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DIFFERENT PATTERNS OF WORD FORMATION IN ENGLISH

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Prohlašuji, že jsem tuto práci vypracovala zcela samostatně a výhradně na základě uvedené literatury.

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ABSTRACT

The bachelor thesis provides a detailed description of the selected word formation processes and a comparison of the claims stated by the well-known theorists. The research part focuses on the analysis of three different extracts as far as quantification of each word formation process concerned. Counts of words in the selected extracts produced 896 nouns applicable for the research. In this study, the analysis of the frequency of occurrence of word-formation processes, namely compound, conversion and clipping in various types of texts has been implemented. Fifty-five percent out of the 896 examples were formed as compound nouns creating a majority out of the three selected processes.

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1 Introduction

The bachelor thesis focuses on word formation processes in English. It is crucial for a non-native speaker to master the principles of word structure in order to understand and actively use the language. Primarily, future teachers benefit from learning the word formation rules in the view of the fact they are able to predict the meaning of unknown words with the help of the assignment to the acquired patterns.

The reason why this topic was chosen was mainly to ascertain the frequency of word formation occurrence in present-day English. It would be interesting to find out which type of word formation will prevail because English like the other languages is changing. *“Frequently, the needs of speakers drive language change. New technologies, industries, products and experiences simply require new words”* (Nicole Mahoney, n.d.).

The detailed examination is concentrated on the selected word-formation processes, namely compounding, conversion and clipping. Although various types of word-formation patterns have been already described, each author has a different opinion on existing divisions. As a consequence, the comparison of key concepts is covered in the theoretical part with a description of each process and detailed sorting into categories.

Subsequently, for the purpose of finding results in the research part three different types of texts are studied. Each text symbolizes contemporary English and is equally represented with 100 pages in the research. The difference is only in the genre and the purpose of the text. Firstly, for the contemporary spoken English dialogues transcriptions of the TV series *The Big Bang Theory* were chosen. The second examined text is the novel *The Sense of an Ending*. Finally, the current scientific text *The Oxford Handbook of African American Language* is the last studied type.

The main concern of the practical part is to find out which of the selected word-formation process is widely represented in the three types of texts. However, each genre is characterized by different usage of words, collocations and various levels of formality. Therefore, this thesis is aimed at the definition of the main features in the view of the word structure of the selected extracts.

2 Word

For the purpose of analysing word formation processes in detail, basic terminology has to be described. Biber et al. (2002, p. 14) define words as basic elements of language. Additionally, Carter and McCarthy (2006, p. 471) claim that words are composed of morphemes, which are the smallest units of meaning. Words are divided into three families depending on their function and their grammatical behavior, that are lexical words “*boy, girl*”, function words “*and, or, but*” and inserts “*well, yeah*” (Biber et al., 2002, p. 15, 16).

2.1.1 Lexical words

Lexical words express the meaning. Therefore, the statement shared by Biber et al. (2002, p. 16) that lexical words constitute the biggest group can be partially attributed to the fact the number of lexical words is growing all the time. Furthermore, they often have a complex internal structure and are composed of several parts e.g. *unfriendliness* = *un* + *friend* + *li* + *ness* (Biber et al., 2002, p. 16)

2.1.2 Established words

Established words are defined as common items that can be found in standard dictionaries (Huddleston, Pullum, 2002, p. 1623). However, as Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1623) claim, it is not always possible to use only this category of words due to the production of new words without being established.

3 Repetition

For the purpose of the thesis the repetition as a stylistic device is described. In contrast to repetition as an expressive means of language, it does not aim at provoking a direct emotional impact. From this point of view, the repetition targets at logical emphasis. In general, it is used to provide the reader with information essential to comprehend the meaning of the text (Galperin 1971, p. 211). In the view of Tarasheva's research (2011, p. 153) with experienced and inexperienced writers, the more repetitions the text contains, the more likely is to be coherent.

However, the repetition usage differs in various genres. As a matter of fact, each text contains dissimilarities in linguistic devices (Havránek, 1983, p. 145). Similarly, Levý (1963, p. 80) concludes, the language is changing, especially the stylistics.

In general, academic texts are defined as an informative, consistent, precise, comprehensible, and lucid style of writing with the frequent usage of charts, tables, diagrams and maps (Vashchylo, 2011). The characteristic feature of the genre is high frequency of nouns and adjectives (Tárnyiková, 1995, p. 137). Additionally, Vaschylo (2011) remarks the academic style is distinguished by a high percentage of repetition being attributed to a field of study that requires reiteration of vocabulary. Similarly, Vachek (1991, p. 137) comments on the repetition usage in comparison with other styles of writing as the most frequent (1991, p. 137).

On the other hand, fictional texts are characterized by the necessity of new vocabulary caused by evolving of a story (Vashchylo, 2011). Conversely, Tarasheva (2011, p. 153) argues fiction is made up of about 50% of repetitions, especially for characters and setting.

The description of the present-day theatre language corresponds to the spoken language due to the aptly depiction of the speaker's thoughts. Levý (1963, p. 125) points out the authors' attempts to express some of the literary thoughts through the colloquial style for the stylistic effect. Similarly, the characteristic may be appropriate to the dialogue transcription of TV series.

4 Word Formation

Word formation is the process of creating of new words. Many types of word formation (henceforth WF) processes occur in present day English. Prefixation, suffixation, conversion and compounding are considered to be currently the most common types of word formation (Carter, McCarthy, 2006, p. 474). Crystal (2002, p. 128) comments on the process of formation of new words: “*Most English vocabulary arises by making new lexemes out of old ones, either by adding an affix to previously existing forms, altering their work class, or combining them to produce compounds*”. Consequently, the complexity of word formation is apparent due to the fact the derived word itself may serve as the base for another word formation process (Quirk et al., 1995, p. 1521).

4.1 Productivity

As Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1629) claim, the productivity depends on the availability of morphological processes or affixes for the formation of new words.

The opposite of productivity is lexicalization. “*Words that are or were earlier morphologically analysable but which could not be formed with their present meaning by the current rules of word-formation are said to be lexicalized*” Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1629). The word *Butterfly* is lexicalized, in other words frozen, fossilised or petrified because the general meaning is not obvious from each part of the word (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002, p. 1629).

The productivity of conversion and compounding is irrefutable in present-day English since new forms occur regularly, for instance in specialised areas of expertise such as computing and in sciences in general. (Carter, McCarthy, 2006, p. 484)

5 Clipping

Clipping is characterized by shortening or reduction of existing words or phrases: ad from advertisement, chute from parachute, etc. (Huddleston, Pullum, 2002, p. 1634). It is important to mention the shortened form retains its original meaning and the original word class. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1634) state that the unshortened word is called the “*original*”, the part that is cut away is called “*surplus*” and the final form of the word is called “*residue*”. This could be described on the word automobile: *the original* – automobile, *surplus* – mobile, *residue* – auto.

The process of clipping is regarded as colloquial and informal WF process (Nordquist, 2016). What is more, Nordquist (2016) suggests that it has been widely used as a constituent of slang. However, the form originated through clipping often replaced the original, as with *mob* – shortening for *mobile* and *movie* – *moving picture*. Although the clipping penetrated the standard English for a long time, nowadays it is more widely used in some dialects than in others, Australian English is particularly rich in clippings. (Huddleston, Pullum, 2002, p. 1636).

Bradley (2006, p. 105) considers clipping to be a shortening whose progress occurs on its own. He mentions *cab* as a shortening from *cabriolet*. However, it does not denote the same kind of the vehicle at all. As language develops, the shortened form could become more common than the original form, which basically disappears from the common language. Štekauer (2000, p. 111) gives examples of this phenomenon such as: *brandy* – *brandywine*, *bus* – *omnibus*, *van* – *caravan*. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1635) describe this type of clipping in the shortened form *pram* from *perambulator* and *movie* from *moving picture* or *pants* from *pantaloons*.

On the other hand, the shortened form does not always replace the original. It is possible that these two forms differ also in their meaning and are used equally. As Štekauer remarks (2000, p. 111), this type of clipping comprehends the following pairs of words: *fan* (enthusiastic devotee) vs. *fanatic*, *fancy* vs. *fantasy*, *chap* vs. *chapman* (peddler).

However, Bradley (2006, p. 105) states that both, the shortened and the original form are regarded as separate words, even though they express precisely the same meaning. The longer form is reserved for more serious use such as *bicycle* and *bike* (Bradley, 2006, p. 105). It is important to mention the residue is not in all cases the stressed part of the original word. As Quirk et al. (1986, p. 1580) describe, it is apparent on the original demon'stration → 'demo.

The shortened forms often serve as a base for other word classes than the original word. Because of the fact new morphemes come to function independently and may function as WF bases for subsequent WF processes, they are endangered (Štekauer, 2000, p. 111), for example:

bicycle → *bike*_N → *bike*_V

advertisement → *ad*_N → *ad*_V

Immense number of the process of clipping could be found in the field of proper names, especially nicknames for people such as Joe from Joseph, Jen from Jennifer, Liz from Elizabeth (Concise Oxford Companion, n. d.). Nicknames for places also occur in present-day English such as: Brum from Birmingham (Huddleston, Pullum, 2002, p. 1636), Pit or Burgh for Pittsburg. (Concise Oxford Companion, n. d.) Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1635) divide the words formed by clipping into two groups, including plain clippings and embellished clippings.

5.1 Plain clipping

Plain clippings consist only of the residue. However, according to Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1635), the clippings made up of shortened forms only are further divided into three groups. This division depends on the position of the surplus in the original.

5.1.1 Back-clippings

In the case of back-clippings the surplus is removed from the back. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1635) consider back-clipping as the most common type of clipping. The course is apparent on the list of following examples (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002, p. 1635):

coke (← cocaine), *doc* (← doctor), *lab* (← laboratory), *prom* (← promenade)

5.1.2 Foreclippings

The surplus is removed from the front. (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002, p. 1635)

bus (← omnibus), *cello* (← violoncello), *phone* (← telephone), *chute* (← parachute)

5.1.3 Ambiclippings

The surplus is removed from both the beginning and the end. (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002, p. 1635)

flu (← influenza), *fridge* (← refrigerator), *tec* (← detective)

5.1.4 Embellished clippings

Embellished clippings result from adding of a suffix to the residue. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1635) are convinced that this type of clipping is particularly common in the Australian English, such as: *bathers* ←bathing shorts, *swimmers* ←swimming shorts.

On the other hand, the embellished clippings are not only found in the Australian English but also in the English in general. To address this process Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1635) list some examples:

soccer ←association football, *rugger* ←rugby football, *Honkers* ←Hong Kong

6 Conversion

The process of conversion is based on a change of an existing word's part of speech without any change of spelling or pronunciation (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002, p. 1640). It means a new word is created without the addition of an affix. According to Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1558), the examples include: the verb *release* (He *released* the handbrake.) corresponds to a noun *release* (The band played their latest *release*.). A major problem arises during the specification of conversion because there is no clue when deciding which item should be treated as the base and which as the derived form (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1558).

Additionally, Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1558) emphasize that conversion is a process available for enriching vocabulary rather than historical process. From this point of view, it is of no importance which part of speech preceded the others (Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1558). A similar approach is taken by Lieber (1992, p. 159), who states none of the conversion pair members is a basic, or motivating word. A word is only transformed to be a member of a different word class.

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1641) explain the existence of semantically more basic words than others. The typical example is the noun *bottle* defined as “a glass or plastic container with a narrow neck for keeping liquids in”, being more basic than the verb meaning “to put something into bottles” (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002, p. 1641).

As stated by Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1640), most cases of conversion involve the three-major part-of-speech categories, that are nouns, verbs and adjectives.

6.1 Partial conversion

In contrast, Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1559) define partial conversion as a transformation of a word of one class into a function that is typical of another class (1985, p. 1559). It is apparent in these examples: The *wealthy/ kind/ well-dressed/ foolish* are always with us (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1559). It could be not regarded as the full conversion because it behaves in terms of number and case inflectionally like a noun.

6.2 Conversion to noun

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1641) point out two main groups of conversion: conversion to noun that is the conversion between nouns and verbs and conversion between adjectives and nouns.

6.2.1 Deverbal

Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1560) mention the following examples *desire, love, smell, taste, want, laugh, release, catch, find, bore, cover, paper, wrap, walk, throw, turn*. In other words, Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1696) define this category as a process of nominalization. Additionally, it comprises not only the category of deverbal nouns but also nouns formed by affixation or phonological modification (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002, p. 1696). The formation of nouns out of verbs, the characteristics of this technique, draws a distinction between formal and informal style of writing (uniLearning, n.d.).

6.2.2 De-adjectival

As Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1643) conclude, this type of conversion is very rare. Historically, the examples could be found in such words as *rose* and *orange* (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002, p. 1643). Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1560) explain this process in the sentence “I’d like two pints of *bitter*, please.” The author made a noun from an adjective, meaning type of beer. Similar process present Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1560): “As a football player, he’s a *natural*.” or “They’re running in the *final*.” Carter, McCarthy (2006, p. 264) provide another example “*junk* food”.

6.3 Conversion to adjective

6.3.1 Denominal

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1642) offer a list of examples *comic, human, positive, right, dear, social, private, original, sweet*. Denominal adjectives are normally nongradable, but in some cases, similar forms occur in informal style “His accent is very *Mayfair*” (very *Harvard*) or “It was a funny story but not quite *drawing-room*.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1562)

6.4 Minor categories of conversion

Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1562) describe minor categories of conversion that are used informally. Some well-established examples are formed from closed-class words: “His argument contains too many *ifs* and *buts*.” or “This book is a *must* for the student of aerodynamics.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1653). Furthermore, nouns might also originate from phrases that are reduced to one-word status by conversion instead of being formed by compounding (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1653). This process is apparent in the example: “Whenever I gamble, my horse is one of the *also-rans*.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1653) The sentence means the horse failed to win. Similar examples are given: “the *high-ups*”, “he is a *has-been*”, “a *been-to*”, “some *down-and-outs*”. Carter, McCarthy (2006, p. 479) add examples where whole phrase is converted into adjective compound: “I really fancy one of those *four-wheel-drive* cars.” or “Why don't you have a word with that *good-for-nothing* brother of his?”

6.5 Conversion with formal modification

The conversion without any change is not always possible and is accompanied by certain nonaffixal changes affecting pronunciation, spelling or stress distribution. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1566)

6.5.1 Voicing of final consonants

The unvoiced fricative consonants /s/, /f/, and /θ/ in some nouns are voiced to /z/, /v/, and /ð/ (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1566):

Noun	to	verb		
house /-s/		house /-z/	thief /-f/	thieve /-v/
advice /-s/		advise /-z/	belief /-f/	believe /-v/
grief /-f/		grieve /-v/	wreath /-θ/	wreathe /-ð/

As Carter and McCarthy (2006, p. 474) state, internal vowel change or one form replacing another may indicate a change in word class or sub class. This phenomenon is evident in these examples: *hot*, adjective → *heat*, noun, *deep*, adjective → *depth*, noun. Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1566) describe more examples of the substantial change of pronunciation: *breath* /e/ ~ *breathe* /i:/, *blood* ~ *bleed*, *food* ~ *feed*.

6.5.2 Shift of stress

During the process of conversion of disyllable verbs into nouns, the stress is sometimes shifted from the second to the first syllable. Typically, the stress is on the first syllable when the word is a noun and on the second syllable when the word is a verb, '*record* – noun, with stress on the first syllable becomes *re'cord* – verb, with the stress on the second syllable (Carter, McCarthy, 2006, p. 474). Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1566) point out an example: He was *con'victed* /kən/ of theft, and so became a '*convict* /kɒn/. The other examples are given: *conflict*, *present*, *produce*, *record*, *reject*, *transport*.

On the contrary, there are many examples of disyllabic nouns that do not differ in stress such as *de'bate* (v) and *de'bate* (n) or '*contact* (v) and '*contact* (n) (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1567).

7 Compound

Even though compound nouns comprise more than one base, they function both semantically and grammatically as a single unit (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1567). The difference between compound and separate words is not upon the initial review clearly distinguishable. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1644) describe this problem on the examples *greenhouse - green house* or *sweetheart - sweet taste*. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1644) claim, compounds are written as single words, while syntactic constructions are written as word sequences. Bauer et al. (2013, p. 432) mention a criterion how to distinguish compounds called an aspect of syntactic atomicity. Words are meant to be uninterrupted units. Therefore, it should not be possible to insert an affix or another word into a compound. It is apparent in *council program*, where it is not possible to insert “recent” in between (Bauer et al., 2013, p. 432)

Although compounds and noun phrases tend to resemble each other, there is a considerable difference in the stress shift. Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1568) claim, compounds have primary stress on the first word: *a 'dark room*, whereas noun phrases are stressed on the second constituent: *a ,dark 'room*. This phenomenon is described by Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1568) in terms of lexicalization. *Darkroom* is a compound, meaning a room that is equipped for development of photography. Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1568) explain, the item *dark* is used in the compound because of the dark facility, which is characteristic for this room. This example implies meanings of the separate items are not always implicit (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1568). Quirk et al. list following examples: *a 'hot house - a ,hot 'house*, *a 'black bird - a ,black 'bird*, *a 'baby-sitter - a ,baby 'girl*. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1645) add more examples of lexicalized compounds: *hotshot*, *glow-worm*, *sunset*, *breath-taking*, *redskin*.

As it is apparent in the above mentioned examples, the orthography is also important. There is a difference between *a black bird*, standing for the description of the bird's appearance, and *a blackbird*, meaning animal species. However, some compounds may even occur in three different forms, “solid”, “hyphenated”, and “open”: *a flower pot*, *a flower-pot*, *a flowerpot* (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1569). According to Carter and McCarthy (2006, p. 482), in contemporary English the tendency to use hyphens is declining. When a compound premodifies a noun head, the hyphen is normally inserted to indicate which words are compounded: *a well-known entertainer*, *twentieth-century Danish architecture* (Carter, McCarthy, 2006, p. 482).

7.1 Subordinative and coordinative compounds

The majority of compounds are subordinative, consisting of a base that functions as head and the second dependent base. (Huddleston, Pullum, 2002, p. 1646). The order of these items is essentially important for the general meaning of the compound words in the view of the fact the second element normally represents the head. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1646) clarify it on the following examples: *birdcage* and *cage-bird*. The *birdcage* implies a cage that is created for birds, whereas the *cage-bird* means a kind of bird.

On the other hand, each element of coordinative compounds is on the same level and component bases are of equal status such as *secretary-treasurer* (Huddleston, Pullum, 2002, p. 1646). There is no dependence of the items, and therefore “and” could be inserted between the words (Huddleston, Pullum, 2002, p. 1646). Bauer et al. (2013, p. 479) list the following examples *a singer-songwriter*, who is both singer and songwriter, *a scholar-athlete*, *comedy-drama*. Additionally, Plag (2003, p. 138) terms this group copulative compounds, because both elements refer to the same entity. It is apparent on the example *a geologist-astronomer*, who is a single person being geologist and at the same time astronomer (Plag, 2003, p. 138).

7.1.1 Dvandva compounds

A special type of coordinative compounds is known as dvandva compounds. It contains mainly proper nouns referring to the combination or union of the referents of the component parts such as business and territories *Alsace-Lorraine*, *Austria-Hungary*, *Schleswig-Holstein* (Huddleston, Pullum, 2002, p. 1648). The main difference between the coordinative and the dvandva compounds is that it does not denote more than one information. It means Alsace-Lorraine is one region, not two separate parts (Huddleston, Pullum, 2002, p. 1648).

7.2 Dephrasal compounds

Dephrasal compounds are written with hyphens because they consist of a sequence of free bases that has arisen through the fusion of words into a single lexical base (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002, p. 1646). Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1646) present following examples: “He’s a *has-been*.” or “the usual *rent-a-crowd*”. However, Bauer (1983, p. 207) claims that this group comprises besides these examples: *son-in-law*, *lady-in-waiting*, *a pain-in-stomach-gesture*, also the dvandva constructions including the word “and” such as *bubble-and-squeak*, *whisky-and-soda*, *milk-and-water*, *pepper-and-salt*. Although dephrasal compounds are rarely recorded in dictionaries, they are frequently found in informal writing

black-hole-in-a-bag syndrome, fear-of-failure-syndrome, look-at-me syndrome, use-it-or-lose-it syndrome, woman-behind-the-man syndrome. (Bauer et al., 2013, p. 488)

7.3 Noun-centred compounds

These compounds contain a noun as the final base (Huddleston, Pullum, 2002, p. 1647). It denotes the dependency of the first element. Similarly, Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1647) mention the examples: *girlfriend, egghead, tearoom.*

7.3.1 Noun + noun

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1647) conclude this type to be the most productive of compounds and the most productive kind of word formation. The meaning is predictable from each base that formed the compound *ashtray, pillow-case, bedtime, bulldog, shirt-sleeve, goldfish, motorcycle, steamboat, tearoom* (Huddleston, Pullum, 2002, p. 1648). According to Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1573), the following examples are formed on the same basis *air-brake, cable car, gas cooker, coal fire.*

Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1570) add many subgroups such as fusion of a subject and a deverbal noun: *frostbite, heartbeat, earthquake, landslide, toothache.* Another type of noun compounds is made up of an object and a deverbal noun: *birth-control, word-formation, book review, haircut, handshake, suicide attempt* (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1571). Bauer (1983, p. 204) introduces a subgroup where the first element of the compound is a proper noun: *Chomsky adjunction, David Hume Tower, Eaton agent, Utah effect, Markov chain.* Additionally, Bauer (1983, p. 204) maintains the high productivity of this process in modern English.

7.3.2 Adjective + noun

Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1574) suggest the following examples: *blackboard, greyhound, hothouse, madman, longboat, handyman.* Alternatively, Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1649) list the examples of compounds *Englishman, blacksmith, grandmother, sick-bed, busybody, commonwealth, mainland, tightrope, hotline.* Bauer (1983, p. 206) adds some recently coined compounds: *fast-food, hard-stuff, software.*

7.3.3 Verb + noun

As Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1650) claim, the difference between this group and verb-centred compounds is evident. It is obvious when examining these examples *copycat*, *crybaby*, *glow-worm*, *hangman*, *dance-hall*, *payday*, *playboy*, *call-girl*, *push-button*, *fry-pan*, *swimsuit* (Huddleston, Pullum, 2002, p. 1650). The verbal element is in the dependent position. Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1572) add examples of verbal noun in -ing + adverbial into this group: *diving board*, *frying pan*, *living-room*, *writing desk*, *sewing machine*, *washing machine*. Bauer (1983, p. 203) lists more examples: *fishing rod*, *sleeping sickness or shooting match* and emphasizes a gerund has both nominal and verbal characteristics. In other words, this pattern could be treated as either noun + noun or verb + noun.

7.3.4 Particle + noun

Bauer (1983, p. 206) considers this type of compounds as a productive pattern: *afterheat*, *in-crowd*, *off-islander*, *off-off-Broadway*, *overkill*. Moreover, Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1651) add the examples: *after-effect*, *downside*, *in-joke*, *overcoat*, *underdog*.

7.3.5 Bahuvrihi compounds

As Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1651) have remarked, the label Bahuvrihi originated from Sanskrit grammar and denotes kinds of people with a derogatory connotation: *lazybones*, *birdbrain*, *loudmouth*, *paleface*, *redhead*, *egghead*, *redskin*, *butterfingers*. An entire thing is named by specifying some feature. It is apparent in the meaning of “egghead” describing someone whose head is resembling an egg with a high forehead, with the meaning he looks like an intellectual. Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1576) add more examples: *frogman*, *highbrow*, *heartthrob*, *fathead*, *scarecrow*, *featherweight*, *pot-belly*.

7.4 Verb-centred compounds

The lexical base of a verb formed by suffixation or conversion is the head element, for instance: *busdriver*, *city-dweller*, *fox-hunting*, *life-guard*, *take-away* (Huddleston, Pullum, 2002, p. 1646) The meaning of the verb-centred compounds depends on the meaning of the verbs. Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1571) list the following examples: *cigar smoker*, *gamekeeper*, *window-cleaner*, *language teacher*, *songwriter*, *factory-worker*, *sun-bather*, *daydreamer*. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1658) consider this type of WF as highly productive.

7.5 Neo-classical compounds

As Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1661) state, a neo-classical compound is a compound comprised of at least one combining form. These forms are usually of Greek or Latin origin and does not occur as a separate noun base in English: *psychoanalysis*, *cryptography*, *insecticide* (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 1575). This type of compounds can be especially found in scientific terminology and learned vocabulary (Huddleston, Pullum, 2002, p. 1661).

Neo-classical compounds are characterized by an insertion of a vowel at the boundary between the bases. (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002, p. 1661). Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1661) claim that two combining forms of neo-classical compound exist, namely initial combining forms “electro, pseud(o), andr(o), psych(o), audio, hom(o), hydr(o), aut(o), neur(o)” and final combining forms “(o)graph, gamy, phone, scope, icide, geny, (o)crat”. From the Aarts' (2011, p. 37) point of view, the initial combining form can be combined with the final forms: *anthropology*, *autocrat*, *bibliophile*, *morphology*. However, these forms are also connected to existing lexemes, as in *aeroplane*, *astrophysics*, *biodiversity*, *heterosexual*, *insecticide* (Aarts, 2011, p. 37).

7.6 Primary vs. synthetic compounds

In comparison to the opinions mentioned above, Štekauer (2000, p. 102) introduces another subgroup of compounds. He defines a distinction between primary and synthetic compounds. Primary compounds, for instance *table-tennis*, *school garden*, are considered to be non-verbal in comparison to the synthetic compounds, which contain verb derived by means of the suffix *-er*, *-ing*, *-ed*: *language-teacher*, *snow-covered* (Štekauer, 2000, p. 102). However, Roepel and Siegel (1978, p. 328) claim, the importance of differentiation of these terms based on the fusion of two nouns in the case of primary compounds causes an ambiguous meaning. It is obvious in the following examples “*shop lamp*, or *TV-dinner*”, which may express a variety of meanings (Beard, 1995, p. 328).

8 Practical part

The practical part deals with the research into different types of WF, namely compounds, conversion and clipping. For the sake of lucidity, only nouns have been analysed. The main aim is to find out the occurrence of the selected WF processes in three different types of texts:

- academic text
- fictional text
- transcription of spoken English

8.1 Research questions

- 1) What is the most common word-formation process in all three texts together?
- 2) What is the most common orthographic form of compounds?
- 3) Which type of text has the highest occurrence of clipping?
- 4) Which type of text has the highest occurrence of conversion?
- 5) Which type of text has the highest occurrence of compounds?
- 6) Which text has the highest occurrence of dephrasal compounds?
- 7) Which text has the highest occurrence of verb-centred compounds?

Subsequently, the next aim of the research part is to confirm or disprove the following claims of the well-known word-formation theorists.

- 1) **N+n type is claimed as the most productive of compounds** (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002, p. 1647)
- 2) **Deverbal nouns are the most productive category of conversion** (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1560)

8.2 Texts analysed in the research

Scientific text:

The Oxford Handbook of African-American Language (2015) written by Sonja Lanehart provides a detailed survey of language spoken in African-American communities aimed at thorough analysis and depiction of differences and particularity of its dialects. The text was chosen as a combination of British style of writing and illustrative examples of American English.

Fictional text:

As an example of a fictional text the British book *The Sense of an Ending* (2011) was chosen. The author of the novel, Julian Barnes, received for his writing the Man Booker Prize (Brown, 2011).

Spoken English:

The transcriptions of the dialogues from the TV series were chosen because of the similarity to the contemporary spoken English. Moreover, it represents the informal, colloquial style with a variety of slang words and specific use of vocabulary infrequent in the formal style. Nevertheless, the main reason for the choice of the text is to study an example of American English.

9 Methodology

For the purpose of the practical part the research examining different types of contemporary texts has been implemented. All texts have been thoroughly chosen with the emphasis on the most current date of publishing and the diversity of the genres. In order to acquire comparable outcomes, each text is represented with approximately 25 000 words in the research. To give an illustration, it comprises approximately 100 pages except for the dialogue transcriptions that cover 18 episodes in order to list the same amount of words. In the view of the fact the research is realized with the intention to examine each word separately, the analysis deals with nouns only so as to record in detail the frequency of occurrence of each process and to compare and contrast the chosen WF processes.

The text has been analysed regardless of repetition (see Chapter 3). In consequence, nouns found in the texts are included only once in the final lists of examined words. Firstly, each text is studied separately and the features of the genre are described based on the findings. Subsequently, all texts are compared altogether and the outcomes are contrasted with the opinions claimed by well-known theorists.

Example of analysed text

To depict the process of the research, the extract from each text is shown and analysed as an example how the research has proceeded.

Academic text

“The interview questions provided insight on the subject's family background, education, health care, food and diet, family income and its distribution, employment and public aid and welfare, local politics, community organisations and race relations. The subject's education variable refers to the educational level achieved by the subject. (Lanehart, 2015, p. 205)

There are 47 words in the extract; they consist of 27 nouns out of which two nouns are repeated: *subject* 3x, *education* 2x. Instead of counting them as five individual examples of nouns, the analysis considers them as two entries. Afterwards the nouns are thoroughly examined on the basis of the type of word formation, there are eight nouns corresponding to the selected word-formation processes. It is evident that nine compounds are located in the extract “*interview*

questions, insight, background, health care, family income, public aid, community organisations, race relations, education variable” (see Chapter 6.3.3). Apart from compounds, one example of conversion is found in the sample. The word “variable” converted from the adjective into the function of a noun. (Klein, 1971, p. 802)

Dialogue transcription of the TV series

“Sheldon: You know the golden rule of line etiquette. No cuts, no buts, no coconuts.

Howard: If you really care that much, there are apps now that’ll let you hire people to do stuff like errands and wait in lines.

Alfred: What I really needed was a blindfold..”

(wordpress, n.d.)

The second sample comprises 12 nouns out of 51 words. There are four examples of conversion “*cuts, but*” (see Chapter 5.5), “*blindfold, calm*”, one compound “*coconut*” and one process of clipping “*apps*” as a shortening from the word application.

Fictional text

“We finished school, promised lifelong friendship, and went our separate ways. I noticed a heavy shine on the dark furniture, and the heavy shine on the leaves of an extravagant pot plant.” (Barnes, 2011, p. 38)

The extract consists of 32 words out of which nine words are nouns. The word “*shine*” is counted only once because of the elimination of repetition. There are three nouns that form two compounds: “*friendship, pot plant*”. Secondly, “*shine*” is an example of conversion from verb into noun. (Harper, 2017)

Initially, 100 pages from each text have been chosen. The quantification of words is the first step in the accomplishment of successful research. Furthermore, the numbers are thoroughly compared in order to analyse the equal length of texts. Subsequently, the first aim of the research is to depict the list of all nouns located in each text. For example:

The Big Bang Theory (series 1, episode 3): *corridor, plane, thing, school, step, stairs, building, neighbour, movie, grandmother, target, offspring, area, sister, bedroom, season, beauty.*

Secondly, the elimination of repeated words is important to ascertain a required number of nouns and then the final list of nouns in each text is created. Moreover, all nouns are analysed and divided into groups based on the method of word-formation. Each process is separately examined and thereafter sorted into subgroups of each type. Additionally, the texts are studied separately in consideration of defining various sorts of texts.

Finally, the research illustrates the findings in alphabetically listed tables (see Appendix 1-3). Afterwards the analysis of each text is finished, the texts are examined together as a whole. The main aim is to find the most frequent occurrence of the chosen WF processes in general.

Concentrated on clarity of the outcomes, tables comparing each process in percentages are created. The tables depict not only a comparison of each WF process but also comparisons of texts among themselves. Lastly, the research questions are answered based on the results from the tables.

10 Overview of the collected data

The main aim of this part is to determine the exact number of all nouns found during the whole analysis and also in each extract. The research is based on the initial condition that each sample is comprised of 25 000 words.

10.1 Quantification of analysed nouns

From the findings that have been carried out, 19 350 nouns were altogether analysed (see Table 1). It reveals only 25.8% of words in the extracts are composed of nouns. This outcome may be caused due to the repetition (see Chapter 3). Afterwards the repeated nouns were removed, the final list of nouns significant for the analysis was created. Interestingly, 13 090 nouns remained. The further analysis depicts it forms only 17.5 % out of the initial number of words. The outcomes are displayed in Table 1, where the figures are contrasted with the quantification of all words (75 000).

Table 1: Quantification of nouns regarding the repetition

	number	percentage
nouns with repetition	19 350	25.8%
nouns without repetition	13 090	17.5%

For the purpose of analysing the repetition, each text has been examined separately. The findings highlight differences between the genres.

Table 2: Quantification of nouns in each extract with repetition

	with repetition	percentage (out of 25 000)
Academic text	9 400	37.6%
Fictional text	5 300	21.2%
Dialogue transcription	4 650	18.6%

The study provides additional support for the opinions of Vaschylo (2011, see Chapter 3). As can be identified from Table 2, the highest repetition occurs in academic texts. This phenomenon can be partially attributed to the process of nominalisation (see Chapter 6.2.1). In

contrast, the least number of repeated words was ascertained during the analysis of the transcription of the TV series.

Inasmuch the analysis deals with words regardless of repetition, Table 3 depicts nouns that belong to the final lists of nouns serving as a basis for the research.

Table 3: Quantification of nouns in each extract without repetition

	without repetition	percentage (out of 25 000)
Academic text	7 000	28%
Fictional text	3 130	13%
Dialogue transcription	2 960	12%

Table 3 indicates the percentage proportions in comparison with the previous Table 2 does not fundamentally change. The extract with the highest/ lowest frequency of nouns remained identical even after the elimination of repeated nouns.

10.2 Frequency of WF processes

Since the main aim was, as mentioned in the introduction, to ascertain the frequency of the occurrence of the selected WF processes, the concern is to depict precise outcomes out of the final number of nouns without repetition (13 090). Firstly, the data gathered in the analysis suggest 896 nouns (the sum of the nouns without repetition found in the selected extracts) form only 6.8%. Additionally, Table 4 demonstrates the numbers of nouns of each WF process depicted in percentages. Although the numbers do not appear to be high in comparison with the initial amount of nouns, there is a strong possibility the results are influenced by the repetition (see Chapter 3). The low number of nouns formed by the selected WF processes may imply the majority of nouns are created by the remaining patterns of word-formation, namely suffixation and prefixation (see Chapter 4).

Table 4: Quantification of the selected WF processes (out of 13 090)

WF process	Number of nouns	Percentage
Compounds	496	3.80%
Conversion	346	2.64%
Clipping	53	0.40%

Secondly, with the intention to accomplish the aim of finding the most frequent WF process out of the three selected types, the percentages are due to the transparency calculated from the final number of analysed nouns (896).

Table 5: Quantification of the selected WF processes (out of 896 nouns)

WF process	Number of nouns	Percentage
Compounds	496	55.36%
Conversion	346	38.62%
Clipping	53	6.00%

As it is obvious from Table 5, the most frequent WF process in the selected extracts is compounding. It constitutes more than half of all the nouns from the final list. On the other hand, clipping is the process with the least occurrence in the texts.

11 Compounds

Based on the previous results, compounds occur most frequently out of the selected WF processes. In the view of the research 496 compound nouns were ascertained from the extracts. The details are summarized in Table 6. The outcomes are not only calculated out of the final number of compounds (496) but also out of the final number of nouns without repetition (896).

Table 6: Quantification of compound nouns in each extract

Compounds			
	Number	Percentage (out of 496)	Percentage (out of 896)
Academic text	112	22.58%	12.50%
Fictional text	161	32.46%	17.90%
Dialogue transcription	223	44.96%	24.90%

The highest occurrence of compounds has been ascertained in the TV series transcription *The Big Bang Theory*. However, this outcome was not caused by the repetition, as it tends to appear. Moreover, the TV series transcriptions contain the least occurrence of repetition out of the selected extracts (see Chapter 13). Nevertheless, the fewest number of compounds was found in the academic text (see Table 6).

In the view of the research, 64% of the final number of compounds are composed of two nouns (see Table 7):

Table 7: Quantification of categories of compound nouns

Compounds						
	n + n	adj + n	v + n	verb-centred	neo-c	dephrasal
Number	316	57	17	57	14	26
Percentage	64%	11.5%	3.4%	11.50%	2.80%	5.20%

Based on the findings, the noun-centred nouns cover a majority (80%) out of the total number of compounds. However, verb-centred nouns are represented with only 11% in the research. Although this type of compounds is asserted as a highly productive pattern (see Chapter 7.4), they form only a minority in comparison with the large number of noun-centred compounds.

The findings are consistent with the claim that the tendency to use hyphens in contemporary English is declining (see Chapter 7). One approach currently under study implies, hyphenated compounds occur only in 14% out of the total number of compounds (see Table 8). In general, compounds tend to progress from “open” to “solid” type (see the Chapter 7). However, the research depicts the exact opposite. It is obvious when comparing the percentages of both forms. Inspection of Table 8 indicates, the majority of percentages are formed by the “open” form, which is represented with 50% of compounds in the texts. On the other hand, it is obvious that “solid” form is found less frequently with 36% of occurrence.

Table 8: Quantification of orthographic forms of compounds (out of 496)

Compounds			
	open	solid	hyphenated
Academic text	66	31	16
Fictional text	66	58	29
Transcription of TV series	104	85	22
Altogether	50%	36%	14%

12 Conversion

The final number of nouns representing conversion is 346. This WF process has been most frequently found in the TV series transcriptions, forming nearly 40% out of all nouns formed by the process of conversion. Additionally, as listed in Table 9 the fictional text depicts almost the same outcomes as the dialogues transcriptions covering 37%. The least number of converted nouns has been found in the academic text with barely 23%. However, in comparison with the final list of selected nouns (896) conversion ascertained in the academic text forms only a minor group.

Table 9: Quantification of conversion in each extract

Conversion			
	Number	Percentage (out of 346)	Percentage (out of 896)
Academic text	80	23.10%	8.90%
Fictional text	128	37.00%	14.30%
Dialogue transcription	138	39.90%	15.40%

Table 10: Quantification of the categories of conversion in the selected extracts (out of 346)

Conversion			
	Conversion to noun		Minor categories of conversion
	Deverbal	Deadjectival	
Academic text	61	19	0
Fictional text	116	12	0
Dialogue transcription	121	15	5
Altogether	86%	11.60%	1.40%

As it is obvious from Table 10, the most frequent type of conversion is deverbal conversion to noun. On the other hand, the conversion of adjectives to nouns was ascertained in nearly 12 %. The minor categories of conversion have been found only in the TV series transcriptions due to the highly informal style characteristic of this genre (see Chapter 3).

13 Clipping

Clipping is the least represented WF process in all extracts. Only 53 clippings out of the final list of nouns (896) are depicted, comprising as few as 6% in the research. Important to mention is the fact, this process has been not found in the academic text (see Table 11). Clipping is considered to be an informal WF process (see Chapter 4). The majority of the occurrence of this process is covered in the TV series transcription as a result of colloquial and informal style of language.

Table 11: Quantification of the process of clipping

Clipping			
	Number	Percentage (out of 53)	Percentage (out of 896)
Academic text	0	0%	0%
Fictional text	18	34%	2%
Dialogue transcription	35	66%	3.9%

Additionally, the research confirms the opinion that back-clipping is the most frequent form of this process (see Chapter 5). The claim is proved with the 89% out of the final number of clippings. However, as can be seen in Table 12 other types of clipping form only a minority. In addition, it is obvious that plain clippings prevail in the all types of selected texts.

Table 12: The general quantification of clipping in the extracts

Clipping				
	Plain			Embellished
	Back-clippings	Fore-clippings	Ambiclippings	
Academic text	0	0	0	0
Fictional text	16	1	1	0
Dialogue transcription	31	2	0	2
Altogether	88.8%	5.7%	1.9%	3.8%

14 Collected data from the academic text

Although the research has ascertained the highest number of all nouns not only with repetition but also without, the final list of examined nouns contains the lowest frequency of occurrence of the examined WF processes, that is 193 (see Table 13). The analysis of The Oxford Handbook of African-American Language forms hardly 22% out of the final list of examined nouns (896). Several options are available to address the weak occurrence of nouns. Based on the data available, this occurrence might be caused by the elimination of the repeated nouns (see Chapter 3).

Table 13: Quantification of the outcomes found in the academic text

The Oxford Handbook of African-American Language		
Number	Percentage (out of 7000)	Percentage (out of 896)
193	2.74%	21.40%

As can be observed in Table 13, it is apparent the number of selected WF processes forms only a minor group out of all nouns found in the extract (7 000). However, in comparison with the final list of analysed nouns (896) the academic text comprises a considerable amount of nouns (21.4 %). In the example below the frequency of nouns is clearly depicted.

“The second major demographic development in the Chesapeake during this period was the fact that natural increase gradually overtook immigration as the chief cause of population growth.” (Lanehart, 2015, p. 90)

The quantifications of the proportions of each process are depicted in Table 14 with the demonstration in numbers and in percentages. For better transparency, the outcomes have been compared with the number of nouns without repetition ascertained in the extract (7000) and the number of nouns comprising the selected WF process in the extract (193).

Table 14: Quantification of the selected WF processes in academic text

The Oxford Handbook of African-American Language			
WF process	Compounds	Conversion	Clipping
Number	112	80	0
Percentages (out of 193)	58%	41.7%	0
Percentages (out of 7000)	1,6 %	1.1%	0

Table 14 indicates the compound nouns are represented with 58% out of the selected WF processes found in the extract. However, the analysis will be not complete without the comparison with the total number of nouns ascertained during the analysis of the extract. Despite the fact compounds constitute a majority in the academic text out of the selected WF processes, in comparison to the total amount of nouns, only 1.6 % accounts for compounds. Moreover, the extract from the analysed text is depicted as an example:

“The speakers' grammar was affected by the interaction with the fieldworker, an outsider.”
(Lanehart, 2015, p. 68)

It is obvious, conversion forms only a minor group (1.1 %) in contrast to other WF processes in academic texts (see Table 14). Nevertheless, the research demonstrates the majority of conversion in academic texts is caused by a process of nominalisation (see Chapter 5.2.1). As a matter of fact, the usage of the process in academic text is confirmed in the analysis. It is apparent in the below mentioned example:

“Monique Mills and Julie Washington focus on the divide between the home language of AAL and target school language.” (Lanehart, 2015, p. 12)

The evident reason for the absence of clipping may be caused due to the fact clipping is regarded as colloquial and informal WF process (see Chapter 5).

15 Collected data from the fictional text

In the course of the analysis of the novel *The Sense of an Ending* 307 nouns suitable for the research were found. The figures were counted out of the initial number of nouns without repetition (3 130) and the final number of nouns comprising the selected WF processes (896). It covers more than 34% out of the all extracts. However, in comparison with the total number of nouns found in the extract, the selected WF process forms below 10 %.

Table 15: Quantification of the total number of nouns ascertained in the fictional text

The Sense of an Ending		
Number	Percentage (out of 3 130)	Percentage (out of 896)
307	9.8%	34.3%

As suggested in Chapter 3, fictional texts contain a quantity of repeated words. Since a type of fictional text represents a novel, the style of writing tends to be partially informal. Consequently, clipping could be found not only in the direct speech of the main characters but also in their names. The author uses shortened versions of the names: “*Alex*” as a clipping for Alexander and “*Col*” stands for Colin.

Table 16: Quantification of the chosen WF processes in fictional text

	The Sense of an Ending		
	Compounds	Conversion	Clipping
Numbers	161	75	19
Percentages (out of 255)	63%	29.4%	7.4%
Percentages (out of 3130)	5.1%	2.4%	0.6%

However, clipping is the least represented type of the selected WF processes, forming as few as 0.6% out of all nouns created by the selected WF processes ascertained in the fictional text. On the other hand, compound nouns comprise 5%. The calculation of each process was implemented in comparison with the number of nouns without repetition ascertained in the extract (3 130) and the quantification out of the list of nouns made up of selected WF processes (255). It is apparent, when dealing with compounds, this process forms by far 63% out of all analysed nouns (see Table 16).

The example of the analysis is apparent in the sentence below:

Back in “my day” you met a girl, you would invite her to a couple of social events – for instance the pub.” (Barnes, 2011, p. 22)

In addition, back-clippings are the most frequent type of clippings in the extract (see Table 12). Similarly, this outcome confirms the claim the back-clippings are the most common type of clipping (see Chapter 5). However, fore-clippings are represented only with one example:

“She paused, poured herself a cup of tea and broke another egg into the pan.” (Barnes, 2011, p. 28)

Another notable result is that the research depicts 30% (out of 255) are formed by the process of conversion. The most frequent type is deverbal conversion to noun (see Table 17).

“I just hung around and tried to make interesting remarks while expecting to mess things up.” (Barnes, 2011, p. 20)

Table 17.: Quantification of categories of conversion in fictional text

Conversion - The Sense of an Ending		
Conversion to noun		Minor categories of conversion
Deverbal	Deadjectival	
116	12	0

Although the extract is defined as partially informal, none of the minor categories of conversion was found (see Table 17). The fictional text is characterized by the highest occurrence of compound nouns in the extract, that is 63% out of which the most frequent type is the formation of two nouns:

“In the second week of the summer vacation a letter arrived with a Chislehurst postmark.” (Barnes, 2011, p. 39)

Finally, noun-centred compounds prevail, whereas verb centred compounds represent only a minor group (see Table 7).

“I inspected the unfamiliar handwriting.” (Barnes, 2011, p. 39)

16 Collected data from the dialogue transcription

The quantification is based on two types of initial lists of nouns. Firstly, the total number of nouns without repetition out of the extract (2 960). Secondly, the sum of the nouns of the selected WF processes out of the extract (384).

Table 18: Quantification of the outcomes of the dialogues transcription

	The Big Bang Theory		
	Compounds	Conversion	Clipping
Number	223	126	35
Percentage (out of 384)	58%	32.8%	9.1%
Percentage (out of 2960)	7.5%	4.3%	1.2%

The research implies 58% of the nouns suitable for the selected WF processes stand for compounds. However, in comparison with the final number of nouns from the extract, it forms only 7.5%. The majority of compounds are created from two nouns as in the following example:

“Howard: If you’re into music, I happen to be a human beatbox.” (wordpress, n.d.)

However, it is not the only form representing noun-centred compounds. Additionally, adjective + noun is the second frequently used type in this analysis:

“Sweetheart, our little friend is concerned about you.” (wordpress, n.d.)

Although the noun-centred compounds occur frequently in the analysed text, the verb-centred compounds form only a minor group of nouns (see Table 7):

“Sheldon: The Avengers are rule-breakers.” (wordpress, n.d.)

In the view of the fact, The Big Bang Theory is highly informal it contains lots of dephrasal compounds, which consist of more than two words. This type represents substantivized sentence or expression:

“Leonard: Oh, I found a scratch-and-sniff book about wine tasting. It teaches the different flavour notes to look for.” (wordpress, n.d.)

The analysis depicts approximately 33% of examined nouns are formed by conversion, primarily deverbal conversion to noun (see Table 17):

“Leonard: Exactly. Yeah, you have a good grasp of the physics.” (wordpress, n.d.)

Table 19: Quantification of categories of conversion in the transcription of TV series

Conversion - The Big Bang Theory		
Conversion to noun		Minor categories of conversion
Deverbal	Deadjectival	
121	15	5

The presence of the minor categories of conversion confirms the spontaneous and informal usage of language in the extract (see Chapter 6.4):

“Sheldon: Leonard, you and I have our ups and downs.” (wordpress, n.d.)

In the view of the outcomes found out during the research only 9% of examined nouns are created by the process of clipping out of which the majority represents back-clippings (see Table 18):

“Bernadette: So, Beverly, did you know Penny is the number three sales rep at our pharmaceutical company?” (wordpress, n.d.)

On the other hand, the fore-clippings in comparison to back-clippings form only a minor group with only two examples (see Table 20):

“Leonard: Save it for your blog, Howard.” (wordpress, n.d.)

Table 20: Quantification of two main types of clipping in the dialogue transcription

Clipping - The Big Bang Theory			
Plain			Embellished
Back-clippings	Fore-clippings	Ambiclippings	
31	2	0	2

Interesting to mention is that the embellished clippings occur solely in this extract (see Table 20).

17 Conclusion

The bachelor thesis, divided into the theoretical and the practical part, concentrated on the word-formation processes. The theoretical part depicted three types of word formation processes regarding the definition and the detailed illustration of examples.

The practical part dealt with the analysis of the selected patterns of word formation. The compound, conversion and clipping have been chosen because of variety of their occurrence in the contemporary English. Therefore, the research analysing a variety of genres has been realized. Each sample has been analysed under the same conditions with the outlook for convincing outcomes. Important to mention is the research concentrates not only on the answers to questions expressed in the practical part but also on the characterization of each genre from the point of view of word-formation. It should be noted that this study has been primarily concerned with the nouns.

It cannot be denied the research managed to accomplish the aims stated at the beginning of the thesis. Firstly, the intention was to ascertain the most frequent WF process out of compound nouns, clipping and conversion in each extract. All the extracts demonstrated the same results, in other words the compound nouns occurred at the most. In addition to the outcomes, the academic text has contained 58% of compound nouns, the fictional text 63% and the dialogue transcription 58 % out of the sum of the nouns without repetition found in selected extracts (896). Nevertheless, these results may be unconvincing without the further comparison with the total number of nouns found in each extract. It reveals the compounds are represented with only 1,6% in the academic text, 5,1% in the fictional text and 7,5% in the dialogue transcription. Therefore, the study has demonstrated the compound nouns do not appear to be the most common process in comparison to other types of word formation.

Furthermore, the outcomes of the research questions have been largely answered.

Research question 1: What is the most common word-formation process in all three texts together?

Apparently, the most frequent WF process in all three texts is compounding with 496 nouns, forming 55% out of the sum of nouns comprising the selected WF processes without repetition found in all extracts (896).

Research question 2: What is the most common orthographic form of compounds?

Based on the analysis, 50% of compounds is formed by the “open” form, that is 248 nouns out of 496.

Research question 3: Which type of text has the highest occurrence of clipping?

As seen in Chapter 13, this type of WF was most frequently found in the TV series the Big Bang Theory. In the extract 66% out of the total number of clippings (53) was ascertained during the analysis.

Research question 4: Which type of text has the highest occurrence of conversion?

Nearly 40% of words formed by conversion were found in the TV series transcription. The number was calculated out of the total number of nouns formed by conversion found in all three texts.

Research question 5: Which type of text has the highest occurrence of compounds?

The TV series the Big Bang Theory contained 45% of nouns formed by compounding out of the total number of all compounds found in all three texts. In other words, it represents the text with the most frequent occurrence of this type of WF.

Research question 6: Which text has the highest occurrence of dephrasal compounds?

In the view of the fact compound nouns are mainly formed by joining of two nouns, dephrasal compounds form only a minor group. Despite the fact the TV series transcription represents the extract with the most frequent occurrence of dephrasal compounds, the percentage is only 2.42% out of all compound nouns (496).

Research question 7: Which text has the highest occurrence of verb-centred compounds?

As stated in the thesis, verb-centred compounds constitute only a minority in comparison to noun-centred compounds. As emerged from the analysis, there are two texts with the same outcomes. The academic text as well as the dialogue transcription contained the same number of verb-centred compounds, that is 21 nouns forming 4.2% out of the number of all compound nouns (496).

Consequently, the research succeeded in the affirmation of the claim stated by Huddleston and Pullum that n+n type is the most productive kind of compound nouns. In fact, 80 % of all compound nouns originated as a union of two nouns. Additionally, the following aim was to confirm or disprove the statement denominal verbs and the deverbal nouns are the most productive categories of conversion (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1560). Afterward each category of conversion was compared, the study depicts 54% of nouns (out of all nouns formed by the process of conversion) were created as a formation of nouns out of verbs. Therefore, the outcomes imply the veracity of the above-mentioned claim.

In general, this research provides a detailed characteristic of the selected WF processes and is a valuable source of information for learners of English. Notwithstanding the limited scope of the practical part, it contributes to a better understanding of the WF processes. However, more research can be done in consideration of definition of all WF processes so as to analyse the selected genres in depth and to display a complete overview of different forms of word-formation.

Résumé

Bakalářská práce je zaměřena na výzkum slovtvorných procesů v anglickém jazyce, obzvláště se zabývá skládáním, konverzí a krácením. Teoretická část obsahuje detailní popis vybraných procesů a porovnání názorů významných lingvistů. Realizace výzkumu proběhla formou analýzy odborného, uměleckého textu a přepisu dialogů ze současného amerického seriálu s cílem procentuálně zobrazit nejvíce frekventovaný slovtvorný proces. Výsledné hodnoty byly poté aplikovány na charakteristiku žánrů vybraných textů.

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Acronyms and abbreviations

WF	word formation
etc.	et cetera
et al.	et alia/ and others
n + n	noun + noun
adj + n	adjective + noun
v + n	verb + noun
o. cat. of first base	other categories of first base
n + verb. el. without suff.	noun + verbal element without suffix
n + dev. n. in er	noun + deverbal noun in er
n + dev. n. in ing	noun + deverbal noun in ing
non-verb el. – prep.	the non-verbal element is a preposition
neo-c.	neo-classical
dephr.	dephrasal

Appendices:

Appendix 1: The Oxford Handbook of African-American English

Table 1: conversion

Table 2: list of selected compound nouns

Table 3: list of selected compound nouns

Table 4: list of selected compound nouns

Table 5: list of selected compound noun

Appendix 2: The Sense of an Ending

Table 6: Conversion

Table 7: Compound nouns

Table 8: Compound nouns

Table 9: Compound nouns

Table 10: Compound nouns

Table 11: Clipping

Appendix 3: The Big Bang Theory

Table 12: Conversion

Table 13: Conversion

Table 14: Compound nouns

Table 15: Compound nouns

Table 16: Compound nouns

Table 17: Compound nouns

Table 18: Compound nouns

Table 19: Clipping

Appendix 1: The Oxford Handbook of African-American Language

Table 1: conversion

Conversion - The Oxford Handbook of African- American Language			
Conversion to noun			Minor categories of conversion
Deverbal	Deverbal	Deadjectival	
amount	overlap	adult	
approach	rate	Black	
attempt	release	capital	
boom	remark	double	
catch	result	dynamic	
catch	rise	equal	
concern	say	expert	
construct	set	fit	
contrast	shift	gay	
convict	sink	choice	
divide	stamp	interior	
export	stamp	lesbian	
find	start	past	
glide	store	resident	
impact	supply	salient	
increase	support	total	
intrigue	survey	variable	
look	take	variant	
love	trust	White	
marker	turn		
merger	walk		
move	want		
neglect			

Table 2: list of selected compound nouns

The Oxford Handbook of African-American Language			
Noun centered			Neo-classical
Noun+noun	Adjective+noun	Verb+noun	
audio data	background	breakdown	Afrocentric
baseline	first-time	shiftsign	Eurocentric
catfish	highlight	viewpoint	morphosyntax
classroom	large-scale		socioculture
clergyman	lowland		sociohistory
college level	mainland		
comfort level	mainstream		
computer study	middle-class		
cotton industry	present-day		
counterclaim	public aid		
counterevidence	real-world		
counterlanguage	single mother		
counterpart	White population		
counterpart			
cross-plantation			
family income			
field hand			

Table 3: list of selected compound nouns

The Oxford Handbook of African-American Language		
Noun centered		
Noun+noun	Noun + noun	Noun+noun
field hand	neck cloth	timeline
fieldwork	plantation economy	trade activity
folk song	production rate	trademark
foothill	race relation	transportation cost
footnote	research team	transportation system
footstep	rice seed	vowel sound
framework	showcase	waveform
frequency value	schoolchildren	witchcraft
handbook	slave labor	work skill
headquarter	slave children	
health care	speech sound	
hometown	sugar industry	
homestead	sugarcane	
child care	support system	
landscape	survey research	
lifetime	swampland	
motherland	tidewater	

Table 4: list of selected compound nouns

The Oxford Handbook of African American Language		
Verb centered		
noun + verbal element without suffix	noun + deverbal noun in er	noun + deverbal noun in ing
foreign-born	caregiver	Spanish-speaking
homegrown	fieldworker	standard-speaking
landfall	lanowner	
middle-aged	newcomer	
native-born	outsider	
sex-segregate		

Table 5: list of selected compound nouns

The Oxford Handbook of African-American Language	
Verb-centred	Dephrasal
the non-verbal element is a preposition	
crossover	all-or-nothing
crossover	love-hate relationship
downplays	push-pull syndrome
offshoot	tense-modality-aspect
outcome	
outcome	
overnight	
runaway	

Appendix 2: The Sense of an Ending

Table 6: Conversion

Conversion - The Sense of an Ending			
Conversion to noun			Minor categories of conversion
Deverbal	Deverbal	Deadjectival	
address	look	antique	
advance	love	equal	
amount	mistake	funeral	
approach	mock	good	
attempt	move	choice	
boom	nod	initials	
bore	praise	innocents	
click	push	loony	
concern	rebuke	news	
control	remark	past	
converse	reply	single	
creep	shape	wrongs	
cut	shine		
dash	shit		
dawn	shock		
divide	shrug		
escape	sink		
flap	sink		
forecast	sip		
frown	slant		
fuck	sleep		
glide	spring		
guess	stamp		
hitch	start		
hope	store		
hug	strike		
hunch	survey		
hurry	swell		
hurt	temper		
charge	throb		
impact	trail		
impact	travel		
jump	wash		
kick	watch		
knock	whisper		
line	wind		
	yawns		

Table 7: Compound nouns

Compounds - The Sense of an Ending			
Noun centered			
Noun+noun	Adjective+noun	Verb+noun	other categories of first base
acid rain	academic study	breakfast	backdrop
attic room	callow male	broken home	backpacker
autumn term	civil-service exam	fencing club	intake
bathroom	common sense	frying pan	
bathroom door	dark angel	guessing game	
bathwater	Englishman	know-nothing	
bed-companions	female friend	slip knot	
bedtime	forehead	swing-bin	
biscuit tin	gentleman		
bone structure	grandchildren		
bookshelf	grey cells		
breakfast-table	greybeard		
budget holiday	human duty		
clay-belt	long-distance		
coffee cup	meantime		
contact details	middle age		
control freak	middleman		

Table 8: Compound nouns

The Sense of an Ending - compounds				
Noun centered				
Noun+noun	Noun+noun	Noun+noun	Noun+noun	Noun+noun
credit card	headmaster	marine insurance	road trip	taste buds
crosswind	history class	menfolk	rollerblader	tea shop
cybercafé	hosepipe ban	newspaper	shopgirl	three-piece suit
deathbed	hotel bar	passport	scholarship material	torchbeam
doorbell	chalk-dust	phone number	schoolday	tweed skirt
earthquake	insurance company	photocopy	schoolfellows	weather pattern
exclusion-zone	joint letter	pinprick	schoolfriend	
eyebrow	key phrase	plughole	schoolkids	
female skill	landscape	plush mansion	school-sports	
football	laptop	pocket money	soundtrack	
footbridge	life story	postmark	storetank	
fruitcape	lifetime	punk rock band	string quartet	
girlfriend	liver spots	racetrack	student room	
golf course	lunch date	raincoat	suicide note	
gunman	lunchtime	restaurant manager	sunlight	
headline	manpower	river bank	suitcase	

Table 9: Compound nouns

The Sense of an Ending - compounds		
Verb-centred		
noun + verbal element without suffix	noun + deverbial noun in er	noun + deverbial noun in ing
phone call	cliffhanger	global warming
sex-drive	cockteaser	handwriting
	cyberstalker	head-turning
	headshrinkers	record-keeping
	luggage locker	safekeeping
	troubleshooter	
	truth-seeker	

Table 10: Compound nouns

The Sense of an Ending - compounds	
Verb-centred	dephrasal
the non-verbal element is a preposition	
sign-offs	end-of-term
	eyebrow-above-the-spectacle-frame tic
	face-to-face
	feller-me-lad
	lower-class scum
	mother-in-law
	plumbed-in basin
	son-in-law
	two-word-two-finger response
	what-ifs

Table 11: Clipping

Clipping - The Sense of an Ending			
Plain			Embellished
Back-clippings	Fore-clippings	Ambiclippings	
exam- examination	pan - frying pan	Tony - Anthony	
pub- public house			
gas - gasoline			
TV - television			
dons - dominus			
photo - photography			
pants - pantaloons			
chap - chap man			
Ma - mamma			
grandpa - grandpappa			
fnals - final exams			
e-mail - electronic mail			
detective - detective police			
graph - graphic formula			
Alex - Alexander			
Col - Colin			

Appendix 3: The Big Bang Theory

Table 12: Conversion

Conversion - The Big Bang Theory			
Conversion to noun			Minor categories of conversion
Deverbal	Deverbal	Deadjectival	
address	overlap	adult	backs
advance	overlay	best	ups and downs
attack	pick	calm	
beat	pull	current	
blindfold	refill	equal	
bluff	ride	fluid	
break	ring	lunatic	
break-ups	scout	news	
call	shake	slack	
catch	shift	spare	
control	show	special	
cover	sink		
crowd	slam		
curve	slash		
cut	slide		
dig	slit		
drip	spell		
drive	spin		
frame	spread		
gasp	spring		
glance	sprint		
grasp	stain		
hang	stop		
hitch	swing		
hope	talk		
hunch	temper		
kick	tick		
knock	tip		
line	travel		
look	treat		
mistake	trip		
mock	turn		
move	wave		

Table 13: Conversion

Conversion - The Big Bang Theory	
Conversion to noun	
Deverbal	Deverbal
pick	spin
pull	spread
refill	spring
ride	sprint
ring	stain
scout	stop
shake	swing
shift	talk
show	temper
sink	tick
slam	tip
slash	travel
slide	treat
slit	trip
spell	turn
spin	wave
slit	

Table 14: Compound nouns

The Big Bang Theory				
Noun centered				Neo-classical
Noun+noun	Adjective+noun	Verb+noun	other categories of first base	
air pressure	black hole	boarding school	backyard	bio-social
aircraft	broadband	breakfast		neuro-chemical
airport	comic-book	living room		
alarm code	deadline	payday		
baby stuff	good luck	scrambled eggs		
bandwidth	grandchildren	splash zone		
bank account	grandmother			
bathroom	hardware			
batman	high school			
beatbox	hotdog			
bedrock	meantime			
bedroom	mobile phone			
bedroom closet	old school			
bedside table	smart shirt			
bedtime	software			
bee season	superhero			
bloodhound	superman			

Table 15: Compound nouns

The Big Bang Theory			
Noun centered			
Noun+noun	Noun+noun	Noun+noun	Noun+noun
board game	credit card	fingerprints	heartrate
bobcat	daylight	fingerring	homeboy
bow tie	death mutilation	flashlight	hormone cycle
bowel movement	delivery system	flatware	horror movie
boyfriend	department head	fleabag motel	human body
boy-girl party	department party	footstep	human race
call centre	doorknob	golf ball	cheesecake
cardio-funk	doorstep	goosebump	chess club
carpal tunel syndrome	doorway	gravity field	childbirth
carpool	drug test	gum disease	jellyfish
caveman	earthquake	hair products	juice box
coconut	ebony hair	hallmark	junk yard
coctail dress	eggplant	hallway	kickstand
coffee table	emergency room	headlight	lady friend
combat gear	energy drink	headset	laptop
computer voice	facebook	heart attack	luncheon invitation
costume parade	facetime	heartbeat	mailbox

Table 16: Compound nouns

The Big Bang Theory			
Noun centered			
Noun+noun	Noun+noun	Noun+noun	Noun+noun
mailman	picture day	skin cells	toothbrush
mankind	pitfall	skin condition	trade school
motion sensor	pizza break	sleep apnoea	urine test
movie marathon	playbook	space program	video game
name tag	poppy seed	space-time	warehouse
neckline	postcard	sperm bank	water sign
nightcap	potato salad	staircase	weekend
nightclub	roadblock	stairwell	workshop
nightlights	rock music	string quartet	yearbook
nightmare	rollercoaster	string theory	zip code
nutcase	roommate	swordfish	
paintball	rugby team	swordmaster	
paperwork	science magazine	teddy bear	
peanut oil	science teacher	television set	
peer group	science-fiction	thunderbolt	
pet store	shoebox	time machine	
physics department	shotgun	time travel	

Table 17: Compound nouns

Verb centered		
noun + verbal element without suffix	noun + deverbial noun in er	noun + deverbial noun in ing
airflow	grasshopper	ass-kickings
baby-sit	kitchen timer	Thanksgiving
barkeep	newcomer	
butterfly	rule-breaker	
man-size	trend setter	
sunrise		

Table 18: Compound nouns

The Big Bang Theory	
Verb-centred	Deprhasal
the non-verbal element is a preposition	
breakthrough	a know-it-all
crossbar	a merry-go-round
feedback	billion-dollar idea
leftover	bride-to-be
offspring	brother-in-law
outburst	goodnight kiss
showdown	mommy-to-be
turnabout	need-to-know basis
	no-more-tears shampooo
	one-month supply
	scratch-and-sniff book
	workaday lives

Table 19: Clipping

Clipping			
Plain			Embellished
Back-clippings	Fore-clippings	Ambiclippings	
app - application	blog - weblog		homie - homeboy
bio - biography	phone - telephone		movie - moving picture
bike - bicycle			
bra - brassiere			
bro - brother			
cab - cabriolet			
caliper - calliper compass			
cop - copper			
crossword - crossword puzzle			
e-mail - Electronic mail			
emo - emotion			
fan - fanatic			
grandpa - grandpappa			
grid - gridiron/griddle			
chicks - chicken			
intercom - intercommunication			
jerk - jerkwater			
lab- laboratory			
maid - maiden			
math - mathematic			
meds - medicine			
mom - mommy			
pants - pantaloons			
pro - proffesional			
rehab- rehabilitation			
rep - representative			
sec - second			
stereo - stereophonic			
stereo - stereophonic record			
sub - substitute			
tech - technical college			
tech - technician			
TV- television			
webcam - camera			

ANOTACE

Jméno a příjmení:	Magdalena Pechancová
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Vedoucí práce:	Mgr. Blanka Babická, Ph.D.
Rok obhajoby:	2017

Název práce:	Způsoby tvoření slov v anglickém jazyce
Název v angličtině:	Different Patterns of Word Formation in English
Anotace práce:	Bakalářská práce na téma Způsoby tvoření slov je zaměřena na výzkum vybraných slovtvorných procesů v anglickém jazyce, a to na skládání, konverzi a krácení. Cílem praktické části je analýza současných anglických textů různých žánrů a následné stanovení procentuálního výskytu daného procesu. Hlavní pozornost je věnována zodpovězení výzkumných otázek a potvrzení či vyvrácení tezí významných lingvistů.
Klíčová slova:	slovtvorba, konverze, krácení, skládání, analýza, porovnání, četnost, výzkum, výskyt, způsob, odborný text, umělecký text, přepis
Anotace v angličtině:	The Bachelor Thesis Different Patterns of Word Formation in English focuses on the processes of compounds, conversion and clipping. The practical part is aimed at the analysis of three different genres of texts and the quantification of each process. The main attention is paid to the answers to the research questions and confirmation or disproval of the claims made by famous word formation theorists.
Klíčová slova v angličtině:	word-formation, conversion, clipping, compounds, analysis, comparison, frequency, research, occurrence, patterns, academic text, fictional text, transcription

Přílohy vázané v práci:	Appendix 1: The Oxford Handbook of African-American English Appendix 2: The Sense of an Ending Appendix 3: The Big Bang Theory
Rozsah práce:	51 + 12 stran příloh
Jazyk práce:	Anglický jazyk