

UNIVERZITA PALACKÉHO V OLOMOUCI

Pedagogická fakulta

Katedra anglického jazyka

Hana Štefanová

3. ročník – kombinované studium

Obor: Specializace v pedagogice

Anglický jazyk se zaměřením na vzdělávání

Přírodopis se zaměřením na vzdělávání

WORD FORMATION OF NOUNS IN ENGLISH

Bakalářská práce

Vedoucí bakalářské práce: Mgr. Blanka Babická, Ph.D.

OLOMOUC 2015

Prohlášení

Prohlašuji, že jsem závěrečnou písemnou práci zpracovala samostatně a použila jen uvedených pramenů, literatury a elektronických zdrojů.

V Olomouci dne

vlastnoruční podpis

Poděkování

Děkuji vedoucí práce Mgr. Blance Babické, Ph.D. za odborné vedení závěrečné písemné práce, poskytování rad a materiálních podkladů k práci.

Contents

Acknowledgement

Abstract

Introduction	7
Theoretical part	8
1 Word Formation	8
1.1 Definition of a word	8
1.2 Structure of a word	8
1.3 Word formation processes	9
2 Nouns	9
2.1 Definition of a noun	9
2.2 Function of a noun	10
3 Compounding	10
3.1 Structure of compound nouns	11
3.1.1 Noun + noun	11
3.1.2 Adjective + noun	12
3.1.3 Verb + noun	12
3.1.4 Gerund + noun	13
3.1.5 Adverb + noun	13
3.2 Semantic function of compound nouns	13
3.2.1 Endocentric compounds	13
3.2.2 Exocentric compounds	14
3.2.3 Appositional compounds	14
3.2.4 Copulative compounds	14
3.3 Neo-classical compounds	15
4 Affixation	16
4.1 Prefixation	17
4.1.1 Negative prefixes	17
4.1.2 Reversative or privative prefixes	17
4.1.3 Pejorative prefixes	18
4.1.4 Prefixes of degree or size	18
4.1.5 Prefixes of orientation and attitude	18
4.1.6 Locative prefixes	19
4.1.7 Prefixes of time and order	19
4.1.8 Neo-classical number prefixes	19
4.1.9 Miscellaneous neo-classical prefixes	20
4.1.10 Conversion prefixes	20
4.2 Noun prefixation	20
4.3 Suffixation	21
4.4. Noun suffixation	21
4.4.1 Noun suffixes	22
4.4.1.1 Denominal nouns: abstract	22
4.4.1.2 Denominal nouns: concrete	23
4.4.1.3 Deverbal nouns	24

4.4.1.4 De-adjectival nouns.....	24
4.4.1.5 Noun/ adjective suffixes.....	24
5 Conversion.....	25
5.1 Partial conversion.....	26
5.2 Conversion to noun.....	26
6 Minor word formation methods.....	26
Conclusion.....	26
Practical part	27
1 Introduction.....	27
2 Research.....	27
3 Texts for analysis.....	27
4 Methods of text analysis.....	29
5 Results.....	30
6 Analysis of contemporary fiction samples.....	32
6.1 Suffixation.....	32
6.2 Prefixation.....	32
6.3 Compounding.....	33
7 Analysis of newspaper article samples.....	33
7.1 Suffixation.....	33
7.2 Prefixation.....	34
7.3 Compounding.....	34
8 Analysis of academic text samples.....	34
8.1 Suffixation.....	34
8.2 Prefixation.....	35
8.3 Compounding.....	35
9 Analysis of al three texts together.....	36
10 Summary of the research.....	36
Conclusion	40
Bibliography	41
List of Appendices	46
Appendices	
Resumé	
Annotation	

ABSTRACT

This bachelor project deals with noun formation in English. The focus is on derivation and compounding, since they are the two most frequent noun formation methods. Derivation is more frequent than compounding. The theoretical part explains the theory behind noun formation. The practical part investigates the occurrence of derivative and compound nouns in different types of texts. Three hundred sample nouns were collected from each type of text for this research.

Introduction

My bachelor project focuses on word formation, more specifically it concentrates on noun formation in English. Word formation means creation of new words. It is a very important and complex part of linguistic study. The project deals with many different ways of creating new words. This work has a theoretical part and a practical one. The theoretical part explains in details various methods of word formation. Each chapter is devoted to one word-formation method with examples included.

The practical part investigates the frequency of derivation and compound nouns, since derivation and compounding are the two most frequent noun formation methods. Examples are included from each text sample.

I chose this topic in order to investigate the field of word formation in details because I believe it is important to understand the processes of word formation when learning a foreign language. This knowledge enables a speaker to use a foreign language more effectively. For example, when a speaker comes across a compound word “*widespread*”, he will easily understand the word if he already knows the words forming a compound, in this case “*wide*” and “*spread*”. The same principle can be applied with affixes, for example the word “*painter*” is easily understandable if a speaker knows the word “*paint*” and the meaning of a prefix “*-er*”. I chose to concentrate on nouns since they are a very important word class with new words being added all the time.

“Time changes all things; there is no reason why language should escape this universal law”

— Ferdinand de Saussure, *Course in General Linguistics*

This quotation by a great linguist Ferdinand de Saussure summarizes very precisely how all languages evolve over time. It is due to the fact that human society evolves and there is a need for new expressions for new things, places, qualities and new words need to be created for all of these. The study of word formation has been of a great interest of linguists for a very long time. This bachelor project provides detailed description of noun formation and provides better understanding of the complexity of this matter.

Theoretical part

1. Word formation

1.1 Definition of a word

It is not easy to find a precise definition of a word since the opinions vary slightly, therefore several explanations will be mentioned in this chapter.

A word is a unit of speech and writing. It is considered to be the smallest unit which can be expressed separately. All speakers of all languages can identify a separate a word very easily. An average person knows about 45,000 to 60,000 words (Plag, 2002, p. 4).

Words are separated by spaces in writing and by pauses in speaking. A single word consists of one or more morpheme (Ze Amvela, 2007, p. 59).

A morpheme also has its own meaning but some of them cannot stand alone, for example affixes. These are so called bound morphemes, since they have no meaning on their own and have to be attached to a free morpheme. A free morpheme can stand alone. Spoken words consist of units of sound called phonemes while written words consist of symbols called graphemes. In English these are letters of the English alphabet (Todd, 1995, p. 43).

A word has either semantic or pragmatic meaning. Ze Amvela (2007, p. 59) distinguishes lexical and grammatical words. Lexical words are nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. Such classes are considered open, meaning that new words can be created. These words have their meaning and can be used independently in isolation. On the other hand, grammatical words such as prepositions, articles, conjunctions, are closed classes. These words cannot stand alone as they have no meaning if not used in a phrase (Ze Amvela, 2007, p. 59).

1.2 Structure of a word

The study dealing with word structure is called morphology. It studies morphemes which are the smallest units of grammar (Todd, 1995, p. 41).

Some words have only one morpheme, which cannot be further divided (Plag, 2002, p. 12).

Examples: *chair, matter, promise* (Plag, 2002, p. 12)

Other words are called complex and consist of a root of the word and one or more affixes. Root of a word is that part which remains when all derivational and inflectional affixes are removed. Morphologically complex words are composed of smaller elements to create a larger word with a more complex meaning (Plag, 2002, p. 12).

Examples: *employee, greenhouse, meaningless* (Plag, 2002, p. 12)

1.3 Word formation processes

A process of creating a new word is called word formation. It is considered to be an important part of linguistic study. There is no single theory of word formation (Bauer, 1983, p. 1).

Word formation processes create new words from existing ones. It is important to understand these processes in order to study complex words in English. Each morpheme added to the original word changes the meaning of such a word. It can change it into plural by adding the morpheme *-s* and various affixes can completely change the original meaning (Ze Amvela, 2007, p. 81).

There are many ways how to create a new word. The methods can be divided into concatenative and non-concatenative processes. Concatenation means joining bases of the words with affixes (Plag, 2002, p. 15).

Examples: *employee, inventor* (Plag, 2002, p. 15)

Non-concatenative word formation does not require adding any affixes to the base, for example when a verb is changed into a noun without changing the form of the word. This process is also known as conversion or zero affixation (Plag, 2002, p. 15).

Examples: *to walk take a walk*

to bite have a bite (Plag, 2002, p. 15)

Word formation processes are: Compounding, conversion, clipping (truncation), blending, borrowing, derivation, coinage, backformation, acronyms.

Each of these methods will be dealt with in a separate chapter with the emphasis on noun formation in English. There are specific rules and restrictions. Examples of each word formation method will be included.

2 Nouns

2.1 Definition of a noun

Todd (1995, p. 53) defines noun as a part of speech (or word class), which is used to name a person, place, thing, action or quality.

The word noun comes from the Latin “nomen” which means “name” (wikipedia.org).

Nouns can have both singular and plural forms and can be preceded by an article and/or adjectives. They can have genitive inflection and take various suffixes like *-er, -ance, -ness*, and many others (Adams, 1997, p. 17).

Quirk (1990, p. 70) distinguishes concrete and abstract nouns. This division is important semantically. From grammatical point of view, nouns can be divided into two categories: proper nouns and common nouns. Proper nouns are names of particular places, people, organizations and are written with a capital letter in the beginning of the word. Common nouns describe things in general and do not use capital letters in the beginning. Quirk also divides nouns into countable and non-countable, also called mass nouns (Quirk, 1990, p. 70).

New nouns can be formed by derivation or compounding. Derived nouns are formed by adding an affix to the base, as in *disbelief* (*dis* + *belief*) or *treatment* (*treat* + *ment*). Compound nouns are formed from two words to form a single noun (Biber, 2007, p. 318).

2.2 Function of a noun

Nouns can have several functions in a sentence, such as a subject, direct object, indirect object, complement and appositive. Nouns can function as an object of a preposition as well. Nouns sometimes modify other nouns forming so called compound nouns. They also serve as the head of a noun phrase (Adams, 1997, p. 17).

3 Compounding

This chapter will deal with the word-formation method called compounding. It is a very complicated issue but at the same time compounds are very common in English.

Štekauer (2000, p. 99) considers compounding as the most productive way of noun formation. Compounds are divided into primary and synthetic compounds. Primary compounds do not contain any verbal elements, such as *table-tennis*, *school garden*. On the other hand, synthetic compounds contain a verbal element with a suffix attached (*-er*, *-ing*, *-ed*).

Examples: *language teacher*, *strange-sounding* (Štekauer, 2000, p. 102).

Majority of compounds in English are nouns (Bauer, 2000, p. 202).

Adams (1997, p. 30) and Biber (2007, p. 318) describe the principle of creating a compound word as joining two or more roots together. The meaning of such a compound word can be very different from the meaning of each separate word forming a compound. Each of the words forming a compound can be used separately as well. Noun compounding is defined as joining two words to create a single noun. These two words joined together function as a single unit.

In some cases more than two words can be joined together (Biber, 2007, p. 325).

From the orthographic point of view, compound nouns can have three different forms:

- separate words (open compound),
- one word (closed or solid compound) or
- words joined together by a hyphen (hyphenated form) (Kvetko, 2009, p. 28).

Examples: Separate words: *bus stop, tennis shoe, orange juice*

One word: *bedroom, sunglasses, toothpaste*

Hyphenated: *check-in, tax-payer, take-off* (Kvetko, 2009, p. 28)

The compounds can be presented in these three various forms because there is no clear line between compounds and free combinations (Biber, 2007, p. 326).

Noun compounding is possible to occur due to the property of nouns called recursiveness. It lies in the ability of putting a sequence of nouns together or repeating the same structure over and over. There is virtually no limit to how many nouns can be linked together. As is obvious from the following example, compounding is not limited to combining just two elements together. On the other hand, a compound noun must contain at least two roots. The possibilities are endless (Štekauer, 2000, p. 99; Plag, 2002, p. 172).

Example: *Bathroom - Bathroom towel - Bathroom towel cabinet - Bathroom towel cabinet shelf* (Štekauer, 2000, p. 99)

The problem might occur while translating such long compound nouns into other languages. The flexibility of English language allows these sentence structures to occur, while in Czech we would have to replace certain elements with a subordinate clause. This is due to the fact that English is an analytical language while Czech is an inflectional language (Štekauer, 2000, p. 100).

3.1 Structure of compound nouns

Since this bachelor project concentrates on noun formation, this chapter will describe in details how nouns are formed by compounding.

Compound nouns can consist of several different parts of speech (word classes). A noun can be attached to another noun, adjective, verb, particle, adverb (Bauer, 2000, p. 206).

When two words of the same class are joined together it is assumed that the resulting compound will be of the same word class. In general the word class of the last item of the compound determines the word class of the whole compound. In a noun compound, the second root has to be a noun. The first root can be of a different word class (Ze Amvela, 2007, p. 96).

3.1.1 Noun + noun

The combination of noun + noun is considered as the most productive. It is used more in news than in conversation (Biber, 2007, p. 326).

These compounds can have several different semantic relationships and most of them are endocentric (Bauer, 2000, p. 203).

Examples: *bar code*, *database*, *eye-witness* (Biber, 2007, p. 326)

Noun + noun compounds are the most common type of compounds in the English language. In most of them, the head is the right element of the compound (Plag, 2002, p. 185).

Examples: *laser printer*, *book cover*, *letter head* (Plag, 2002, p. 186).

3.1.2 Adjective + noun

The compound consists of a noun and an adjective. They can be written as a single word or separate words (Biber, 2007, p. 326).

Examples: *blackbird*, *easy chair*, *real estate* (Biber, 2007, p. 326)

There can be a slight confusion to distinguish between a compound and a noun phrase. The noticeable difference is in the placement of stress. A noun phrase has a nuclear stress placed on the noun while a compound has its nuclear stress on the adjective. Adjective + noun phrases can be easily converted into compounds simply by moving the stress. Most adjectives used in compounds are monosyllabic (Bauer, 2000, p. 205 – 206).

Examples: *fast-food*, *software* (Bauer, 2000, 206).

Adams (1997, p. 57) suggests a simple test to decide whether we deal with a compound or a noun phrase. In a compound adjective + noun, the adjective cannot be premodified by an adverb and cannot be graded.

Example: *small talk*

It is not possible to say *very small talk* or *smaller talk*. It is clear that *small talk* is a compound.

In a noun phrase, on the other hand, premodification by an adverb and gradation of an adjective is possible.

Example: *wet day*

Wetter day and *a very wet day* are both possible. In this case it is clear it is a noun phrase (Adams, 1997, p. 57).

3.1.3 Verb + noun

There are two basic patterns. Noun in some of these compounds is a direct object of the verb. All such compounds are exocentric (Bauer, 2000, p. 205).

Examples: *cut-throat, pickpocket, breakfast* (Bauer, 2000, p. 205)

The second type is where the noun is not a direct object of the verb. All such compounds are endocentric (Bauer, 2000, p. 205).

Examples: *dangle-dolly, drownproofing* (Bauer, 2000, p. 205)

A problem might occur when it is not clear whether the second element is a noun or a verb (Bauer, 2000, p. 205)

Examples: *nosebleed, sunshine, birth control* (Bauer, 2000, p. 205)

3.1.4 Gerund + noun

This process can be considered as noun + noun or noun + verb compounds because gerund has both nominal and verbal characteristics (Bauer, 2000, p. 203).

Examples: *fishing rod, shooting match* (Bauer, 2000, p. 203)

3.1.5 Adverb (or preposition) + noun/verb

Prepositions and verbs can combine to form another verb or a noun. Some words can function as verbs or nouns (Plag, 2002, p. 183).

Examples: *download, income, input* (Plag, 2002, p. 183).

In many cases, phrasal verbs can be converted into nouns, such as *a breakdown, a push-up, a rip-off*. The stress shifts to the first syllable in nouns (Plag, 2002, p. 183).

3.2 Semantic function of compound nouns

Compounds can be divided according to their semantic function: endocentric compounds, exocentric compounds and appositional compounds (Štekauer, 2000, p. 103).

3.2.1 Endocentric compounds

Endocentric compounds have their head included within the compound. The element – *endo* means “inside” (Plag, 2002, p. 186).

Endocentric compound is such a compound where one element specifies the other element. One of the elements is so called head and determines the general meaning of the compound noun. The other element is a modifier which specifies the head. In endocentric compounds both words are usually the same part of speech.

The head determines the number and gender. The modifying element does not specify number or gender (Bauer, 2002, p.30).

Example: *doghouse, warehouse, lighthouse* (Plag, 2002, p. 186)

In the above example the word “house” is the head and is modified by words “dog”, “ware” and “light” to specify what kind of a house is meant. These three expressions are hyponyms of a word “house” (Plag, 2002, p. 186).

3.2.2 Exocentric compounds

In exocentric compounds the head is not explicitly stated. The semantic head is outside the compound, the element *-exo* meaning “outside”. They are not hyponyms as they do not specify type (Štekauer, 2000, p. 103).

These occur more often in adjectives than in nouns. They have a limited use as they are used mostly for describing people or higher animals (Plag, 2002, p. 186).

Example: *Redneck* (Plag, 2002, p. 186)

This word does not specify a type of neck, it identifies a type of person (Plag, 2002, p. 186).

Exocentric compounds are also called possessive compounds because they point to an entity which is characterised by the property expressed by the compound, such as a *loudmouth*. This compound describes somebody who possesses a loud mouth (Plag, 2002, p. 187).

Exocentric compounds are restricted in productivity (Bauer, 2000, p. 203).

Examples: *hatchback*, *skinhead* (Bauer, 2000, p. 203).

3.2.3 Appositional compounds

Appositional compounds consist of two nouns where both can serve as hyponyms and both specify the type of the other one.

The first element of an appositional compound marks the sex of the person (Bauer, 2000, p. 203).

Examples: *boy-friend*, *manservant*, also often used with animals *she-goat*, *he-cheetah* (Bauer, 2000, p. 203)

Example: *Maidservant* (Bauer, 2000, p. 30)

The word “maid” specifies the type of servant and the word “servant” specifies the type of maid. The word “*maidservant*” is a hyponym of both *maid* and *servant* (Bauer, 2000, p. 30).

3.2.4 Copulative compounds

Copulative compounds consist of two words where the meaning is the sum of both words. Both words are semantically equal and describe one entity (Štekauer, 2000, p. 104).

It is not always clear which element is the head. It is not clear which of the two words is more important. Both words contribute equally to the meaning (Plag, 2002, p. 177, 187).

Example: *Singer-songwriter*

The word describes a person who works in two fields of music industry (Plag, 2002, p. 187)

This type of copulative compound is also referred to as appositional compound. It is clear that the compound describes one person (Plag, 2002, p. 188).

He also distinguishes coordinative compounds, such as *doctor-patient gap* where it is clear the compound denotes relationship between two separate entities, in this case it is the relationship between a doctor and a patient (Plag, 2002, 188).

3.3 Neo-classical compounds

Adams (1997, p. 31) defines neo-classical compounds as scientific and technical words taken from Latin and Greek.

Examples: *microscope, telegraph, philology, democracy* (Adams, 1997, p. 31)

Lexemes are taken from classical languages such as Latin or Greek to form a new word, which was not existing in the original language. That is where the term neo-classical has its origin (Plag, 2002, p. 198).

Examples: *biochemistry, biography, geology* (Plag, 2002, p. 198)

Even though neo-classical compounds have origins in Greek and Latin, ancient Greeks never knew words like *telephone* and *television* since they had no use for such words (Bauer, 2000, p. 216).

The first parts such as *bio-*, *geo-* are not considered as affixes since they have a meaning of their own, *bio-* means “life”, *geo-* means “earth” (Plag, 2002, p. 92).

These elements are called combining forms even though they are attached to words in the same way as affixes (Bauer, 2000, p. 213).

Examples: *astro-*, *hydro-*, *-phile*, *-phobe* (Bauer, 2000, p. 213)

Štekauer (2000, p. 103) claims that the combining forms such as *hydro-*, *bio-*, etc. resemble affixes since they are considered bound morphemes but they can be combined with other neo-classical combining forms or with affixes.

Examples: *metrology, homophile* (Štekauer, 2000, p. 103).

These are considered as compounds even though they contain no free forms. They occur mostly in fields of science and technology and they are all fairly new words. The first element of a neo-classical compound ends with a combining vowel, unless the second element starts with a vowel (Adams, 1997, p. 32).

Example: *anthropology* – *anthropos* was reduced to *anthropo-* (Adams, 1997, p. 32)

Some elements of such compounds can occur both in initial and final position.

Example: *morph-/morph* in *morphology*, *anthropomorph* (Adams, 1997, p. 32)

4 Affixation

The following chapter will discuss the word-formation by affixation, including examples of the most common affixes used in English.

Affixation is a very productive word-formation process which uses affixes to be attached to a base to form a complex word. Affixes are bound morphemes and do not make sense on their own, therefore they need to be attached to a root. The derived word is referred to as a derivative (Plag, 2002, p. 13-14).

Affixes can be added to the beginning of the word (prefixation or initial affixation), the middle (infixation) or the end (suffixation or terminal affixation) of words. Prefixes and suffixes are very common in English, infixes are rather rare. Affixation is also called derivation. The use of prefixes is much more frequent than the use of suffixes (Kvetko, 2009, p. 32).

Ze Amvela (2007, p. 88) distinguishes class-changing and class-maintaining derivational affixes. Class-changing affixes cause the change in a word class of the word to which an affix is added.

Example: the verb *to resign* + an affix *-ation* causes change in the word class, the resulting word *resignation* is a noun (Ze Amvela, 2007, p. 88)

On the other hand, class-maintaining affixes do not change the word class of the derived word. The derivative (the resulting word of derivation) has a different meaning than the original word (Ze Amvela, 2007, p. 88).

Example: a noun *child* + an affix *-hood* creates a word *childhood*, which is still a noun but the meaning is different (Ze Amvela, 2007, p. 88)

Derivatives can be derived from words of different word class, such as nouns from verbs or adjectives, verbs from nouns or adjectives, adjectives from nouns or verbs, adverbs from adjectives or nouns. Most class-changing derivations in English are suffixes. Noun derivational affixes are also called nominalizers. List of class-changing affixes with examples is listed in **Appendix 1** (Ze Amvela, 2007, p. 88 – 91).

Infixes are not very common in English. They occur mostly in slang words, such as *abso-goddam-lutely* (Štekauer, 2000, p. 105).

In many cases, when an affix is attached to a word, it causes shift in word stress. This process is described as a change in the phonic structure of words (Kvetko, 2009, p. 32). Examples of stress changes are listed in **Appendix 2**.

4.1 Prefixation

Adding an affix at the beginning of the word is called prefixation or initial affixation. Prefixes usually change the lexical meaning, they specify or concretize the meaning. Prefixes usually do not change the word class of the original word. Prefixes are more productive than suffixes (Kvetko, 2009, p. 34).

Example: *smoker* x *non-smoker* (Kvetko, 2009, p. 34)

Bauer (2000, p. 216) claims that the vast majority of English prefixes are class-maintaining. Majority of prefixes can be added to bases of different word classes.

Kvetko (2009, p. 35-36) divides prefixes according to their semantic qualities. Prefixes with examples are listed in **Appendix 3**.

Quirk et al (1985, p. 1540-1546) divides prefixes into several groups based on their meanings. List of prefixes with examples is shown in **Appendix 4**.

Different types of prefixes are described in the following subchapters.

4.1.1 Negative prefixes

These prefixes, such as *dis-*, *in-*, *il-*, *im-*, *ir-*, *non-*, *un-*, mean the opposite of the original word.

Examples: *order* – *disorder*, *attention* – *inattention*, *smoker* – *non-smoker*, *fair* – *unfair* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1540)

The prefix *a-* means there is lack of something. It can be described as “without what is referred to by the nominal base” (Plag, 2002, p. 125).

Examples: *amoral*, *asexual* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1540), *atypical*, *asymmetric* (Kvetko, 2009, p. 35)

The prefix *in-* also means “inside”, as in *inpatient* (Biber, 2007, p. 320).

Example: Hospital **inpatients** are dealt with by the Hospital social work team based at the Royal United Hospital. (source: <http://sentence.yourdictionary.com/inpatient>)

4.1.2 Reversative or privative prefixes

Reversative prefixes mean “reversing the action”. The most common reversative and privative prefixes are: *de-*, *dis-*, *un-* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1541).

Examples: disagreeable, disobedient (Kvetko, 2009, p. 35)

The prefix *de-* also means “depriving of” (Quirk, 1985, p. 1541).

Examples: decentralize, defrost (Kvetko, 2009, p. 35)

The prefix *dis-* can be found in verbs and nominalizations. It is not clear whether the prefix *dis-* is first attached to the verb as is *disorganiz-ation* or attached to the nominalization as in *dis-organization* (Plag, 2002, p. 125).

4.1.3 Pejorative prefixes

The most common pejorative prefixes are: *mal-*, *mis-*, *pseudo-* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1541).

Their general meaning is wrong, evil, false, deceptive, bad (Plag, 2002, p. 124).

Examples:

mal- (means “badly”, “bad”) as in *malfunction*, *malnutrition* (Biber, 2007, p. 320)

mis- (means “bad”, “wrong”) as in *misconduct*, *mismatch* (Biber, 2007, p. 320)

pseudo- (means “false”, “imitation”) as in *pseudo-scientific*, *pseudo-democracy* (Kvetko, 2009, p. 36)

4.1.4 Prefixes of degree or size

These prefixes are: *arch-*, *co-*, *hyper-*, *mini-*, *out-*, *over-*, *sub-*, *super-*, *sur-*, *ultra-*, *under-* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1542).

Examples:

arch- (supreme, most, often with human reference) as in *archduke*, *archbishop* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1542)

co- (joint, together) as in *co-education*, *cooperate*, *co-pilot* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1542)

hyper-, *ultra-* (extreme) as in *hypersensitive*, *ultrahigh* (Kvetko, 2009, p. 35)

mini-, *under-* (little, too little) as in *minibus*, *underachievement* (Biber, 2007, p. 320)

out-, *over-*, *super-*, *sur-* (more than, excessive, over and above, surpassing) as in *outnumber*, *overeat*, *supernatural*, *surcharge* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1542)

sub- (below) as in *subgroup*, *subset* (Biber, 2007, p. 320)

4.1.5 Prefixes of orientation and attitude

This group of prefixes includes: *anti-*, *contra-*, *counter-*, *pro-*. They express either positive or negative attitude towards something (Quirk, 1985, p. 1543)

Examples:

pro- (positive attitude, on the side of) as in *pro-democratic*, *pro-European* (Kvetko, 2009, p. 36)

anti-, *contra-*, *counter-* (against, contrasting, opposition) as in *antiabortionist*, *counterargument* (Biber, 2007, p. 320), *contradistinction*, *contraflow* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1543)

4.1.6 Locative prefixes

Locative prefixes have similar function as spatial prepositions. They specify place or position of something else (Quirk, 1985, p. 1543).

Examples:

fore- (front part of, front) as in *forearm*, *foreshore* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1543)

inter- (between, among) as in *interaction*, *intermarriage* (Biber, 2007, p. 320)

sub- (under) as in *subnormal*, *subdivide* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1543)

super- (above, more than) as in *superhero*, *superset* (Biber, 2007, p. 320)

trans- (across) as in *transatlantic*, *transplant* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1544)

4.1.7 Prefixes of time and order

These prefixes refer to time, something was before (*fore-*, *pre-*), after (*post-*), former (*ex-*) or happened again (*re-*) (Quirk, 1985, p. 1544).

Examples:

ex- (former) as in *ex-president*, *ex-convict* (Kvetko, 2009, p. 36)

fore- (before) as in *foretell*, *foreknowledge* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1544)

post- (after) as in *post-war*, *postgraduate* (Kvetko, 2009, p. 36)

pre- (before, in advance) as in *pre-cook*, *pre-marital*, *pre-school* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1544)

re- (again, back) as in *re-election*, *re-organisation* (Biber, 2007, p. 320)

4.1.8 Neo-classical number prefixes

Items of Latin or Greek origin are often used as number prefixes (Quirk, 1985, p. 1545)

Examples:

bi- (two) as in *bilateral*, *bilabial* (Kvetko, 2009, p. 36)

poly-, *multi-* (many) as in *polygamy*, *polysemy*, *multilateral* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1545)

semi-, *demi-*, *hemi-* (half) as in *semicircle*, *demigod*, *hemisphere* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1545)

tri- (three) as in *tricycle*, *tripartism* (Biber, 2007, p. 320)

uni-, *mono-* (one) as in *unilateral*, *unisex* (Kvetko, 2009, p. 36)

4.1.9 Miscellaneous neo-classical prefixes

These items can be considered as combining forms which are used to create compound words (Quirk, 1985, p. 1545). This was explained in chapter 3.3 (neo-classical compounds).

Examples:

auto- (self) as in *autobiography*, *autograph* (Biber, 2007, p. 320)

extra- (exceptionally) is often written as a separate word as in *extra affectionate* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1545)

neo- (new, revived) as in *neo-classical*, *Neo-Latin* (Plag, 2002, p. 124)

paleo- (old) as in *paleography*, *paleolithic* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1546)

pan- (all, continent-wide, world-wide) as in *pan-African*, *pan-American* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1546)

proto- (first, original) as in *Proto-Germanic*, *prototype* (Quirk, 1985, . 1546)

tele- (distant) as in *telescope*, *telephone* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1546)

vice- (deputy) as in *vice-chairman*, *vice-president* (Biber, 2007, p. 320)

4.1.10 Conversion prefixes

Conversion prefixes have little semantic value. They serve to convert words of one class to words of another class (Quirk, 1985, p. 1546)

Examples:

a- combines with verbs to produce predicative adjectives: *asleep*, *aloud* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1546)

be- as in *bewigged*, *bedazzle*, *befriend* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1546)

en-, *em-* combines with nouns to produce verbs: *enmesh*, *endanger*, *enflame*, *embitter* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1546)

4.2 Noun prefixation

In most cases, a prefix does not change word class in nouns. Only the meaning changes (Biber, 2007, p. 319).

Examples: *patient* – *outpatient*, *group* – *subgroup* (Biber, 2007, p. 319)

A detailed alphabetical list of derivational prefixes used to form new nouns is shown in **Appendix 5**. The list includes the basic meaning of each prefix. Certain prefixes require hyphenation, such as *arch-*, *co-*, *ex-*, *re-*, *mini-*, *neo-*, *non-*, *pseudo-* (Biber, 2007, p. 320).

4.3 Suffixation

Next chapter will describe the process of noun suffixation in details. Suffixation of other word classes is listed in **Appendix 6**. Suffixation (also called terminal affixation) is a word formation process where suffixes are added to the bases of words. There are twice as many suffixes as prefixes but they are less productive (Kvetko, 2009, p. 32).

Examples of most productive suffixes: *-er, -ist, -ism, -ize, -ic, -y* (Kvetko, 2009, p. 32)

Words can be modified in their form, meaning or function. Suffixes have mostly grammatical importance while prefixes have mostly semantic role. Suffixes often change the lexical meaning and the word class of a derivative while prefixes rarely cause the change in a word class (Quirk, 1985, p. 1546; Kvetko, 2009, p. 32).

Examples: *slave – slavery, king – kingdom, to bake – baker, man – manly* (Kvetko, 2009, p. 32)

Suffixes are usually divided into groups based on the word class they produce when attached to a word base, such as noun suffixes and verb suffixes. Suffixes forming words of different word classes are listed in **Appendix 7** (Kvetko, 2009, p. 33 - 34).

Certain suffixes are associated with particular word class and can be referred to as “denominal suffixes”, “de-adjectival suffixes” and so on (Quirk, 1985, p. 1547).

Example: the suffix *-ness* is a “de-adjectival suffix because it creates nouns from adjectives, as in *kind - kindness, gracious - graciousness* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1547)

In most cases a suffix is an unstressed addition to the base but in certain words suffixes cause shift in word stress. The stress change is shown on the following example of a word of foreign origin (Quirk, 1985, p. 1547).

Example: *'photograph - pho'tography - photo'graphic* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1547)

Spelling changes occur as well (Quirk, 1985, p. 1547)

Examples: *invade - invasion, permit - permission, able - ability* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1547)

4.4 Noun suffixation

Noun derivational suffixes often change the word class. Suffixes usually have a less specific meaning than prefixes. Nouns can be derived from other nouns by attaching a suffix.

Examples: *infant – infancy, star - stardom*

In many cases a suffix is attached to a verb or an adjective to form a noun (Biber, 2007, p. 319).

Examples: *abnormal – abnormality, effective – effectiveness, agree – agreement, design – designer* (Biber, 2007, p. 319)

Noun derivational suffixes are more productive and also more frequently used than prefixes (Biber, 2007, p. 319).

When a suffix is attached to the base, changes in spelling may occur in some cases (Quirk, 1985, p. 1536).

Examples: *y – i* *friendly – friendliness, happy – happily*
 doubling *red – reddish*
 -e loss *cause – causation*
 simplification *full – fully (= full + ly)*

The most common noun suffixes with examples are listed in alphabetical order in **Appendix 8** (Biber, 2007, p. 321 - 322).

The following paragraphs deal with different groups of suffixes in more details. The grouping is based on Quirk (1985, p. 1548 - 1557).

4.4.1 Noun suffixes

4.4.1.1 Denominal nouns: abstract

Abstract nouns are count or noncount and refer to some status or activity, usually nonmeasurable and nonobservable (Quirk, 1985, p. 247).

Nominal suffixes often derive abstract nouns from verbs, adjectives and nouns. Such abstract nouns describe qualities, properties, activities or results of activities (Plag, 2002, p. 109).

The suffix *-age* is very commonly used and means “collection of”, “measure of”, as in *baggage, mileage* (Biber, 2007, p. 321). It can also express an activity or a result of an activity, as in *coverage, leakage* or locations, as in *orphanage* (Plag, 2002, p. 109).

The suffix *-dom* means “state of being” and forms abstract, uncount nouns from concrete, countable nouns (Bauer, 2000, p. 220).

Examples: *boredom, freedom, stardom* (Biber, 2007, p. 321)

This suffix is not considered very productive, however it is still used in modern English. Examples of recently formed words are: *Dollardom, fagdom, gangsterdom, girlldom* (Bauer, 2000, p. 220).

Plag (2002, p. 112) describes the meaning of the suffix *-ery/-ry* as follows: ‘place where a specific activity is carried out’ or ‘place where a specific article or service is available’. These words have connection with the meaning denoted by the base, as in *bakery, brewery*.

These derivatives can also describe activities or collectivities, as in *robbery, jewellery* and qualities, as in *bravery, savagery* (Biber, 2007, p. 321).

The suffix *-ful* means ‘the amount contained in’ (Quirk, 1985, p. 1548) and has a similar meaning to ‘a lot of’ or ‘a bunch of’ (Plag, 2002, p. 113)

Examples: *handful, cupful, bootful* (Plag, 2002, p. 113)

The suffix *-hood* defines ‘a state’ or ‘collectivity’, as in *childhood, adulthood, beggarhood, Christianhood* (Plag, 2002, p. 113)

Commonly used suffix *-ing* refers to activity or material of which the base is made, as in *cricketing, farming, panelling, carpeting* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1548).

The suffix *-ism* means ‘doctrine of’ or ‘practice of’, as in *Calvinism, idealism, impressionism*. These derivatives are usually connected with politics, religion or philosophy, while the suffix *-ocracy* refers to some type of government, as in *democracy, aristocracy* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1549).

Plag (2002, p. 116) defines the suffix *-ship* as expressing ‘state’ or ‘condition’, as in *friendship, membership, apprenticeship*.

4.4.1.2 Denominal nouns: Concrete

The following noun suffixes combine with noun bases to produce words with concrete meaning (Quirk, 1985, p. 1549)

The suffix *-eer* describes somebody ‘skilled in’ or ‘engaged in’ as in *racketeer, engineer* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1549).

On the other hand, the suffix *-er* has much wider use, it describes a person who participates in a certain event (e.g. *teacher, singer*), denotes various instruments (e.g. *blender, steamer*), or indicates a place of residence of a person (e.g. *Londoner, New Yorker*). *-Er* is often described as a deverbal suffix, however many words are derived on the basis of nouns (e.g. *sealer, whaler*) (Plag, 2002, p. 112).

The suffix *-ess* denotes females (both persons and animals), as in (*princess, stewardess, lioness*) (Plag, 2002, p. 113).

The suffix *-ette* refers to something ‘compact’ (e.g. *kitchenette*), ‘imitation’ (e.g. *leatherette*) or functions as a feminine marker (e.g. *suffragette, usherette*), while the suffix *-let* refers to something ‘small’ or ‘unimportant’, as in *booklet, leaflet, piglet* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1549).

The suffix *-ling* means ‘minor’ or ‘offspring of’, as in *princeling, duckling*. The suffix *-ster* can be explained as ‘involved in’, as in *trickster, gangster* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1549).

4.4.1.3 Deverbal nouns

The following suffixes combine with verbs to produce concrete count nouns, most of which have personal reference (Quirk, 1985, p. 1550)

The suffix *-ant* refers to persons, often in technical or legal field (e.g. *applicant, defendant*) or to substances in chemistry (e.g. *dispersant, suppressant*) (Plag, 2002, p. 110), while the suffix *-ee* describes ‘one who is object of the verb’, as in *appointee, payee* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1550).

The suffix *-er* creates agential nouns (e.g. *singer, writer*), it can be used with phrasal verbs (e.g. *washer-up*). In neo-classical words, the suffix is often spelled *-or* (e.g. *accelerator, incubator*) (Quirk, 1985, p. 1550).

The suffixes *-age, -al, -ation, -ing, -ment* combine with verb bases to form abstract nouns or nominalizations of the action expressed by the base (Quirk, 1985, p. 1550-1551).

Examples: *breakage, coverage, refusal, revival, exploration, foundation, building, opening, arrangement, amazement* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1550-1551)

4.4.1.4 De-adjectival nouns

Abstract nouns are formed from adjective bases by two very common suffixes. These nouns are usually noncount (Quirk, 1985, p. 1551).

The suffix *-ity* is usually associates with adjectives of neo-classical or French origin. Stress change occurs in some cases (Quirk, 1985, p. 1551).

Examples: *e'lastic - ela'sticity, 'rapid - ra'pidity* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1551)

The second suffix is *-ness*, considered as one of the most productive suffixes in English language today. It can be attached to any type of adjective (Bauer, 2000, p. 222; Plag, 2002, p. 116).

Examples: *happiness, usefulness, kindness* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1551)

over-the-top-ness, all-or-nothing-ness (Plag, 2002, p. 116)

4.4.1.5 Noun/ adjective suffixes

The following group of suffixes produce words which can be used both as nouns and as adjectives. The adjectives formed this way are usually non-gradable (Quirk, 1985, p. 1552).

Then suffix *-ese* is used to express language, nationality or race, as in *Chinese, Portuguese, Japanese* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1552).

Nouns with suffix *-an* denote persons and places, as in *technician*, *Bostonian*, *Smithsonian*. All words in this group have stress on the syllable immediately preceding the suffix (Plag, 2002, p. 114).

Examples: *'Hungary - Hun'garian*, *'Egypt - E'gyptian* (Plag, 2002, p. 114)

The suffix *-ist* is used to describe somebody “skilled in” or “practising”, as in *violinist*, *stylist*, *socialist*, while the suffix *-ite* means “adherent to” or “member of”, as in *socialite*, *Benthamite* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1552).

5 Conversion

The following chapter deals with a word-formation process called conversion. This process involves change in word class without changing the form of the word. It is also called “zero derivation” or “transposition”. Some linguists consider conversion as a part of derivation, while others claim it is a separate word-formation process. Conversion is a very highly productive process with virtually no restrictions (Bauer, 2002, p. 32).

Example: *napalm* was always used only as a noun but recently it started to be used as a verb as well. *They decided to napalm the village.* (Bauer, 2000, p. 32).

Conversion belongs to the group of non-concatenative methods of word formation, along with clipping and blending, where no affix is added to the base (Plag, 2002, p. 15).

Bauer (2000, p. 226) considers conversion as “a totally free process”. All word classes are able to undergo conversion and words of all open word classes can be produced in this way. Derived nouns are rarely converted into verbs, if there is a verb which means the same as the derived noun (e.g. the noun *arrival* cannot be used as a verb since there exists a verb *arrive*). This happens due to blocking.

Some derived nouns can be converted into verbs, where blocking is not relevant, as in *to commit – commission – to commission* (Bauer, 2000, p. 227).

There are difficulties when deciding which item is to be viewed as the base and which item is the derivative. This is partly due to the absence of suffixes (Quirk, 1985, p. 1558).

Example: the word *release* which is both a noun and a verb, however it is not clear whether *release* is noun converted to verb or the other way round.

They released him. They ordered his release. (Quirk, 1985, p. 1558)

This chapter describes conversion to nouns. Conversion to other word classes is listed in **Appendix 9.**

5.1 Partial conversion

Quirk (1985, p. 1559) defines partial conversion as a word of one class functioning as a word of another class. This often happens with adjectives functioning as nouns (e.g. *the wealthy* means *wealthy people* in a sentence *The wealthy are always with us*, where the adjective *wealthy* functions as a noun. In cases like this one, the adjective is singular even though the meaning is plural).

5.2. Conversion to noun

Biber (2007, p. 319) claims that only adjectives or verbs can be converted into nouns. Nouns often gain a more specific meaning with the process of conversion.

Deverbal conversion to nouns is used in several different cases. Examples of these are listed in **Appendix 10** (Quirk, 1985, p. 1560).

As is obvious from the examples listed, nouns can be formed from phrasal verbs as well (e.g. *to make-up* - *a make-up*, *to pull over* - *a pullover*, *to black out* - *a blackout*). This type of conversion is called phrasal derivation (Kvetko, 2009, p. 37).

De-adjectival conversion is not very productive. Adjectives replace the noun and describe somebody or something possessing the quality expressed by the adjective (Biber, 2007, p. 319).

Examples: *hopeful* = somebody who is hopeful, as in *presidential hopeful*

white = something which is white, as in *the whites of his eyes* (Biber, 2007, p. 319)

6 Minor word formation methods

The previous chapters described all major noun formation methods. There are other word formation methods which are not very common: these are: back-formation, clipping, blending, acronyms and reduplicatives. They are described in details in **Appendix 11**.

Conclusion

The theoretical part described all major noun formation processes in English (affixation, compounding, conversion). Examples of each were included in each chapter. Minor word formation processes (blending, clipping, acronyms, reduplicatives, back-formation) are listed in **Appendix 11**. The following practical part will investigate the frequency of nouns formed by derivation and compounding.

Practical part

1 Introduction

The following part of this project is a practical one and concentrates on noun formation in English. There are several questions to be answered. Three types of texts were found for the analysis in this project. The texts were analysed to find the frequency of noun formation methods. The results were compared with corpus findings listed in Biber (2007, p. 319 – 327). Biber lists four most common suffixes and the same will be listed in this research. The aim of this research is to find out the frequency of derivatives and compounds in different types of texts, frequency of occurrence of different affixes and structure of compounds.

2 Research

The three texts were analysed separately and then all samples were added and analysed together. The following topics were investigated:

1. What is the occurrence of derivatives and compounds in each text?
2. What is the most common orthographic form of compounds (open, solid, hyphenated) in each text?
3. The structure of compounds – what are the most common elements forming a compound in each text?
4. Which text has the highest occurrence of neo-classical compounds?
5. Which text has the highest occurrence of derivatives?
6. What are the most common suffixes in each text?
7. What are the most common prefixes in each text?
8. What is the most common word-formation method in all three texts together?

3 Texts for analysis

Three different types of texts were selected for this part of the project. Various topics were chosen for the purpose of a more objective research to obtain a wide range of vocabulary from different fields. Newspaper articles deal with different topics, such as politics, economy, finance, crime and social issues. Three hundred sample nouns were collected from each type of text. Samples nouns collected were either derivatives or compounds. Samples of academic texts were obtained from textbooks dealing with linguistics and anthropology. These two topics were chosen in order to obtain a greater variety of samples from different fields. All sample texts were written in British English.

1. Contemporary fiction – short stories by various authors:

Elizabeth Baines: Falling

Charlie Hill: The Allotment

Matthew Licht: Magazine Skin

Simon Collings: Night Flight

Crystal Arbogast: The Cellmate

T. K. Lee: Five Whole Fingers

Wayne Harper: A Betting Man

Nicholas Mathisen: The Mechanic, The Substitute and The Arsonist

Ian McEwan: Atonement (chapter four)

The total length of samples from contemporary fiction was 19485 words.

2. Newspaper articles – various articles from major British online newspapers:

BBC, The Guardian, The Independent, Morning Star, The Telegraph

The topics of newspaper articles were politics, economy, social issues, crime and education. The total length of all articles was 11880 words.

BBC:

Paul Adams: Ukraine troops retreat from key town of Debaltseve

Roger Harrabin: Flood defending 'insufficient', NAO warns

Jeanette Winterson: Manchester Malmaison hotel's images condemned as sexist

Philip Mann: Gloucester man jailed for microwaving rabbit to death

Chris Doidge: Unite warns Rolls-Royce over Derby job losses

Clive Coleman: Tribunal rules obese employees in Northern Ireland can get disability rights

Vince Cable: Miliband in 'apprenticeship guarantee' for school leavers

Simon Cox: The men who smuggle the loot that funds IS

Phil Gooding: UK inflation rate falls to record low of 0.3% in January

The Guardian:

Owen Bowcott: UK prisoners banned from voting not entitled to compensation

Severin Carrell: Scottish councils claim government-imposed teacher freeze is illegal

Roy Greenslade: Murdoch's UK papers upbeat as threat of US phone hacking prosecution lifted

Katie Allen: UK growth to pick up as cheaper oil cheers consumers, CBI says

Nicholas Watt: David Cameron urges business leaders to offer pay rises in bid to thwart Labour

The Independent:

Charlie Cooper: Hinchingsbrooke Hospital: Britain's only privately run NHS hospital appeals for £10m taxpayer-funded bailout

Morning Star:

Joana Ramiro: Gallery staff refuse to stay silent

The Telegraph:

Anna White: Landlords to blame for Britain's rising house prices

Alan Tovey: Rolls-Royce caught up in Petrobras bribery claims

Denise Roland: Japan recovers from recession in fourth quarter

3. Academic text – linguistics and anthropology textbooks:

Ingo Plag: Word-formation in English

R. S. Ginzburg: A Course in Modern English Lexicology

Georges Balandier: Political Anthropology

The total length of samples from academic literature was 10085 words.

4 Methods of text analysis

All three types of texts were carefully read and three hundred samples were collected from each. Only common nouns were counted while proper nouns were not included in this research. Nouns are explained in chapters 2.1 and 2.2. Nouns formed by different word formation methods (derivation, compounding) were counted and examples of each were listed. The findings were given in actual amounts of occurrence. All results were organised into tables and compared with corpus findings listed in Biber (2007, p. 319 – 327).

First, a list was formed from each type of text. The three hundred sample nouns were organised in alphabetical order. The list included only nouns which could be used for this research, meaning only nouns formed by affixation and compounding were included. The nouns were then divided into two groups: derivatives and compounds. Derivatives were further divided according to their prefixes and suffixes. They were also grouped according to what word class they were attached to (verb, adjective, noun). Compounds were divided based on what word class they were formed of.

5 Results

To begin this research, large texts had to be examined to collect three hundred suitable samples, since most of the nouns occur in their base form and thus could not be used for this research. The following table shows the total amount of noun samples collected from each text. Only derivative and compound nouns were counted.

Table 1: Amount of total words and sample nouns collected

	Contemporary fiction	Newspaper	Academic text
Total words	19485	11880	10085
Total sample nouns	429	704	667
Nouns without repetition	300	300	300

As is obvious from the table, the highest repetition occurs in newspaper articles and academic texts. The reason for this is that academic texts and newspaper articles usually deal with a certain topic and the vocabulary repeats. On the other hand, fiction texts have a story that evolves and new vocabulary is necessary, since new events occur throughout the story and thus new words are needed to describe new actions happening. The next step was to count all suffixed and prefixed nouns and compounds in the three texts. The findings are listed in Table 2 below.

Table 2: The frequency of affixation and compounding in three texts.

	Contemporary fiction	Newspaper	Academic text
Suffixation	179	249	263
Prefixation	17	19	38
Compounding	108	38	28

Certain words had both prefixes and suffixes. That is why the total is more than three hundred. As is obvious, academic texts and newspaper articles have much higher occurrence of suffixation than contemporary fiction. On the other hand, contemporary fiction has the highest occurrence of compounds.

Suffixation is much more frequent than prefixation. The same is also stated by Biber (2007, p. 319). Majority of prefixes come from foreign languages (Greek or Latin) and are not commonly used (Biber, 2007, p. 324).

Nouns are formed by adding a suffix to either a verb, an adjective or another noun. Noun suffixation is explained in details in chapter 4.4 of this work. Samples from all three texts were analysed and divided into groups according to what word class the suffix was added to.

Table 3: Structure of suffixed nouns:

	Contemporary fiction	Newspaper	Academic text
Verb + suffix	118	187	192
Adjective + suffix	40	43	58
Noun + suffix	21	19	13

A conclusion can be made that most of the derived nouns are derived from verbs. Deverbal suffixes are described in chapter 4.4.1.3. Suffixation often changes word class as was discussed in chapter 4.4. The majority of derived nouns are derived from verbs or adjectives (Biber, 2007, p. 319).

Compound nouns were counted from each text sample and divided into groups according to their internal structure. Different word classes can be combined together to form a noun compound. Noun compounding is described in details in chapter 3.1 of this work.

Table 4: The structure of compound nouns in all three texts.

	Contemporary fiction	Newspaper	Academic text
Noun + noun	90	27	21
Adjective + noun	17	3	1
other	1	6	1

Contemporary fiction has the highest occurrence of compound nouns (108), followed by newspaper (38) and academic text (28). The most frequent compound structure is *noun + noun* in all three texts. The same conclusion was made by Biber (2007, p. 326).

Examples of noun + noun compounds:

Contemporary fiction: *armpit, ashtray, bathroom, cellmate, doorknob, doorpost, driveway, eyelid, hallway, landline, mailman, nightgown, pipeline*

Newspaper: *aircraft, battleground, benchmark, classroom, earring, guesthouse, landmark, newspaper, policeman, saucepan, stonework, workplace*

Academic text: *borderline, classroom, coursework, field-work, framework, headline, mankind, soundform, textbook, viewpoint, word-form, wordgroup*

6 Analysis of contemporary fiction samples

The following chapter deals with facts collected from contemporary fiction text. Complete list of suffixes, prefixes and compounds is shown in **appendix 12**.

6.1 Suffixation

The total of 179 suffixed nouns were found in contemporary fiction samples. Majority of these were formed from verb (118), less from adjectives (40) and only 21 derivatives were formed from another noun. Most of the derivative nouns are formed from verbs, followed by derivation from adjectives. The total of 26 different suffixes were found.

The most frequently occurring deverbal suffixes were: *-tion* (59x), *-er/-or* (20x), *-ing* (17x), *-ment* (10x) and *-ance/-ence* (5x). Deverbal suffixes *-tion* and *-ing* are dealt with in chapter 4.4.1.3. The suffix *-er* mostly refers to a concrete noun as was mentioned in chapter 4.4.1.2.

Examples: *accomplishment, admiration, beginning, decorator, difference*

The most common de-adjectival suffixes were *-ness* (16x), *-ity* (13x) and *-ance/-ence* (9x).

Examples: *darkness, fertility, presence*

The suffix *-ness* has the highest occurrence in fiction texts, since it expresses states of mind frequent mostly in fiction texts (Biber, 2007, p. 323). De-adjectival suffixes are explained in details in chapter 4.4.1.4.

Noun suffixation by adding a suffix to another noun is not very frequent. The most often occurring denominal suffixes were: *-er* (4x), *-ship* (4x) and *-ist* (3x). The suffix *-er* and *-ist* are used to form concrete nouns, while prefix *-ship* forms abstract nouns. Denominal suffixes are described in details in chapters 4.4.1.1 and 4.4.1.2.

Examples: *arsonist, farmer, ownership*

The most frequently repeated derivative or compound nouns in contemporary fiction samples were: *attention* (5x), *collection* (4x), *conversation* (6x), *driver* (4x), *hallway* (5x), *presence* (5x), *teacher* (4x), *visitor* (5x), *weekend* (3x)

6.2 Prefixation

Out of 300 hundred samples, only 17 nouns had a prefix. The total of 9 different prefixes were found. The most frequent prefixes were: *dis-* (3x), *in-* (3x), *out-* (3x), *un-* (2x).

Examples: *disgrace, indecision, outsider, unhappiness*

Noun prefixation is explained in chapter 4.2. Majority of prefixes used were negative prefixes (e.g. *dis-*, *in-*, *un-*) which are described in chapter 4.1.1. Prefix *out-* refers to degree or size and was explained in chapter 4.1.4.

6.3 Compounding

Compounds occurred in contemporary fiction samples more than in newspaper and academic texts. The total of 108 compounds were found. Majority of them consisted of *noun* + *noun* combination, followed by *adjective* + *noun*. One sample of *noun* + *preposition* was found. Structure of noun compounds is explained in chapter 3.1 of this work. The most frequent combination *noun* + *noun* is dealt with in chapter 3.1.1.

Examples: *afternoon, aircraft, highway*

The majority of compounds (74x) were solid compounds (e.g. *boardroom, doorpost*), open compounds occurred 27 times (e.g. *cash register, heart attack*). Hyphenated compounds had the lowest occurrence (7x) (e.g. *shirt-pocket, work-shirt*). Chapter 3 deals with different compound forms.

7 Analysis of newspaper article samples

Next chapter investigates occurrence of affixes and compounds in newspaper articles. Complete list of suffixes, prefixes and compounds is shown in **appendix 13**.

7.1 Suffixation

The total of 249 suffixed nouns were found in newspaper articles. Majority of these were formed from verb (187), less from adjectives (43) and only 19 derivatives were formed from another noun. The total of 31 different suffixes were found.

The most frequently occurring deverbal suffixes were: *-tion* (53x), *-er/-or* (38x), *-ing* (38x), *-ment* (22x), *-ance/-ence* (10x). Deverbal suffixes are explained in chapter 4.4.1.3.

Examples: *buyer, compensation, flooding, government, insurance*

De-adjectival suffixes had a lower occurrence than deverbal suffixes. The most common were: *-ity* (20x), *-ance/-ence* (7x) and *-ness* (5x). De-adjectival suffixes are explained in details in chapter 4.4.1.4.

Examples: *capability, reluctance, unfairness*

Denominal suffixes had the lowest occurrence. The most common of them were: *-er* (3x), *-ship* (3x) and *-ist* (2x). Denominal nouns are described in details in chapters 4.4.1.1 and 4.4.1.2. The suffixes *-er* and *-ist* form concrete nouns, while suffix *-ship* is used to form abstract nouns.

Examples: *journalist, leadership, prisoner*

The most frequently repeated derivative or compound nouns in the newspaper articles were: *apprenticeship* (13x), *business* (13x), *consumer* (8x), *election* (14x), *government* (27x), *inflation* (8x), *management* (6x), *prisoner* (13x), *spending* (10x), *teacher* (14x), *worker* (12x)

7.2 Prefixation

19 prefixed nouns with 10 different prefixes were found in the newspaper articles. The most frequent prefixes were: *re-* (4x), *un-* (4x), *in-* (3x), *micro-* (2x). Noun prefixation is explained in chapter 4.2. Negative prefixes have higher occurrence and are explained in chapter 4.1.1.

Examples: *inequality*, *microwave*, *repayment*, *unlawfulness*

7.3 Compounding

Out of 300 sample nouns, 38 compounds were collected. Most of them were formed by *noun + noun* combination (27x) (e.g. *battleground*, *earring*). This structure is the most frequent one in all three texts. Other found structures were: *adjective + noun* (3x), *verb + noun* (2x), *verb + particle* (4x), *neo-classical* (2x).

Examples: *bailout*, *ceasefire*, *high-earner*, *telephone*

Solid compounds occurred more frequently (35x) (e.g. *railroad*, *stonework*) than hyphenated compounds (2x) (e.g. *high-earner*, *middle-man*). One open compound was found (e.g. *police station*). Structure of noun compounds is described in chapter 3.1 of this work.

8 Analysis of academic text samples

The following chapter lists findings from academic text samples. Complete list of suffixes, prefixes and compounds is shown in **appendix 14**.

8.1 Suffixation

The total of 263 suffixed nouns were found in academic text samples. Majority of these were formed from verbs (192), less from adjectives (58) and only 13 derivatives were formed from another noun. 19 different suffixes were found.

The most frequent deverbal suffixes were *-tion* (112x), *-er/-or* (24x), *-ing* (21x), *-ment* (13x) and *-ance/-ence* (13x). Deverbal suffixes are discussed in chapter 4.4.1.3.

Examples: *action*, *argument*, *finding*, *holder*

De-adjectival suffixes occur less frequently than deverbal suffixes. The most common were *-ity* (28x), *-ism* (9x), *-ness* (8x) and *-ance/-ence* (7x). De-adjectival suffixes are discussed in chapter 4.4.1.4.

Examples: *ability, colonialism, consciousness, performance*

The most frequent denominal suffixes were *-ship* (4x), *-ist* (3x) and *-ism* (2x). Denominal nouns are described in details in chapters 4.4.1.1 and 4.4.1.2.

Examples: *despotism, membership, scientist*

Biber (2007, p. 323) lists the following suffixes as the most frequent in academic text (in order of frequency): *-tion, -ity, -er, -ness, -ism, -ment*. Based on my research, the following six suffixes were the most frequent (in order of frequency): *-tion* (112), *-ity* (28), *-er* (24), *-ing* (21), *-ment* (13), *-ance/-ence* (13).

Most of the derived nouns in academic texts refer to abstract matters (e.g. *expression, generalization*). Formation of abstract nouns is dealt with in chapter 4.4.1.1.

The most frequently repeated derivative or compound nouns in the academic text samples were: *classification* (5x), *combination* (10x), *definition* (8x), *description* (9x), *development* (14x), *existence* (8x), *meaning* (9x), *relation* (7x)

8.2 Prefixation

Academic texts had the highest occurrence of prefixed nouns. The total of 38 samples were found with 14 different prefixes. Noun prefixation is explained in chapter 4.2. The most frequently occurring prefixes were: *in-* (7x), *dis-* (5x), *inter-* (5x), *sub-* (3x), *pre-* (3x). Negative prefixes occur more frequently than other types of prefixes. These are *dis-*, *in-* and its variants. Negative prefixes are explained in chapter 4.1.1. Academic texts had the highest occurrence of prefixes of foreign origin (Latin or Greek), such as *inter-*, *micro-*, *multi-*, *sub-*.

Examples: *disagreement, instability, interconnection, preoccupation, subgroup*

8.3 Compounding

28 compounds were found in academic text. Most of them (21) were formed by *noun + noun* (e.g. *borderline, coursework*). One sample of *adjective + noun* combination was found (e.g. *stepping-stone*). 6 neo-classical compounds were found (e.g. *lexicology, morphology*). Neo-classical compounds are explained in details in chapter 3.3 of this work.

Most of the compounds occurred in solid form (22x) (e.g. *classroom, footnote*), 6 samples of hyphenated compounds were found (e.g. *field-work, word-form*). Different compound

forms are described in chapter 3. Majority of compounds in academic text refer to abstract matters (e.g. *viewpoint*, *wordhood*).

9 Analysis of all three texts together

The total of 900 sample nouns were collected for this research (300 from each type of text). Repeated nouns were deleted from the total list and 796 nouns were left.

The most common suffixes were: *-tion* (179x), *-er/-or* (75x), *-ing* (66x), *-ity* (53x), *-ance/-ence* (41x), *-ment* (37x), *-ness* (27x)

The compound structure occurring most frequently was *noun + noun* combination, followed by *adjective + noun* combination (21x). Different compound structures are explained in chapter 3.1.

Complete list of all suffixes, prefixes and compounds can be viewed in **Appendix 15**.

10 Summary of the research

The aim of this research was to answer several questions concerning noun formation in English. Each of the questions deal with a certain matter concerning derivation or compounding.

1. What is the occurrence of derivatives and compounds in each text?

Compounding and derivation are the two most common noun formation methods according to Biber (2007, p. 319). Higher occurrence of derivatives was found in newspaper (262) and academic text (272), while contemporary fiction had only 192 derivatives. Derivation is explained in details in chapter 4. Compounds were found more frequently in fiction (108) and less in newspaper (38) and academic text (28). Compound formation is dealt with in chapter 3.

2. What is the most common orthographic form of compounds (open, solid, hyphenated) in each text?

Solid compounds have the highest occurrence in all three texts examined (74 in fiction, 35 in newspaper and 22 in academic text). Fiction text has the highest occurrence of solid compounds and the vast majority of these consist of two nouns due to flexibility of such compounds to express virtually anything. Compounds enable speakers to use a greater variety of vocabulary.

Open compounds occurred less frequently, 27x in fiction, 1x in newspaper. Hyphenated compounds occurred 7x in fiction, 2x in newspaper and 6x in academic text. Different compound forms are described in chapter 3.1.

Examples of different compound forms:

Solid compounds: *benchmark, classroom, headline, railroad, workplace*

Open compounds: *air conditioning, diving board, fire truck, steering wheel*

Hyphenated compounds: *air-stream, ice-cream, middle-man, street-light, word-form*

Compounds in contemporary fiction usually refer to concrete objects, such as *doorknob, nightgown*, while in newspaper and academic texts they usually have an abstract meaning, such as *borderline, benchmark, viewpoint*. The reason for this is that fiction usually describes concrete objects while newspaper and academic texts deals with more abstract matters.

3. The structure of compounds – what are the most common elements forming a compound in each text?

The combination *noun + noun* is the most common in all three texts, followed by combination *adjective + noun*. Fiction texts had the highest occurrence of noun compounds.

Noun + noun is the most frequent structure of compounds (Biber, 2007, p. 326). *Noun + noun* compounds are dealt with in chapter 3.1.1.

Compounds of *noun + noun* structure occurred 94x in fiction (out of 108 compounds), 29x in news (out of 38 compounds) and 21x in academic text (out of 28 compounds). Structure *adjective + noun* occurred most in fiction text (13x).

Other structures occurring were: *verb + particle* (4x), *verb + noun* (2x), *noun + preposition* (1x). These structures occur in newspaper articles.

Examples of word classes forming noun compounds:

Noun + noun: *board room, counter top, doorknob, headquarter, stonework*

Adjective + noun: *washing-machine, stepping-stone, high-earner, newcomer*

Other: *afternoon, bailout, feedback, outlook, slowdown*

4. Which text has the highest occurrence of neo-classical compounds?

Based on my findings, academic texts have the highest occurrence of neo-classical compounds. The reason for this is that academic texts often discuss topics connected with science and technology. Neo-classical compounds are explained in chapter 3.3.

Examples: *anthropology* (3x), *lexicology* (3x), *morphology* (1x), *philosophy* (1x), *technology* (1x), *terminology* (1x)

5. Which text has the highest occurrence of derivatives?

Academic texts have the highest occurrence of derivative nouns (272), followed by newspaper (262). Contemporary fiction has the lowest occurrence of derivative nouns (192). Suffixes are much more frequent than prefixes. Most of the derived nouns are formed from verbs and adjectives. Noun derivation is explained in chapter 4 of this work. Majority of derivatives in academic texts denote abstract matters (e.g. *complexity*, *disagreement*, *specification*). Abstract noun formation is described in chapter 4.4.1.1.

Some words had both a suffix and a prefix. Academic texts had the highest occurrence of such words.

Examples: *disagreement*, *interconnection*, *interdependence*, *misunderstanding*, *reconsideration*, *uncertainty*

6. What are the most common suffixes in each text?

Suffixes *-tion*, *-er/-or*, *-ing* had the highest frequency over all. The suffix *-tion* is considered by Biber (2007, p. 323) as the most productive suffix. Suffix *-er* refers to concrete nouns which are explained in chapter 4.4.1.2. On the other hand, suffixes *-ant*, *-age*, *-ist*, *-hood* had the lowest occurrence in all three texts.

The following suffixes had the highest occurrence in contemporary fiction: *-tion* (59), *-er/-or* (20x), *-ing* (17x), *-ness* (16x).

Examples: *affection*, *farmer*, *painting*, *politeness*

Newspaper articles had the highest occurrence of suffixes *-tion* (53x), *-ing* (38x), *-er/-or* (38x), *-ment* (22x). These are called deverbal suffixes and are explained in chapter 4.4.1.3.

Examples: *aspiration*, *decorator*, *investment*, *training*

In the academic text, the following suffixes were found most frequently: *-tion* (112x), *-ity* (28x), *-er/-or* (24x), *-ing* (21x).

Examples: *centralization*, *equality*, *initiator*, *warning*

Suffixes *-tion*, *-ing*, *-ness* and *-ment* usually denote abstract matters, while suffix *-er/-or* forms a concrete noun, usually a person or instrument (e.g. *decorator*, *gardener*, *trainer*). Formation of abstract and concrete nouns is explained in chapters 4.4.1.1 and 4.4.1.2.

7. What are the most common prefixes in each text?

Academic text contained more prefixed nouns (38) than newspaper text (19) and fiction text samples (17). Prefixes are much less productive than suffixes. Most of the prefixes are of Greek or Latin origin and are used mostly in academic literature. The most productive noun

prefixes are *sub-* and *co-* (Biber, 2007, p. 323). These prefixes were found in this research but they were not the most frequent ones. The highest occurrence was in the academic text (e.g. *cooperation, subcontinent, subdivision*).

Frequently occurring prefixes in fiction were *dis-* (3x), *in-* (3x) and *out-* (3x)

Examples: *disgrace, indifference, outsider*

In newspaper articles, the following prefixes were found: *re-* (4x), *un-* (4x) and *in-* (3x).

Examples: *insecurity, retrial, uncertainty*

The most frequent prefixes in academic texts were *in-* (7x), *dis-* (5x) and *inter-* (5x).

Examples: *disadvantage, inaccuracy, interconnection*

Most of the prefixes found are negative: *dis-*, *un-*, *-in* and its variants *il-*, *ir-*, *im-*. Negative prefixes are dealt with in chapter 4.1.1.

8. What is the most common word-formation method in all three texts together?

Derivation was by far more frequent word formation method than compounding. Out of 796 nouns, 588 nouns were suffixed and 72 were prefixed. There were 166 compound nouns out of the total of 796 nouns. The total is more than 796 due to the fact that certain nouns had both a suffix and a prefix. Appendix 15 lists suffixes, prefixes and compound structures found in all three texts.

Conclusion

The theoretical part described different methods of noun formation. First, the definition and function of nouns was explained. Each chapter explained one word formation method and examples of each were given.

The practical part concentrated on word formation. The research dealt with noun formation in English. The aim was to find the frequency of derivative and compound nouns. The research investigated occurrence of different suffixes and prefixes. Compounds were examined to find out what word classes usually form compound nouns. Examples of each were included. Samples were collected from three different types of texts. Newspaper articles, contemporary fiction and academic texts were used for this research.

Derivation was more frequent than compounding in all three texts. Suffixes occur more frequently than prefixes. The suffix *-tion* was the most frequent suffix used in all text samples. Academic text had the highest occurrence of this suffix. Majority of suffixes were attached to verbs to form nouns. The research proved that prefixes were not as frequent as suffixes. Academic text had the highest occurrence of prefixes. This is due to the fact that most of the prefixes are of a foreign origin Biber (2007, p. 324) and academic texts have the highest occurrence of foreign words.

The most frequent structure of noun compounds was a combination noun + noun, followed by adjective + noun structure. Contemporary fiction had the highest occurrence of compounds and they usually describe concrete objects. Majority of compounds were written as one word (solid compound). Hyphenated or open form was not used very frequently.

The research is based on text selection. Results could have been slightly different if different texts were used. Larger text samples could provide more precise results.

The knowledge of noun formation and word formation in general is useful when learning English as a foreign language. The research done in this work provides better understanding of word formation for students and teachers alike. This work helps to understand the matter of noun formation in English and provides an overview of occurrence of nouns formed by different methods. More research can be done to investigate other noun formation methods, such as conversion and minor word formation processes (blending, clipping, backformation).

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Theoretical part:

ADAMS, Valerie. *An Introduction to Modern English Word-formation*. London and New York: Longman, 1997. 230 s. ISBN 0-582-55042-4.

BAUER, Laurie. *English Word-formation*. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press, 2000. 310 s. ISBN 0-521-24167-7.

BAUER, Laurie. *Introducing Linguistic Morphology*. Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Press, 2003. 366 s. ISBN 0-87840-343-4.

BIBER, Douglas, et al. *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*. England: Pearson Education Limited, 2007. 1204 s. ISBN 978-0-582-23725-4.

HUDDLESTON, Rodney. *A Student's Introduction to English Grammar*. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press, 2007. 312 s. ISBN 978-0-521-84837-4.

JACKSON, Howard; ZÉ AMVELA, Etienne. *Words, Meaning and Vocabulary : An Introduction to Modern English Lexicology*. London: Continuum, 2007. 248 s. ISBN 0-8264-9018-2.

KVETKO, Pavol. *English Lexicology*. Trnava: Univerzita sv. Cyrila a Metoda v Trnave, 2009. 203 s. ISBN 978-80-8105-110-4.

PLAG, Ingo. *Word-formation in English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2002. 255 s. ISBN 0-521-52563-2.

QUIRK, Randolph, et al. *A comprehensive grammar of the English language*. United Kingdom: Longman Group Limited, 1985. 1779 s. ISBN 0-582-51734-6.

ŠTEKAUER, Pavol. *Rudiments of English Linguistics*. 1. vyd. Prešov: Slovacontact, 2000. 332 s. ISBN 80-88876-04-4.

TODD, Loreto. *An Introduction to Linguistics*. University of Leeds: York Press, 1987. 136 s. ISBN 0-582-79293-2.

Practical part:

BIBER, Douglas, et al. *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*. England: Pearson Education Limited, 2007. 1204 s. ISBN 978-0-582-23725-4.

Fiction:

McEWAN, Ian. *Atonement*. United Kingdom: Random House, 2001. 371 s. ISBN ISBN 0-224-06252-2.

BAINES, E. Falling. [online]. [cit. 2015-10-02].

Dostupné na WWW: <<http://www.eastoftheweb.com/short-stories/UBooks/Fall936.shtml>>.

HILL, C. The Allotment. [online]. [cit. 2015-13-02].

Dostupné na WWW: <<http://www.eastoftheweb.com/short-stories/UBooks/Allo940.shtml>>.

LICHT, M. Magazine Skin. [online]. [cit. 2015-12-02].

Dostupné na WWW: <<http://www.eastoftheweb.com/short-stories/UBooks/MagaSkin943.shtml>>.

COLLINGS, S. Night Flight. [online]. [cit. 2015-12-02].

Dostupné na WWW: <<http://www.eastoftheweb.com/short-stories/UBooks/NighFlig927.shtml>>.

ARBOGAST, C. The Cellmate. [online]. [cit. 2015-14-02].

Dostupné na WWW: <<http://www.eastoftheweb.com/short-stories/UBooks/Cel.shtml>>.

LEE, T.K. Five Whole Fingers. [online]. [cit. 2015-15-02].

Dostupné na WWW: <<http://www.eastoftheweb.com/short-stories/UBooks/FiveWhol924.shtml>>.

HARPER, W. A Betting Man. [online]. [cit. 2015-13-02].

Dostupné na WWW: <<http://www.eastoftheweb.com/short-stories/UBooks/BettMan728.shtml>>.

MATHISEN, N. The Mechanic, The Substitute and The Arsonist [online]. [cit. 2015-13-02].

Dostupné na WWW: <<http://www.eastoftheweb.com/short-stories/UBooks/MechSubs.shtml>>.

News articles:

ADAMS, P. Ukraine troops retreat from key town of Debaltseve [online]. [cit. 2015-18-02].

Dostupné na WWW: <<http://www.bbc.com/news/world-europe-31519000>>.

HARRABIN, R. Flood defending 'insufficient', NAO warns [online]. [cit. 2014-05-11].

Dostupné na WWW: <<http://www.bbc.com/news/uk-politics-29902472>>.

WINTERSON, J. Manchester Malmaison hotel's images condemned as sexist [online]. [cit. 2014-04-11].

Dostupné na WWW: <<http://www.bbc.com/news/uk-england-manchester-29881147>>.

MANN, P. Gloucester man jailed for microwaving rabbit to death [online]. [cit. 2014-05-11].

Dostupné na WWW: <<http://www.bbc.com/news/uk-england-gloucestershire-29912065>>.

DOIDGE, C. Unite warns Rolls-Royce over Derby job losses [online]. [cit. 2014-05-11].

Dostupné na WWW: <<http://www.bbc.com/news/uk-england-derbyshire-29903141>>.

COLEMAN, C. Tribunal rules obese employees in Northern Ireland can get disability rights [online]. [cit. 2015-10-02].

Dostupné na WWW: <<http://www.bbc.com/news/uk-northern-ireland-31360757>>.

CABLE, V. Miliband in 'apprenticeship guarantee' for school leavers [online]. [cit. 2015-16-02].

Dostupné na WWW: <<http://www.bbc.com/news/uk-politics-31483886>>.

COX, S. The men who smuggle the loot that funds IS [online]. [cit. 2015-17-02].

Dostupné na WWW: <<http://www.bbc.com/news/magazine-31485439>>.

GOODING, P. UK inflation rate falls to record low of 0.3% in January [online]. [cit. 2015-17-02].

Dostupné na WWW: <<http://www.bbc.com/news/business-31501805>>.

BOWCOTT, O. UK prisoners banned from voting not entitled to compensation [online]. [cit. 2015-10-02].

Dostupné na WWW: <<http://www.theguardian.com/society/2015/feb/10/uk-prisoner-voting-ban-breached-human-rights-european-court-rules>>.

CARRELL, S. Scottish councils claim government-imposed teacher freeze is illegal [online]. [cit. 2015-16-02].

Dostupné na WWW: <<http://www.theguardian.com/uk-news/2015/feb/16/scottish-councils-claim-government-imposed-teacher-freeze-is-illegal>>.

GREENSLADE, R. Murdoch's UK papers upbeat as threat of US phone hacking prosecution lifted [online]. [cit. 2015-16-02].

Dostupné na WWW: <<http://www.theguardian.com/media/greenslade/2015/feb/16/murdochs-papers-threat-phone-hacking-prosecution-lifted>>.

ALLEN, K. : UK growth to pick up as cheaper oil cheers consumers, CBI says [online]. [cit. 2015-16-02].

Dostupné na WWW: <<http://www.theguardian.com/business/2015/feb/16/uk-growth-oil-cbi-business-business-falling-costs>>.

WATT, N. David Cameron urges business leaders to offer pay rises in bid to thwart Labour [online]. [cit. 2015-10-02].

Dostupné na WWW: <<http://www.theguardian.com/politics/2015/feb/10/david-cameron-urges-business-pay-rises-thwart-labour>>.

COOPER, C. Hinchingsbrooke Hospital: Britain's only privately run NHS hospital appeals for £10m taxpayer-funded bailout [online]. [cit. 2015-10-02].

Dostupné na WWW: <<http://www.independent.co.uk/life-style/health-and-families/health-news/hinchingsbrooke-hospital-britains-only-privately-run-nhs-hospital-appeals-for-10m-taxpayerfunded-bailout-10037083.html>>.

RAMIRO, J. Gallery staff refuse to stay silent [online]. [cit. 2015-09-02].

Dostupné na WWW: <<http://www.morningstaronline.co.uk/a-8b1f-Gallery-staff-refuse-to-staysilent#.VNpkimB0xjo>>.

WHITE, A. Landlords to blame for Britain's rising house prices [online]. [cit. 2015-16-02].

Dostupné na WWW: <<http://www.telegraph.co.uk/finance/property/house-prices/11414643/House-asking-prices-rise-as-buy-to-let-blocks-up-supply.html>>.

TOVEY, A. Rolls-Royce caught up in Petrobras bribery claims [online]. [cit. 2015-16-02].
Dostupné na WWW:
<<http://www.telegraph.co.uk/finance/newsbysector/industry/engineering/11415194/Rolls-Royce-caught-up-in-Petrobras-bribery-claims.html>>.

ROLAND, D. Japan recovers from recession in fourth quarter [online]. [cit. 2015-16-02].
Dostupné na WWW: <<http://www.telegraph.co.uk/finance/economics/11414919/Japan-recovers-from-recession-in-fourth-quarter.html>>.

Academic prose:

PLAG, Ingo. *Word-formation in English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2002. 255 s. ISBN 0-521-52563-2.

GINSBURG, R.S. *A Course in Modern English Lexicology*. Moscow: Higher school publishing house, 1979. 270 s. ISBN 5-7107-2096-8.

BALANDIER, Georges. *Political anthropology*. Middlesex, England: Penguin Books, 1972, 214 s. ISBN 03-947-1818-6.

List of Appendices

- Appendix 1: Examples of Affixes (Jackson, Ze Amvela, 2007, p. 88 - 91)
- Appendix 2: Examples of stress changes (Quirk, 1985, p. 1591, Bauer, 2000, p. 112)
- Appendix 3: Examples of Prefixes (Kvetko, 2009, p. 35 - 36)
- Appendix 4: Examples of Prefixes (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1540 - 1546)
- Appendix 5: Examples of noun prefixation (Biber, 2007, p. 320)
- Appendix 6: Suffixation of word classes other than nouns
- Appendix 7: Examples of suffixation (Kvetko, 2009, p. 33 - 34)
- Appendix 8: Examples of noun suffixation (Biber, 2007, p. 321 - 322)
- Appendix 9: Conversion of word classes other than nouns
- Appendix 10: Examples of deverbal conversion to nouns (Quirk, 1985, p. 1560)
- Appendix 11: Minor Word Formation methods
- Appendix 12: Analysis of contemporary fiction
- Appendix 13: Analysis of newspaper articles
- Appendix 14: Analysis of academic text
- Appendix 15: Analysis of all three texts together

Appendix 1: Examples of Affixes (Jackson, Ze Amvela, 2007, p. 88-91)

verb	+ affix	noun
<i>leak</i>	<i>-age</i>	<i>leakage</i>
<i>argu(e)</i>	<i>-ment</i>	<i>argument</i>
<i>betray</i>	<i>-al</i>	<i>betrayal</i>
<i>resign</i>	<i>-ation</i>	<i>resignation</i>
<i>defen(d)</i>	<i>-ce</i>	<i>defence</i>
<i>disturb</i>	<i>-ance</i>	<i>disturbance</i>
<i>refer</i>	<i>-ee</i>	<i>referee</i>
<i>depart</i>	<i>-ure</i>	<i>departure</i>
<i>consult</i>	<i>-ant</i>	<i>consultant</i>
<i>farm</i>	<i>-er</i>	<i>farmer</i>
<i>enquir(e)</i>	<i>-y</i>	<i>enquiry</i>
<i>brag</i>	<i>-art</i>	<i>braggart</i>
<i>conclud(e)</i>	<i>-ion</i>	<i>conclusion</i>
<i>im 'port</i>	<i>(stress change)</i>	<i>'import</i>

adjective	+ affix	noun
<i>accurat(e)</i>	<i>-y</i>	<i>accuracy</i>
<i>social</i>	<i>-ist</i>	<i>socialist</i>
<i>electric</i>	<i>-ity</i>	<i>electricity</i>
<i>free</i>	<i>-dom</i>	<i>freedom</i>
<i>good</i>	<i>-ness</i>	<i>goodness</i>
<i>tru(e)</i>	<i>-th</i>	<i>truth</i>
<i>social</i>	<i>-ite</i>	<i>socialite</i>

noun	+affix	verb
<i>fright</i>	<i>-en</i>	<i>frighten</i>
<i>pressur(e)</i>	<i>-ize</i>	<i>pressurize</i>
<i>friend</i>	<i>be-</i>	<i>befriend</i>
<i>glory</i>	<i>-fy</i>	<i>glorify</i>
<i>title</i>	<i>en-</i>	<i>entitle</i>

adjective	+ affix	verb
<i>soft</i>	<i>-en</i>	<i>soften</i>
<i>able</i>	<i>en-</i>	<i>enable</i>
<i>pur(e)</i>	<i>-ify</i>	<i>purify</i>
<i>legal</i>	<i>-ize</i>	<i>legalize</i>

noun	+ affix	adjective
<i>season</i>	<i>-al</i>	<i>seasonal</i>
<i>wretch</i>	<i>-ed</i>	<i>wretched</i>
<i>care</i>	<i>-less</i>	<i>careless</i>
<i>suburb</i>	<i>-an</i>	<i>suburban</i>
<i>gold</i>	<i>-en</i>	<i>golden</i>
<i>life</i>	<i>-like</i>	<i>lifelike</i>
<i>hope</i>	<i>-ful</i>	<i>hopeful</i>
<i>day</i>	<i>-ly</i>	<i>daily</i>
<i>station</i>	<i>-ary</i>	<i>stationary</i>
<i>fam(e)</i>	<i>-ous</i>	<i>famous</i>
<i>passion</i>	<i>-ate</i>	<i>passionate</i>
<i>child</i>	<i>-ish</i>	<i>childish</i>
<i>cream</i>	<i>-y</i>	<i>creamy</i>

verb	+ affix	adjective
<i>argu(e)</i>	<i>-able</i>	<i>arguable</i>
<i>creat(e)</i>	<i>-ive</i>	<i>creative</i>
<i>depend</i>	<i>-ent</i>	<i>dependent</i>
<i>sens(e)</i>	<i>-ory</i>	<i>sensory</i>
<i>tire</i>	<i>-some</i>	<i>tiresome</i>

adjective	+ affix	adverb
<i>consistent</i>	<i>-ly</i>	<i>consistently</i>
<i>slow</i>	<i>-ly</i>	<i>slowly</i>
<i>obvious</i>	<i>-ly</i>	<i>obviously</i>

noun	+ affix	adverb
<i>home</i>	<i>-ward</i>	<i>homeward</i>
<i>sky</i>	<i>-wards</i>	<i>skywards</i>
<i>clock</i>	<i>-wise</i>	<i>clockwise</i>
<i>shore</i>	<i>a-</i>	<i>ashore</i>

noun	+ affix	noun
<i>malaria</i>	<i>anti-</i>	<i>anti-malaria</i>
<i>chief</i>	<i>-dom</i>	<i>chiefdom</i>
<i>scholar</i>	<i>-ship</i>	<i>scholarship</i>
<i>priest</i>	<i>ex-</i>	<i>ex-priest</i>
<i>child</i>	<i>-hood</i>	<i>childhood</i>
<i>duke</i>	<i>-y</i>	<i>duchy</i>

verb	+ affix	verb
<i>join</i>	<i>ad-</i>	<i>adjoin</i>
<i>agree</i>	<i>dis-</i>	<i>disagree</i>
<i>open</i>	<i>re-</i>	<i>reopen</i>
<i>locate</i>	<i>col-</i>	<i>collocate</i>
<i>judge</i>	<i>pre-</i>	<i>prejudge</i>
<i>tie</i>	<i>un-</i>	<i>untie</i>
<i>claim</i>	<i>pro-</i>	<i>proclaim</i>

adjective	+ affix	adjective
<i>social</i>	<i>anti-</i>	<i>anti-social</i>
<i>kind</i>	<i>-ly</i>	<i>kindly</i>
<i>possible</i>	<i>im-</i>	<i>impossible</i>
<i>green</i>	<i>-ish</i>	<i>greenish</i>

Appendix 2: Examples stress changes

In certain derivatives, the stress stays on the same syllable of the base as when the base is pronounced in isolation. Quirk (1985, p. 1591) calls this “fixed stress”. Suffixes which do not affect the stress pattern are:

- able *ˈperish – ˈperishable*
- hood *ˈperson – ˈpersonhood*
- ness *nervous – ˈnervousness*
- ish *ˈyellow – ˈyellowish*
- like *ˈlady – ˈladylike*
- ment *ˈargue – ˈargument* (Bauer, 2000, p. 112)

Other suffixes bear the main stress of the derivative. Stress is determined by the suffix. The placement of stress changes according to the affixation. This type of stress is called “movable stress” (Quirk, 1985, p. 1591).

- itis *ˈtonsil – tonsilˈlitis*
- esque *ˈpicture – pictuˈresque*
- ese *ˈjournal – journaˈlese*
- ee *exˈamine – examiˈnee*
- ette *ˈkitchen – kitcheˈnette* (Bauer, 2000, p. 113)

The third group of suffixes place the stress on the syllable preceding the suffix:

- ic *ˈsymbol – symˈbolic*
- ity *ˈmodern – moˈdernity*
- ian *ˈMongol – Monˈgolian*
- ial *ˈindustry – inˈdustrial*
- ia *iˈnert – iˈnertia* (Bauer, 2000, p. 113)

All abstract nouns ending in *-ion* have the stress on the syllable preceding this suffix (Quirk, 1985, p. 1591).

Examples: *counterˈaction*, *susˈpicion*, *tabuˈlation* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1591)

Appendix 3: Examples of Prefixes (Kvetko, 2009, p. 35-36)

Negative prefixes, opposition, reversal, counter-reaction

prefix	examples
<i>un-</i>	Simple negation: <i>unability, unfairness</i> The opposite action: <i>unpacking, unmasking</i>
<i>dis-</i>	<i>disagreeable, disobedient, dissimilar</i>
<i>a-</i>	<i>amoral, atypical, asymmetric</i>
<i>in-</i>	<i>informal, injustice, inability</i>
<i>im-</i>	Before p, b, m: <i>impossible, immoral, impatient</i>
<i>il-</i>	Before l: <i>illegal, illiterate</i>
<i>ir-</i>	Before r: <i>irregularity, irrationality</i>
<i>non-</i>	<i>non-alcoholic, non-smoker</i>
<i>de-</i>	<i>decentralization, defrost</i>
<i>anti-</i>	<i>antisocial, antiwar</i>
<i>counter-</i>	<i>counter-offensive, counter-revolution</i>

Degree, measure, size

prefix	examples
<i>super-</i>	<i>supersonic, superhuman</i>
<i>semi-</i>	<i>semivowel, semidarkness</i>
<i>hyper-</i>	<i>hypersensitive, hyperactive</i>
<i>ultra-</i>	<i>ultrahigh, ultrashort</i>
<i>over-</i>	<i>oversimplify, overstaffed</i>

Repetition, making it possible

prefix	examples
<i>re-</i>	<i>redecorate, reunited</i>
<i>en-/em-</i>	<i>enrich, enlarge, embed</i>

Time, place, distance, order, relation

prefix	examples
<i>post-</i>	<i>post-war, postgraduate</i>
<i>inter-</i>	<i>interstate, international</i>
<i>pre-</i>	<i>pre-war, prehistoric</i>
<i>ex-</i>	<i>ex-president, ex-husband</i>
<i>pro-</i>	<i>pro-democratic, pro-English</i>
<i>intra-</i>	<i>intranational, intravenous</i>

Number, numeral relation

prefix	examples
<i>bi-</i>	<i>bilateral, bilabial</i>
<i>uni-</i>	<i>unilateral, unisex</i>
<i>auto-</i>	<i>autobiography, autosuggestion</i>
<i>multi-</i>	<i>multinational, multilingual</i>
<i>mono-</i>	<i>monosyllabic, monolingual</i>

Pejoration

prefix	examples
<i>mis-</i>	<i>Misinform, mislead</i>
<i>pseudo-</i>	<i>Pseudo-scientific, pseudo-intellectual</i>

Appendix 4: Examples of Prefixes (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1540-1546)

Negative prefixes

prefix	examples
<i>a-</i>	<i>amoral, asexual</i>
<i>dis-</i>	<i>disobey, disorder</i>
<i>in-</i>	<i>incomplete, inattention</i>
<i>non-</i>	<i>non-smoker, non-perishable</i>
<i>un-</i>	<i>unfair, unwise</i>

Reversative or privative prefixes

prefix	examples
<i>de-</i>	<i>decentralize, defrost</i>
<i>dis-</i>	<i>disconnect, disinfect</i>
<i>un-</i>	<i>undo, unzip</i>

Pejorative prefixes

prefix	examples
<i>mal-</i>	<i>malfunction, maltreat</i>
<i>mis-</i>	<i>mislead, misinform</i>
<i>pseudo-</i>	<i>pseudo-classicism, pseudo-intellectual</i>

Prefixes of degree or size

prefix	examples
<i>arch-</i>	<i>archbishop, archangel</i>
<i>co-</i>	<i>co-education, cohabit</i>
<i>hyper-</i>	<i>hyperactive, hypersensitive</i>
<i>mini-</i>	<i>mini-market, mini-skirt</i>
<i>out-</i>	<i>outnumber, outclass</i>
<i>over-</i>	<i>overeat, overestimate</i>
<i>sub-</i>	<i>subconscious, subnormal</i>
<i>super-</i>	<i>supernatural, superman</i>
<i>sur-</i>	<i>surcharge, surtax</i>

<i>ultra-</i>	<i>ultra-modern, ultrasound</i>
<i>under-</i>	<i>undercharge, underestimate</i>

Prefixes of orientation and attitude

prefix	examples
<i>anti-</i>	<i>anti-social, anti-war</i>
<i>contra-</i>	<i>contraindicate, contraflow</i>
<i>counter-</i>	<i>counter-espionage, counter-clockwise</i>
<i>pro-</i>	<i>pro-American, pro-student</i>

Locative prefixes

prefix	examples
<i>fore-</i>	<i>forearm, foreshore</i>
<i>inter-</i>	<i>international, inter-continental</i>
<i>sub-</i>	<i>sublet, subcontract</i>
<i>super-</i>	<i>superstructure, superscript</i>
<i>trans-</i>	<i>transatlantic, trans-Siberian</i>

Prefixes of time and order

prefix	examples
<i>ex-</i>	<i>ex-president, ex-serviceman</i>
<i>fore-</i>	<i>foretell, foreshadow</i>
<i>post-</i>	<i>postpone, post-election</i>
<i>pre-</i>	<i>pre-war, pre-school</i>
<i>re-</i>	<i>rebuild, renew</i>

Neo-classical prefixes - Number prefixes

prefix	examples
<i>bi-</i>	<i>bicycle, bilateral</i>
<i>di-</i>	<i>dichotomy, dioxide</i>
<i>poly-</i>	<i>polygamy, polysemy</i>
<i>multi-</i>	<i>multiracial, multi-purpose</i>
<i>semi-</i>	<i>semicircle, semivowel</i>

<i>demi-</i>	<i>demigod, demitasse</i>
<i>hemi-</i>	<i>hemisphere, hemimorphic</i>
<i>tri-</i>	<i>tripod, trimester</i>
<i>uni-</i>	<i>unisex, unilateral</i>
<i>mono-</i>	<i>monorail, monogamy</i>

Miscellaneous neo-classical prefixes

prefix	examples
<i>auto-</i>	<i>autobiography, autocrat</i>
<i>extra-</i>	<i>extra affectionate, extraterrestrial</i>
<i>neo-</i>	<i>neo-classicism, neo-Gothic</i>
<i>paleo-</i>	<i>paleography, paleolithic</i>
<i>pan-</i>	<i>pan-African, pan-American</i>
<i>proto-</i>	<i>proto-Germanic, prototype</i>
<i>tele-</i>	<i>telescope, telegram</i>
<i>vice-</i>	<i>vice-president, vice-chairman</i>

Conversion prefixes

prefix	examples
<i>a-</i>	<i>asleep, aloud</i>
<i>be-</i>	<i>bedazzle, bewigged</i>
<i>en-</i>	<i>endanger, entrain</i>
<i>em-</i>	<i>empower, embitter</i>

Appendix 5: Examples of noun prefixation (Biber, 2007, p. 320)

prefix	meaning of prefix	examples
<i>anti-</i>	<i>against, opposite to</i>	<i>antiabortionist, anticlimax</i>
<i>arch-</i>	<i>supreme, most</i>	<i>arch-enemy, arch-priestess</i>
<i>auto-</i>	<i>self</i>	<i>autobiography, autograph</i>
<i>bi-</i>	<i>two</i>	<i>bicentenary, bilingualism</i>
<i>bio-</i>	<i>of living things</i>	<i>biochemistry, biomass</i>
<i>co-</i>	<i>joint</i>	<i>co-chairman, co-founder</i>
<i>counter-</i>	<i>against</i>	<i>counterargument, counterclaim</i>
<i>dis-</i>	<i>the converse of</i>	<i>disbelief, discomfort</i>
<i>ex-</i>	<i>former</i>	<i>ex-marxist, ex-student</i>
<i>fore-</i>	<i>ahead, before</i>	<i>forefront, foreknowledge</i>
<i>hyper-</i>	<i>extreme</i>	<i>hyperinflation, hypertension</i>
<i>in-</i>	<i>inside, the converse of</i>	<i>inpatient, inattention</i>
<i>inter-</i>	<i>between, among</i>	<i>interaction, intermarriage</i>
<i>kilo-</i>	<i>thousand</i>	<i>kilobyte, kilowatt</i>
<i>mal-</i>	<i>bad</i>	<i>malfunction, malnutrition</i>
<i>mega-</i>	<i>million, supreme</i>	<i>megabyte, megawatt, megastar</i>
<i>mini-</i>	<i>small</i>	<i>minibus, mini-publication</i>
<i>mis-</i>	<i>bad, wrong</i>	<i>misconduct, mismatch</i>
<i>mono-</i>	<i>one</i>	<i>monosyllable, monotheism</i>
<i>neo-</i>	<i>new</i>	<i>neomarxist, neo-colonialism</i>
<i>non-</i>	<i>not</i>	<i>nonpayment, non-specialist</i>
<i>out-</i>	<i>outside, separate</i>	<i>outpatient, outbuilding</i>
<i>poly-</i>	<i>many</i>	<i>polysyllable, polytheism</i>
<i>pseudo-</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>pseudo-democracy, pseudo-expert</i>
<i>re-</i>	<i>again</i>	<i>re-election, re-organisation</i>
<i>semi-</i>	<i>half</i>	<i>semicircle, semi-darkness</i>
<i>sub-</i>	<i>below</i>	<i>subgroup, subset</i>
<i>super-</i>	<i>more than, above</i>	<i>superhero, superset</i>
<i>sur-</i>	<i>over and above</i>	<i>surcharge, surtax</i>
<i>tele-</i>	<i>distant</i>	<i>telecommunications, teleshopping</i>
<i>tri-</i>	<i>three</i>	<i>tricycle, tripartism</i>

<i>ultra-</i>	<i>beyond</i>	<i>ultrafilter, ultrasound</i>
<i>under-</i>	<i>below, too little</i>	<i>underclass, underachievement</i>
<i>vice-</i>	<i>deputy</i>	<i>vice-chairman, vice-president</i>

Appendix 6: Suffixation of word classes other than nouns

Adjective suffixes

Denominal suffixes

In English language, there is large group of suffixes forming adjectives. Majority of such adjectives are formed from nouns. The suffix *-ed* means “having” and forms non-gradable adjectives from nouns, as in *wooded*, *pointed*, *simple-minded* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1553).

The suffix *-ful* means “full of” or “having” and is mostly attached to abstract nouns (e.g. *beautiful*, *insightful*) or to verbal bases (e.g. *forgetful*, *mournful*). Such adjectives are gradable. (Plag, 2002, p. 120).

On the other hand, the suffix *-ish* is used with concrete nouns and means “somewhat” or “somewhat like”, as in *childish*, *foolish*, *snobbish* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1553). It can also be attached to other adjectives (e.g. *clearish*, *sharpish*), adverbs (e.g. *soonish*, *uppish*) or syntactic phrases (e.g. *stick-in-the-muddish*, *out-of-the-wayish*) (Plag, 2002, p. 121).

The next suffix in this group is *-less*, meaning “without”. This suffix can attach to both abstract and concrete nouns, as in *careless*, *restless*. *-Less* is considered as the antonym of *-ful* (e.g. *useful* - *useless*, *careful* - *careless*) (Quirk, 1985, p. 1553).

The suffix *-like* means “like” and is freely used with concrete nouns, as in *childlike*, *monkeylike*. The suffix *-ly* is also used with concrete nouns, meaning “having the qualities of”, as in *womanly*, *motherly*, *brotherly*. The suffix *-y*, meaning “somewhat like”, is also used mostly with concrete nouns to form gradable adjectives, as in *sandy*, *meaty*, *creamy* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1553).

The following denominal adjective suffixes are of foreign origin and all of them mean “having the properties of” or “having a relation to”. These suffixes are: *-al/-ial*, *-esque*, *-ic* and *-ous* and the adjectives formed in this way are usually gradable (Quirk, 1985, p. 1553 - 1554).

Examples: *accidental*, *arabesque*, *atomic*, *ambitious* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1554)

Deverbal suffixes

There are two common suffixes (*-able* and *-ive*) used to create adjectives from verbs. These adjectives are mostly gradable (Quirk, 1985, p. 1555).

The suffix *-able* combines with transitive verbs and is related to the passive voice. The meaning of *-able* is “capable of being” or “liable or disposed”, as in *breakable*, *agreeable*, *changeable* (Plag, 2002, p. 119).

The suffix *-ive* is related to the active voice and usually combines with verb bases ending in *t* or *s*, as in *connective*, *explosive*, *offensive* (Plag, 2002, p. 121).

Adverb suffixes

The most common adverb suffix *-ly* is combined with adjectives, as in *circadianly*, suffix *-ward(s)* can be attached to particles, as in *afterwards*, or to nouns, as in *homewards* (Bauer, 2000, p. 225).

-Wise derives non-gradable adverbs from nouns and means “manner”, as in *clockwise*, or the meaning is related to dimension, as in *lengthwise*. *-Ways* is also used in this sense, as in *sideways*. *-Wise* can also be used in the sense “so far as the base is concerned, as in *education-wise*, *moneywise* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1557).

Verb suffixes

In English there are four suffixes which are used to derive verbs from other word classes, usually from adjectives and nouns. These suffixes are: *-ate*, *-en*, *-ify*, *-ize* (Plag, 2002, p. 116).

The suffix *-ate* is used mostly in science or with neo-classical nouns, as in *chlorinate*, *hyphenate*, while *-en* combines with adjectives, as in *sadden*, *quicken* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1557) or with nouns, as in *strengthen*, *lengthen* (Plag, 2002, p. 117).

-Ify combines with both adjectives (e.g. *simplify*) and nouns (e.g. *beautify*). it frequently occurs with neo-classical bases, as in *certify*, *identify* (Quirk, 1985, p. 1557).

The suffix *-ize* is the most productive suffix within this group and combines freely with both adjectives (e.g. *modernize*) and nouns (e.g. *hospitalize*) (Quirk, 1985, p. 1557).

Classification of suffixes according to the base to which the suffix is added

Suffixes can also be grouped according to the base they are attached to. Suffixes added to a verbal base are *-or*, *-er*, *-ing* (Kvetko, 2009, p. 34).

Examples: *act* – *actor*, *write* – *writer*, *meet* – *meeting* (Kvetko, 2009, p. 34)

Certain suffixes are attached to a noun base, such as *-ful*, *-ist* (Kvetko, 2009, p. 34).

Examples: *beauty* – *beautiful*, *novel* – *novelist* (Kvetko, 2009, p. 34)

Other suffixes attach to an adjective base, such as *-ly*, *-ness* (Kvetko, 2009, p. 34).

Examples: *nice* – *nicely*, *good* – *goodness* (Kvetko, 2009, p. 34)

Classification of suffixes based on the sense expressed by a suffix

Kvetko (2009, p. 34) distinguishes three different categories based on the sense of suffixes:

1. agent of the action, where the suffix indicates the doer of the action.

Examples: suffixes *-er, -ant, -ist* as in *writer, boiler, servant, disinfectant, novelist* (Kvetko, 2009, p. 34)

2. suffixes indicating status or collectivity

Examples: suffixes *-ship, -ery* as in *friendship, slavery, bravery* (Kvetko, 2009, p. 34)

3. suffixes indicating diminutiveness (emotional relation)

Examples: suffixes *-y, -ie, -let, -ling* as in *daddy, birdie, doggie, Johnny, deary, starlet, piglet, duckling* (Kvetko, 2009, p. 34)

Appendix 7: Examples of suffixation (Kvetko, 2009, p. 33 - 34)

Examples of noun-forming suffixes

Suffix	Examples
<i>-or</i>	<i>actor, visitor, instructor</i>
<i>-er, -eer</i>	<i>speaker, reader, writer, engineer</i>
<i>-ist</i>	<i>scientist, novelist, journalist</i>
<i>-ess</i>	<i>hostess, stewardess, actress, princess</i>
<i>-ty, -ity</i>	<i>cruelty, certainty, stupidity, purity</i>
<i>-ure, -ture</i>	<i>failure, closure, mixture</i>
<i>-dom</i>	<i>freedom, kingdom</i>
<i>-age</i>	<i>passage, marriage, postage</i>
<i>-ance, -ence</i>	<i>appearance, performance, preference</i>
<i>-hood</i>	<i>likelihood, brotherhood, neighborhood</i>
<i>-ing</i>	<i>reading, opening, beginning</i>
<i>-ion, -sion, -tion</i>	<i>action, permission, description</i>
<i>-ition, -ation</i>	<i>competition, operation</i>
<i>-ness</i>	<i>kindness, goodness, willingness</i>
<i>-y, -ery</i>	<i>difficulty, enquiry, expiry, slavery</i>
<i>-ship</i>	<i>partnership, ownership, membership</i>
<i>-ment</i>	<i>government, development, movement</i>
<i>-t</i>	<i>complaint, restraint</i>

Examples of adjective-forming suffixes

Suffix	Examples
<i>-able, -ible</i>	<i>comfortable, fashionable, sensible</i>
<i>-ic, -atic</i>	<i>atomic, heroic, systematic</i>
<i>-ful</i>	<i>beautiful, useful, helpful</i>
<i>-y</i>	<i>bloody, dirty, healthy</i>
<i>-less</i>	<i>useless, homeless, helpless</i>
<i>-al, -ial, -tial</i>	<i>personal, radial, influential</i>
<i>-ive, -ative, -itive</i>	<i>active, creative, sensitive</i>
<i>-ant, -ent</i>	<i>pleasant, different, excellent</i>
<i>-en</i>	<i>wooden, golden</i>
<i>-like</i>	<i>childlike, businesslike</i>
<i>-ing</i>	<i>amusing, interesting</i>
<i>-ous</i>	<i>dangerous, famous</i>
<i>-ish</i>	<i>bookish, childish, foolish</i>
<i>-ly</i>	<i>friendly, lovely, manly</i>

Examples of verb-forming suffixes

Suffix	Examples
<i>-ize, -ise</i>	<i>civilize, characterize, modernize</i>
<i>-ify, -fy, -efy</i>	<i>simplify, falsify, glorify</i>
<i>-en</i>	<i>deepen, frighten, sharpen</i>

Examples of adverb-forming suffixes

Suffix	Examples
<i>-ly</i>	<i>formally, calmly, easily</i>
<i>-ward, -wards</i>	<i>homeward, eastward, afterwards, backwards</i>
<i>-wise, -ways</i>	<i>clockwise, otherwise, crossways, sideways</i>
<i>-fold</i>	<i>twofold, threefold</i>

Appendix 8: Examples of noun suffixation (Biber, 2007, p. 321 - 322)

suffix	examples
<i>-age</i>	<i>baggage, breakage, orphanage</i>
<i>-al</i>	<i>arrival, burial, denial</i>
<i>-an, -ian</i>	<i>American, Estonian, Victorian</i>
<i>-ance, -ence</i>	<i>adherence, assistance, abundance, dependence</i>
<i>-ant, -ent</i>	<i>assistant, consultant, coolant, defoliant</i>
<i>-cy</i>	<i>accuracy, infancy</i>
<i>-dom</i>	<i>boredom, freedom</i>
<i>-ee</i>	<i>employee, assignee, escapee, devotee</i>
<i>-er, -or</i>	<i>advertiser, computer, astronomer, Londoner</i>
<i>-ery, -ry</i>	<i>bribery, bakery, imagery, jewellery, bravery</i>
<i>-ese</i>	<i>Japanese, Vietnamese, journalese, officialese</i>
<i>-ess</i>	<i>actress, lioness, baroness</i>
<i>-ette</i>	<i>kitchenette, novelette</i>
<i>-ful</i>	<i>bucketful, handful, teaspoonful</i>
<i>-hood</i>	<i>childhood, widowhood</i>
<i>-ician</i>	<i>mathematician, politician</i>
<i>-ie, -y</i>	<i>daddy, doggie, Johnny</i>
<i>-ing</i>	<i>meeting, reading, building, painting, dwelling</i>
<i>-ism</i>	<i>Buddhism, Marxism, impressionism, realism</i>
<i>-ist</i>	<i>Buddhist, impressionist, realist, biologist</i>
<i>-ite</i>	<i>Muscovite, Thatcherite</i>
<i>-ity</i>	<i>ability, purity, similarity</i>
<i>-let</i>	<i>bomblet, booklet, piglet</i>
<i>-ment</i>	<i>development, encouragement, punishment</i>
<i>-ness</i>	<i>blindness, darkness, preparedness</i>
<i>-ship</i>	<i>citizenship, friendship, craftsmanship</i>
<i>-tion</i>	<i>alteration, demonstration, resignation</i>
<i>-ure</i>	<i>closure, departure, exposure</i>

Appendix 9: Conversion of word classes other than nouns

Conversion of words into different word classes

The following paragraphs describe different word classes which can be converted. The grouping is based on Quirk (1985, p. 1560 – 1567).

Conversion to verb

Nouns can be converted into verbs, when a noun denotes a place (e.g. *to garage a car*) or instrument (e.g. *to hammer a nail*) (Bauer, 2000, p. 229). Other cases are common as well, such as “to give” (*to butter*), “to deprive of” (*to peel*), “to act as” (*to pilot*), “send” (*ship, mail*) (Quirk, 1985, p. 1561).

Transitive verbs are derived from adjectives, meaning “to make adj.” (e.g. *dirty, dry, humble, lower*). Intransitive verbs mean “to become adj.” (e.g. *dry* - to become dry, *empty, narrow*)

Conversion to adjective

Adjectives are often derived from nouns (e.g. *an orange* - *an orange car*, *a secret* - *a secret agent*). These adjectives are mostly attributive (Kvetko, 2009, p. 37).

Quirk (1985, p. 1562) points out that denominal adjectives are usually non-gradable (e.g. *cotton, nylon*) but there are a few exceptions (e.g. *His accent is very Harvard.*).

Minor categories of conversion

Prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs, interjections and affixes can be converted into other word classes (Bauer, 2000, p. 230).

Examples: *to up the price* (Bauer, 2000, p. 230)

There are many ifs and buts.

This is a must.

nationalism and other isms (Quirk, 1985, p. 1563)

Change of secondary word class: nouns

This type of change happens within the same word class, for example noncount nouns can be used as count nouns and the other way round (e.g. *two coffees* instead of two cups of coffee, a few square feet of floor) (Quirk, 1985, p. 1564).

Change of secondary word class: verbs

Intransitive verbs become transitive (e.g. *to run the water* = to cause the water to run). This process is possible in the opposite direction as well, when transitive verbs become intransitive (e.g. *The clock winds up at the back.* = is to be wound up) (Quirk, 1985, p. 1565).

Change of secondary word class: adjectives

Non-gradable adjectives can become gradable (e.g. *He is more English than the English. I have a very legal turn of mind*). Stative adjectives can behave as dynamic with the use of progressive form of be (e.g. *He is just being friendly, he is being awkward about it.*) (Quirk, 1985, p. 1566).

Conversion with formal modifications

Quirk (1985, p. 1566) points out that in certain cases, conversion requires stress shift, pronunciation or spelling changes. Voicing of final consonants changes in some nouns. Examples: a noun *house* /-s/ changes its pronunciation to *house* /-z/ when converted into a verb, the same rule applies for *use, abuse, advice*.

Spelling change occurs in nouns *grief, shelf, half*, where /-f/ is replaced with /-v/ when converted into verbs: *grieve, shelve, halve*. (Quirk, 1985, p. 1566)

Stress patterns change in some noun-verb pairs. Only when pronounced, it is possible to detect whether the word is a noun or a verb. Nouns usually have stress on the first syllable, while verbs have the stress placed on the last syllable (e.g. *to per'mit* - a 'permit, *to ex'tract* - an 'extract). Phrasal verbs have the primary stress placed on the preposition (e.g. *to pull 'down, to push 'up*) (Plag, 2002, p. 138).

The following list includes words with end stress as verbs and initial stress when converted into nouns (Quirk, 1985, p. 1566 – 1567).

<i>abstract</i>	<i>contest</i>	<i>extract</i>	<i>produce</i>	<i>segment</i>
<i>accent</i>	<i>contrast</i>	<i>ferment</i>	<i>progress</i>	<i>survey</i>
<i>combine</i>	<i>convert</i>	<i>import</i>	<i>protest</i>	<i>suspect</i>
<i>compound</i>	<i>convict</i>	<i>impress</i>	<i>rebel</i>	<i>torment</i>
<i>compress</i>	<i>decrease</i>	<i>incline</i>	<i>record</i>	<i>transfer</i>
<i>concert</i>	<i>dictate</i>	<i>increase</i>	<i>refill</i>	<i>transform</i>
<i>conduct</i>	<i>digest</i>	<i>insult</i>	<i>refit</i>	<i>transplant</i>
<i>confine</i>	<i>discard</i>	<i>misprint</i>	<i>refund</i>	<i>transport</i>
<i>conflict</i>	<i>discount</i>	<i>perfume</i>	<i>regress</i>	<i>upset</i>
<i>conscript</i>	<i>discourse</i>	<i>permit</i>	<i>reject</i>	
<i>consort</i>	<i>escort</i>	<i>pervert</i>	<i>resit</i>	
<i>construct</i>	<i>export</i>	<i>present</i>	<i>retail</i>	

However, there are many verb-noun pairs where the stress is not affected by conversion and can be placed on the first syllable (e.g. *contact*) or on the second syllable (e.g. *debate*) (Quirk, 1985, p. 1567).

Appendix 10: Deverbal conversion to nouns (Quirk, 1985, p. 1560)

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| 1. state, state of mind, sensation: | <i>desire, dismay, doubt, smell</i> |
| 2. event, activity: | <i>attempt, fall, hit, laugh</i> |
| 3. object of a verb: | <i>answer, bet, catch, find</i> |
| 4. subject of a verb: | <i>bore, cheat, coach, show-off</i> |
| 5. instrument of a verb: | <i>cover, paper, wrap, wrench</i> |
| 6. manner of verb-ing: | <i>walk (manner of walking), throw, lie</i> |
| 7. place of a verb: | <i>divide, retreat, rise, turn, drive-in</i> |

Appendix 11: Minor Word Formation methods

Back-formation

The following chapter deals with a word formation process called backformation, where morphemes are removed from an existing word to produce a new shorter word. A suffix-like element is removed from the end of the original word (Ze Amvela, 2007, p. 102).

Back-formation is also called “back derivation”, since it is the opposite process to suffixation. The newly derived word is a member of a different word class (Kvetko, 2009, p. 41).

The majority of words formed by back-formation are verbs, the exact figure is 87% (Bauer, 2000, p. 230; Štekauer, 2000, p. 109).

Examples of verbs formed by back-formation: *typewrite* (*typewriter*), *beg* (*beggar*), *burgle* (*burglar*), *edit* (*editor*), *televise* (*television*) (Kvetko, 2009, p. 41)

Examples of compound verbs formed by back-formation: *air-condition*, *book-keep*, *mass-produce*, *gift-wrap*, *stage-manage* (Adams, 1997, p. 107)

Clipping

Ze Amvela (2007, p. 102) defines clipping as a word formation process where only part remains from the original stem. It can be the beginning (e.g. *lab* from *laboratory*), the end (e.g. *phone* from *telephone*) or the middle (e.g. *flu* from *influenza*). In many cases, the clipped form fully replaces the original longer word, as in *bra* (*brassiere*), *bus* (*omnibus*), *car* (*motocar*).

As Kvetko (2009, p. 38) points out, there is an obvious tendency in modern English towards monosyllabism. Words are generally shorter, as parts of words are taken away from the original words. However, there are not new words formed in this way, only shorter forms of original words are formed.

The clipped form keeps the same meaning as the original longer form and remains the member of the same word class (Štekauer, 2000, p. 111; Bauer, 2000, p. 233).

Adams (1997, p. 135) claims that the vast majority of clipped words are nouns and they are used mostly in less formal situations. There is no specific rule (phonological or graphological) where the word has to be cut, however usually the first or first two syllables remain.

Examples of clipped nouns:

advertisement *ad, advert*

<i>examination</i>	<i>exam</i>
<i>gymnasium</i>	<i>gym</i>
<i>laboratory</i>	<i>lab</i>
<i>photograph</i>	<i>photo</i>
<i>professor</i>	<i>prof</i> (Adams, 1997, p. 135)

Plural nouns keep the *-s* at the end of the clipped form (e.g. *mathematics* - *maths*, *spectacles* - *specs*), while certain clippings have irregular formation (e.g. *bicycle* - *bike*, *microphone* - *mike*). In some cases, the word is not felt as clipping since the original longer word is not commonly used any more (e.g. *pantaloon*s - *pants*). Noun-adjective phrases are often clipped as well (e.g. *permanent wave* - *perm*, *public house* - *pub*, *popular music* - *pop*, *zoological garden* - *zoo*) (Adams, 1997, p. 135).

Blending

Blending is a word formation process where two or more parts form one word. Blends are also called “telescope” or “portmanteau” words (Štekauer, 2000, p. 110; Ze Amvela, 2007, p. 101).

Blends are more common in informal situations and often occur in fields of journalism, advertising and in technical fields (Ze Amvela, 2007, p. 101).

There are several ways how to construct blends. In some cases, the initial part of one word is attached to the final part of another word. Most of these are nouns (Štekauer, 2000, p. 111; Ze Amvela, 2007, p. 101).

Examples: *smog* = *smoke* + *fog*

chunnel = *channel* + *tunnel*

brunch = *breakfast* + *lunch* (Štekauer, 2000, p. 111)

In other cases, both words overlap, as in *guestimate* (*guess* + *estimate*), *slanguage* (*slang* + *language*). In some blends, one of the words remains intact, as in *Nixonomics* (*Nixon* + *economics*) (Štekauer, 2000, p. 111).

Blending can be considered as a type of compounding. It combines two clipped words (Kvetko, 2009, p. 42).

Acronyms

Adams (1997, p. 136) explains acronyms as words formed by initial letters of a phrase. There has been an obvious increase of usage of acronyms since the beginning of the twentieth century. Many of them were formed during the two world wars, while others came to existence as short names for different government agencies or international organisations.

They can be divided into two groups based on the way they are pronounced. Alphabetisms (abbreviations) are pronounced as a sequence of the names of the letters of the alphabet (Ze Amvela, 2007, p. 103).

Examples: *FBI* (Federal Bureau of Investigation), *LA* (Los Angeles), *UN* (the United Nations) (Quirk, 1985, p. 1582)

The second group are acronyms which are pronounced as words, such as *NATO*, *UNESCO*, *laser*, *radar*. In many cases, the speakers do not know what the letter stand for (Quirk, 1985, p. 1582).

Latin abbreviations are used in English and can actually replace English words (Kvetko, 2009, p. 40).

Examples: *a.m.* = Latin ante meridiem, in the morning

p.m. = Latin post meridiem, in the afternoon

e.g. = exempli gratia, for example (Kvetko, 2009, p. 40)

Certain abbreviations are used only in written form, e.g. *Rd* (road), *St* (street, saint), *Oct.* (October) (Kvetko, 2009, p. 40).

Reduplicatives

Kvetko (2009, p. 42) defines reduplicatives as words consisting of two identical or similar parts. These words are called “reduplicative compounds” and their purpose is is only phonetic. They are very informal.

Reduplicatives can differ in the initial consonant (e.g. *walkie-talkie*) or in the medial vowel (e.g. *criss-cross*) (Quirk, 1985, p. 1579).

Appendix 12: Analysis of contemporary fiction

Suffix	Amount	Example
-tion	60	<i>determination</i>
-er/-or	25	<i>holder</i>
-ing	17	<i>beginning</i>
-ness	16	<i>neediness</i>
-ance/-ence	14	<i>difference</i>
-ity	13	<i>sensibility</i>
-ment	10	<i>detachment</i>
-y	4	<i>delivery</i>
-ship	4	<i>friendship</i>
-al	3	<i>arrival</i>
-ist	3	<i>scientist</i>
-ism	2	<i>scepticism</i>
-hood	2	<i>childhood</i>
-ette	1	<i>cigarette</i>
-ess	1	<i>stewardess</i>
-se	1	<i>response</i>
-ant	1	<i>occupant</i>
-scape	1	<i>landscape</i>
-ian	1	<i>musician</i>

Prefix	Amount	Example
dis-	3	<i>disgrace</i>
in-	3	<i>indifference</i>
out-	3	<i>outsider</i>
fore-	2	<i>forefinger</i>
un-	2	<i>unhappiness</i>
il-	1	<i>illegitimacy</i>
pre-	1	<i>preoccupation</i>
sub-	1	<i>subcontinent</i>
super-	1	<i>supermarket</i>

Compound structure	Amount	Example
noun + noun	90	<i>ashtray</i>
adjective + noun	17	<i>highway</i>
noun + preposition	1	<i>afternoon</i>

Appendix 13: Analysis of newspaper articles

Suffix	Amount	Example
-tion	57	<i>consultation</i>
-er/-or	41	<i>consumer</i>
-ing	38	<i>warning</i>
-ment	22	<i>management</i>
-ity	21	<i>ability</i>
-ance/-ence	17	<i>importance</i>
-y	7	<i>assembly</i>
-ist	6	<i>economist</i>
-cy	5	<i>conspiracy</i>
-ant	5	<i>assistant</i>
-ness	5	<i>effectiveness</i>
-al	4	<i>dismissal</i>
-ship	3	<i>apprenticeship</i>
-ee	3	<i>employee</i>
-ure	3	<i>failure</i>
-ian	3	<i>politician</i>
-ism	2	<i>criticism</i>
-ist	2	<i>activist</i>
-age	2	<i>shortage</i>
-hood	1	<i>livelihood</i>
-ic	1	<i>diagnostic</i>
-th	1	<i>growth</i>
-ty	1	<i>safety</i>
-ary	1	<i>secretary</i>

Prefix	Amount	Example
in-	4	<i>inequality</i>
re-	4	<i>repayment</i>
un-	4	<i>unfairness</i>
micro-	2	<i>microwave</i>
counter-	1	<i>counterpart</i>
ex-	1	<i>ex-prisoner</i>
fore-	1	<i>forecast</i>
infra-	1	<i>infrastructure</i>
under-	1	<i>understaffing</i>

Compound structure	Amount	Example
noun + noun	27	<i>taxpayer</i>
verb + particle	4	<i>bailout</i>
adjective + noun	3	<i>handyman</i>
verb + noun	2	<i>ceasefire</i>

Appendix 14: Analysis of academic text

Suffix	Amount	Example
-tion	116	<i>consideration</i>
-ity	28	<i>impossibility</i>
-er/-or	24	<i>bearer</i>
-ing	22	<i>building</i>
-ance/-ence	20	<i>correspondence</i>
-ment	13	<i>development</i>
-ism	11	<i>modernism</i>
-ness	8	<i>arbitrariness</i>
-ist	4	<i>scientist</i>
-al	4	<i>survival</i>
-ship	4	<i>relationship</i>
-cy	2	<i>inaccuracy</i>
-y	2	<i>discovery</i>
-ant	1	<i>determinant</i>
-age	1	<i>disadvantage</i>
-ety	1	<i>variety</i>
-ian	1	<i>historian</i>
-hood	1	<i>wordhood</i>

Prefix	Amount	Examples
in-	7	<i>insecurity</i>
inter-	5	<i>interdependence</i>
dis-	5	<i>disagreement</i>
pre-	3	<i>predisposition</i>
re-	3	<i>reconsideration</i>
sub-	3	<i>subdivision</i>
co-	2	<i>coincidence</i>
counter-	2	<i>counterexample</i>
im-	2	<i>impossibility</i>
un-	2	<i>unbalance</i>
ir-	1	<i>irregularity</i>
micro-	1	<i>micro-society</i>
mis-	1	<i>misunderstanding</i>
multi-	1	<i>multilingualism</i>

Compound structure	Amount	Example
noun + noun	21	<i>textbook</i>
adjective + noun	1	<i>stepping-stone</i>

Appendix 15: Analysis of all three texts together

Suffix	Amount
-tion	187
-er/-or	79
-ing	67
-ity	54
-ance/-ence	41
-ment	37
-ness	27
-ism	14
-ist	11
-y	12
-al	10
-ship	9
-ant	7
-cy	7
-ian	5
-hood	4
-age	2
-ee	3
-ure	3
-ary	1
-ess	1
-ette	1
-ety	1
-ic	1
-scape	1
-se	1
-th	1
-ty	1

Prefix	Amount
in-	14
un-	8
dis-	7
re-	7
inter-	5
pre-	4
sub-	4
fore-	3
micro-	3
out-	3
counter-	2
co-	2
im-	2
ex-	1
il-	1
infra-	1
ir-	1
mis-	1
multi-	1
super-	1
under-	1

Compound structure	Amount
noun + noun	131
adjective + noun	21
noun + particle	4
verb + noun	2
noun + preposition	1

RESUMÉ

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá tvořením podstatných jmen v anglickém jazyce. Teoretická část pojednává o různých způsobech tvoření slov. Praktická část se zaměřuje na výskyt odvozených a složených podstatných jmen v různých textech. Texty pro výzkum byly vybrány z odborné literatury, novinových článků a současné beletrie. Výzkum prokázal, že odvozování se vyskytuje mnohem častěji než slova složená a to ve všech třech textech. Nejčastěji se vyskytující přípona je *-tion*. Složená slova sestávají nejčastěji ze dvou podstatných jmen. tyto se nejvíce vyskytují v současné beletrii.

ANOTACE

Jméno a příjmení:	Hana Štefanová
Katedra:	Katedra anglického jazyka
Vedoucí práce:	Mgr. Blanka Babická, Ph.D.
Rok obhajoby:	2015

Název práce:	Tvoření podstatných jmen v angličtině
Název v angličtině:	Word formation of nouns in English
Anotace práce:	Bakalářská práce se zabývá tvořením podstatných jmen v angličtině. Teoretická část vysvětluje různé způsoby tvoření podstatných jmen. Praktická část zkoumá výskyt odvozených a složených podstatných jmen v angličtině. Výzkum je proveden na třech typech textů.
Klíčová slova:	Slovotvorba, slovo, podstatná jména, složeniny, odvozování
Anotace v angličtině:	This bachelor project deals with noun formation in English. The theoretical part explains various noun formation methods. The practical part investigates the occurrence of derivative and compound nouns in English. Three different types of text were used for the research.
Klíčová slova v angličtině:	word formation, word, nouns, compounding, derivation
Přílohy vázané v práci:	Příloha č. 1: Předpony a přípony (Jackson, Ze Amvela, 2007, s. 88 - 91) Příloha č. 2: Změny v přízvuku (Quirk, 1985, s. 1591, Bauer, 2000, s. 112) Příloha č. 3: Předpony (Kvetko, 2009, s. 35 - 36) Příloha č. 4: Předpony (Quirk et al., 1985, s. 1540 - 1546) Příloha č. 5: Předpony u podstatných jmen (Biber, 2007, s. 320) Příloha č. 6: Přípony u různých slovních druhů Příloha č. 7: Přípony (Kvetko, 2009, s. 33 - 34) Příloha č. 8: Přípony u podstatných jmen (Biber, 2007, s. 321 - 322) Příloha č. 9: Přeměna u různých slovních druhů Příloha č. 10: Přeměna na podstatná jména (Quirk, 1985, s. 1560) Příloha č. 11: Méně časté způsoby slovotvorby Příloha č. 12: Analýza současné beletrie Příloha č. 13: Analýza novinových článků Příloha č. 14: Analýza akademického textu Příloha č. 15: Analýza všech tří textů dohromady
Rozsah práce:	75
Jazyk práce:	AJ