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Bakalářská práce

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Word formation in English

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Prohlašuji, že jsem tuto práci vytvořil zcela samostatně na základě uvedené literatury.

V Olomouci, dne 16.4. 2019

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I would like to thank Mgr. Blanka Babická, Ph.D. for her time and willingness to help me with my bachelor thesis. This thesis would not be possible without her valuable advice.

Abstract

The bachelor thesis consists of various word formation processes in the English language. These processes are based on literature from many different authors. The aim of the research in the practical part was finding and analysing every compound which could be found in the two researched forms of speech (written and spoken form). The source of the written form was the New York Times articles and The Big Bang Theory of the spoken form.

Anotace

Bakalářská práce se skládá z mnoha druhů slovo tvorby v anglickém jazyce. Veškeré probírané druhy slovo tvorby jsou popsány na základě literatury mnoha autorů. Cílem výzkumu v praktické části bylo najít a následně analyzovat každé slovo vzniklé pomocí složenin. Ve výzkumu se rozebíraly dvě formy využívání jazyka a to konkrétně mluvená a psaná forma. Jako zdroj psaného jazyka se využívali články z portálu New York Times a pro mluvený jazyk se využíval seriál Teorie velkého třesku.

Table of contents

<i>Abstract</i>	4
1. Introduction	7
2. Word	8
2.1 Lexical words.....	8
2.2 Function words.....	8
2.3 Base, root, stem	9
2.4 Inserts.....	9
3. Word formation processes	9
3.1 Affixation	11
3.1.1 Prefixation	11
3.1.2 Suffixation	11
3.2 Inflection vs. derivation	12
3.3 Word manufacture.....	12
3.4 Borrowing	13
3.5 Initialism	13
3.6 Clipping.....	14
3.6.1 Plain clippings	14
3.7 Blending	15
3.8 Back-formation	15
3.9 Phonological modification	15
4. Conversion	16
4.1 Conversion between nouns and verbs	16
4.2 Conversion between adjectives and nouns	17
4.3 Conversion between adjectives and verbs	17
4.4 Unclassified conversions.....	17
5. Compounding	18
5.1 Hyponymy.....	18
5.2 Subordinate and coordinate compounds	19
5.3 Variations of compounds.....	19
5.3.1 Compound nouns	19
5.3.2 Compound adjectives	20
5.3.3 Descriptive compounds	20
5.3.4 Compound verbs	20
5.3.5 Phonologically motivated compounds.....	21
5.3.6 Other compounds.....	21
6. Conclusion	22
1. Introduction.....	23

2. Research questions	23
3. Methodology	23
4. Collected data from the Big Bang Theory (spoken language)	25
5. Collected data from the New York Times (written language)	28
6. Collected data in comparison	30
7. Answers to research question	31
Conclusion	33
Bibliography for the theoretical part	35
Online sources	35
Online sources for the practical part	36
List of appendices	37
Appendix 1: Collected compounds	37
Appendix 2: Complete tables	44
Résumé	47

Theoretical part

1. Introduction

This thesis focuses on word formation in the English language and its various word formation processes. It is essential to know the basics of word formation processes and how to form words correctly. Moreover, it is helpful for the purpose of prediction what newly formed words mean even though if the words are unfamiliar. People are able to predict the meaning of these words because they are acquainted with common word formation processes, therefore they can guess the meaning of yet unknown words.

The main motive why was the topic chosen is the fact that these processes are really important in the development of the English language and they are up to date. Language and its words are still in a progress and it will be in the progress forever. In contrast to archaic words there are new words which are used more often up to the point they become commonly used.

There are many word formation features which are covered by various authors. These features can be divided into smaller groups of more specific features and each of them help to form new words. To give this work an adequate perspective we have to start with the most basic elements of words such as morphemes, prefixes, suffixes and define them correctly.

The practical part is based on a research and the aim of the research is to find and analyse compounds in spoken and written language. The spoken form uses a sitcom called the Big Bang Theory and the written form uses the New York Times articles.

The aim of the analysis is finding all the different patterns in which compounds can be created and organizing them from the most frequent to the least. Additional aim is finding the most frequent part of speech used as a compound and what compound style is the most frequent.

To achieve the aim, a methodological procedure needs to be planned and the collected data from the texts needs to be counted and organized into well-arranged tables.

2. Word

It is important to define what word is. However, it is not easy to define because the definition is very complex. Generally, word is understood as the essential part of language (Biber et al., 2002, p. 14). Carter and McCarthy (2006, p. 471) add that word is produced by morphemes. Morpheme is the smallest unit of language which has a meaning. Biber et al. (2002, p. 15 – 16) divide words into three different major categories to help us define the meaning of a word.

2.1 Lexical words

There is no other word group which is as numerous as lexical words and their number is still growing. Out of all word groups they carry the most information in a text or in actual speech. They can be divided further into word classes. Specifically, nouns, lexical verbs, adjectives and adverbs. These words are highly variable and they can be composed from many different parts. Biber et al. (2002, p. 15) make an example from a word “friend” to which we can add several more parts: *un + friend + li + ness*. Štekauer (2000, p. 139) explains that lexemes bring many different variations of the same word “under one roof”. From the phonetic perspective, lexical words are mostly the ones which are stressed in the sentence. The importance of lexical words can be confirmed by the fact that any component of the lexical word cannot be removed (Biber et al., 2002, p. 15).

2.2 Function words

Biber et al. (2002, p. 16) say that function words, similarly like lexical words can be categorized into word classes. These word classes are prepositions, coordinators, auxiliary verbs and pronouns. They help us understand the relationship between two or more lexical words. This type of words belong to closed classes which means that they cannot be modified by any type of affixation and that means that there is a limited number of these words. For example, Biber et al. (2002, p. 16) explain that there are only four coordinators in the English language. The coordinators are and, or, but and rarely used nor. This statement proves that this class of words is very limited. However, it is used very often in any form of text or speech.

2.3 Base, root, stem

Denning et al. (2007, p. 44) explain a root as “the smallest, indivisible, simplex lexical component in the word”. A root can stand alone but the complex words can consist of more than just one root. For example, *black-bird*.

Stem is either the base or more complex lexical component. Affixes are usually connected to a stem. Therefore, stem cannot stand alone when it is used just as the lexical component. Great example of such situation is the irregular verb *written* because the stem is *writt-*. It necessarily needs the suffix to become usable as a word. (Denning et al., 2007, p. 46)

Base is described as any component affixes can attach to. Accordingly, it also can be the root or a complex component that already has an affix. (Denning et al., 2007, p. 45)

2.4 Inserts

They are typically used in spoken language rather than in the written form. Inserts do not have any structural function in a sentence. However, they fill blank moments to give some space to think or add certain emotional expression. In speech, inserts can be recognized as a break in intonation. In written form by a punctuation mark in the text. Biber et al. (2002, p. 16.) give an example: *Hm hm, very good. (expression of satisfaction), Yeah, I will. (expression of agreement).*

3. Word formation processes

According to Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1517) word formation is a connection between two different disciplines, grammar and lexicology. Grammar is managing larger units such as phrases, clauses and sentences. In contrary to grammar, lexicology handles with smaller units. In this case we understand the unit as a word or more precisely, lexical unit. Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1517) make a clear example how grammar assist in word formation: *She delegated her work speedily.* and *Her delegation of the work was speedy.* Sentences above both have a completely same meaning. However, different grammar is used and that causes that some words of the sentences need to be adjusted to work properly. The word *delegated* in the first sentence works as a verb and the word *speedily* as an adverb. In order to make the second sentence work, words changed to a noun *delegation* and an adjective *speedy*. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1517)

Quirk, R. (1985 p. 1518) states that many words have their internal structure which is perceived by native speakers naturally. There are words which can be combined with other words to make a complex one like *blackbird* or *monkey-like*. At the same time, we can see that this pattern of word formation can be applied on different words and still acquire similar meaning like *blackboard* and *ladylike*. As mentioned before these words are known as complex words. On the other hand, there are simple words with no visible units. Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1518) give as an example *rhinoceros* or *cat*. These type of words were produced randomly and they are either learnt naturally by native speakers or found in dictionary by non-native speakers.

The lexical base is the ultimate basis of a word and its structure. Huddleston & Pullum (p. 1568) use words *dog* and *worker* as an example to distinguish the difference between simple and complex base. *Dog* is a base by its self nevertheless, *worker* is not so simple because it is an adjusted word from a base *work* with a suffix *-er*.

Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1520) explain that there are three major categories of word formation processes. The first category is called affixation which is a combination of two sub-categories called prefixation and suffixation.

Prefixation is produced by an addition of a prefix to a base. It can be explained with an example which follows *pre + determine*. Prefixation usually does not make any difference in word class. However, it can.

Suffixation on the other hand is a combination of a base and suffix. Example follows *friend + less*. In contrary suffixation usually makes difference in word class but it is possible that it does not.

Affixation includes a category called infixation which is not commonly used in English language. Denning et al. (2007, p. 286) define infix as “an affix which is inserted inside its base.”

The second category is conversion. Conversion is realized by giving a base a different word class without an actual change to the base. Example: *carpet – noun; We shall carpet the room. – carpet = verb* (Denning et al., 2007, p. 286)

The last but not least is compounding which combines two different stems together. Commonly the first word in such combination is giving the second word some characteristic. Example: *blackbird, armchair, heavyweight* (Denning et al., 2007, p. 286) Nevertheless, Huddleston & Pullum (2002, p. 1621) show some other minor techniques how to create words such as initialism, clipping, blending, backformation and phonological modification.

3.1 Affixation

As it was mentioned before, affixation consists of prefixation and suffixation. Therefore, this part is dedicated to explain, how each category influences word formation.

Affixation uses base and adds bound morphemes either from the front or back or even both. This kind of word formation may or may not affect the syntactic category of the word but it definitely modifies the meaning of the used base. [2.]

3.1.1 Prefixation

There are several ways in which prefixation can influence the meaning of a stem. Quirk et al. (1985 p. 1540) differentiate types of prefixes starting with negative prefixes. There are many different prefixes which can make a base word negative. Example: *dis* + *order* = *disorder*, *in* + *complete* = *incomplete*, *dis* + *obey* = *disobey*.

Reversative prefixes can reverse the action which base represents. Example: *de* + *frost* = *defrost*, *dis* + *connect* = *disconnect*, *un* + *do* = *undo*. (Quirk et al., 1985 p. 1540)

Pejorative prefixes are able to change the meaning of the base to a word which stand for something bad, wrong or false. Example: *mal* + *function* = *malfunction*, *mis* + *fire* = *misfire*, *pseudo* + *scientific* = *pseudo-scientific*. (Quirk et al., 1985 p. 1540)

3.1.2 Suffixation

Quirk et al., (1985, p. 1541) prove that suffixation plays its role in word-formation as well. Nevertheless, prefixation commonly changes words in a semantic way, suffixes on the other hand tend to influence words grammatically. That basically means that they are not only able to change the meaning but also the grammatical function/word-class.

Carter & McCarthy (2006, p. 476) divide suffixes into basic categories based on the word-class they form. Basic example (each category is sub-divided further):

Nouns

- *age* – *mileage*, *baggage*

- *ar/-er/-or* – (verb to noun) *registrar*, *singer*, *indicator*

- *ist* – *Buddhist*, *impressionist*, *exhibitionist*

Adjectives

- *ble* – *readable*, *workable*, *responsible*

- *ful* – *grateful*, *mindful*, *helpful*
- *ous* – *enormous*, *famous*, *nervous*

Verbs

- *ate* – *dominate*, *irritate*
- *en* – *harden*, *lengthen*, *stiffen*
- *ify* – *identify*, *magnify*

Adverb

- *ly* – *slowly*, *aggressively*
- *ward(s)* – *backwards*, *homeward(s)*

3.2 Inflection vs. derivation

Jackson & Zé Amvela (2007, p. 82. – 83) show the difference between inflection and derivation.

Inflection is a process in which inflectional suffix is added to the word. Inflectional prefixes do not exist in English language. Thus, prefixes are not used this way. The result of an inflection process is a different grammatical form of a word, not a new lexical word.

For example, plural: *book* – *books*

On the contrary, derivation uses derivational affixes. These affixes create new lexical words from words that are already existing. Great example of a derivational affix would be

-ation. If we add derivational suffix *-ation* to the verb *resign*, as a result there is a new lexical word *resignation* which actually shifted to a noun.

3.3 Word manufacture

Huddleston & Pullum (2002, p. 1632) and Minkova & Stockwell (2009, p. 12) both explain that word manufacture or so called coinage is a rare process that makes new words based on phonological possibilities of English language. These words are not produced by smaller morphological units. Therefore, they are completely new and independent units. Usually, there is no connection between the form and the meaning of a word. The formation is absolutely random.

Minkova & Stockwell (2009, p. 12) bring many examples such as *gizmo* (*a gadget, especially one whose name the speaker does not know or cannot recall*) and *Dongle* “a

software protection device". [1.] This type of words were probably established as mentioned above completely randomly. However, some words are not established from scratch as Minkova & Stockwell (2009, p. 12 – 13) suggest. For example, *LubriDerm* is a skin cream which is *lubricating* the "derm" (*dermatology deals with skin problems*) or *Nylon* and *Teflon* which are produced with a suffix *-on*, the same suffix used with *electron*.

3.4 Borrowing

The English language is a result of a long and complex historical evolution. It has its rich vocabulary because it has borrowed countless number of words from many different languages over the years. These words are adapted because they are used very often in certain time period and as a result they become accepted and ordinarily used. They become so ordinary that they are even modified by English rules. As a great example would be French word *clique*. It has been modified to brand new words *cliquish*, *cliquishness*, *cliqueless*, verb *to clique* etcetera (Denning et al., 2007, p. 7).

Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1522 – 1523) describe how neo-classicism influenced word-formation in the past. It was influenced because neo-classicism dominated all over England. For example, with architecture. It brought words which were not adapted in English yet. Thus, English accepted many Latin, Greek and French words. This influence was so strong that English is using some neo-classical affixes up to this date. For example, *-co* – *collect*, *-ic* – *classic*, *-ous* – *generous*. Of course, neo-classicism is not the only influence English faced and that makes it so diverse.

3.5 Initialism

Denning et al. (2007, p. 59), Minkova & Stockwell. (2009, p. 16) and Huddleston & Pullum (2002, p. 1632) explain initialism as a way of word reduction. In other words, initialism uses initials of a potentially long name. To put it in perspective, initialisms are words like *USA* (*United States of America*), *IBM* (*International Business Machines*) or *GAO* (*Government Accounting Office*) (Denning et al., 2007, p. 59).

Huddleston et al. (p. 1632) explain that initialisms are connected with acronyms and abbreviations. The main difference between these two is the way they are pronounced. Abbreviations are basically spelled out by its initials as if there was a full stop after each

letter. Denning's examples of initialisms mentioned above can be used as an example for abbreviations.

Nevertheless, there are some exceptions like *Dr.* or *ME*. These are meant to be pronounced as if they were not abbreviated (*Dr.* – *Doctor*, *ME* – *Middle English*). (Denning et al., 2007, p. 59) In some occasions, abbreviations can be spelled out as an ordinary word like *DJ/Deejay* (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 1632).

Acronyms on the other hand are pronounced as an ordinary word but they are created basically the same as the abbreviations. Example of a true acronym would be *NASA* (*National Aeronautics and Space Administration*) and *NATO* (*North Atlantic Treaty Organization*) (Minkova & Stockwell, 2009, p. 16).

3.6 Clipping

It is an operation in which speakers shorten words. These words are easier to use, therefore they are used more and more often until they become common. (Štekauer, 2000, p. 435)

Denning et al. (2007, p. 57) add some examples to explain this process properly with some well-known clippings. For instance, *laboratory* – *lab*, *caravan* – *van*, *influenza* – *flu*,
disrespect – *dis*

3.6.1 Plain clippings

Huddleston & Pullum (2002, p. 1635) divide clipping further to plain clippings. They are divided by the location of the removal of the excessive parts:

Back-clippings – excess is removed from the back of the word

Cocaine – *coke*, *laboratory* – *lab*, *promenade* – *prom*, *doctor* – *doc*

Foreclippings – excess is removed from the front

Racoon – *coon*, *telephone* – *phone*, *parachute* – *chute*, *violoncello* – *cello*

Ambiclippings – excess is removed both from the front and back

Influenza – *flu*, *Refrigerator* – *fridge* (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 1635)

3.7 Blending

Blending is a process in which two words are put together to form a new word. Most of the time, blending uses only a part of each word. (Štekauer, 2000, p. 110) Nevertheless, enough of each word is preserved so the words remain recognizable. (Crystal, 2002, p. 130)

For example: *helicopter* + *airport* = *heliport*, *parachute* + *troops* = *paratroops*, *motor* + *hotel* = *motel* (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 1636)

In most cases, the second word is the one giving the meaning. Great example is the word *brunch* – *breakfast* + *lunch*. It is a kind of a lunch, not a breakfast and that is the reason why it is called *brunch*, not **lunkfast* (Crystal, 2002, p. 130).

3.8 Back-formation

Crystal (2002, p. 109) defines backformation as a process which makes complex words shorter by deleting its suffix-like elements. This process follows a rule that each back-formed word has to copy the form of already existing words. Therefore, word *laze*, a back-formed word from *lazy* is based on the already existing couple *crazy* – *craze*.

Štekauer (2000, p. 109) mentions that first back-forming processes occurred from nouns ending with suffix *-tion*. Thanks to this process verbs such as *act*, *afflict*, *separate* can exist because they were back-formed from nouns *action*, *affliction*, *separation*. Due to this fact, the most words originated this way are verbs.

To make it clear Huddleston & Pullum (2002, p. 1637) show several examples:

Baby-sitter – *baby-sit*, *editor* – *edit*, *underachiever* – *underachieve*, *jogger/jogging* – *jog*

3.9 Phonological modification

Certain phonological changes are able to change the word-class of a word. There are many noun and verb pairs which are spelled completely alike but they can change the word-class with a slight shift of the stress. For instance, word *suspect* can be either noun or verb. The difference between these two is the stress shift. As a verb *suspect* the stress is on the first syllable and if the stress is shifted to the second syllable, it becomes a noun (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 1638).

There is less common category of nouns and verbs where the noun ends in a voiceless fricative and verbs in the voiced counterpart. Some of them are spelled alike and some of them are not. For instance, words *belief – believe*, *wreath – wreathe*, *house – house* (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 1639).

4. Conversion

Conversion is defined as a process in which one word shifts from one syntactic category to another without any change in its form. That means that neither the pronunciation or the spelling is changed (Jackson & Zé Amvela, 2007, p. 100).

Denning et al. (2007, p. 56) mention that conversion usually creates either noun or verb from other part of speech. It is also called “zero derivation” and it is proved by the following example. A word *magnet* can be derived from a noun to the verb *magnetize* by adding the suffix *-ize*. A noun *Xerox* is a typical example of conversion or the “zero derivation” because there is absolutely no change in its form to transform it to the verb *xerox*.

The most of the authors cover conversion just briefly. However, Huddleston & Pullum (2002, p. 1640 – 1644) and Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1558 – 1566) cover it quite properly.

4.1 Conversion between nouns and verbs

Conversion between these two word classes is quite frequent. It is often hard to say which of the two is conversion of the other. Even though it is very hard to say, some of the examples are easily distinguishable because one of the two is clearly more basic than the other. For instance, the noun *bottle* is obviously more basic than the verb *bottle*. The verb stands for an action when you put something into a bottle and the noun stands only for the container in which you can put the liquid in. On the other way around verb *arrest* is more basic because the noun is a denotation of the action when someone is *arrested*. *Someone is under arrest* (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 1641)

Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1561 – 1562) divide conversion from nouns to verbs to sub-classes using the meaning of the words. They are divided in these following examples. “To put in/on nouns”: *bottle*, *carpet*, “to give noun, to provide with noun”: *butter*, *coat*, “to deprive of noun”: *core*, *gut*, *peel*, “to...with noun – to use the referent of the noun as an instrument for whatever activity is particularly associated with it”: *break*, *hand*, “to

be/act as noun with respect to...”: *father, parrot*, “to make/change...into noun”: *cash, cripple*, “to send/go by noun”: *mail, ship, bicycle, boat*.

Adams (1997, p. 52 – 55) divides verbs converted to nouns into these sub-categories: “An agent of action” – *cheat, spy, drink*; “concrete object/result of action” – *catch* (of fish), *reject*; “concrete result of action” – give a *cry/laugh*, have a *look/ride*; “abstract result of action – objective/subjective: *attack, need, surprise*.

4.2 Conversion between adjectives and nouns

This type of conversion is not very frequent. It converts from adjectives to nouns more frequently. That does not mean that it cannot occur the other way around but it is even more rare (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 1642 – 1643). Some authors mentioned several examples. For example, he is a *natural*, they are running in the *final* (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1560). Jackson & Zé Amvela (2007, p. 100) mention words like *a convertible, a daily*. Huddleston & Pullum (2002, p. 1643) mention even the other way around with words such as *rose and orange* explaining that these can denote flowers or fruit respectively.

4.3 Conversion between adjectives and verbs

Both Adams (1997, p. 50) and Quirk et al. (1985, 1561 – 1562) divide conversion from adjectives to verbs into 3 sub-groups. The first group are intransitive verbs meaning “to be, become the quality denoted by the adjective”: *idle, pale, sour*. The second group are transitive verbs meaning “to cause someone or something to be, become the quality denoted by the adjective”: *blind, free, warm*. The last one is explained as “verbs expressing the manner in which an action is performed”: *brave, gentle, savage*.

Huddleston & Pullum (2002, p. 1644) state that verbs converting to adjectives need a gerund or past participle of the word to form the adjective. For instance, *amusing, bored, worrying*.

4.4 Unclassified conversions

Carter & McCarthy (2006, p. 479) declare that conversion is still very productive and he proves that by giving an example of some current words such as *to email, to impact, a download*.

Crystal (2002, p. 129) and Carter & McCarthy (2006, p. 479) both share less common classes such as these examples. “That’s a very big *if*”, *that’s a must*, *he has two Ferraris*, *you get both ups and downs*.

Again, Carter & McCarthy (2006, p. 479 – 480) mention some interesting conversions which are converted out of whole phrases. For example, *four-wheel-drive car*, *good-for-nothing brother*.

5. Compounding

Minkova & Stockwell (2009, p. 9) state that compounding is really huge, though highly important source of new words. Štekauer (2000, p. 99) claims that it is actually the most productive group of all. Both Quirk, et al. (1985, p. 1567) and Huddleston & Pullum (2002, p. 1644) define compounding as a connection of two (sometimes even more) individual bases. However, every compound needs to work as a single word semantically and grammatically. Quirk, et al. 1985 (p. 1567) say that compounding can result in any word class available. Nevertheless, compounds are mostly nouns and adjectives appear in lesser number as well.

The examples by Denning et al. (2007, p. 53) show how compounds look. They can either look like a single word (they are sometimes hyphenated between stems) or they can be written as two (or more) words. For instance, *mailman*, *workbook* or *mail career* and *exercise book*.

5.1 Hyponymy

Huddleston & Pullum (2002, p. 1645) and Denning et al. (2007, p. 53) state that compounds have certain inner relation called hyponymy. Very high number of compounds are hyponymic, especially nouns. Hyponymy is a word which is a part of certain semantic category (the category is called hypernym) in which it belongs. It might be best explained with an example. For instance, *rose*, *daffodil* and *tulip* are hyponyms of a hypernym *flower*. This relation can be used in compounding to form new words with connection of a hyponym and a hypernym. For instance, hypernym *step*, can describe things or objects which are related to the action of someone’s *step*. Due to this relation words or hyponyms like *footstep* and *doorstep* can exist.

Both authors mentioned in the previous paragraph challenge hyponymy by putting it into different perspective. Denning et al. (2007, p. 54) and Jackson & Zé Amvela (2007, p. 97) use examples *redhead* and *pickpocket*. These words question the functionality of hyponymy because *redhead* is not kind of a *head*. It relates to someone who's hair is *red* and *pickpocket*, is not kind of a *pocket*. It again relates to someone who *picks pockets*. The components of the compound lack hypernym, though they are called exocentric.

5.2 Subordinate and coordinate compounds

Jackson & Zé Amvela (2007, p. 97) call these compounds endocentric, as opposed to, exocentric. Endocentric compounds are divided into subordinate and coordinate compounds.

Even though authors above mention this type of compounds, Huddleston & Pullum (2002, p. 1646) make bigger effort explaining how these sub-classes work. The most of the compounds are subordinate and one of the bases stand for the head and the other is dependent. Very good example would be *birdcage*. In this case the head is the *cage* and the *bird is dependent*. That means that the *cage* is built for *birds*. But if we say *cage-bird*, the *cage* is not the head anymore, the *bird* is. Therefore, a *cage-bird* is kind of a *bird*. (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 1646)

Coordinate compounds are according to Jackson & Zé Amvela (2007, p. 97) words with two bases with equal status. The example would be *boyfriend*. A *boy* who is a *friend*.

5.3 Variations of compounds

As mentioned above, compounding is very important source of word production. Thus, every author used at least mentioned what does compounding mean. The most of them mention it just briefly and clearly which is pretty helpful. Nevertheless, Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1567 – 1578) and Huddleston & Pullum (2002, p. 1644 – 1566) dive deeper into various combinations that can occur starting with compound nouns.

5.3.1 Compound nouns

This category is according to Huddleston & Pullum (2002, p. 1646) the most numerous in the matter of variety of compounds.

Jackson & Zé Amvela (2007, p. 96) explain that noun compounds consist of any root and a noun. Possible examples: noun + noun (modifier is the head) = *ashtray*, *armchair*, verb + noun (verb is the object) = *daredevil*, *pickpocket*, adjective + noun (modifier is the head) = *blackbird*, *hardcover* and adverb + noun (it is not syntactic) = *afterthought*, *downgrade*.

5.3.2 Compound adjectives

Carter & McCarthy (2006, p. 481) state that the most of the compound adjectives end with an adjective or an adjective ending with inflectional suffixes -ing or -ed.

Jackson & Zé Amvela (2007, p. 96) add that adjective compounds can be combined with a noun, an adjective or an adverb but not with a verb. Examples of such combinations are: noun + adjective (it is not syntactic) = *earthbound*, *seasick*, adjective + adjective (coordinate) = *metallic-green*, *south-west* and adverb + adjective (modifier is the head) = *near-sighted*, *off-white*.

5.3.3 Descriptive compounds

Noun phrases can be described by a wide range of expressions. Nevertheless, they are better dealt with like ordinary adjectives. (Ex.: *an extraordinarily good movie*, *high-rise building*, *no-win situation*, *inflight entertainment*) (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 1660) Very productive use of these compounds are measure expressions. For instance, *five-mile walk*, *three-inch nail*. Even longer expressions can be created with addition of another adjective. Examples of such expressions are *three-meter-wide pool* and *two-year-old child*. (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 1660)

5.3.4 Compound verbs

Huddleston & Pullum (2002, p. 1660) say that there are not as much compound verbs as nouns and adjectives. The most of them appear because of different word-formation processes such as back-formation (*job-sharing* – *job share*) and conversion (*blacklist* – *to blacklist*).

The rules are nearly the same. The first word can be a noun, a verb, an adjective or an adverb. Noun + verb (object is the verb) = *baby-sit, brainwash*, verb + verb (coordinate) = *dive-bomb, drop-kick*, adjective + verb (it is not syntactic) = *dry-clean, sweet-talk*, adverb + verb (modifier is the head) = *downgrade, over-do* (Jackson & Zé Amvela, 2007, p. 96)

5.3.5 Phonologically motivated compounds

Huddleston & Pullum (2002, p. 1666) mention this rare category. These words are treated as normal compounds even though they are created according to stipulation which is normally inappropriate in compound formation.

There are four major ways of formation of such words. The first structure is a connection of two different words and either of them have a meaning when they stand alone. For example, *clap-trap, walkie-talkie*. In the second structure, only the first word has a meaning and the second word is provided plainly for a rhyme. For instance, *super-duper, teeny-weeny*. In the third formation, neither of the words have a meaning. They were created just in that specific connection. (Ex.: *mumbo-jumbo, hoity-toity*) The last structure is rhymed using contrast vowels. (Ex.: *chitchat, zigzag,*) (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 1666).

5.3.6 Other compounds

Jackson & Zé Amvela (2007, p. 97) mention a small group of compounds which are adverbs. Adverbs combine with other adverbs as they do in these examples: *into, throughout*.

They also mention compounds that consist of verbs and adverbs. These compounds are actually nouns. Example: *blast-off, drive-in*

Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1576) discuss about “Bahuvrihi” compounds. This type of compound nouns is referring to something else than it is actually describing. It is understandable thanks to semantic relations. Examples are for instance, *birdbrain, blockhead, hardtop, butterfingers*.

Huddleston & Pullum (2002, p. 1661 – 1662) mention neo-classical compounds. These compounds include at least one word of Greek or Latin origin. There are two major combining forms. One form consists from two neo-classical words: *astronaut,*

psychology, pseudonym and so on. The latter one is made out of single neo-classical word and an ordinary free base: *neurosurgeon, pseudo-science, microchip*.

6. Conclusion

The theoretical part gives an overview of word-formation processes and its essential basics. Each category is supported by many examples to make everything clear. It covers topics such as affixation, borrowing, initialism, clipping, blending, back-formation, conversion and most importantly compounds because this thesis will continue with compounds in the practical part.

Practical part

1. Introduction

The aim of the practical part is to find and analyse compounds from the written and spoken form of language.

The analysis of the written form uses The New York Times articles from the branch of science and technology as the source. On the other hand, the analysis of the spoken form operates with sitcom called The Big Bang Theory. Sitcoms are usually informal, nevertheless the characters in the sitcom are scientists, so the language is quite formal. Additionally, both of these sources are written in Standard American English. Therefore, the language does not get mixed up with the different variations of the English language. The sitcom used for this thesis is also from the branch of science and technology. Hence, the language should be from the same category and quite specific.

The research provides answers to the research questions.

2. Research questions

1. What is the most frequent type of compounds?
2. Are compounds more frequently used in the written or the spoken language?
3. What is the most frequent compound style? (Closed, hyphenated or open compounds?)
4. Which of the categories of compounds appeared in the texts? How many examples are there of each?
5. Which form of language tends to repeat compounds more? Written or spoken?

3. Methodology

In order to make a reliable research, 7 000 words were randomly chosen from each of the mentioned sources. The spoken language was analysed with help of the scripts for the actor's dialogues. [3.] Therefore, transcription was not needed. The two language categories were put into separate documents.

The first thing that was done was a perusal of the two sources. During the perusal, compounds were underlined.

There is an example how were the compounds pointed out in the spoken language part (the written language part used the same method):

“Penny: Howard, do you think maybe sometimes you try too hard?

Howard: Look at me. What chance do I have if I don't try too hard?

Penny: Well, you'd have a terrific chance. I mean, you're smart, you're funny, you have a cool job. You build stuff that goes into outer space.” [3.]

As it can be seen even in this short example, there are many compounds that repeat over and over again. Therefore, two different documents were created in order to make sufficient enumeration of the compounds found in the sources. One document shows all of the compounds that could be found in the sources and subsequently alphabetically organized. This organization helped to find duplicate words. The latter document lists all of the compound words without the duplicates.

Every analysed word in the list of compounds was numbered, so it can be easily visible how many compounds there are.

Here is an example of the compound list organized in the alphabetical order (the numbering is unrelated to the original document) :

- | | | |
|----------------|-----------------|--------------------|
| 1. 50-year-old | 5. cotton candy | 9. Maybe |
| 2. All right | 6. cyber-nasty | 10. mental picture |
| 3. All right | 7. dark matter | 11. myself |
| 4. All right | 8. easygoing | 12. myself |

This is an example of the compound list after the removal of the duplicates:

- | | | |
|-----------------|----------------|-------------------|
| 1. 50-year-old | 4. cyber-nasty | 7. Maybe |
| 2. All right | 5. dark matter | 8. mental picture |
| 3. cotton candy | 6. easygoing | 9. myself |

Open and hyphenated compounds were highlighted with colours (open with green and hyphenated with yellow).

For example:

- | | | |
|-----------------|----------------|-------------------|
| 1. 50-year-old | 4. cyber-nasty | 7. Maybe |
| 2. All right | 5. dark matter | 8. mental picture |
| 3. cotton candy | 6. easygoing | 9. myself |

* As mentioned in the section 5, words such as “dark matter” and “hat brim” are not collocations because they acquire a new meaning in this specific connection of words. For instance, “hat brim” is a specific kind of a hat.

Both documents were needed in order to answer the research questions. For example, the first document is very useful for the comparison of the two different sources. To be more clear, for instance, there are some words that are overused in one source than the other and so on. However, the second document without the duplicates is much more clear and makes it way easier to analyse all of the words.

Lastly, every single compound was analysed and put to appropriate category. These categories are defined by Huddleston & Pullum (2002, p. 1644 – 1566) and of course in the theoretical part of this bachelor thesis in the section 5. Concretely, every compound was market with certain part of speech and then analysed what does the compound consist of. The possible options are noun, verb, adjective and adverb compounds and they can be combined with each of these parts of speech and other patterns. (Jackson & Zé Amvela, 2007, p. 98)

Bahuvrihi and neo-classical compounds were put into consideration as well. If the compound fitted in either of the two, they were noted.

Collected data from both sources were put into separate Microsoft Excel tables to make a clear enumeration of different compound structures, various parts of speech and the three possible options of compound style.

Both collected data were put into detailed comparison in order to answer the research questions.

4. Collected data from the Big Bang Theory (spoken language)

Out of 7000 words from the sitcom called Big Bang Theory, 182 words were compound words. However, many of the words appeared more than once. Therefore, the list of compounds was shrunk down to 119 words and then each word was analysed. (Appendix 1, list 1)

Total number of duplicates is 63 words. The most repeated compound is “all right” (16x) and then “something” (7x), “sidekick” (7x) and “anybody” (6x). (Appendix 1, list 1)

Every calculation from this point was done without the duplicates.

As listed in the table below, the most common compound structure is “noun + noun” structure. It is 52 words out of 119 words which is more than one third of all words in the research. Example of such structure would be the word “horsepower” which is

created out of two nouns: horse + power. The connection of these words makes a noun defined as “an imperial unit of power equal to 550 foot-pounds per second”. [1.]

Not far behind is the “adjective + noun” structure with 30 words. For instance, a compound “iced tea” would be an example of this structure. Better known version of this compound is “ice tea” and it stands for “a chilled drink of sweetened tea without milk, typically flavoured with lemon”. [1.]

Pronouns are far behind in the matter of frequency. Nevertheless, it is the third most numerous compound in the list with word such as “yourself”. They were so frequently used because sitcoms are based on dialogues and pronouns mostly refer to participants in the dialogues.

Appendix 2, table 1: number of compounds in the spoken language

Compound structure	Number	Examples
noun + noun	52	locker room, horsepower
adjective + noun	30	big deal, iced tea
pronouns	8	whatever, yourself

Whole table can be found in the appendix 2. It lists 15 more groups of compounds. However, 5 of them do not appear in the research.

It also lists the number of bahuvrihi and neo-classical compounds with couple examples. There are 3 compounds that can be classified as bahuvrihi. For example, the compound “fancy-pants” which stands for something or someone “superior or high-class in a pretentious way”. [1.]

Neo-classical compounds appeared quite often. Exactly, 9 times with an example such as “psychological”. Actually, both words of this compound can be classified as neo-classical (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 1661 – 1662). The connection of words psycho and logical makes a word defined as “of, affecting, or arising in the mind”. [1.]

The table below illustrates which of the parts of speech is the most numerous in compounding.

Nouns are absolutely dominating over the other parts of speech. An example of a typical noun compound would be “bathroom”.

Adjectives occur less frequently. However, much more frequently than the other parts of speech. As an example was found interesting long structure “glow-in-the-dark”. To make

it clear, it was used in a sentence: “oh, but there’s money for super executive ant farm with glow-in-the-dark sand.” [3.]

The other parts of speech occur a lot less frequently but they are pointed out with examples in the table below.

Appendix 2, table 2: frequency of parts of speech in the spoken language

part of speech	number	example
noun	83	bathroom
adjective	19	glow-in-the-dark
pronoun	8	myself
adverb	7	anyway
verb	2	kidnap
total	119	–

This time, the table below displays how frequently each compound style occurs in the research.

According to the research the most frequent style are the closed compounds with 53 words. Great example is the word “cheesecake” which consists of two separate words that are put together without a hyphen or a space.

Not so far behind are open compounds with 49 words. These are made out of two or more words which are separated with a space. As an example was chosen a compound “high school”.

The least frequent were hyphenated compounds with 17 words. Particular words of this type of compound are separated with a hyphen. An example of this style is a word “razor-sharp”.

Appendix 2, table 3: frequency of different compound styles in the spoken language

compound style	number	example
closed	53	cheesecake
open	49	high school
hyphenated	17	razor-sharp
total	119	–

5. Collected data from the New York Times (written language)

Out of 7000 words from the online news called the New York Times, 331 words were compound words. That is much more than in the spoken language. Nevertheless, not only the number of compounds was bigger, but also the number of duplicates. From 331 compounds, 145 words were duplicates and that leaves us with 186 compound words to analyse. (Appendix 1, list 2)

Out of the 145 duplicates, the most repeated words were “Facebook” and “password” (17x). In little bit smaller number was repeated the word “video game” (7x). The reason why is the number of duplicates so high is the fact that many words were repeated 4 to 6 times in average. (Appendix 1, list 2)

Once again, from this point, words were analysed without the duplicates.

The table below demonstrates the top 3 most frequent compound structures in the written language.

Similar to the sitcom, the most used compound structure is “noun + noun” structure, nevertheless in bigger number of 80 compounds.

“Adjective + noun” structure is once again no so far behind on the second place with 48 examples.

Surprisingly, on the third place are structures which consist of more than just two words with 13 examples. Examples of such compounds are adjectives like “not-so-obvious” and “fingerprint-based”.

In contrast with the spoken language research, “verb + adverb” structure was found. As Jackson & Zé Amvela (2007, p. 98) state, this structure actually makes a noun compound. In the table 4 are 2 discovered examples found in the New York Times and they prove the statement is true. The examples are “login” and “rundown”.

Appendix 2, table 4: number of compounds in the written language

Compound Structure	Number	Examples
noun + noun	80	credit card, bank account
adjective + noun	48	software, stainless steel
longer structure	13	not-so-obvious, fingerprint-based

Complete list of 16 more structures can be found in the appendix 2, table 4. Compared to appendix 2, table 1, the table is enriched with one not very common example of “pronoun + n” structure. This category was added in the process.

Bahuvrihi and neo-classical compounds were included as well. There are 2 compound words that meet the characteristics of bahuvrihi compounds. For instance, an adjective “run-of-the-mill” which stands for something that is “lacking unusual or special aspects” [1.]

Neo-classical compounds occurred exactly 3 times with an example like “cyberattacks”. This compound stands for “an attempt by hackers to damage or destroy a computer network or system”. [1.]

The upcoming table puts the different parts of speech in order from the most numerous to the least.

Once again, compounds are without a doubt most likely to be nouns. In the written language they were used 135 times. One of the examples is a compound “bank account”. The second largest group are without a surprise adjectives with 40 examples. For instance, as an example can be used a compound “eye-tracking”.

On the third place, there are both pronouns and adverbs with 9 compounds and as an example was chosen a pronoun compound “himself” and adverb compound “thereafter”.

Appendix 2, table 5: frequency of parts of speech in the written language

Part of speech	Number	Example
noun	135	bank account
adjective	30	eye-tracking
pronoun	9	himself
adverb	9	thereafter
verb	3	download
total	186	–

The last table shows how frequent is each compound style in the research of the New York Times.

This time, open compounds are the most numerous with 93 words. As an example was chosen the compound “hat brim”.

Not so far behind are closed compounds with 67 words. The example for this style is a noun “counterparts”.

Quite far behind are hyphenated compounds with only 30 words. An adjective “self-described” was chosen as an example.

Appendix 2, table 6: frequency of different compound styles in the written language

compound style	number	example
open	89	hat brim
closed	67	counterparts
hyphenated	30	self-described
total	186	–

6. Collected data in comparison

When the two complete lists of compounds are compared, it is clear that written language tends to use compounding more often. Nevertheless, written language also tends to repeat the same compounds over and over again more often. Most likely because the words repeated are tightly connected with the topic of the article. Therefore, the compounds repeated so many times. (See appendix 1 for the list of compounds.)

In the articles, there is much bigger number of compounds which consist of more than two words. Written language is not so rushed, hence the writers can take their time to think of such structures. On the contrary, spoken language happens quite quickly, so it relies on habitual expressions used repeatedly in different situations.

Two nouns with the “verb + adverb” structure were found in the articles. This structure could not be found in the sitcom. There is no clear explanation why it occurred in the written form but it might be from similar reasons as in the previous paragraph.

Both sources prove that the biggest number of compounds are made with “noun + noun” structure. Right after that is very commonly used “adjective + noun” structure. It has to be mentioned that pronoun compounds are also quite commonly used in both sources but in the written form longer structures appear more often than pronouns. “Noun + adjective” structure deserves a mention because it is also quite productive in both forms of language.

Both bahuvrihi and neo-classical words were more frequently used in the sitcom. Bahuvrihi was used more often probably because the sitcom is based on dialogues, therefore it is more personal. For instance, “fancy-pants” was used directly as an insult from one character to another. Neo-classical classical words were more numerous because of the fact that the characters are mostly scientists and they tend to talk about

physics, biology and so on. Therefore, there are many neo-classical words. On the other hand, the articles were also based on science and technology, so there was a good number of neo-classical words as well. (See appendix 2, table 1 and 4 for compound types.)

The frequency of the different parts of speech was basically the same in both sources. According to the research, compounds are mostly nouns and then in much smaller number adjectives. In the written form, pronouns were as frequent as adverbs but not in the spoken form but it was only a slight difference. The least frequent compounds in both forms of language were verbs. (See appendix 2, table 2 and 5 for the parts of speech.)

There was quite a difference in the compound style. In the spoken form, closed compounds were the most frequent. In contrary, the written form used open compounds most frequently. In both cases, the least frequent were the hyphenated compounds because they are generally less frequent than the other two. (See appendix 2, table 3 and 6 for the compound styles)

7. Answers to research question

1. What is the most frequent type of compounds?

As mentioned in the section of collected data, the most frequent type of compounds are compound nouns. There were 305 compounds altogether without the duplicates. Out of 305 compounds, 218 were compound nouns and that is 68,21 %. (Calculation from appendix 2, table 2 and 5.)

The most used variation of words in a compound word is without hesitation “noun + noun” structure. Out of 305 compounds this variation occurred 132 times and that is 43 % out of 19 examined variations. (Calculation from appendix 2, table 1 and 4.)

2. Are compounds more frequently used in the written or the spoken language?

Written form was absolutely dominating before removing the duplicates because the articles concentrate on certain topic or idea and there are words or compounds which are highly connected with the topic. Therefore, they are overused. After removing the duplicates the number of compounds in the written form was still higher than in the spoken form.

To be exact, 119 compounds were found in the Big Bang Theory and 186 in the New York Times. According to this research it means that the written form used 61 % of

compounds out of all compounds even without the duplicates. (Calculation from appendix 2, table 1 and 4.)

3. What is the most frequent style of compounds? (Closed, hyphenated or open compounds?)

It was a very close call between closed and open compounds. As mentioned before, in the written form open compounds were the most frequent. On the other hand, in the spoken form closed compounds were the most frequent. However, if we put all the open compounds together and the closed compounds as well, it is possible to decide which of the two was more frequent.

In both sources there were 120 closed compounds and 138 open compounds in total. That means that open compounds are more frequently used. (Calculation from appendix 2, table 3 and 6.)

4. Which of the categories of compounds appeared in the texts? How many examples are there of each?

In the research there were many categories. In the matter of the part of speech there were 218 compound nouns (ex.: outer space), 5 verbs (ex.: kidnap), 49 adjectives (ex.: eye-tracking), 16 adverbs (ex.: thereafter), 17 pronouns (ex.: myself). (Calculation from appendix 2, table 2 and 5.)

In the matter of what the compounds consist of, there were 16 structure variations. “Noun + noun” 132x (ex.: back pain), “noun + verb” 5x (ex.: sidekick), “noun + adjective” 16x (ex.: price-conscious), “noun + adverb” 2x (ex.: payouts), “verb + noun” 5x (ex.: typecast), “verb + adjective” 2x (ex.: sought-after), “verb + adverb” 2x (ex.: rundown), “adjective + noun” 78x (ex.: stainless steel), “adjective + verb” 4x (ex.: easygoing), “adjective + adjective” 5x (ex.: cyber-nasty), “adjective + adverb” 4x (ex.: everywhere), “adverb + noun” 2x (ex.: anything), “adverb + verb” 3x (ex.: backpacked), “adverb + adjective” 5x (ex.: all right), “adverb + adverb” 4x (ex.: as well), “pronoun + noun” 1x (ex.: YouTube) and longer structures 18x (ex.: cinnamon-apple-scented). (Calculation from appendix 2, table 1 and 4.)

Bahuvrihi and neo-classical compounds were counted out of the table. They were handled as additional categories. There were 5 bahuvrihi compounds (ex.: nutshell) and 12 neo-classical compounds (ex.: microscope). (Calculation from appendix 2, table 1 and 4.)

5. Which form of language tends to repeat compound more? Written or spoken?

According to the research, written language had more tendency to repeat compounds.

As mentioned, in the spoken form there were 182 compounds. There were 119 compounds after the removal of the duplicates which means that the duplicates took 35 % of the whole number. (Calculation from appendix 1.)

In the written form there were 331 compound words and after the removal there were only 186 compounds left. That means that the duplicates took 44 % of all the compound words in this category. (Calculation from appendix 1.)

The reason why were the compounds repeated so often is the fact that the articles are focused on a certain topic, therefore overusing of some key words is quite common and inevitable.

Conclusion

The theoretical part points out word formation processes that can be applied to the English language. It also provides information about the processes with many useful examples.

The practical part is based on a research that works with two different forms of language. These two streams of language are spoken and written form. The spoken form used a sitcom called the Big Bang Theory and the written form used the New York Times articles.

The aim of the research was pointing out every compound word that could be found in the texts and then analysing each word separately. The collected data was then put into thorough comparison between the two researched forms of language. As a result, the collected data provided a great amount of information.

Primarily, the research verified that the most common compounds are nouns and that the most frequently used variation of compounds is “noun + noun” structure. It also found out that compounds are mostly written in the open compound style.

Secondarily, it provided a clear comparison between the spoken and written form of language. The main difference was not only the fact that the written form used more compounds over all, but also that the written form in the New York Times articles tend to repeat the same compounds repeatedly due to the relationship with the article’s topic.

The research proves that when the spoken form is compared to the written form, it is apparent that the written form has more room for creating longer structures than just with two words. This is caused mainly because the written language is not as rushed as the spoken one and in the contrary it is necessary to mention that the spoken language happens quite quickly, so it relies on habitual expressions used repeatedly in many different situations.

In the tables which are available in the appendix 2 is available a complete list of many different types of compounds. These tables are organized from the most frequent to the least. Therefore, they can be used as a proof of occurrence of the different types of compounds in real life or they can be used for further research.

Further research could take advantage of the collected data and possibly extend the range of the research or it could focus on different branch of English language and compare the collected data all together.

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List of appendices

Appendix 1: Collected compounds

Appendix 2: Complete tables

Appendix 1: Collected compounds

List of compounds collected from The Big Bang Theory

- | | |
|--------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. 50-year-old | 45. big deal |
| 2. All right | 46. big picture |
| 3. All right | 47. big-ass |
| 4. All right | 48. bio lab |
| 5. All right | 49. blow-up doll |
| 6. All right | 50. boyfriend |
| 7. All right | 51. budget |
| 8. All right | 52. cheesecake |
| 9. all right | 53. childhood |
| 10. All right | 54. chitchat |
| 11. All right | 55. cinnamon-apple-scented |
| 12. All right | 56. cotton candy |
| 13. All right | 57. cyber-nasty |
| 14. All right | 58. dark matter |
| 15. All right | 59. easygoing |
| 16. All right | 60. ex-girlfriend |
| 17. All right | 61. Fancy-Pants |
| 18. ant farm | 62. flipping wheel |
| 19. ant farm | 63. foot-long |
| 20. anybody | 64. fruit platter |
| 21. anybody | 65. fruit platter |
| 22. anybody | 66. Gentlemen |
| 23. anybody | 67. gentlemen |
| 24. anybody | 68. glow-in-the-dark |
| 25. anybody | 69. glow-in-the-dark |
| 26. anymore | 70. grinding wheel |
| 27. anyone | 71. grown man |
| 28. anything | 72. halfway |
| 29. anything | 73. heart locket |
| 30. anything | 74. heart rate |
| 31. Anything | 75. high school |
| 32. anything | 76. himself |
| 33. anyway | 77. homework |
| 34. anyway | 78. homework |
| 35. armour plate | 79. homosexual |
| 36. Armstrong | 80. horsepower |
| 37. aroma therapy | 81. hydrogen |
| 38. backwards | 82. hydrogen |
| 39. backwards | 83. iced tea |
| 40. balloon animal | 84. Jamba Juice |
| 41. bathroom | 85. Kid Vermin |
| 42. bathtubs | 86. Kidnap |
| 43. Battlestar | 87. killer robot |
| 44. big boy | 88. Killer robot |

89. killer robot
 90. killing saw
 91. ladies' man
 92. likelihood
 93. locker room
 94. Magic Eight Ball
 95. manhood
 96. marshmallow
 97. marshmallow
 98. master's degree
 99. maybe
 100. maybe
 101. Maybe
 102. mental picture
 103. microscope
 104. Mouse Boy
 105. Mouse Boy
 106. Mouse Boy
 107. myself
 108. myself
 109. nerd table
 110. Neutralization Eradicator
 111. nobody
 112. nobody's
 113. Nothing
 114. Nothing
 115. nothing
 116. nutshell
 117. Otherwise
 118. outer space
 119. overexposed-to-gamma-rays
 120. passion fruit
 121. pathologically
 122. Pillsbury Doughboy
 123. prime number
 124. psychological
 125. radioactive
 126. radioactive
 127. Rat-Man
 128. Rat-Man
 129. Rat-Man
 130. razor-sharp
 131. salmonella-ridden
 132. sandwich
 133. science fiction
 134. Scientific event
 135. scuba-diving
 136. shooting rifle
 137. Short jokes
 138. sidekick
 139. sidekick
 140. sidekick
 141. sidekick
 142. sidekick
 143. sidekick
 144. sidekick
 145. slow-moving
 146. smooth-talking
 147. someone
 148. something
 149. something
 150. something
 151. something
 152. something
 153. something
 154. Something
 155. sometimes
 156. Sometimes
 157. somewhere
 158. spoiler alert
 159. street fight
 160. sucker punch
 161. sudden-onset
 162. sunshine
 163. teddy bear
 164. Termination Eradicator
 165. thermostat's
 166. tit-for-tat
 167. toaster oven
 168. toaster oven
 169. toolbox
 170. toy robot
 171. toy robot
 172. trash talk
 173. trash talk
 174. two-photon
 175. typecast
 176. ultraviolet light
 177. vital signs
 178. Warcraft
 179. warfare
 180. webcam
 181. whatever
 182. yourself
 16x all right
 7x something
 7x sidekick
 6x anybody

List of compounds collected from The Big Bang Theory without the duplicates

1. 50-year-old – adj, n + n + adj
2. All right – adv, adv + adj
3. ant farm – n, n + n
4. anybody – **pronoun**
5. anymore – adv, adv + adj
6. anyone – **pronoun**
7. anything – adv, adv + n
8. anyway – adv, adj + adv
9. armour plate – n, n + n
10. Armstrong – n, n + adj
11. aroma therapy – n, n + n
12. backwards – adj, adj + n
13. balloon animal – n, n + n
14. bathroom – n, n + n
15. bathtubs – n, n + n
16. Battlestar – n, n + n
17. big boy – n, adj + n
18. big deal – n, adj + n
19. big picture – n, adj + n, bahuvrihi
20. big-ass – adj, adj + n
21. bio lab – n, adj + n, neo-classical
22. blow-up doll – n, adj + n
23. boyfriend – n, n + n
24. budget – n, n + v
25. cheesecake – n, n + n
26. childhood – n, n + n
27. chitchat – n, n + n
28. cinnamon-apple-scented – adj, n + n + adj
29. cotton candy – n, n + n
30. cyber-nasty – adj, adj + adj, neo-classical
31. dark matter – n, adj + n
32. Doughboy – n, n + n
33. easygoing – adj, adj + v
34. ex-girlfriend – n, n + n
35. Fancy-Pants – n, adj + n, bahuvrihi
36. flipping wheel – n, adj + n
37. foot-long – adj, n + adj
38. fruit platter – n, n + n
39. gentlemen – n, adj + n
40. glow-in-the-dark – adj, v + prep + art + adj
41. grinding wheel – n, adj + n
42. grown man – n, adj + n
43. halfway – adj, adj + n
44. heart locket – n, n + n
45. heart rate – n, n + n
46. high school – n, adj + n
47. himself – **pronoun**
48. homework – n, n + n
49. homosexual – n, n + adj, neo-classical
50. horsepower – n, n + n
51. hydrogen – n, n + n, neo-classical
52. iced tea – n, adj + n
53. Jamba Juice – n, n + n
54. Kid Vermin – n, n + n
55. Kidnap – v, n + v
56. killer robot – n, n + n
57. killing saw – n, adj + n
58. ladies' man – n, n + n
59. likelihood – n, adj + n
60. locker room – n, n + n
61. Magic Eight Ball – n, n + n + n
62. Manhood – n, n + n
63. Marshmallow – n, n + n
64. master's degree – n, n + n
65. maybe – adv, adv + v
66. mental picture – n, adj + n
67. microscope – n, adj + n, neo-classical
68. Mouse Boy – n, n + n
69. Myself – **pronoun**
70. nerd table – n, n + n
71. Neutralization Eradicator – n, n + n
72. Nobody – n, adj + n
73. Nothing – n, adj + n
74. Nutshell – n, n + n, bahuvrihi
75. outer space – n, adj + n
76. overexposed-to-gamma-rays – adj, adj + prep + n + n
77. passion fruit – n, n + n
78. pathologically – adj, adj + adj, neo-classical
79. prime number – n, adj + n
80. psychological – adj, adj + adj, neo-classical
81. radioactive – adj, adj + adj, neo-classical
82. Rat-Man – n, n + n
83. razor-sharp – adj, n + adj
84. salmonella-ridden – adj, n + adj
85. sandwich – n, n + n
86. science fiction – n, n + n
87. scientific event – n, n + n
88. scuba-diving – n, n + n
89. shooting rifle – n, adj + n
90. Short jokes – n, adj + n
91. Sidekick – n, n + v
92. slow-moving – adj, adj + v
93. smooth-talking – adj, adj + v
94. someone – **pronoun**
95. something – **pronoun**
96. sometimes – adv, adv + n
97. somewhere – adv, adj + adv
98. spoiler alert – n, n + n
99. street fight – n, n + n
100. sucker punch – n, n + n
101. sudden-onset – adj, adj + n
102. sunshine – n, n + n
103. teddy bear – n, n + n
104. Termination eradicator – n, n + n
105. thermostat's – n, n + n, neo-classical
106. tit-for-tat – n, n + prep + n
107. toaster oven – n, n + n
108. toolbox – n, n + n
109. toy robot – n, n + n
110. trash talk – n, n + n

111. two-photon – adj, adj + n, neo-classical
 112. typecast – v, v + n
 113. ultraviolet light – n, adj + n, neo-classical
 114. vital signs – n, adj + n
 115. Warcraft – n, n + n
 116. Warfare – n, n + n
 117. Webcam – n, n + n
 118. Whatever - **pronoun**
 119. Yourself – **pronoun**

List of compounds collected from the New York Times

1. 3D Touch
2. 3D Touch
3. A.I. systems
4. A.I. systems
5. A.I. systems
6. A.I. systems
7. adversarial attack
8. adversarial attack
9. adversarial attacks
10. adversarial attacks
11. adversarial attacks
12. Alcohol abuse
13. alcohol dependence
14. all-seeing
15. anti-Semitic
16. anti-Semitic
17. anyone's
18. anyway
19. anyway
20. anywhere
21. artificial intelligence
22. artificial intelligence
23. artificial-intelligence
24. as well
25. back pain
26. back-and-forth
27. background
28. background
29. background
30. backlight
31. backlighting
32. backpacked
33. bank account
34. bank account
35. bank accounts
36. bank accounts
37. battery life
38. battery life
39. benchmarking
40. billing codes
41. billing companies
42. billing companies
43. billing software
44. insurance software
45. Bitcoin
46. Bitcoin
47. Bitcoin
48. BITCOIN
49. blockbuster
50. blog post
51. bokeh effect
52. Broadcast
53. broadcast
54. Business School
55. chief executive
56. Chromecast
57. coffee shop
58. computer systems
59. Console makers
60. counterparts
61. counterparts
62. credit card
63. credit card
64. credit cards
65. cyberattacks
66. cybersecurity
67. cybersecurity
68. databases
69. databases
70. databases
71. debit cards
72. depth-of-field
73. device makers
74. diabetic blindness
75. diabetic blindness
76. digital nomad-ing
77. Digital Nomad'
78. digital nomads
79. Digital nomads
80. DIGITAL-NOMAD
81. download
82. downloaded
83. Downloaded
84. downsides
85. downsides
86. Drug Administration
87. DSLR-like
88. dual-lens
89. Earbuds
90. everything
91. everywhere
92. everywhere
93. eye scans
94. eye-tracking
95. eyeglass frames
96. face-recognition
97. Facebook
98. Facebook
99. Facebook
100. Facebook
101. Facebook
102. Facebook

- 103.Facebook
- 104.Facebook
- 105.Facebook
- 106.Facebook
- 107.Facebook
- 108.Facebook
- 109.Facebook
- 110.Facebook
- 111.Facebook
- 112.Facebook's
- 113.Facebook's
- 114.facial-recognition
- 115.far right
- 116.Far Right
- 117.far-right
- 118.feedback
- 119.financial incentives
- 120.fingerprint readers
- 121.fingerprint readers
- 122.fingerprint-based
- 123.fingerprints
- 124.Food Administration
- 125.full-time
- 126.full-time
- 127.Game Developers
- 128.Game Developers
- 129.Game Developers
- 130.game developers
- 131.game developers
- 132.game developers
- 133.game machine
- 134.game machines
- 135.game play
- 136.GPS device
- 137.guidelines
- 138.Gunman
- 139.gunman
- 140.gunman
- 141.gunman's
- 142.gunman's
- 143.hat brim
- 144.health care
- 145.health care
- 146.health care
- 147.health care
- 148.health care agencies
- 149.health care system
- 150.health care systems
- 151.health certificate
- 152.heavy lifting
- 153.high-definition
- 154.high-quality
- 155.high-stakes
- 156.highlights
- 157.Himself
- 158.himself
- 159.himself
- 160.himself
- 161.himself
- 162.himself
- 163.home base
- 164.hotspot
- 165.IDC analyst
- 166.industrywide
- 167.insurance companies
- 168.insurance companies
- 169.insurance company
- 170.insurance providers
- 171.insurance providers
- 172.insurance providers
- 173.into
- 174.into
- 175.into
- 176.into
- 177.iris scanners
- 178.itself
- 179.jumbo screen
- 180.laptop
- 181.laptops
- 182.LCD screen
- 183.LCD screens
- 184.Liquid Retina
- 185.Liquid Retina
- 186.livestream
- 187.livestreams
- 188.lock screen
- 189.Login
- 190.long-term
- 191.lung scan
- 192.machine learning
- 193.machine learning
- 194.machine learning
- 195.machine learning
- 196.machine-assisted
- 197.machine-learning
- 198.mailbox
- 199.mailbox
- 200.mailbox
- 201.mailbox
- 202.Mainstream
- 203.Mass shooting
- 204.master account
- 205.mathematical systems
- 206.mayhem
- 207.medical field
- 208.medical scans
- 209.Medical School
- 210.meeting app
- 211.mortgage
- 212.movie buff
- 213.network
- 214.network
- 215.network
- 216.networks
- 217.neural network
- 218.not-so-obvious
- 219.nothing
- 220.often-competing
- 221.OLED screen
- 222.OLED screens

223.one-time
 224.online games
 225.onto
 226.otherwise
 227.parent company
 228.passport
 229.password
 230.password
 231.password
 232.password
 233.password
 234.password
 235.password
 236.passwords
 237.passwords
 238.passwords
 239.passwords
 240.passwords
 241.passwords
 242.passwords
 243.passwords
 244.passwords
 245.passwords
 246.payment cards
 247.payouts
 248.payouts
 249.phone number
 250.plain text
 251.plain text
 252.plain text
 253.playback
 254.policy fees
 255.portable charger
 256.price-conscious
 257.project management
 258.public roads
 259.road trips
 260.run-of-the-mill
 261.rundown
 262.safeguards
 263.self-described
 264.self-driving
 265.self-driving
 266.shortcut
 267.Silicon Valley
 268.single core
 269.single lens
 270.single lens
 271.single-lens
 272.single-lens
 273.single-lens
 274.skin lesion
 275.skyrocketing
 276.smartphone
 277.smartphone
 278.smartphone
 279.snapshots
 280.so-called
 281.Social Security
 282.software
 283.software
 284.software developers
 285.software regulators
 286.someone
 287.someone
 288.someone
 289.Someone
 290.someone
 291.someone
 292.something
 293.something
 294.sought-after
 295.Spotlight
 296.stainless steel
 297.stakeholders
 298.stop sign
 299.street signs
 300.sunglasses
 301.themselves
 302.thereafter
 303.throwaway
 304.top-ranked
 305.touch screen
 306.two-step
 307.unpredictability
 308.username
 309.vice president
 310.vice president
 311.Video Game
 312.video game
 313.video game
 314.video game
 315.video games
 316.video games
 317.video games
 318.Wall Street
 319.Website
 320.website
 321.well-staffed
 322.whomever
 323.wood table
 324.work spaces
 325.yield sign
 326.YouTube
 327.YouTube
 328.YouTube
 329.YouTube
 330.YouTube's
 331.YouTubers
 Facebook (17x)
 Password (17x)
 Video game (7x)

List of compounds collected from the New York Times without the duplicates

1. 3D Touch – n, n + n
2. A.I. systems – n, n + n
3. adversarial attack – n, adj + n
4. Alcohol abuse – n, n + n
5. alcohol dependence – n, n + n
6. all-seeing – adj, adj + n
7. anti-Semitic – adj, adj + adj
8. anyone - **pronoun**
9. anyway – adv, adj + adv
10. anywhere – adv, adj + adv
11. artificial-intelligence – n, adj + n
12. as well – adv, adv + adv
13. back pain – n, n + n
14. back-and-forth – adv, adv + conj + adv
15. background – n, adj + n
16. backlight – n, adj + n
17. backpacked – v, adv + v
18. bank account – n, n + n
19. battery life – n, n + n
20. benchmarking – adj, n + adj
21. billing codes – n, adj + n
22. billing companies – n, adj + n
23. billing software – n, adj + n
24. Bitcoin – n, n + n
25. Blockbuster – n, n + n
26. blog post – n, n + n
27. bokeh effect – n, n + n
28. broadcast – n, adj + n
29. Business School – n, n + n
30. chief executive – n, n + n
31. Chromecast – n, n + n
32. coffee shop – n, n + n
33. computer systems – n, n + n
34. Console makers – n, n + n
35. Counterparts – n, n + n
36. credit card – n, n + n
37. cyberattacks – n, adj + n, neo-classical
38. cybersecurity – n, adj + n, neo-classical
39. databases – n, n + n
40. debit cards – n, n + n
41. depth-of-field – n, n + prep + n
42. device makers – n, n + n
43. diabetic blindness – n, adj + n
44. digital nomads – n, adj + n
45. download – v, adv + v
46. downsides – n, adj + n
47. Drug Administration – n, n + n
48. DSLR-like – adj, n + adj
49. dual-lens – adj, adj + n
50. Earbuds – n, n + n
51. Everything - **pronoun**
52. Everywhere – adv, adj + adv
53. eye scans – n, n + n
54. eye-tracking – adj, n + adj
55. eyeglass frames – n, n + n + n
56. face-recognition – n, n + n
57. Facebook – n, n + n
58. facial-recognition – n, adj + n
59. far-right – n, adj + n
60. feedback – n, n + n
61. financial incentives – n, adj + n
62. fingerprint readers – n, n + n + n
63. fingerprint-based – adj, n + n + adj
64. fingerprints – n, n + n
65. Food Administration – n, n + n
66. full-time – adj, adj + n
67. Game Developers – n, n + n
68. game machine – n, n + n
69. game play – n, n + n
70. GPS device – n, n + n
71. Guidelines – n, n + n
72. Gunman – n, n + n
73. hat brim – n, n + n
74. health care – n, n + n
75. health care agencies – n, n + n + n
76. health care system – n, n + n + n
77. health certificate – n, n + n
78. heavy lifting – n, adj + n
79. high-definition – adj, adj + n
80. high-quality – adj, adj + n
81. high-stakes – adj, adj + n
82. highlights – n, adj + n
83. Himself - **pronoun**
84. home base – n, n + n
85. hotspot – n, adj + n
86. IDC analyst – n, n + n
87. Industrywide – adj, n + adj
88. insurance company – n, n + n
89. insurance providers – n, n + n
90. insurance software – n, n + n
91. into – adv, adv + adv
92. iris scanners – n, n + n
93. itself - **pronoun**
94. jumbo screen – n, adj + n
95. laptop – n, n + n
96. LCD screen – n, n + n
97. Liquid Retina – n, adj + n
98. Livestream – n, adj + n
99. lock screen – n, n + n
100. Login – n, v + adv
101. long-term – adj, adj + n
102. lung scan – n, n + n
103. machine learning – n, n + n
104. machine-assisted – adj, n + adj
105. mailbox – n, n + n
106. Mainstream – adj, adj + n
107. Mass shooting – n, n + v
108. master account – n, n + n
109. mathematical systems – n, n + n
110. mayhem – n, n + n
111. medical field – n, adj + n
112. medical scans – n, adj + n

113. **Medical School** – n, adj + n
 114. **meeting app** – n, adj + n
 115. mortgage – n, n + n
 116. **movie buff** – n, n + n
 117. network – n, n + n
 118. **neural network** – n, adj + n + n, neo-classical
 119. **not-so-obvious** – adj, adv + adv + adj
 120. nothing – **pronoun**
 121. **often-competing** – adj, adv + adj
 122. **OLED screen** – n, n + n
 123. **one-time** – adj, adj + n
 124. **online games** – n, adj + n + n
 125. onto – adv, adv + adv
 126. otherwise – adv, adv + adj
 127. **parent company** – n, n + n
 128. passport – n, n + n
 129. password – n, n + n
 130. **payment cards** – n, n + n
 131. payouts – n, n + adv
 132. **phone number** – n, n + n
 133. **plain text** – n, adj + n
 134. playback – n, n + adv
 135. **policy fees** – n, n + n
 136. **portable charger** – n, adj + n
 137. **price-conscious** – adj, n + adj
 138. **project management** – n, n + n
 139. **public roads** – n, adj + n
 140. **road trips** – n, n + n
 141. **run-of-the-mill** – adj, v + prep + art + n
bavuhrihi
 142. **rundown** – n, v + adv **bavuhrihi**
 143. safeguards – v, adj + v
 144. **self-described** – adj, n + adj
 145. **self-driving** – adj, n + adj
 146. shortcut – n, adj + n
 147. **Silicon Valley** – n, n + n
 148. **single core** – adj, adj + n
 149. **single lens** – adj, adj + n
 150. **skin lesion** – n, n + n
 151. skyrocketing – adj, n + adj
 152. smartphone – n, adj + n
 153. snapshots – n, v + n
 154. **so-called** – adj, adv + adj
 155. **Social Security** – n, adj + n
 156. Software – n, adj + n
 157. **Software developers** – n, adj + n + n
 158. **Software regulators** – n, adj + n + n
 159. Someone – **pronoun**
 160. Something – **pronoun**
 161. **sought-after** – adj, v + adj
 162. Spotlight – n, n + n
 163. **stainless steel** – n, adj + n
 164. stakeholders – n, n + n
 165. **stop sign** – n, v + n
 166. **street signs** – n, n + n
 167. sunglasses – n, n + n
 168. themselves – **pronoun**
 169. thereafter – adv, adv + adv
 170. throwaway – adj, v + adj
 171. **top-ranked** – adj, n + adj
 172. **touch screen** – n, n + n
 173. **two-step** – adj, adj + n
 174. unpredictability – n, v + n
 175. username – n, n + n
 176. **vice president** – n, adj + n
 177. **video game** – n, adj + n
 178. **video games industry** – n, adj + n + n
 179. **Wall Street** – n, n + n
 180. Website – n, n + n
 181. **well-staffed** – adj, n + adj
 182. whoever – **pronoun**
 183. **wood table** – n, n + n
 184. **work spaces** – n, n + n
 185. **yield sign** – n, v + n
 186. YouTube – n, pronoun + n

Appendix 2: Complete tables

Table 1 – Variations (BBT)

Compound structure	Number	Examples
noun + noun	52	locker room, horsepower
adjective + noun	30	big deal, iced tea
pronouns	8	whatever, yourself
noun + adjective	5	foot-long, razor-sharp
longer structure	5	cinamon-apple-scented, glow-in-the-dark

adjective + adjective	4	cyber-nasty, psychological
noun + verb	4	kidnap, sidekick
adjective + verb	3	easygoing, smooth-talking
adjective + adverb	2	anyway, somewhere
adverb + noun	2	anything, sometimes
adverb + adjective	2	all right, anymore
adverb + verb	1	maybe
verb + noun	1	typecast
verb + adjective	0	–
verb + verb	0	–
noun + adverb	0	–
verb + adverb	0	–
adverb + adverb	0	–
total	119	–

bahuvrihi 3 fancy-pants, nutshell
neo-classical 9 microscope, psychological

Table 2 – Parts of speech (BBT)

part of speech	number	example
noun	83	bathroom
adjective	19	glow-in-the-dark
pronoun	8	myself
adverb	7	anyway
verb	2	kidnap
total	119	–

Table 3 – Compound style (BBT)

compound style	number	example
closed	53	cheesecake
open	49	high school
hyphenated	17	razor-sharp
total	119	–

Table 4 – Variations (NYT)

Compound Structure	Number	Examples
noun + noun	80	credit card, bank account

adjective + noun	48	software, stainless steel
longer structure	13	not-so-obvious, fingerprint-based
noun + adjective	11	price-conscious, well-staffed
pronoun	9	themselves, himself
verb + noun	4	stop sign, snapshots
adverb + adverb	4	as well, into
adverb + adjective	3	otherwise, often-competing
verb + adjective	2	sought-after, throwaway
adverb + verb	2	backpacked, download
noun + adverb	2	payouts, playback
verb + adverb	2	rundown, login
adjective + adverb	2	anyway, everywhere
adjective + adjective	1	anti-semitic
noun + verb	1	mass shooting
adjective + verb	1	safeguards
pronoun + noun	1	YouTube
verb + verb	0	–
adverb + noun	0	–
total	186	–

Bahuvrihi	2	run-of-the-mill, rundown
Neo-classical	3	cyberattacks, neural network

Table 5 – Parts of speech (NYT)

Part of speech	Number	Example
noun	135	bank account
adjective	30	eye-tracking
pronoun	9	himself
adverb	9	thereafter
verb	3	download
total	186	–

Table 6 – Compound style (NYT)

compound style	number	example
open	89	hat brim
closed	67	counterparts
hyphenated	30	self-described
total	186	–

Résumé

Bakalářská práce je zaměřená na různé druhy slovtvorby v anglickém jazyce. Na konci praktické části se obeznámíme do hloubky s nástrojem slovtvorby zvaným složeniny, který se dále využívá v praktické části. Předmětem výzkumu je mluvená a psaná forma jazyka. Pomocí výzkumu je zjištěno, že nejvyšší počet slov vzniklých skládáním je v psané formě jazyka. Dále pomocí výzkumu a následné analýzy je zjištěno, že se skládání nejvíce využívá u podstatných jmen a to nejčastěji variantou spojování dvou podstatných jmen k sobě. Dodatečně je zjištěno, že se slova vzniklá skládáním píšou nejčastěji otevřeným stylem.