size fits all*” *packages*, “*one size fits all*” *environment*, other phrases included the head nouns such as *program*, *health care*, *diet*, *philosophy*, *conclusions*, *interventions* or *mentality*, which represent the abstract meaning of the phrase, and then for example *a one size-fits-all nightgown*, where the meaning is literal, and the size refers to the size of garments. It was surprising, however, that all of the above-mentioned examples were found in COCA while there were no results in BNC.

Other examples of fixed quotational compounds include:

(111) *He persuaded Congress to extend **the “cash and carry” principle**.*
[BNC EWG 655]

(112) *Finance companies, by adopting **a ‘take it or leave it’ attitude** used to insist on inserting terms that were very onerous for the customer.* [BNC H7U 1941]

(113) *You are entering a rather happy go lucky phase now.* [BNC HJ3 766]

(114) *a flexible give and take basis* [BNC B2T 123]

(115) *These are hot take away food shops, including fish and chips, Indian and Chinese hot food shops.* [BNC B2D 628]

These phrases are all in the attributive position, i.e. they stand in premodification of the noun phrase. However, some phrases may not be exclusively attributive. From their character of originally a phrase (in case of my focus a verb phrase) it is frequently possible to use them as a unit in premodification of a noun phrase, or as head of the noun phrase itself. In the following lines, I will demonstrate this on several examples where the quotational compound would be used as an attribute, sometimes in occurrence with other premodifiers, and as a head of the noun phrase without the change of meaning. This is basically a conversion of the phrase, even though it may be sometimes difficult to determine whether the phrase was originally formed to be a head of the noun phrase or its premodifier. I, however, think, that the latter case is more frequent.

First of these examples is *all-you-can-eat*, cf.:

(116) *Atlanta has all you can eat sections for the Hawks.*
[COCA:2010:News:Denver],

where the possible alternative head nouns could be *buffet* (both BNC and COCA), *restaurants, service, menu, lunch, breakfast, breakfast, pizza, fish and chips* (all COCA) and many other nouns mostly describing kinds of food or dishes. Moreover, the head noun may be premodified by more adjectives or premodifiers *all-you-can-eat seafood buffet* [COCA: 2002:MAG:NatGeog], or similarly *all-you-can-eat spaghetti buffet* [COCA:1994:SPOK:NPR_ATC].

Also some examples occurred, where the phrase was extended, there was a multiple object in coordination, cf.:

(117a) *All Embassy Suites offer a cooked-to-order, all-you-can eat breakfast daily in their dining area, and complimentary cocktails each evening in the hotels.*

[COCA:1991:Mag:BlackEnterp]

(117b) *All you can eat and drink*, \$ 75. [COCA:2002:News:Denver]

(117c) *All You Can Eat and Play for \$255 The Cinnamon Hill Ocean Course*
[COCA:2005:Mag:GolfMag]

In the first example the phrase is attributive, but the head noun is omitted here, the noun *offer* would be the most suitable option here. The latter example is an advertisement in a golf magazine, where the offer includes not only meal but also a play of golf.

In addition, the idiomatic nature of the phrase is then visible when used in a different context than eating or drinking. The character of the meaning, i.e. (eating/drinking/using) as much as you can for a set price, was convenient for Internet providers as the expression was widely used and understood, thus nowadays it is not rare to see the phrase in environment such as:

(118d) *It is a future in which the union of America Online, which helped pioneer all you can eat Internet access.* [COCA:2001:News:NewYorkTimes]

(118e) *A Voluntary Collective License system would let Internet providers offer all-you-can-eat downloads for a flat fee of \$5 a month.* [COCA:2004:News:Chicago]

(118f) *It's an all-you-can-eat type of data collection.* [COCA:2007:Mag:Astronomy]

Now I will quote examples including the phrase as a head of the noun phrase, c.f.:

(119a) Well, it's *all you can eat*, so you think I should eat it all.

[COCA:1997:SPOK:NBC_Today]

(119b) *All you can eat is the policy, and \$ 5.95 the price for the works except for beverages.* [COCA:1999:News:SanFrancisco]

Quite surprisingly, there was only one relevant example of *all you can eat*, in BNC¹⁷, already mentioned in the theoretical part of my thesis (34), cf.:

'All you can eat' buffets were exactly that, accompanied by limitless supplies

17 There is no result when searching *all-you-can-eat* and only one result when searching '*all you can eat*' in BNC.

COCA, however, has 164 results when searching for *all-you-can-eat*, and **different** results of '*all you can eat*' while on both cases there are relevant examples of quotational compounds.

of soft drinks. [BNC HP6 815]

Another typical example of a phrase possible to form an attribute and the head noun is *know-it-all*: **know it all attitude**, [BNC KDA 3873], where the head noun *attitude* is very common, or:

(120a) *I was a **know-it-all teenager**.* [COCA:2006:MAG:Inc]

(120b) *He manages a bluntness that comes off as quiet straight shooting rather than **know-it-all abrasiveness**.* [COCA:2009:News:USAToday]

This phrase, however, is more frequent in the position of a noun than of an adjective, the prove for that could be seen in the typical examples below (further premodification, article, etc.):

(120c) *Tim Lowry, her friend, mentor, **bossy know-it-all**, threatened to put blinders on her.* [COCA:2011:FIC:Bk:BackstageStuff]

(120d) *He thinks he's such **a know-it-all**.* [COCA:2010:FIC:Super_Science]

Examples of fixed quotational compounds are those that contain an infinitive preceded with the adjective *easy*, e.g:

(121) *For an **easy to apply paint finish**, use microporous paints.* [BNC C8B 1797]

(122) *Try some tasty, **easy to follow recipes** at home.* [BNC H06 2749]¹⁸

Other head nouns premodified by the *easy-to* structure are, e.g.: *easy to read thermometer* [BNC HX4 988], *easy to use information retrieval system* [BNC JXK 117], *easy to wave hair* [BNC CGM 31], *easy-to-wash white canvas* [COCA:2010:MAG_CountryLiving], and last but not least illustrative example: *easy-to-take characteristics* [COCA:1997:News:Chicago], and the list could go on. All these examples are a description of characteristics and nature of the head nouns.

The next group includes the originally evaluative structure, specifically tautologies (Tárnyiková 2002, 142–146), i.e. examples that have a structure – something

¹⁸ Also: *easy to follow guide* [BNC EEJ 151]

is/will be something, especially in those cases when the whole phrase premodifies a noun, e.g. *a boys-will-be-boys attitude*.

There were 4 examples of *boys-will-be-boys* as a quotational compound in COCA (none in BNC), three of these examples included the head noun *attitude*, the last example is quoted below:

(123) *It was dismissed as a normal **boys-will-be-boys phenomenon**.*
[COCA:1993:ACAD: HospitalTopic]

3.4.4.2 Most frequent head nouns

Before presenting the group of the ad hoc, i.e. nonce examples, I will discuss the most frequent head nouns that most typically co-occur with the quotational compounds. It is not possible to make strict, unambiguous and general rules for the distribution of the quotational compounds. However, according to the supportive corpus that I have been using, there are some head nouns that are repeatedly premodified by the quotational compound. Into this group I have included both fixed and well-known quotational compounds as well as those used ad hoc only.

The process of determining the typical head nouns was that I have realized them from my supportive corpus, sorted them according to their meaning and then intentionally searched for them in both BNC and COCA.

The head nouns that may more frequently be premodified by a quotational compound are usually those that need modification to have a full meaning, i.e. those nouns that have smaller propositional meaning by themselves.

Nevertheless, the common phrases occurring in such noun phrases are not exactly the heads of the phrases, but also their modifiers – *kind of*, *sort of* followed by the real notional head. The following example:

(124) ***I-wish-it-was-still-weekend kind of mood***. [DC],

was an answer to a greeting/question *How are you?*, given by my colleague. After I asked him to write the sentence down, I obtained a perfect example for my corpus.

(125) *He's just pretending to be **an aw-shucks-gee-look-what-happened-to-me-when-I-wasn't-trying kind of guy***. [BNC CCW 783]

The source of this example, taken from the BNC, is fiction, which may be the reason why, compared to the previously stated examples, this one is spelled with hyphens. However, the reason may also be that the fixed expressions do not need to be spelled with hyphens as the meaning is understood anyway, while here the spelling facilitates the correct comprehension of the whole premodification. This hypothesis is proven by the next examples, again from the BNC¹⁹:

(126) *And **the father-mother-children-aren't-we-normal? kind of thing** which was still the prevailing mentality.* [BNC HA1 1134]

(127) *There is a danger of am (sic) '**oh-it-will-never-happen-here'** kind of attitude.*
[BNC BML 1598]

(128) *And it's back to **the dog-catching-the-car kind of thing.***
[COCA:2010:SPOK:NPR_TalkNation]

Needless to say that there were much less examples of *kind of* in BNC (15,594 examples in 2,454 texts), thus it was possible to analyse all the examples. However, after searching the same phrase in COCA, there were 154,651 results. I have chosen the sample of 1,000 examples, which was the largest possible option of a set of random examples, and therefore the ratio cannot be simply compared.

The situation was very similar in case of the phrase *sort of*, i.e. 22,743 examples in 2,532 texts in BNC, while 66,560 in COCA, out of which I have chosen the sample of 1,000 random examples. The results are stated below²⁰.

First I quote the examples of a quotational compound in premodification, cf.:

(129) *There were a few of the **I-am-not-really-dead-but-just-popped-out-for-a-pocket-of-fags sort of lines**, which all went on a little long for Henry's taste.*
[BNC ASS 2925]

(130) *I asked in a **you-don't-have-to-tell-me-anything-about-Carol voice**, with an **I'm-on-your-side sort of sigh.*** [BNC HW8 342],

19 More examples in Appendix II

20 More examples in Appendix II

followed by examples of postmodification, cf.:

(131) *And Piers saw himself being seen and put on a **clever sort of don't-mind us smile**.* [BNC G07 1633]

(132) *Then she continues in **the sort of I'll be reasonable-if you'll-be-reasonable tones** adopted by the Russian government to, say, the Lithuanians.*
[BNC ASS 2803]

As there were two examples from the same text in BNC [ASS], I looked up the whole text, and focused on whether there were some more examples of quotational compounds. The expectation was that the author's style²¹ can be marked by using these expressions more frequently for descriptions. I have found more, cf.:

(133a) *The standard **who-is-this-jerk-and-why-am-I-married-to-him** expression.*

(133b) *And then, after a bit of **Christ-this-is-so-delicious-it-seems-a-shame-to-go-on-about-it-but-it-is-my-duty** acting, he went on.*

(133c) *When he had finished the third page she put her head to one side and said in **her cross-but-trying-to-be-helpful** voice, 'I like the bit about Donald.'*

(133d) *not to mention **Mr and Mrs Is-the-Mitsubishi-Scratched-Yet** and Nazi Who Escaped justice at Nuremberg.*

(133e) *quite a number of **death-as-a-viable-alternative-to-life** stuff*

This is quite surprisingly frequent usage of quotational compounds, considering the fact that out of 22,743 examples of *sort of* (found in 2,532 texts)²², there were only 8 sentences of quotational compounds modifying (both in pre- and postmodification) the phrase *sort of*, while two examples come from the same text as mentioned above, and then after closer analysis of one text there were at least 6 items that would be described as quotational compounds.

The fact that in a sample with 38,739 words the occurrence of quotational compounds is rather high supports the theory that using these expressions is influenced

21 Source – Williams, Nigel: *The Wimbledon poisoner*, sample containing about 38,789 words from a book (domain: imaginative).

22 The numbers are very similar with *kind of* pre- or postmodified by a quotational compound. There were 15 994 examples of *kind of* in 2454 texts, and only 5 quotational compounds in the phrase.

by the overall rhetorical style of the speaker, there are no strict and clear rules for choosing a quotational compound over any other linguistic device.

Again, based on my own corpus, several head nouns re-occurred several times. Usually these nouns do not express much propositional meaning, they are either very general and thus need the premodifiers and postmodifier to specify them (e.g. *stuff*, *thing*, even *kind of thing*), or they are neutral and that the modifiers are necessary.

Examples of these nouns are stated below, however, they are not ordered according to frequency. The order of these examples is quite random, since the examples are all at the top of the notional list of the most frequent head nouns modified by quotational compounds.

As already stated, I have realized that some nouns re-occurred, and based on this selection I have been looking for more examples in the corpora, cf.:

(134) *I've been thinking about **your whole 'something stinks' aptitude.***

[*Bones "A boy in a Tree"*],

which is a quote from a scene where this is a description of a person's intuition skill.

A lot of examples were in a noun phrase with the head noun *attitude*. The word itself has 5,906 results in 1,729 texts in BNC, out of which 33 were quotational compounds of my concern, and 11 are examples such as:

(135) *This engendered an '**us-and-them' attitude.*** [BNC CR7 2169],

or a phrase that has become so frequently used in a specific environment, that it is now used as an acronym, cf.:

(136) *The **NIMBY (not in my back yard) attitude**, whether at home or abroad, does not make for good environmental policy.* [BNC BN4 1189]

Among the other 33 examples, there were some examples several times, cf.:

(137) *A far cry from **the take it or leave it attitude** in Europe.* [BNC AL3 1599]

and 2 more phrases with *take it or leave it* in premodification;

(138) *Hewlett-Packard is taking a similar ‘wait-and-see’ attitude with respect to Microsoft Corp’s Windows NT.* [BNC CTS 8],

along with 5 more phrases with *wait and see* in premodification;

(139) *She was stuck with him and his infuriating know-it-all attitude for the duration of her stay.* [BNC H8H 439],

and one more phrase with *know-it-all*, other repeatedly used premodifiers being *devil-may-care* (3x), *do-it-yourself* (2x), *happy go lucky* (5x) (*attitude*). Even though it may not seem as a high number to call it “repeating”, it is important to say that even one repetition of the same phrase may already suggest a kind of idiom, especially in case of already discussed *do-it-yourself*, *know-it-all* or *devil-may-care*.

To complete the overview, there were several examples of extended quotational compounds, where the whole clause can be traced back to its original syntactic role. These examples would definitely be nonce examples, used to describe the attitude in one specific situation, event. Some of the examples are stated below, e.g.:

(140) *Her success both nationally and internationally, has reflected a what’s-in-it-for-me? attitude.* [BNC HH3 3394]

(141) *Bombay-based Anil put India’s failure to exploit its manpower and mind power and its lack of excellence in sport, economics and the arts down to a ‘Learn what is there and don’t question it’ attitude.* [BNC HAE 4088]

(142) *A ‘like’ or ‘don’t mind’ attitude seems symbolic of a search for satisfaction in housework; the declaration of ‘dislike’ appears to indicate the recognition of dissatisfaction.* [BNC EBR 1190]

(143) *But the inconvenience of travel must be wiser than the don’t-worry you-won’t-capsize attitude.* [BNC BMF 1104]

(144) *But they've got **that get up and do it attitude** which all bands should subscribe to.* [BNC HWX 1299]

These premodifiers are ad hoc examples, i.e. expressions used only once in a specific situation, and usually not used more than once (and if used more than once then mostly by the same speaker or in the same text/utterance).

Despite the fact that in the case of *attitude* as a head, most of the results were in premodification, postmodification is not excluded from the possibilities, see the example with *attitude of*:

(145) *The learner may even be ridiculed for talking too long in her care, and **an attitude of "why bother?"** will develop.* [BNC B33 489]

Situation in COCA (a set of 1,000 random examples out of 19,986 when searching *attitude*) shows similar tendencies. Out of 1,000 random examples, 18 sentences included a quotational compound with a verb form, 1 without a verb form: *all-or-nothing attitude*, 1 example of postmodification: *attitude of "you need this information"* and the same examples occurred repeatedly: *take-it-or-leave-it*, *wait-and-see* (6x). Below I quote one of the long examples, cf.:

(146) *In a sharp reversal of the Zeitgeist, **the "we're changing the world, dude" attitude** of last year has faded.* [COCA:2000:MAG:Newsweek]

Other head nouns that are expected to be pre- or postmodified by a quotational compound are, e.g. *stuff*, *situation*, *experience*, *skill*, *way*, *expression*, *material* and also nouns describing appearance, or facial expressions, e.g.: *smile*, *look*, *expression* eventually *voice*, and other synonyms or semantically close nouns, e.g.:

(147) *She gave me **a little 'that's-all' smile** and looked around the room.*
[BNC HTL 2724]

(148) *Carolyn was just sitting down again, with **her 'thanks-for-putting-up-with-them-and-that-wasn't-too-bad-was-it? smile**, when the doorbell rang.*
[BNC HJH 3112]

- (149) *Rent-collection will be **the make-or-break skill** this year.* [BNC HSF 709]
- (150) *Once again Scottish Amicable service standards will be a trump card in **this ‘winner takes all’ situation.*** [BNC HP6 1287]
- (151) *It is **a dog-eat-dog situation.*** [BNC K52 3359]
- (152) *I’m not really a big fan of **this... barking out orders stuff.*** [Bones “The Hero in the Hold”]
- (153) *Ah, the woman I know and love – in **a purely non-romantic, happy-to-be-judged way.*** [Bones “The Truth in the Lye”]

I will also include situations where the quotational compound is used as a literal quotation of a text written on a bumper sticker, a refrigerator magnet or any other sign, on a T-shirt, etc. The description then uses the word-for-word reading of that accompanied by the head noun, e.g.: *If you can read this you’re too close bumper sticker*²³. This would be a big group of examples, with a rather limited inventory of head nouns, varying in the text included. The most common examples would be *no entry sign, for sale sign, keep out sign*.

Another situation where the quotational compound is used, is a person description, as was already seen in example (133d). The reason here is mostly irony, which would be accompanied by the tone in spoken speech as well. The expression is a brief, but very cogent description of someone’s character, or in rarer situations appearance. The typical structure of these phrases are Mr., Mrs, Lady, etc.

- (154) *So, **Mr Knowitall**, I said, how do you know?* [BNC A6E 561],

the original phrase is obvious – *you know it all*, i.e. *you know about everything*, both meant ironically. When this phrase is re-considered as a quotational compound, it may be used both as an attribute (155) or a head noun (156):

23 April 15, 2012, http://www.zazzle.com/if_you_can_read_this_youre_too_close_bumper_sticker-128162203040204097

(155) *Desmond's arrogant, **know-it-all tone** made her want to put out one of his bright blue eyes.* [COCA:2010:FIC:Bk:FadeMidnight]

(156) *Not really. You seem like a bit of **a know-it-all**.* [Bones "The Goop on the Girl"]

Other examples included into this groups are e.g.:

(157) *This is not about me, little **miss I-Like-To-Turn-Things-Around**.*
[Everwood "Fallout"],

and also:

(158) *Thanks, **Mr and Mrs Don't Know Who**.* [BNC BMS 2126]

(159) *In this part of the world, being **Mrs So-and-So** makes all the difference to the way people treat you.* [BNC CB8 1817]

(160) *Judith, **Miss Perfect Know-It-All**.* [COCA:2008:SPOK:NBC_Today]

Moreover, this would also be the situation to describe a person who has a favourite phrase or saying, that (s)he uses and is know for it, e.g.:

(161) *You gave it away too early. You're **an "I love you" slut**.*
[HIMYM "First Time in New York"]

Another repeated expressions are those phrases including an infinitive, frequently with the adjective *easy*, such as *an easy-to-read book*, or:

(162) *Three **easy-to-use hand tools** are available, with matching replacement plates.*
[BNC CCX 1062]

These cases (as in example 162) were already discussed above. One more typical

representative of a phrase with an infinitive is to be seen in the next examples, cf.:

(163) *So that you wind up with a **prioritised to do list**.* [BNC K6V 423]

And last, but not least, is a subgroup with examples expressing instructions of how to use the device expressed by the head noun, and rules. From the nature of the instructions, the quotational compound in the phrase will mostly include an imperative form of a verb used to describe how to handle the device.

A typical example of this is a sign on a box of a blanket, which describes the comfort that one experiences while reading a book under the blanket, as one can read a book with a *press-and-open book light* [Internet advertisement²⁴]. A weaker form of an instruction, more of a recommendation, was also the inspiration for naming a shampoo – *a wash-and-go shampoo*, cf.:

(164) *Most men like to wash their hair every day so shampoo like Vidal Sassoon's **Wash and Go** are always a popular choice.* [BNC CGM 404]

3.4.4.3 Ad hoc expressions

In this last group I include examples that were obviously meant only for one specific occasion and the head nouns are not repeatedly used with quotational compounds. As far as the frequency of these examples is concerned it is very difficult to simply state that they are frequent or not, same as they may be expected or not. Application of these structures in text, either spoken or written, is influenced by the speaker's style, by the formality or colloquiality of the text and by semantics of the whole utterance. As the quotational compounds are means of language economy, they are popular for descriptions, still there is no possibility of foreseeing them.

I will not discuss all examples in detail, as it would mean a detailed description of the non-linguistic context and explanation which is not always necessary – the quotational compounds are clear by themselves. Nevertheless, I will quote some phrases as representative examples of several possible contexts. In this group I will not narrow the scope to noun phrases only, as the quotational compound may be used in premodification of other parts of speech, e.g. as a further description of how painful an injury will be, this sentence follows:

²⁴ April 15, 2012, <http://www.amazon.co.uk/Genuine-JML-Snuggie-Blanket-Touch/dp/B002S4V366>

(165) *More painful than now? – Yeah. “Slip into shock and die” painful.*
[*Bones* “Alliens in a Spaceship”]

Generally, the quotational compound included into this group may originate from long clauses, which also eliminates the future repetition of the same phrase. The following dialogue comes from a scene where the wife prepares a nice breakfast for her husband as an apology for the previously debauched night. The repetitive use of a different quotational compound are an allusion to the first stated expression:

(166) *Husband: Do I smell chocolate chip pancakes?*
*Wife: No, you smell **chocolate chip “I’m sorry I was such a drunk idiot” pancakes.***
*Husband: Is there **any “Wish I hadn’t puked on your shirt” bacon?***
Wife: There sure is. [HIMYM “Not a Father’s Day”]

Nosek (1985, 160) provides an example originating from the complete clause: *it’s-my-first-offence-and-I-didn’t-know-any-better humbug*, and similar longer examples can be found frequently. However, they are not typical for a formal text, rather they are used in colloquial style.

(167) *Oh, I had a **blow-out-my-knee-and-it-hurts-like-hell incident.***
[HIMYM “Murtaugh”]

(168) *Wait, this isn’t one of those classic **“You still have feelings for your ex boyfriend, who’s oddly also your roommate, which for the record I’m totally cool with, even though everybody tells me I’ve walked into a bear trap”** things, is it? [HIMYM “Noretta”]*

(169) *Jerk-Off of the Year. No, Bastard of the Year! Uh, don’t you tell me! **Guy I Despise So Much, I’d Pay Someone To Kill Ya and Stuff Ya and Leave Ya by my Bed, So That When I Wake Up in the Morning, I Could Roll Over and Punch You in the Face ... of the Year.*** [Scrubs “My Jiggly Ball”],

where the original expression is *guy of the year* (allusion to various awards), and is

extended by a very detailed description.

3.4.5 General notes on the previous groups

Generally, the reason of using the quotational compound is the language economy. They are a brief and clear way of describing people, events or subjects, and are used both in written and spoken text. The examples from the last group are more likely to be used in colloquial speech, while the fixed examples from the first group can be undoubtedly used both in formal written text and in spoken language.

There are no unifying rules for them, as some of them can be modified by affixes, cf.: *this I-don't-knowish expression on his face* (Dušková 2008, 20), *an enthusiastic do-it-yourselfer* [BNC ASS 2948], while other examples cannot.

Neither the spelling is a decisive feature of the quotational compounds, as in the many previously stated examples, several possibilities could be seen, from the expected hyphens, via quotation marks to no punctuation at all. The spelling then seems to be not so important as the inferred understanding.

Although they are more frequent in premodification, several examples occurred in postmodification as well, in both cases other modifier (adjectives, adverbs, etc.) co-occur.

And finally, the quotational compounds may originate from simple phrases to statements, but also questions, mostly used with the question mark in the phrase itself, are possible.

Therefore, the overall description and classification of quotational compounds should not be based on formal point of view, but rather on semantics.

4. Conclusions

In this thesis I have focused on noun phrase and its modifiers, with a closer analysis devoted to two specific phenomena – to the noun + noun structures, where the first noun modifies the second noun, i.e. the head noun, and to the so-called quotational compounds.

In the theoretical part of this thesis, I have summed up the approaches to a noun phrase in general, I have listed the possibilities of pre- and postmodifiers of a noun phrase, i.e. what various constituents may compose a noun phrase. Nevertheless, the list is not exhaustive and reflects the most frequent constituents and the most frequent exceptions from the expected pre- and postmodification. Attention is then paid to approaches to the noun + noun structures (e.g. *a stone wall*), which are different from the compounds (e.g. *a paper towel*), and to the so-called quotational compound.

To have an overall view of a noun phrase, I have compared an originally English text to its official Czech translation. Based on the noun phrases found in the text I have listed the possibilities of pre- and postmodification of the head noun. As expected, the most frequent way of modifying a noun is an adjective or adjectival phrase.

The noun in premodification of another noun is also a frequent way of constituting a noun phrase, and because of this fact the nouns are semantically very diverse. I have divided them into several groups according to their semantics. Next, I focused on situations where the noun in premodification is in the plural form, as these cases are rather exceptional. There are two typical situations, the first is when the premodifying noun is a plurale tantum, e.g. *a clothes shop*, and second, when the premodifying noun expresses two or more separate entities, e.g. *a newspaper articles author, jobs fair*, etc.

The next sections deals with quotational compounds. These are expressions and phrases taken out of their original environment and used in the same or very similar form in a different syntactic role (Dušková 2006, 20), e.g. *the swallowed-up-by-earth theory*, where originally a finite clause is taken out and used as a whole in a syntactic position of an attribute. These expressions range from very simple and common phrases, such as *a face-to-face conversation*, *a mother-in-law*, via the frequently used expressions, e.g. *a drive-through store*, *a do-it-yourself manual*, to expressions that are not frequent at all, e.g. *I-have-never-been-so-sad look on her face*. The mentioned expressions are mostly used for one specific situation only and are not likely to be used

repeatedly. However, it does not mean that they would be so innovative that it would be difficult to understand them. The reason to use these expressions is, on the other hand, to simplify and condense the utterance, i.e. quotational compounds are a means of language economy and therefore a convenient way of expressing longer ideas in shorter expressions. The longer possibility would be a paraphrastic description, i.e. *I-have-never-been-so-sad look on her face* would have to be rephrased as *She had a look on her face which expressed the fact that she had never been so sad before*. Therefore quotational compounds are sometimes preferred because of the language economy.

The term quotational compounds is however, not frequent all over the world, and is mostly used by Czech linguists (Mathesius and Vachek, etc.). Foreign authors describe these expressions as marginal cases of modification (e.g. Quirk 1985, 1562–1563), or use an umbrella term for a more general group into which these expressions are included (e.g. Leech 2002, 364–365). I have based the theoretical overview on the approaches of the Czech linguists, therefore I use the same term – quotational compounds.

I concentrate on quotational compounds in pre- or, in fewer cases, postmodification, and several examples contain a quotational compound as the head of the phrase, but I have also found examples where the quotational compound is in a different syntactic position (Appendix I, III.1, 11 and 13).

In the practical part of this thesis I have created three main groups of quotational compounds, although it is not possible to make a clear distinction between them, some examples overlap and some examples depend on the context which can influence their meaning. It is because these expressions should not be strictly grouped into groups with clear rules, they are rather on a scale ranging from shorter and simpler expressions at one end (e.g. *heart-to-heart talk*) to longer and more complex expressions towards the other end (e.g. *easy-to-read instructions, know-it-all attitude*, etc.).

The first group includes examples which are universally used and understood by all speakers, and their frequent usage influenced their form to such extent that they have become fixed and are a stable part of the language, the typical examples were already mentioned few lines above, to enlarge the list cf. *an all-you-can menu, stay-at-home mother, or a wake-up call*.

The second group includes examples where the quotational compounds vary widely, but the noun phrase contains a head noun which is frequently modified by these

expressions. Examples of these head nouns are *a (know-it-all) attitude*, *a (little that's-all) smile*, *a (winner-takes-all) situation*, etc.

The last group then covers all the other examples, i.e. expressions used usually only for one situation. These ad hoc expressions tend to be longer and may originate from a whole finite clause which is the reason for their not repeating in everyday speech.

There are also differences in spelling of these expressions. They may be spelled with hyphens, without hyphens and then the quotation marks are used, or in some cases no punctuation is used at all. This is despite the tendency to use hyphens with ad hoc quotational compounds, and therefore stress their uniqueness.

Apart from the English and Czech texts, I have used my own supportive corpus consisting of examples of quotational compounds that I have heard or read in the newspapers, when talking to native speakers, on TV and radio, etc. These examples were the basis for the further research in the corpora of English (BNC and COCA).

My thesis therefore contains a description of noun phrase in general, specified by a detailed analysis of two phenomena, a noun + noun structures and the so-called quotational compounds, their form, function and distribution in text.

5. Appendix I

This is my supportive corpus that was used for the analysis of the quotational compounds. These expressions were the basis for the further search for same and similar expressions in the corpora (BNC, COCA).

The examples are sorted according to their frequency, i.e. from fixed expressions to ad hoc phrases. The grouping corresponds the groups in the thesis: 1) fixed expressions, 2) typical head nouns modified by the quotational compound, 3) ad hoc examples. The source is in the brackets after the phrase. In case of fixed phrases (ad 1), there is usually no source as these are expressions used in everyday conversation, on the radio, the newspapers etc., i.e. examples repeated frequently and therefore the source is not necessary. If the examples are used in the thesis, they are supported by examples from BNC or COCA.

I. 1 Fixed expressions

- (1) *a thank-you email*
- (2) *refer-a-friend bonus*
[May 7, 2012, <http://www.celebpoker.com/referafriend>]
- (3) *devil-may-care face*
- (4) *touch-and-go condition*
- (5) *a hard-to-get item*
- (6) *a do it yourself shop*
- (7) *one-size-fits-all comment/approach* [DC]
- (8) *fly-by-night plane*
- (9) *all-you-can-eat menu*
- (10) *a wake-up call*
- (11) *a stay-at-home mother*
- (12) *easy-to-use computer programme*
- (13) *seize-the-day poem*
- (14) *hide-and-peek game*
- (15) *coming-of-age novel*
- (16) *hit-and-run driver*
- (17) *difficult-to-answer question*
- (18) *the hand me down house*

- (19) *cash-and-carry shop*
- (20) *who-done-in book/film, genre*
- (21) *bring-your-own-ingredient party*, e.g. *bring-your-own-drink party*
- (22) *go-as-you-please travel ticket*
- (23) *a face-to-face conversation*
- (24) *a make-your-own-sundae bar*
- (25) *all-too-common mistake*
- (26) *drive-trough store*
- (27) *bet-at-home website*

II. 1 Most frequent head nouns

- (1) *This is not about me, little miss I-Like-To-Turn-Things-Around.*
[Everwood “Fallout”]
- (2) *The taste is bitter, and familiar only in an “I-shouldn’t-be-eating-this-part” sort of way.* [May 7, 2012, available from: www.dfarley.com/pigkillers.html]
- (3) *He’s an extrovert, and we’re looking for a lock-yourself-in-the-basement type of fellow.* [Bones “The Goop on the Girl”]
- (4) *Ah, the woman I know and love – in a purely non-romantic, happy-to-be-judged way.* [Bones “The Truth in the Lye”]
- (5) *I’ve been thinking about your whole something-stinks aptitude.*
[Bones “A Boy in a Tree”]
- (6) *This is my “What the Hell are you talking about” look.* [Bones “The Shallow in the Deep”]
- (7) *press-and-open booklight*
[April 15, 2012, <http://www.amazon.co.uk/Genuine-JML-Snuggie-Blanket-Touch/dp/B002S4V366>]
- (8) *You gave it away too early. You’re an “I love you” slut.*
[HIMYM “First Time in New York”]

III. 1 Ad hoc expressions

- (1) *And they use the you-know-how-it-is language when talking to me.* [DC]
- (2) *I-wish-it-was-still-weekend kind of mood* [DC]

- (3) *What is funny is that Walter always starts out in the best **brilliant-young-lawyer style of humoring** and old lady by letting her get the better of him, whereas she really does get the better of him.* [WP, 27]
- (4) *Said they were constructing **some kind of home-age-to-the-dead display**.*
[KR, 120]
- (5) *I must admit it's making me a bit scared. Like **why-is-this-happening and what-is-wrong with-me kind of scared**.* [May 7, 2012, available from: <http://readalittlepoetry.wordpress.com/2011/05/03/morning-by-robert-creeley/>]
- (6) *This whole **I don't care what people think about me act**.*
[Scrubs "My Kingdom"]
- (7) *Jerk-Off of the Year. No, Bastard of the Year! Uh, don't you tell me! **Guy I Despise So Much, I'd Pay Someone To Kill Ya and Stuff Ya and Leave Ya by my Bed, So That When I Wake Up in the Morning, I Could Roll Over and Punch You in the Face ... of the Year**.* [Scrubs "My Jiggly Ball"]
- (8) ***The God why don't you love me Blues***
[Desperate Housewives "The God-Why-Don't-You-Love-Me Blues"]
- (9) *Nobody cared about **he'll kill you part**.* [Cold Case, "It's Raining Men"] ""
- (10) *So, uh, what part of **"this is mine"** did you not understand?*
[Bones "A Boy in a Tree"]
- (11) *More painful than now? – Yeah. **"Slip into shock and die" painful**.*
[Bones "Alliens in a Spaceship"]
- (12) *See how annoying that **interrupting know-it-all used-car salesman thing** can be?* [Bones "The Finger in the Nest"]
- (13) *This was **"I'm gonna run away to Europe and stop being an artist" hurt**.*
[Bones "The Skull in the Sculpture"]
- (14) *I'm not really a big fan of this... **barking out orders stuff**.*
[Bones "The Hero in the Hold"]
- (15) *Oh, I see, so we're going with **the old "blame the corpse" defense**.*
[Bones "The Bones That Foam"]
- (16) *Not really. You seem like a bit of **a know-it-all**.* [Bones "The Goop on the Girl"]
- (17) *You just can't see it because you're afflicted with **haven't-been-laid-in-a-while blindness**.* [HIMYM "Swarley"]
- (18) *The **are you ready to move in together quiz*** [HIMYM "Moving Day"]

- (19) *Husband: Do I smell chocolate chip pancakes?*
*Wife: No, you smell **chocolate chip** “I’m sorry I was such a drunk idiot”
pancakes.*
*Husband: Is there **any** “Wish I hadn’t puked on your shirt” bacon?*
Wife: There sure is. [HIMYM “Not a Father’s Day”]
- (20) *Oh, I had a **blow-out-my-knee-and-it-hurts-like-hell incident.***
[HIMYM “Murtaugh”]
- (21) *I have some actual **save-the-world work** to do. [HIMYM “The Window”]*
- (22) *Oh man, I could sit here and make “**you look like a farmer**” jokes all night.*
[HIMYM “The Window”]
- (23) *Aha! You’re trying that **Of Course You’re Still Single – Take a Look at Yourself, You Dumb Slut crap** on me. [HIMYM “Of Course”]*
- (24) *Wait, this isn’t one of those classic “**You still have feelings for your ex boyfriend, who’s oddly also your roommate, which for the record I’m totally cool with, even though everybody tells me I’ve walked into a bear trap**” things, is it? [HIMYM “Noretta”]*

6. Appendix II

This Appendix contains more examples with the head noun *attitude* and phrases containing *sort of* and *kind of*, i.e. examples that are not listed on the thesis itself. Examples are all from corpora (BNC, COCA) and are the results of the follow-up search based on my own supportive corpus.

II. 1 Kind of

- (1) *Mr Koo claimed that the people of China and Taiwan have a **'blood-is thicker than-water kind of sentiment'***. [BNC CR7 834]
- (2) *while **the run-down-at-the-end-of-a-long-hard-term kind of stress** makes me irritable and forgetful*. [BNC CKS 797]
- (3) *A sort of happy, **let's-all-be-friends-there's-no-problem kind of laugh***. [BNC HR9 639]
- (4) *He's not a loud, **look-at-me kind of coach***. [COCA 2006-Mag-SportigNews]

II. 2 Sort of

- (1) *I'm a **take-me-as-you-find-me sort of guy**, know what I mean?* [BNC HTU 1646]
- (2) *The chaos of the early years meant that in Gilbert Seldes's phrase '**any sort of fly-by-night production company**' became a reasonable venture*. [BNC CLS 283]
- (3) *But when I see managers, present their ideas in just this **sort of well-if-you-don't like-it-that's-all-right way**, I can understand why* [BNC FAH 1044]
- (4) *It's **sort of 'one-woman-against-the-world' story**, using basic stage props*. [BNC ED6 2770]
- (5) *Bill was whistling in a **devil-may-care sort of way** as they sped along*. [BNC HTU 871]
- (6) *You have to understand that dogs are an invented species and so early on, we've been doing **sort of seat-of-the-pants genetics** to shape dogs to what we want*. [COCA:2009:SPOK:NPR_TalkNation]

II. 3 Attitude

- (1) *Comparisons were drawn with the US where, in spite of more severe child-care obstacles, women were making their mark because of **the ‘can-do’ attitude** that marked out anyone destined for the top. [BNC K5L 663]*
- (2) *Unfortunately many such dealers do not recognise previous customers and seem to have a **‘once we’ve sold it, we forget it’ attitude**. [BNC HAC 5105]*
- (3) *Sometimes a seller is so financially powerful that he can blatantly insist on such a clause being included in the contract; he can adopt a **‘take it or leave it’ attitude**. [BNC H7U 311]*
- (4) *The idea of ‘opponents’ and **the ‘winner take-all’ attitude** inherent in it is not necessarily the best form of decision-making for social welfare cases. [BNC GU6 322]*
- (5) *The acceptance of this principle would do much to dispel **the ‘us’ and ‘them’ attitude** sometimes found where there are choirs, and it would counter the idea that an offering by skilled singers and players is merely a performance and an exercise in self-advertisement, unless by their attitude musicians invite such criticism. [BNC FPY 1462]*
- (6) *Such excellence sometimes has the effect of creating **an ‘us’ and ‘them’ attitude** in parishes, where their parish musicians feel unable or unwilling to settle for more than a mediocre level of performance. [BNC FPY 23]*
- (7) *Blackwell indicates Win/U has attracted the passive interest of hardware vendors such as HP, IBM and Sun who are apparently adopting a **‘wait-and-see’ attitude**. [BNC CTD 210]*
- (8) *With the growing recognition of the real nature of the Stalinist regime, the ideological divisions of pre-war Europe became too simplistic to sustain, and even **the attentiste (wait-and-see) attitude** taken after the war by many Marxists, including Merleau-Ponty himself in *Humanism and Terror* (1947), became no longer tenable. [BNC CTY 401]*
- (9) ***fucking know it all attitude**. [BNC KDA 3873]*
- (10) *In them he perceives a **devil-may-care attitude** which is attractive to him. [BNC HUB 582]*
- (11) *In six years she had never been able to cultivate **that devil-may-care attitude** that seemed to characterise the gentleman at the Feathers. [BNC HGV 639]*

- (12) *I wasn't really disappointed at all; I had a **devil-may-care attitude** to my athletics.* [BNC BMM 533]
- (13) *'Be your own expert' is sometimes the cry and the **do-it-yourself attitude** extends to educational thinking.* [BNC CBR 970]
- (14) *Another example of their **do-it-yourself attitude** to touring is the band's total control of merchandise.* [BNC AT1 905]
- (15) *This **do-or-die attitude** clashes with the caution advocated by the naïve inductivist.* [BNC FBE 734]
- (16) *The job is to purge **the good-riddance-to-Quebec attitude** among Reform Party supporters, and to get backing in the western provinces for a further set of constitutional changes, incorporating Quebec's insistent claim to be recognised as a distinct society.* [BNC ABJ 1224]
- (17) *This **greener-than-thou attitude** to nature is neither the traditional ethic of countryside husbandry, nor is it grounded in scientific ecology.* [BNC AJM 1210]
- (18) *This **happy-go-lucky attitude**, with its underlying assumption that diplomacy was not a career in itself but an interlude in other and often more attractive ones, was slowly dying as system, method and organisation became more pervasive in all branches of government.* [BNC HY5 579]
- (19) *Picking up his last remark, I asked, 'Do all the girls have **the same happy-go lucky attitude** to – well, friendships?' [BNC CHG 1804]*
- (20) *It was a happy working relationship and each had complete trust in the other's abilities — until **Johnnie's happy-go-lucky attitude** changed to an unusually quiet and sombre mood.* [BNC CE9 348]
- (21) *I liked the good life, had a **happy-go-lucky attitude**.* [BNC BMM 764]
- (22) *As Anglican church discipline was tightened and as the Oxford Movement spread its influence throughout the clergy **the happy-go-lucky attitude** of older Broad and Low Churchmen was put on the defensive.* [BNC AE6 1195]
- (22) *They then use the information in their stories but retain **their holier-than-thou attitude** by writing: 'Mr Bernard Ingham told lobby journalists...'* [BNC G31 241]
- (23) *Your **holier-than-thou attitude** cuts no ice with me.* [BNC C8D 36]
- (24) *Some advice from one queer to another: Come anywhere near Reading with **your rapist-gaybashing-scum attitude** and you'll eat your next Christmas*

- dinner through a tube. [BNC CAD 3281]
- (25) ‘Am I to take it that is the general male philosophy, that **shrug-it-all-off attitude?**’ [BNC JY4 549]
- (26) But he tempered the apprehensiveness with **a shrug-of-the-shoulders-and-oh what-the-hell attitude** which told me that in his view the experience, and not the heroics of the impression he might create, was what mattered, was what he would enjoy, was what he had come for. [BNC CG2 285]
- (27) More than half a sweaty hour touring the environs of the station, revealed there wasn’t space to park even a roller-skate, so I adopted **a to-hell-with-it attitude** and parked in a corner of the horseshoe — well out of everybody’s way. [BNC C8U 960]
- (28) The pair, both available on free transfers from Deepdale, have had talks with Barrow but are adopting **a wait-and-see attitude** to his offers. [BNC K4C 856]
- (29) Despite Fujimori’s assurances to the OAS, US Deputy Secretary of State Lawrence Eagleburger stated that the USA would adopt **a wait-and-see attitude** on whether or not to restore all or part of US\$320,000,000 in suspended economic and security aid. [BNC HLK 865]
- (30) With little suspicion and high self-confidence, the Rottweiler responds quietly and with **a wait-and-see attitude** to influences in his environment. [BNC HR5 1156]
- (31) The world No 1 blames the media for the pressure which almost cost him the Open Championship at Muirfield — and also blitzed the Americans for **their win-at-all costs attitude** to the Ryder Cup. [BNC CBG 7878]
- (32) There is much more of **a win-now attitude**, new Cincinnati defensive coordinator Chuck Bresnahan says. [COCA:2005:NEWS:USAToday]
- (33) As commuters stayed home from work and suburban school systems moved or cancelled Downtown proms, reactions around the suburban doughnut ranged from Mrs. Bornstein’s “never again” response to **a calmer wait-and-see attitude**. [COCA:1992:NEWS:Atlanta]
- (34) Tattooed Hairy Brown, being the boss, is not allowed to sport that white waiter’s uniform, exposing his chest, occupying customers’ seats with **a couldn’t-care less attitude** puffing on a cigarette and playing video games -a rule suggested by Gweilo, me, and passed with everybody clapping.

- [COCA:2004:FIC:LiteraryReview]
- (35) *Roosevelt never took Wilson’s uncompromising **all-or-nothing attitude**, but was willing to accept amendments and reservations to the League covenant to make...* [COCA:1995:ACAD:WorldAffairs]
- (36) *The ad also conveyed a **get-off-my-back attitude**, and the ingratitude some perceived in the spot was complicated by Jordan’s furious reaction to reports that he had lost huge sums gambling on golf.* [COCA:1993:MAG:SportsIII]
- (37) *I also sense that mortality need not destroy me nor infect the time I have left with a **give-up, give-in attitude**.* [COCA:2009:MAG:America]
- (38) *Treena says she’s taking a **wait-and-see attitude** toward President Bush, but like a swing voter, at one point she also said, He’s got ta go.’ Layla Bryant told us about another swing voter, he 81-year-old mother.*
[COCA:2003:SPOK:NPRSaturday]
- (39) *None of these lines sacrifice the technical features you’re used to; they’ve just copped some of **the hang-loose, have-fun attitude** that freesknng’s all about.*
[COCA:1998:MAG:Skiing]
- (40) *There’d been a certain carefree, hippie, **what-the-hell attitude** to it- Let’s see if this works...* [COCA:2010:FIC:The_Antioch_Review]
- (41) *Too often, a **win-at-all-costs attitude** spoils the important missions of learning and having fun.* [COCA:2002:News:SanFrancisco]
- (42) *He’d taken a **wait-and-see attitude**.* [COCA:1995:FIC:Triquarterly]
- (43) *I think what we’re seeing now is kind of a **wait-and-see attitude**.*
[COCA:2000:SPOK:CNN_WorldNews]
- (44) *It was a “**take or leave it**” attitude.* [COCA:1990:SPOK:PBS_Newshour]
- (45) *If women approach disclosure with that **attitude of “you need this information,”** this could result in a false perception by others that the woman is handling her situation well.* [COCA:2008:ACAD:HealthSocialW]
- (46) *The people in the Great Smoky Mountains took on the task with a **can-do attitude** and didn’t let politics interfere.* [COCA:1993:MAG:NatIParks]
- (47) *If initial symptoms are mild, the best procedure, says Feldman, is to adopt a **wait- and-see attitude**.* [COCA:1997:MAG:TodayParent]
- (48) *Clinton has been carefully choosing his words to match the public’s **wait-and see attitude**.* [COCA:1994:MAG:TIME]

- (49) *This, over the years, had made her nonchalant and casual, **an easy-come easy go attitude** toward chairs and such. [COCA:1990:FIC:Bk:PeopleIKnow]*
- (50) *Therefore, an individual with strong expectancy for learning possesses **the “can do” attitude** required to succeed in learning. [COCA:2007:ACAD:Education]*
- (51) *Problems were addressed quietly, and **a boys-will-be-boys attitude** prevailed. [COCA:2008:MAG:SportsIII]*

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Resumé

Ve své diplomové práci nazvané *Nominální větné členy, jejich forma, funkce a distribuce v textu*²⁵ se zabývám jmennou frází v angličtině, možnostmi vyjádření její premodifikace i postmodifikace. V práci navazuji na svou bakalářskou práci *Problematika sřetězování adjektiv v anglické jmenné frázi*. Soustředila jsem se především na dva jevy, a to na spojení dvou substantiv, kde první substantivum stojí v premodifikaci substantiva druhého (např. *a stone wall*), a na takzvaná citátová kompozita (např. *a do-it-yourself shop*).

V teoretické části práce jsem shrnula přístup ke jmenné frázi jako takové a naznačila možnosti její modifikace. Dále jsem porovnávala různé názory na konverzi, neboť jejím výsledkem jsou právě spojení dvou substantiv. Zastávám názor, že substantivum v premodifikaci zůstává formálně substantivem, pouze se mění jeho syntaktická role. Část věnovaná citátovým kompozitům je založena na člancích a názorech především českých lingvistů (Vachek 1960, Mathesius 1961, Nosek 1985, Dušková 2006), kteří používají již zmíněný termín citátová kompozita. V dílech zahraničních autorů se tyto výrazy většinou zmiňují jen okrajově a jsou zahrnuty do větších skupin, např. Quirk (1985, 1562–1653) je označuje jako okrajové případy (např. *an up-in-the-air feeling*). Názory a informace popsané v teoretické části jsem poté aplikovala v části praktické.

Nejprve jsem porovnávala dva texty, původní anglický text od současné autorky Kathy Reichs (2008, román *Bones to Ashes*) a oficiální překlad od překladatelky Kristýny Kučerové (2008, překlad s názvem *Kosti na popel*). V textu o rozsahu 531 slov jsem vybrala jmenné fráze. Nutno podotknout, že tento úryvek byl záměrně vybrán tak, aby obsahoval alespoň jeden příklad citátového kompozita. Jmenné fráze jsem pak rozdělila do skupin podle toho, jakými prostředky byly vyjádřeny.

Nejčastěji je premodifikace vyjádřena adjektivem (*a pink Stetson* [KR, 158] – *růžový steson* [KK, 123]), ale i případy, kdy v premodifikaci stojí substantivum jsou velmi časté. Z toho vyplývá, že tato substantiva jsou sémanticky velmi různorodá. V praktické části jsem je rozdělila do několika skupin – substantiva vyjadřující: a) materiál (*a gold ring*), b) účel (*a shoe shop*), c) sounáležitost (*a house door*), d) místo (*a park bench*) a e) časové určení (*an afternoon flight*).

Podrobněji jsem se zabývala případy, kde se substantivum v premodifikaci

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objevilo v množném čísle. Zjistila jsem, že je to typické pro případy, kdy toto substantivum nemá tvar jednotného čísla (např. *a clothes shop*) a také pokud chce mluvčí dát důraz na fakt, že substantivum označuje oddělené jednotky (např. *a jobs fair*, kde se nabízí více pracovních pozic, proti *a job offer*, kde se jedná o pouze o jednu pozici).

Další část je věnovaná citátovým kompozitům (neboli citátovým složeninám). Citátové složeniny „vznikají přenesením části věty do jiného syntaktického okolí, např. *What you need is a pick-me-up*. Potřebuješ životabudič.“ (Dušková 2006, 20). Do této skupiny se řadí celá škála výrazů od jednodušších frází (*a face-to-face conversation*) po složitější spojení (*a know-it-all attitude*, *the swallowed-up-by-the-earth theory*, apod.). Já jsem se zaměřila více na výrazy, které byly původně celou větou. Ostatní výrazy nebyly z analýzy vyřazeny, ale zmiňuji je spíše okrajově.

Citátová kompozita stojí nejčastěji v syntaktické pozici atributu (*a know-it-all attitude*) nebo vyjadřují řídicí člen jmenné fráze (*she is a know-it-all*). Výjimečně mohou stát i v jiných syntaktických pozicích (*“Slip into shock and die” painful*).

Tyto výrazy jsou typičtější spíše pro angličtinu, kde se využívají jako prostředek jazykové ekonomie. Jsou totiž kondenzované a přesto jasné, a přesně popisují situaci, člověka, jev, apod.

Rozdělila jsem je do tří skupin, podle toho, jak často se v textu vyskytují. První skupina zahrnuje výrazy, které se v jazyce již ustálily, mají neměnnou formu a jsou běžnou součástí každodenní komunikace, např. *an easy-to-read manual*. V druhé skupině jsou jmenné fráze, jejichž řídicí člen je často modifikován právě citátovými kompozity, např. *a (winner-takes-all) situation*, *a (little-that’s all) smile*. Poslední skupina pak obsahuje citátová kompozita, která jsou většinou vytvořena pro jednu konkrétní situaci a zpravidla tedy nemají tendenci se opakovat, např. *I-didn’t-do-it look on her face*). Poslední zmíněné výrazy jsou často delší než fráze z první skupiny, a i z toho důvodu jsou většinou použity pouze jednou.

K analýze citátových kompozit jsem používala svůj vlastní podpůrný korpus, který obsahuje výrazy z novin a televize (filmy, seriály, show, apod.) i z běžné konverzace s rodilými mluvčími. Tyto výrazy byly potom základem pro další výzkum v korpusech (BNC a COCA). Příklady pro analýzu substantiv v premodifikaci pocházejí výhradně z těchto korpusů.

Anotace

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Název diplomové práce:	Noun Phrase in English: Its Form, Function and Distribution in Text
Vedoucí diplomové práce:	Prof. PhDr. Jarmila Tárnyiková, CSc.
Počet znaků:	133 700
Počet příloh:	2 – Appendix I, Appendix II
Počet titulů použité literatury:	11 titulů primární literatury
Jazyk práce:	angličtina

Klíčová slova: jmenná fráze, citátové kompozitum, premodifikace, postmodifikace, složenina, spojení substantiv

Charakteristika: Práce se zabývá strukturou jmenné fráze a možnostmi vyjádření její premodifikace a postmodifikace. Pozornost je věnována především (1) tzv. citátovým kompozitům typu *the brilliant-young-lawyer style of humouring*, a (2) spojením substantiv, kdy jedno substantivum stojí v premodifikaci druhého, např. *a stone wall*.

Key words: noun phrase, quotational compound, premodification, postmodification, compound, noun + noun structures

Characteristics: The thesis deals with the structure of noun phrase, with the possibilities of premodification and postmodification. A detailed analysis focuses on two phenomena, i.e. (1) so-called quotational compounds, e.g. *the brilliant-young-lawyer style of humouring*, and (2) noun + noun structures, where the former noun stands in the premodification of the latter nouns, e.g. *a stone wall*.