

# Unpredictable Word-Formation Processes in English and Czech

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## **ABSTRAKT**

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá okrajovými slovtvornými procesy, tj. mísením a zkracováním v angličtině a češtině. Práce je rozdělena do teoretické a praktické části. Teoretická část zkoumá základní prvky slov a popisuje jednotlivé slovtvorné postupy. Praktická část se soustřeďuje na různá hlediska a rysy mísení a zkracování v obou jazycích na základě vypracovaného korpusu. Cílem této práce je zjistit, zdali je tvorba slov mísením a zkracováním ovlivňována angličtinou.

Klíčová slova: slovtvorba, mísení, zkracování, akronym, okrajový

## **ABSTRACT**

This bachelor's thesis deals with unpredictable word-formation processes, i.e. blending and clipping, in English and Czech. This work is divided into two parts: theoretical and analytical. The theoretical part explores basic elements of words and describes each word-formation process individually. The analytical part focuses on different aspects and features of blending and clipping in both languages based on corpora. The purpose of this work is to determine whether blending and clipping in Czech is influenced by the English language.

Keywords: word-formation, word, blending, blend, clippings, acronym, unpredictable

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## INTRODUCTION

In this thesis we focus on unpredictable word-formation processes. Word-formation is a branch of morphology that has always kept our attention since the beginning of our studies at TBU. On one hand, words might be perceived as mere elements of speech. On the other hand, words are – without any doubts – vital items in every language in the world. Without words there would be no phrases, without phrases there would be no sentences, and without sentences there would be no noble way of communication. That is the reason we have chosen this topic for our bachelor's thesis. This work is divided into two parts: theoretical and analytical. The major question to be answered is whether Czech is influenced by English as far as the productivity of blending and clipping is concerned.

In the theoretical part we try to describe what words, basic features, and their elements are. Furthermore, we try to explore each word-formation type individually, whether standard or marginal.

In the analytical part we focus on the rate of productivity and structure of unpredictable word-formation processes in English and Czech. In addition, other aspects, such as the amount of different parts of speech of blends and clippings in our corpora are explored as well. Moreover, the origin of Czech blends is mentioned too. Last not but not least, we try to discover fields where blends and clippings are used predominantly and when blends started to appear in the English language.

## **I. THEORY**

## 1 THE CONCEPT OF WORDS

Before going further into discussing unpredictable and partly standard word-formative processes, we should be able to determine what a word is and is not. Determining what a word is, however, might be a complex issue not only in Czech and English. This chapter is thus devoted to discussing several points of view of what a word could be, since the realization of the concept of words differs. Although most fluent language users might find it somewhat easy to distinguish words in written and spoken language, they might not be able to define and characterize the distinct features of words. Katamba (Katamba 2005, 10) claims that people have a notion of words; they intuitively know what they are. However, when it comes to bringing an explanation, it could be difficult to find a sufficient answer.

According to Plag: “[...] A word is an uninterrupted string of letters which is preceded by a blank space and followed either by a blank space or a punctuation mark.” (Plag 2003, 4). On the other hand, such a claim can be perceived by language users differently, as there are words that can appear in various word-forms, e.g. “word-formation”, “word formation”. From a grammatical point of view both versions of the same concept are acceptable. In the first example “word-formation” is put together with a punctuation mark. Therefore, one could state that “word-formation” is one word. Nonetheless, taken into consideration the first and the second example, we could claim that “word formation” are two independent words referring to the same concept. For that reason, one could state that “word formation” is a term consisting of two words. Such an explanation might not always be reliable and sufficient enough owing to the idiolect of language users and their understanding of the concept of words.

Furthermore, Katamba states that hyphenated word-forms, such as “to-day” or “to-morrow”) were more typical and common in Old English and Middle English and that are in decline nowadays (Katamba 2005, 12-13).

### 1.1 Phonological Aspect

From a phonological point of view Plag (Plag 2003, 5-6) claims that words can be distinguished by potential pauses between words in spoken discourse. As a matter of fact, pauses are made scarcely in speech as spoken utterance is mostly fluent without making any interruptions. In addition, such potential pauses are mainly made between words and also syllables when emphasizing distinct elements in speech. Moreover, stress may play an important role in the realization of the concept of words. In both Czech and English stress

is a crucial element in speech. As far as English is concerned, so-called main stress can be put only on one syllable in a word (e.g. battery, grandmother, or possibility). However, the role of stressed syllable may differ in English and is not as fixed as in the Czech language. The main stress in Czech always occurs at the beginning of words. Thus, it can be distinguished more easily and accurately than in the English language. In English there are more possible places where main can occur. That is the initial stress at the beginning of words (e.g. apple, power), in the middle of words (e.g. tomato, opponent), or at the end of words (e.g. employee, recommend). On the other hand, there are words in English that carry no stress at all. According to Plag (Plag 2003, 5-7) words that carry no stress are, for instance, auxiliary verbs and articles. Hence, words, such as “have”, “has”, “will”, “a”, and “the” are unstressed. They are referred to as grammatical words. This also means that no new words can be added into this category. They do not carry any semantic meaning unlike lexical words. Katamba (Katamba 2005, 14-16) also refers to lexical words as content words. Content words belong to an open category. Thus, new words can be added without limits, such as nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs. On the other hand, articles, which belong to a closed category, can even occur as contractions (e.g. you've, he's, we're). Therefore, such a way of distinguishing words could make word recognition even more difficult and thus not clearly applicable and reliable.

## 1.2 Semantic Aspect

Plag (Plag 2003, 6-9) states that words carry their own unified semantic concept. According to this thought, each word should represent a single unified semantic concept. This, however, may not always be true as there are concepts that cannot be expressed by a single word in a language. Let us now consider the expression “bachelor”. In English it occurs as a one word concept whereas in Czech it occurs as a two word concept even though the meaning remains the same. Thus, this aspect could not be applied to all languages since expressions for a such concept may differ across languages as shown above.

## 2 DERIVATION AND INFLECTION

In this chapter we focus on the difference between derivational and inflectional morphology as these are the two main processes concerning word-formation. Furthermore, we try to point out which of the two analyzed languages uses derivational process in word-forming and which one uses inflection as a main word-formation process. Although unpredictable word-formation processes (e.g. clippings, blends, and acronyms) belong to derivation, it is vital to show the difference between inflection and derivation.

### 2.1 Morphemes

To continue discussing derivation and inflection the major question to be clarified is the one “What is the smallest unit in grammar in a language?” The study area that deals with the smallest units – which are named morphemes – is called morphology. Katamba (Katamba 2005, 27-30) refers to morphemes as minimal units in a language that have a meaning or a grammatical function. Therefore, we could claim that morphemes are units from which new words are created.

There are words that consist of one morpheme (e.g. dog, house). They are also referred to as monomorphemic words (Kvetko 2005, 23). They cannot be broken into additional parts. Nevertheless, there are words that consist of more than one morpheme. Such words are known as polymorphemic (Kvetko 2005, 23). Let us consider the polymorphemic word “unstoppable”. It can be seen that the word “unstoppable” is created by a string of letters surrounded by blank space. In this example each letter on its own, however, does not create any meaning nor create any function. To find a more reliable evidence of a meaningful unit, we have to take more than one letter. Suppose we take the first two letters, we will create an affix *un-* which suddenly has a certain grammatical function. The affix *un-* is added in front of root morphemes or other affixes to change the polarity of words (e.g. unforgettable, unsuccessful). If we continue searching for another meaningful units in the word “unstoppable”, we will find only two other possible units which fit to the definition of morphemes. These are the morphemes “stop” and “able”. The item “stop” represents a simple word consisting of one morpheme. This morpheme is also called a root morpheme (Fromkin, Rodman, and Hyams 2003, 80). This means that additional affixes can be attached to this morpheme. As to the last morpheme in the given example, we can classify it a suffix since it is attached at the end of the root morpheme. The suffix *-able* is used when indicating that something is “able to be”. Additionally, this suffix usually forms new

adjectives. Moreover, we can divide morphemes into bound and free (Fromkin, Rodman, and Hyams 2003, 77-80).

### 2.1.1 Free Morphemes

According to Katamba (Katamba 2005, 43-44) a free morpheme is such a morpheme that occurs as an independent unit in a sentence, e.g. “cat”, “rule”, or “power”. Furthermore, most free morphemes have a lexical meaning, though, not all of them. We can find free morphemes that are rather grammatical. They belong to a closed category. These are, for instance, articles, pronouns, and prepositions. Even though they occur in a sentence alone, they do not convey any lexical meaning.

### 2.1.2 Bound Morphemes

As Kvetko (Kvetko 2005, 22-23) claims a bound morpheme is a morpheme that does not occur alone but only in a combination with other morphemes. The most prominent group representing bound morphemes are affixes. They can be divided into prefixes, suffixes, and also infixes which occur – to some extent – in English as well. However, they are rare in English (Katamba and Stonham 2006, 45). Therefore, if a morpheme occurs before another morpheme we refer to it as a prefix, e.g. “un-known”, “im-mortal”, or “dis-respect”. Additionally, suffixes are morphemes which follow other morphemes, e.g. “work-ing”, “boy-s”, or “happi-ness”. Infixes are morphemes which are embedded inside other morphemes (Fromkin, Rodman, and Hyams 2003, 79). Infixes in English, however, appear only as full words, e.g. “abso-bloody-lutely”. Thus, they are more typical in Czech as they appear as single morphemes, e.g. “jazyk-o-lam”. Bauer also states that infixes are more common in non-Indo-European languages, such as Bontoc, a Philippine language. Consequently, these affixes can be attached to bases to derive new words (Bauer 2004, 18).

## 2.2 Inflection and Derivation

The most prominent contrast between inflection and derivation is, according to Plag (Plag 2003, 14) that morphemes which are characterized as inflectional reflect various grammatical categories. Consequently, grammatical categories can include number (e.g. boy-s), person (e.g. play-s), tense (e.g. hate-ed), and case (e.g. Patrick’s). Miššíková (Miššíková 1993, 38) also refers to these categories as inflectional categories. Moreover, Jackson and Amvela (Jackson and Amvela 2007, 82) state that inflection has connection to grammatical processes as well. They mention that combining words and affixes leads to the

creation of new grammatical forms of words. Therefore, we can claim that such suffixes are syntactically relevant. As far as inflectional prefixes in English are concerned Plag (Plag, 2003, 15) states that we cannot find any prefix that would be inflectional in the English language. In addition, another important feature of inflection is that it does not change part of speech. Last but not least, we should mention that inflection is also fully productive. According to Plag: “A productive morpheme is one that can be attached regularly to any word of the appropriate class” (Plag, 2003, 16). For illustration, the suffix *-s* can be attached to almost any verb to form the third person singular in order to make agreement, e.g. “create-s”, “work-s”, “start-s”.

Jackson and Amvela describe derivation as a processes in which new words are formed on the basis of already existing ones. Therefore, if we take a derivational morpheme “*-ness*” and add it to the words “dark”, “happy”, or “sad”, we will create a completely new lexeme → darkness, happiness, and sadness. They also claim there are over 60 derivational affixes in the English language and that there can be an infinite number of them (Jackson and Amvela 2007, 82-87) . In addition, Fromkin, Rodman, and Hyams refer to these words as derived words (Fromkin, Rodman, and Hyams 2003, 83). Obviously, such a process changes part of speech. Furthermore, we can also find prefixes in derivation (e.g. un-stopp-able, dis-like). Nonetheless, derivation is also limited as to its productivity because it does not encode grammatical categories (Plag 2003, 16-17). Thus, speaking of word-formation, we are more interested in derivation as it is the main process from which new words emerge.

### 2.3 Productivity

In this section, productivity of different word-formation processes is discussed. Not all of the processes are equally productive, though. Some are less productive than others and vice versa. Štekauer claims that productivity is a typical aspect of language. That is because productivity helps us form new words from different types of morphemes, whether bound or free. He also states there is a not clear distinction between productive and unproductive processes (Štekauer 1992, 43). Furthermore, there are morphemes that differ in their rate of productivity. Let us now consider the bound morpheme *-dis*. The following question, then, arises, “Can we consider the morpheme *-dis* productive or not ?” The usage of such a morpheme is quite simple. We put it in front of words to create their opposites, e.g. disrespect, dishonest, or discomfort. Therefore, it is obvious that we can add such a



morpheme in front of words of various parts of speech. However, we cannot add it in front of every root, i.e. there are such combinations that do not allow us to combine the prefix *-dis* with other words to form their opposites. Consequently, a combination, such as “dis-happy” would not create the opposite of the word “happy”. Instead, there is a different morpheme that helps make the opposite of “happy” in English. That is the prefix *-un* → unhappy, unbelievable, uncontrollable. Furthermore, Kvetko distinguishes between productive and unproductive affixes. He also points out that prefixes tend to be more productive than other affixes, e.g. *un-*, *pre-*, *mini-* (Kvetko 2005, 25).

According to Fromkin (Fromkin, Rodman, and Hyams 2003, 89) one of very productive morphemes in English is the suffix *-er*. It is usually attached to verbs to form nouns, e.g. speaker, founder, caller. Such a word ending with *-er* usually refers to a person who possesses some characteristics and usually has professional knowledge of the field. Other productive morphemes are, for instance, *re-* (e.g. rework, redo, replay), *-ize* (e.g. capitalize, colonize, baptize), or *-ness* (e.g. tiredness, happiness, sadness).

Additionally, Kvetko (Kvetko 2005, 25) suggests there is a difference between English and Slovak affixes in terms of denotative and connotative meaning. Hence, the same idea can be applied to Czech, since Czech and Slovak are based on similar linguistic rules. Whereas in the English language the affix *-ness* is attached to adjectives to make nouns referring to qualities (as shown above), in Czech the infix *-itán-* in the word obrov-itán-ský does not have a denotative meaning on its own.

Therefore, we can state that productivity is a necessary feature of word-formation and that the degree of productivity differs from type to type.

### 3 THE TYPES OF WORD-FORMATION

In this part various types of word-formation processes are discussed. In the previous chapter we partially mentioned that derivation leads to the creation of new words in language. There are, however, more word-formation processes, some being more productive, typical, and predictable than others. Thus, each process – whether standard or marginal – is explored and focused on individually.

#### 3.1 Affixation

Generally, affixation is a process in which new words are created by adding affixes to roots (e.g. un-reliable, pre-historic, good-ness). The most typical derivational affixes in English and Czech are prefixes, which are placed in front of roots and suffixes, which are attached to roots. Hauser (Hauser 1976, 33) claims that affixation (i.e. derivation) is, by far, the most common and typical type of word coinage in the Czech language. Moreover, the same applies to the English language as Katamba suggests (Katamba 2005, 56-57). Before we look at the two sub-types of affixation separately an important feature of derivational affixes needs to be mentioned. That is the fact that there are two types of derivational affixes.

According to Jackson and Amvela, we can divide them into affixes that change word class and affixes that maintain the same word class. The characteristic of affixes that do not change word class is that there is a mere shift in meaning of the derivative, e.g. yellow → yellowish. As far as affixes that change word class are concerned we can say that they change their part of speech according to the affix that is attached to the root, e.g. popular → popularity. Thus, the suffix *-ity* is characterized by deriving new words belonging to noun class (Jackson and Amvela 2007, 86-91).

##### 3.1.1 Suffixation

Miššíková distinguishes between a few different types of suffixation according to various criteria. The first one is that each suffix represents a single part of speech, i.e. the suffixes *-ness*, *-ity*, *-dom*, *-er* form nouns, whereas the suffixes *-ing*, *-ish*, *-ful* form adjectives. The second criterion is based on some characteristics they have in common, i.e. the suffixes *-let* → piglet, *-ie* → thankie form diminutives, whereas the suffixes *-ation* → capitalization, *-ness* → madness usually form abstract nouns (Miššíková 1993, 53-58).

### 3.1.2 Prefixation

Similarly Miššíková distinguishes between two kinds of prefixes. The first group being prefixes that originated in English, thus native, e.g. *over-* → overloaded, *mis-* → misused, or *un-* → undo. The second group are prefixes which originated in other languages than English, especially in Latin and Greek. Therefore, such prefixes were borrowed, e.g. *mega-* → megacity, *auto-* → automatic, or *para-* → paranormal. Furthermore, she mentions prefixes that change word class (e.g. *be-* → befriend, *en-* → endanger) and prefixes that keep the same word class (e.g. *pre-* → prehistory, *post-* → post-apocalyptic) (Miššíková 1993, 58-61).

## 3.2 Conversion

Another word-formation process to be explored is called conversion. According to Plag: “Conversion can be defined as the derivation of a new word without any overt marking” (Plag 2003, 107). Therefore, adding affixes to roots seems irrelevant in this case.

Moreover, some linguists, such as Kvetko (Kvetko 2005, 36) describes conversion as zero-derivation, where no derivative elements (i.e. prefixes and suffixes) are used (e.g. *fight* → *to fight*, *water* → *to water*, *kill* → *to kill*).

As far as productivity in the English language is concerned, Miššíková states that conversion is one of very productive and typical ways of coining new words. As she claims: “There do not appear to be morphological restrictions on the forms that can undergo conversion [...]” (Miššíková 1993, 61). This suggests that we can shift words which are based on various word-formation processes, e.g. clippings, compounds, or derivation.

Furthermore, it may not always be obvious whether a newly coined word is a result of conversion or derivation. That is mainly the case of words where the position of stressed syllables differs, i.e. words with the same spelling but different by stress, e.g. *im*port → *im*port (Miššíková 1993, 61). Generally, such a process is absent in the Czech language.

## 3.3 Back-formation

If derivation is a word-formation process where affixes are attached to roots, back-formation might well then be described as the opposite – a reversed process, i.e. in back-formation affixes are removed from words to form new ones (Katamba 2005, 185). Such

words are, for instance, television → televise, resurrection → resurrect. Moreover, it can be observed that there is a change in class form (e.g. noun → verb, noun → verb).

Additionally, back-formation can sometimes be mistaken for another word-formation process – clipping. In this word-formation process the deletion of part(s) of word is also typical. Nevertheless, Kvetko (Kvetko 2005, 41) states that back-formation, unlike shortening of words (i.e. clipping), leads to the creation of new lexemes of different parts of speech.

### 3.4 Compounds

According to Jackson and Amvela (Jackson and Amvela 2007, 92) compounds are described as words whose stem contain more than one root. These are, for instance, the words bedroom, boyfriend, or grandfather. A simpler definition is provided by Fromkin, Rodman, and Hyams. In order to create a compound, two or more words are needed to be put together (Fromkin, Rodman, and Hyams 2003, 93).

In the English language, compounding is considered to be a word-formation process that is the most productive and oldest (Kvetko 2005, 27). A similar opinion is held by Štekauer (Štekauer 1992, 48). Furthermore, Bauer (Bauer 2003, 202) states that the majority of compounds belong to noun class.

On the other hand, Hauser claims that compounding is less productive and less frequent in Czech than in English as there occur various restrictions predominantly caused by inflectional morphology. Furthermore, they are also more typical in technical style than in colloquial language (Hauser 1976, 68).

In addition, if a compound consists of roots of the same part of speech (e.g. noun + noun or adjective + adjective), the compound then preserves such a word class. Nevertheless, there are compounds whose roots are of different word class (e.g. blue-ray, longsword, or superman). Consequently, the so-called right-hand head rule is applied in such a case. This means that the rightmost element in a word is also the head (Fromkin, Rodman, and Hyams 2003, 93). Therefore, the part of speech of a compound is determined by its head (e.g. blueberries: adjective + noun → noun; rainfall: noun + verb → verb).

### 3.5 Unpredictable Word-Formation Processes

According to Miššíková: “These formations are very frequent in modern English” (Miššíková 1993, 64). In spite of the fact that unpredictable processes – also referred to as

minor types of word-formation processes (Kvetko 2005, 38) or “unusual structures” (Crystal 2002, 130-131) – appear in the Czech language as well, they occur in much lesser degree owing to different morphological rules. Unpredictability of such processes is mainly caused by the absence of rules which are common and typical for standard word-formation processes, such as compounds or derivation.

Furthermore, Miššíková (Miššíková 1998, 98) claims that the unpredictability is caused by diverse ways in which such words are created, i.e. put together or shortened.

The classification of unpredictable word-formation processes would be as follows: blends, clippings, and acronyms. We will try to discuss each process individually.

### 3.5.1 Blends

Yule (Yule 2006, 66) describes blends as a result of combining two separate forms (e.g. breakfast + lunch → brunch). This leads to the creation of new words with unique meaning. Furthermore, Jackson and Amvela (Jackson and Amvela 2007, 101) claim that there sometimes occur more than two constituents in a blend (e.g. turducken ← turkey + duck + chicken). Some linguists also refer to blends as “portmanteau” or “telescope words” (Štekauer 1992, 89) and (Bauer 2003, 234).

One of the characteristics of blends is, according to Bauer, that blends cannot be further analyzed into separate morphs. Nonetheless, he also states that we are usually able to analyze at least one constituent in a blend which can possibly be recoverable (Bauer 2003, 234). Additionally, the leading element which sets the meaning of the entire blend is usually the second one (Crystal 2002, 130).

This process is fairly popular in the English language and so is in Czech. Štekauer (Štekauer 1992, 89) claims that very few blends are neutral from the point of stylistics. In addition, he suggests that the majority of blends are stylistically colored. This means that they are very popular in slang language as well as in technical terminology (e.g. cineplex ← cinema + complex, bromance ← brother + romance, or mechatronics ← mechanics + electronics). Nygrýn, Pasáčková, and Spal (Nygrýn, Pasáčková, and Spal 1995, 29) also claim that blends are highly productive, although the meaning of some blends may not always be transparent for non-professionals.

Bauer (Bauer 2003, 234-236) distinguishes between various kinds of blends. In the first type, both bases are present in blends – whether orthographically or phonologically – with some kind of overlap (e.g. chocoholic ← chocolate + alcoholic). In the second type,

blends appear to be of neo-classical origin (e.g. telematics ← telecommunication + informatics).

Moreover, individual constituents of blends may potentially create additional affixes, i.e. some elements of blends may start to be used in blend formation repeatedly which can eventually lead to the creation of new affixes, i.e. morphemes (Miššíková 1993, 65). Thus, let us consider the word “shopaholic”. It consists of the words “shop” and “alcoholic”. However, we can find another word in which the element “alcoholic” is present. That is the word “chocoholic” ← chocolate + alcoholic. Suddenly the affix *-holic* was created and can be therefore used in combination with other words. Theoretically, the term “moneyholic” could be used to refer to a person who is obsessed with money.

In Czech, the majority of blends primarily appear in a form of borrowings as the restrictions for blend formation are more crucial than in English (e.g. modem ← modulator + demodulátor, Interpol ← international + police).

### 3.5.2 Clippings

According to Katamba: “Clipping is the term for the formation of a new word-form, with the same meaning as the original lexical term, by lopping off a portion and reducing it to a monosyllabic or disyllabic rump” (Katamba 2008, 180). Bauer (Bauer 2003, 233) also adds that the shortened forms preserve part of speech of the original item. In addition, Kvetko suggests that clippings occur predominantly as nouns (e.g. lab → laboratory, fax → facsimile, or flu → influenza). Furthermore, he states that clippings and their original forms co-exist in the vocabulary and are perceived by some linguists as mere word-forms whereas other linguists still perceive it as a standard word-formation process (Kvetko 2005, 39). In Plag we can find a different term for clippings. That is the word “truncation” (Plag 2003, 116)

Also in this process the question of unpredictability arises. Bauer proposes: “It does not seem to be predictable how many syllables will be retained in the clipped form (except that there will be fewer than in the base lexeme), whether the final syllable will be open or closed, whether the stressed syllable from the base lexeme will be included or not” (Bauer 2003, 233).

We can divide clippings into several different types. Hence, there are such clippings where the final part is removed and the beginning is retained (e.g. camo → camouflage, champ → champion, or detox → detoxification). We can refer to this type as back-

clipping. This type is also considered to be the most common one (Kvetko 2005, 39). Additionally, we can delete the beginning of words (e.g. Cong → Vietcong, chute → parachute, van → caravan). Such a type will then be referred to as front-clipping (Kvetko 2005, 39). Nevertheless, we can also remove the initial and final part simultaneously, thus we combine the two previous types (e.g. script → prescription, still → distillery, or tec → detective).

Moreover, shortening of first names tend to be also popular in English, e.g. Sam → Samantha, Ben → Benjamin, or Vi → Violet (Štekauer 1992, 94).

As far as productivity of clippings is concerned, they are still productive in the English language (Katamba 2008, 180-181). In Czech, however, they are less productive. In general shortenings occur mostly in informal language and thus tend to be slang-colored, even though some words may have become a part of standard language (Štekauer 1992, 92). Furthermore, newly created clippings can further undergo another word-formation process, such as conversion, e.g. fax → to fax. (Štekauer 1992, 93).

### 3.5.3 Acronyms & Initialisms

There is another process where shortening of words is – in a certain way – present. Acronyms and initialisms can be characterized as words which are created by putting the initial letters of different words together, e.g. “PIN” ← personal identification number, “CIA” ← Central Intelligence Agency (Yule 2006, 68).

However, we can only call a word an acronym as long as it is pronounced as a single word (Bauer 2003, 237). That is the case of the first example above “PIN”. Other examples are, for instance, “AIDS” ← Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome, “NATO” ← North Atlantic Treaty Organization, or “Laser” ← light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation. In the second example, we are not obviously able to pronounce “CIA” as a single word. Instead, we are forced to spell each of the letters individually, e.g. “HIV” ← Human Immunodeficiency Virus, “BBC” ← British Broadcasting Corporation, or “SMS” ← short message service. Then, we speak of initialism (Kvetko 2005, 40).

Nonetheless, this kind of word-formation is also unpredictable since there are no rules as to how many letters undergo the process of word-formation (Bauer 2003, 237-238). Let us now consider the acronym “Laser”. If we take a look at each word, we realize that not all of the initial letters were used. Thus, the words “by” and “of” are missing. One could then state that these words should also be present in the acronym. This would create the word

“Labseor” which could possibly be spelled as a single word. Nevertheless, it would definitely sound clumsy and less attractive to one's ear than in the case of “Laser“.



## **II. ANALYSIS**

## 4 INTRODUCTION

The practical part of our bachelor's thesis deals with comparative research on productivity of marginal word-formation processes in English and Czech with the focus on blending and clipping. The main aim of this part was to conduct an analysis based on this research and interpret its results and findings. The data for the analysis were mainly taken from various websites on the Internet, which are particularly devoted to the collection of the target word-formation processes. Subsequently, corpora containing over 400 words were built from the collected data. The corpora can be found in the Appendices. Subsequently, the data was processed into figures based on word-forming and lexical semantics' criterion for the sake of simplicity and clarity. I presume that the results of our analysis prove accurate and useful for students of modern English language and for others, who are interested in marginal word-formation processes.

During the analysis we try to focus on many aspects of the production of target word-formation processes in both languages. There are several objectives that create the focus of our study. Firstly, we try to determine which of the two languages is affected predominantly by the productivity of blends and clippings. Secondly, we attempt to find out which word classes make the most prominent part of blends and clippings in each language, and we also try to examine blends and clippings in terms of their structure and semantics. Furthermore, we want to point out the most fruitful time period for blend coinage; where the tendency of coining new blends leads at the present time and what the tendency is like. Moreover, we try to investigate the origin of Czech blends, as they are – in comparison to English blends – outnumbered in the corpora. Last but not least, we aim to explore the popular fields in which new blends and clippings appear.

### 4.1 The Data Collection

During our research various resources were used. We tried to find such sources that would include all of the necessary information needed for our analysis. Therefore, the Internet proved a reliable and convenient source. As far as English is concerned, there are many websites on the Internet that are especially devoted to blending and clipping. Thus, we included such terms which were interesting to us from the point of word formation, field of use, and field of origin. As a means of verification we used popular and common dictionaries, such as 'The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary', 'Merriam-Webster Online: Dictionary and Thesaurus', 'Oxford Dictionaries Online' and 'Cambridge

Dictionaries Online'. These dictionaries contained relevant and comprehensive information.

## 5 THE PROPORTION OF BLENDS AND CLIPPINGS

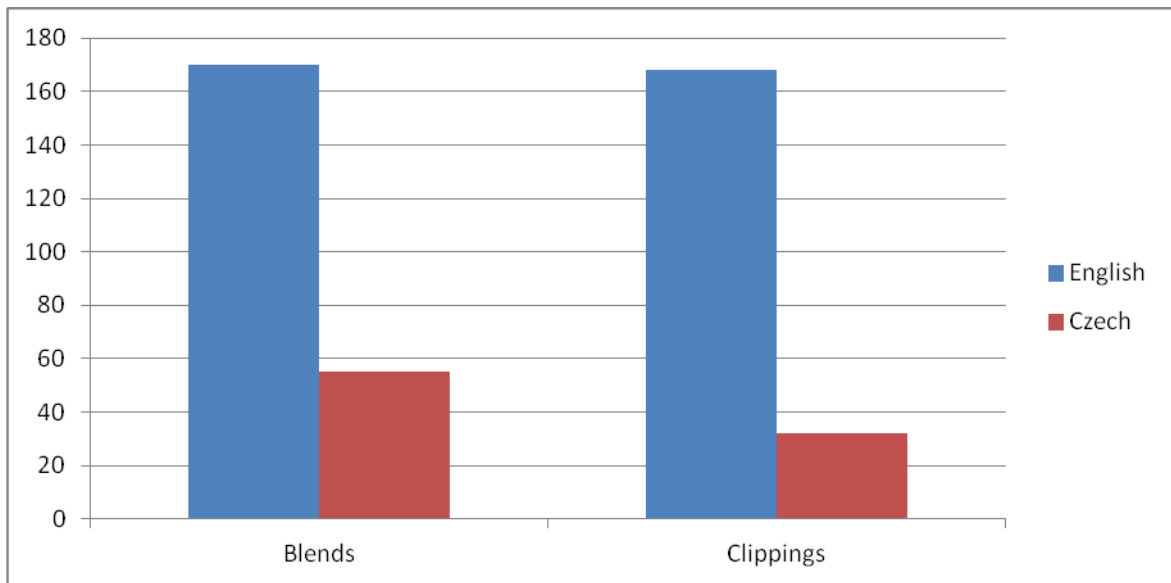


Chart 1: The proportion of blends and clippings in English and Czech (Thesis author)

Chart 1 demonstrates the proportion of blends and clippings collected in English and Czech. Our corpus contains as many as 425 words. The results then show that the frequency of English blends and clippings is a good deal higher in comparison to Czech blends and clippings. There is a total of 227 blends in the corpus, 170 of which are of English origin. However, there are only 55 blends that could be found in Czech. As for clippings, the corpus contains 168 words of English origin and 32 of Czech origin. For the sake of simplicity there is a chart below.

	Blends	Clippings
English	170	168
Czech	55	32
Total	225	200

Table 1: The proportion of blends and clippings (Thesis author)

One of the reasons for such a disproportion could be the fact that the amount of resources that were available to us was higher in English than in Czech. In other words, there are barely any websites, professional journals, or articles in Czech that deal with such phenomena as blends and clippings. That was no surprise to us, as the production of new blends and clippings in Czech is limited by the type of language. On the other hand, we were able to find comparatively larger number of those in English. In comparison to English, Czech is based on a different phonological system and is highly inflectional. In

addition to others, it is mainly these two characteristics that make it more difficult for Czech to produce blends and clippings. Consequently, there is no rich and natural tradition in Czech word-formation to create blends, clippings or other types of unpredictable formations which are common in (non-inflectional, analytical) English. As we claim further in this work, clippings and blends created in Czech are the result of the influence of English word-formation processes.

## 6 THE NATURE OF BLENDS

### 6.1 English Blends

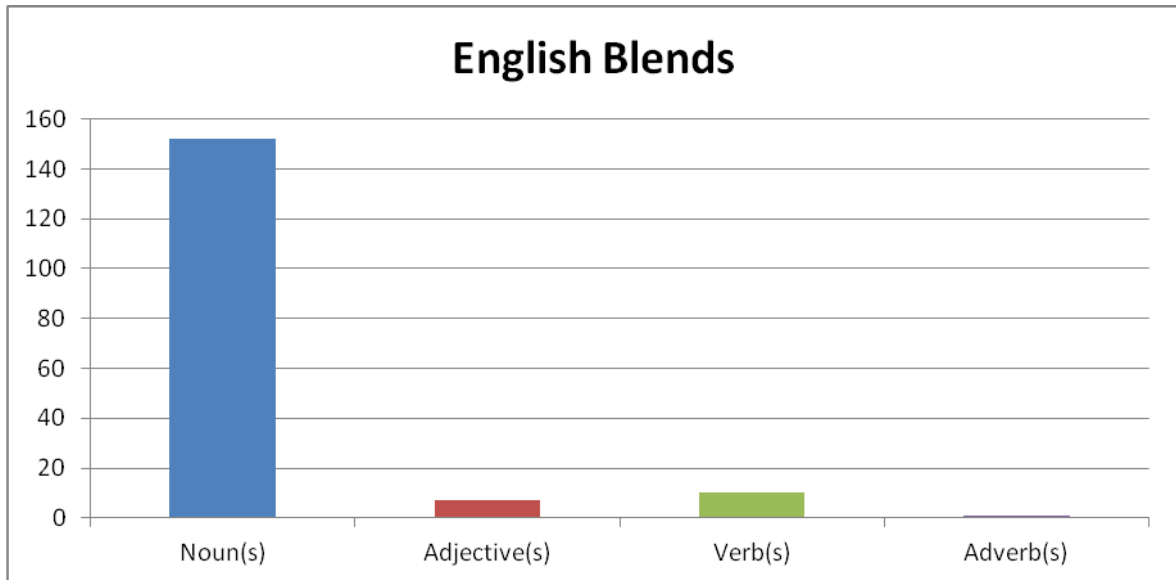


Chart 2: The frequency of different parts of speech of English blends (Thesis author)

Chart 2 displays the frequency of various parts of speech of English blends in our corpus. As can be seen in chart 3, nouns make the largest word class. There are 170 English blends in the corpus. Despite the majority of 152 nouns, we were able to collect 7 adjectives, 10 verbs and 1 adverb. This evidence suggests that blending primarily aims at creating naming words rather than action words. According to our corpus, the popular fields in which new blends occur are: TV and film industry, marketing, technology, and product naming. In 1900s a German company producing dairy products once invented a new cheese and named it ‘Cambozola’ (← Camembert + Gorgonzola) which is a hybrid of the two chesses. Very famous Hollywood actors started to be called ‘Brangelina’ (← Brad + Angelina) after being seen together with increasing frequency. People and media adopted this new catchy expression immediately and it became very popular. This analogy can be observed in the world of politics as well, in Europe there are recent examples too, for instance in Slovakia, the blend ‘Ficinda’ indicates that both previous and current Slovak prime ministers, M. Dzurinda and R. Fico have some characteristics in common. For an average speaker it is usually easy to distinguish the nature of new blends, but not always. Some blends have become so overused that most speakers do not usually know their origin. For example, average speakers use the words ‘cellophane’ (← cellulose + diaphane), ‘napalm’ (←

naphtene + palmitate) or ‘modem’ (← modulator + demodulator) without knowing that they were formed by blending two different lexemes. In other words, some blends are less semantically transparent than others. On the other hand, words such as ‘carjack’ (← car + hijack), ‘dancersize’ (← dance + exercise) or ‘webinar’ (← web + seminar) keep one of the two lexemes unbroken which can help us identify the nature of the words more precisely.

Nevertheless, blends can also have figurative meaning in colloquial language. Transparent structures do not necessarily have to be transparent in terms of meaning. It is obvious that most blends are made from two parts. There are, however, words that are made even from more than two parts. Our corpora contain one English blend made from three different lexemes. That is the word ‘turducken’ (← turkey + duck + chicken) which is a kind of a roast dish.

## 6.2 Czech Blends

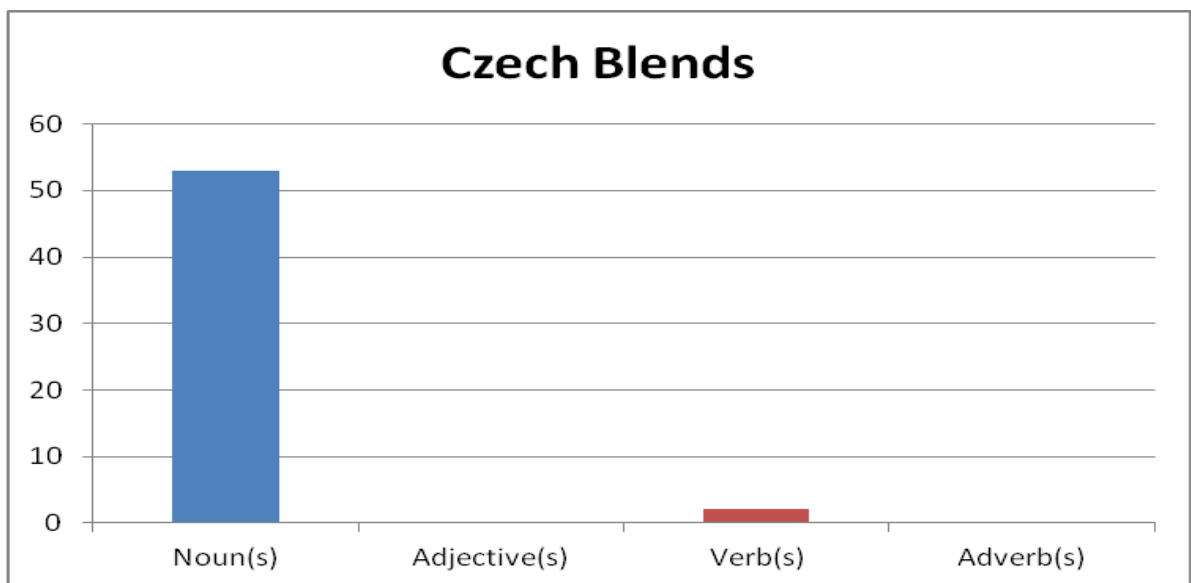


Chart 3: The frequency of different parts of speech of Czech blends (Thesis author)

Chart 3 represents the frequency of various parts of speech of Czech blends. As the figures show, the frequency does not differ much. The total amount of Czech blends in the corpus is 55. The vast majority of the words belong to a noun class with as many as 53 words. Although we were able to find 2 verbs, our corpus does not include any adjectives nor adverbs. This implies that blending predominantly creates words that belong to a noun category. In comparison to English, we can observe that the number of Czech blends made from more than two lexemes is higher in the corpus. The words ‘Čedok’ (← česká + dopravní + kancelář), ‘Drutěva’ (← družstvo + tělesně + vadných), ‘Setuza’ (←

severočeské + tukové + závody), and ‘Semafor’ (← sedm + malých + forem) are all originally formed from three different lexemes. However, if we take into consideration the fact that none of these examples include an unbroken original lexeme, it could be difficult for an uninitiated average speaker to analyze the parts from which they were formed.



## 7 THE ORIGIN OF BLENDS

This part of our research deals with the origin of English and Czech blends. As far as English blends are concerned, we were particularly interested in blend development from a time perspective, as the collected data allowed us to analyze such a feature from this point of view. As for the Czech blends, we tried to analyze them in terms of their origin. The results are displayed in charts below.

### 7.1 The Development of English Blends

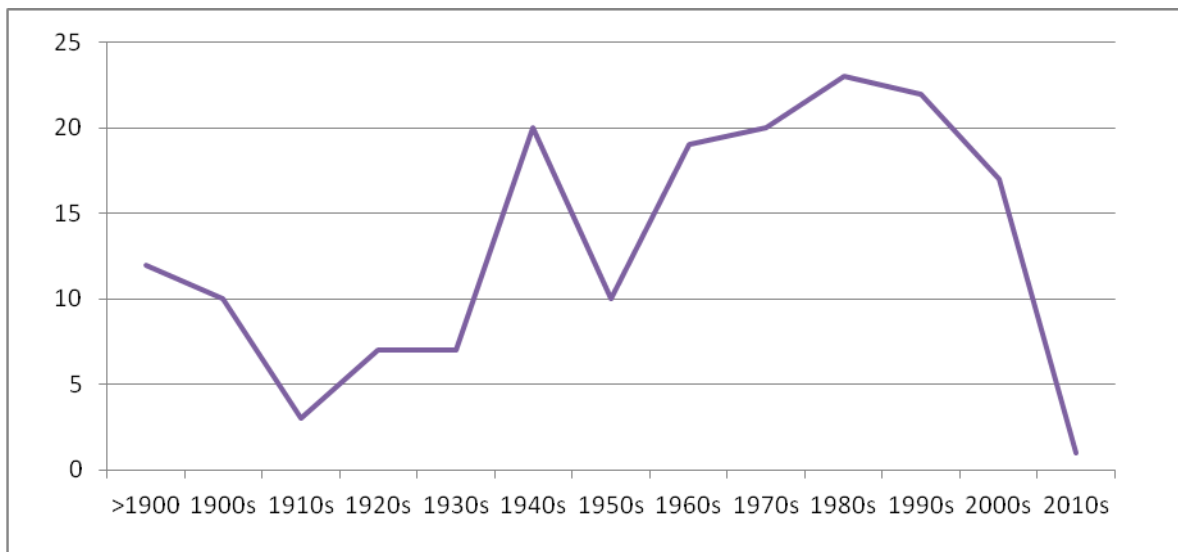


Chart 4: The development of English Blend through time (Thesis author)

Chart 4 demonstrates the development of English blends on a time scale. It is obvious that first blends to appear date back to the 19th century. It is very rare to find new blends before. However, it is not impossible. The verb ‘bash’ appears to be a blend of ‘bang’ and ‘smash’, ‘crash’, or ‘dash’. It was coined in the 17th century, but today we cannot exactly say from which parts the verb was originally made. Even though there are blends that were coined in the 19th century, most new blends started to be coined during the 20th century.

The increasing tendency towards the period in 1930-1940 is evident. This can be understood as a response to the outbreak of World War II, in which the technological development advanced at a rapid pace. The words such as ‘bit’ (← binary + digit), ‘contrail’ (← condensation + trail), ‘napalm’ (← naphthene + palmitate), ‘paratroops’ (← parachute + troops), ‘radome’ (← radar + dome), or ‘thermistor’ (← thermal + resistor) have all connection with technologies that appeared in that era. In the years between 1950’s and 1970’s a lot of words regarding television and film industry occurred, such as ‘biopic’ (←

biographical + picture), ‘Bollywood’ (← Bombay + Hollywood), ‘britcom’ (← British + comedy), ‘cineplex’ (← cinema + complex), ‘docudrama’ (← documentary + drama), ‘dramedy’ (← drama + comedy), ‘sitcom’ (← situation + comedy), ‘vidiot’ (← video + idiot), ‘mockumentary’ (← mock + documentary), or ‘rockumentary’ (← rock + documentary). As the last two examples suggest, the blends were created on the basis of ‘documentary’. This can possibly lead to a creation of new blends formed on the pattern -mentary. Therefore, blending can create even new affixes. Consequently, these are used as a means for derivation. People adapted this way of coinage very fast and today we are familiar with words, such as ‘shopaholic’ (← shop + alcoholic), ‘chocoholic’ (← chocolate + alcoholic) or ‘workaholic’ (← work + alcoholic) – the former pattern ‘alcoholic’ denotes that the subject is addicted to something. Thus, the analogical model is used very frequently when forming new blends.

According to the chart we can observe that the number of blends plummeted after 2000. This may be owing to the lack of dictionary entry for newly created blends. We could not find much information about the latest ones, as they have been included in none of the dictionaries that we worked with. However, we can claim that it is only a matter of time when new blends start to appear in the dictionaries. Therefore, we dare say that the increasing trend of blend forming in English will keep rising, since it is very popular in many fields of life.

## 7.2 The Development of Czech Blends

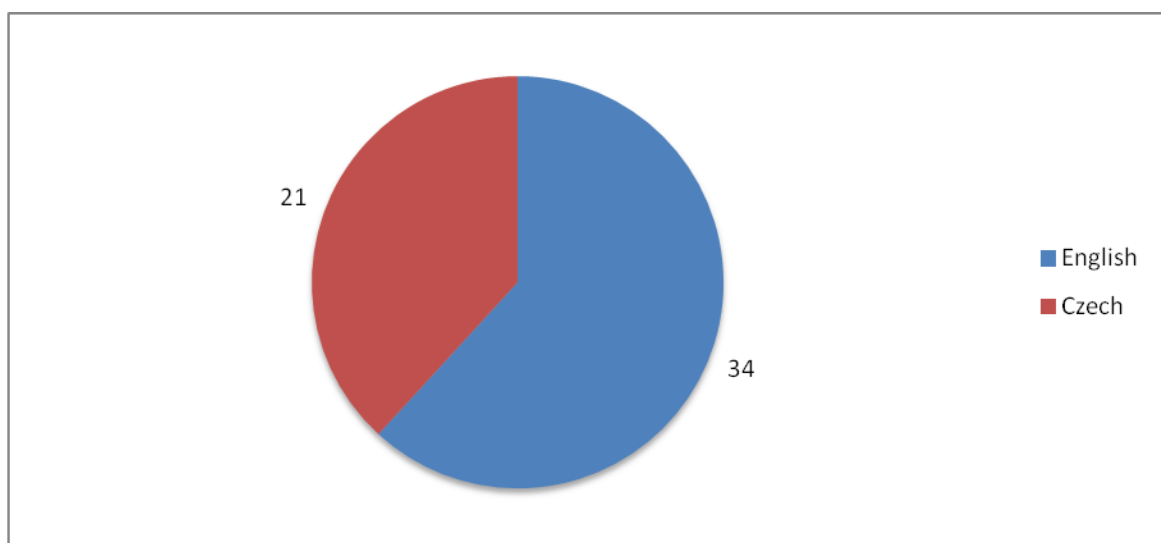


Chart 5: The origin of Czech blends (Thesis author)

Chart 5 displays the proportion of Czech Blends in terms of their nature. As we can see, there are 55 Czech blends included in our corpus, 34 of which are of English origin. This means that they were either borrowed, adopted, or slightly modified, such as the words ‘čokaholik’ (← čokoláda + alkoholik), ‘Eduroam’ (← educational + roaming), ‘internet’ (← international + network), ‘Interpol’ (← international + police), ‘Pulzar’ (← pulsating + start), ‘smog’ (← smoke + fog), or ‘sextovat’ (← sex + textovat). On the contrary, only 21 blends of purely Czech origin were collected, such as ‘alobal’ (← aluminiový + obal), ‘beton’ (← Becherovka + tonik), ‘gramodeska’ (← gramofonová + deska), ‘Umprum’ (← umělecko + průmyslová (škola), ‘Řempo’ (← řemeslinické + potřeby) or ‘Valmez’ (← Valašské + Meziříčí). Consequently these examples are not easy to be found in the English language owing to their Czech origin. Some people could state that, for instance, the word ‘čokoholik’ could purely be of Czech origin, as it is a blend of ‘čokoláda’ + ‘alkoholik’. Nevertheless, it was originated in English. Czech speakers borrowed this word and incorporated it into the language according to Czech grammatical rules – ‘choco’ replaces ‘čoko’ and ‘holic’ replaces ‘holik’. This shows us that blends appear in Czech especially in a form of loanwords. However, it does not necessarily mean that this word-formation process would not be popular in Czech. If we break down the verb ‘sextovat’, we can see that it contains the Czech suffix *-ovat* which makes it the infinitive.

## 8 THE NATURE OF CLIPPINGS

Clipping, as well as blending, is regarded as a minor word-formation process. In this part we try to analyze clippings found in English and Czech from different perspectives. Primarily we focus on their original form, meaning, and their type of clipping. Furthermore, we are interested in knowing what the major parts of speech of clippings in our corpora are. As can be seen from the corpora, the amount of clippings in English is significantly higher than in Czech.

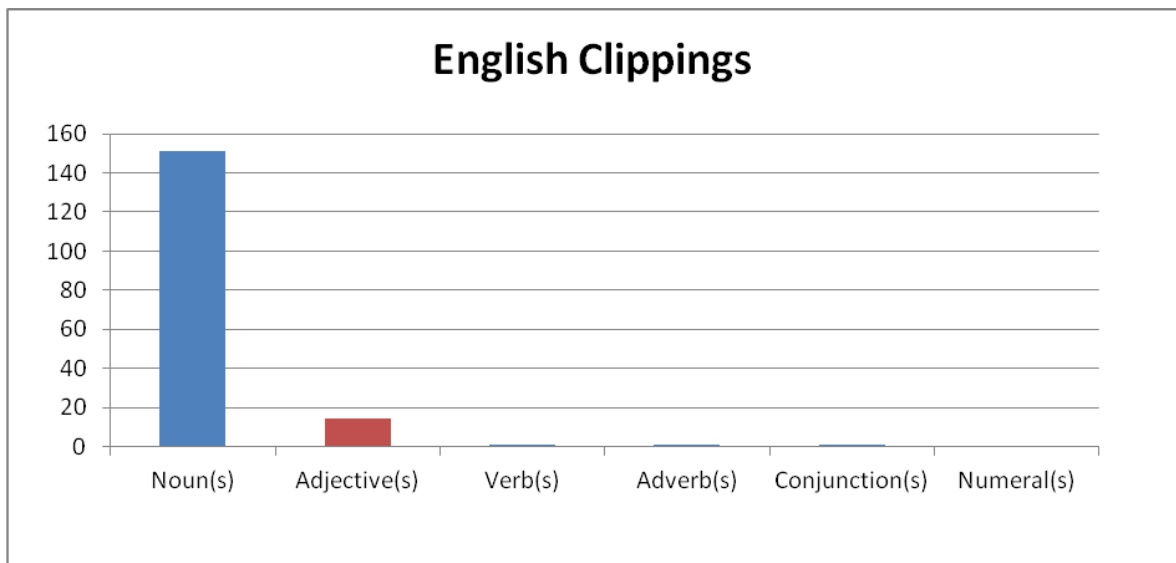


Chart 6: The amount of different parts of speech of English clippings (Thesis author)

The chart above demonstrates the proportion of different parts of speech of English clippings. The total number of English clippings in our corpus is 168. As the results above show, noun category represents the most prominent part of all the clippings in our corpus. Therefore, we could claim that nouns are the major category in which new clippings are formed. Since nouns belong to an open world class, new morphemes are invented constantly which helps to enrich the vocabulary of the English language. Out of 168 clippings in our corpus, only 14 can be classified as adjectives. On the other hand, the vast majority of English clippings in our corpus are nouns - we can find as many as 152 nouns in the corpus. Moreover, we can find only one conjunction and one verb. These are the conjunction 'cause', which is the clipping of the conjunction 'because' and the verb 'defrag', which is the clipping of the verb 'defragment'. However, we were not able to collect any other parts of speech. Despite the fact that adverbs also belong to the open class

category, we were not able to find any. Consequently, we could state that there is a predominant trend of coining new clippings belonging to a noun class.

## 8.1 Czech Clippings

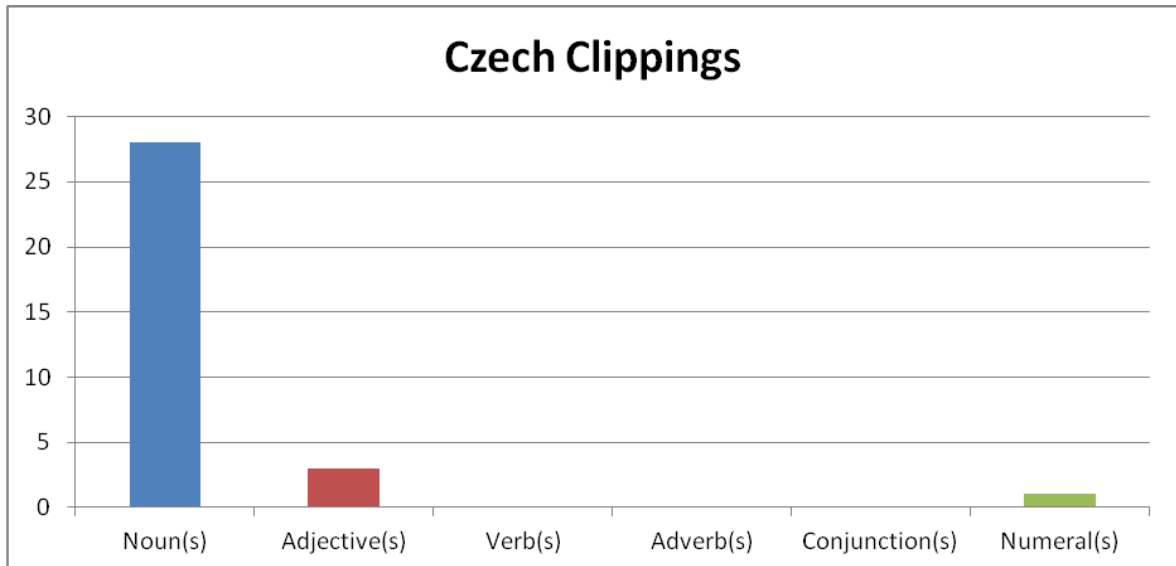


Chart 7: The amount of different parts of speech of Czech clippings (Thesis author)

Chart 7 shows the amount of different parts of speech in the Czech language. It is obvious that the vast majority of clippings, as well as in English, are nouns. Hence, the trend appears to be the same in both languages. The total number of noun clippings in our corpus is 28 out of 32. Furthermore, the corpus also includes one numeral, which is ‘pade’ (→ padesát) and three adjectives, which are ‘bezva’ (→ bezvadné), ‘bio’ (→ biologický), ‘krimi’ (→ kriminalistický). Moreover, many clippings used in Czech have their origin in English. Thus, they can either be borrowed or slightly adapted, such as ‘admin’ (→ administrátor), ‘foto’ (→ fotografie), ‘net’ (→ internet), or ‘uni’ (→ univerzita). Hence, we can state that English plays a significant role in forming new clipping words in the Czech language.

## 8.2 The Level of Formality

This part deals with the level of formality of English and Czech clippings. We try to analyze given clippings in terms of their structure and use. As can be seen from our corpora, most of the analyzed words are used in informal language, such as ‘auto’ (→ automatic), ‘ad’ (→ advantage), ‘biz’ (→ business), ‘burger’ (→ hamburger) or ‘comfy’ (→ comfortable). We can see that these words are contractions of their original forms. This

feature is particularly typical for informal language in which speakers try to reduce the amount of syllables in words they produce to a minimum. On the other hand, we can find words in our corpora that do not necessarily have to be classified as informal when it comes to their level of formality. Such a word could be, for instance, the term ‘disco. Nowadays, speakers might not even realize that the original form of the word ‘disco is ‘discotheque’, which is rather old-fashioned. Speakers use this word everyday without realizing the nature of its original form. Thus, the transparency may not always be ambiguous. Another example from our corpora could be the word ‘fax’ (→ facsimile), which tend to be used even in formal language. The word ‘fan’ can also be used in formal language, even though it is an abbreviation of the word ‘fanatic’. The same might apply for the words ‘piano’ (→ pianoforte) or ‘taxi’ (→ taxicab). Furthermore, people in Czech barely use the word ‘kino’ (→ kinematograf) in its original form. The non-abbreviated version is in today’s Czech language considered archaic. Hence, we can claim that there are such clippings that do not necessarily appear only in informal language. As far as the Czech language is concerned, the vast majority of clippings are mostly found and used in informal language too, e.g. ‘bezva’ (→ bezvadné), ‘klima’ (→ klimatizace), and ‘retka’ (→ cigaretka).

### 8.3 Fields of Use

In this part various fields of origin of clippings are explored. Based on our corpora, we try to discover the areas in which English and Czech clippings occur predominantly. The majority of the examined words have their origin in slang language. Generally, in slang speakers tend to use as few words and their elements as possible when they speak in order to express themselves clearly and fast and usually without unnecessary redundancy of words or their parts. Therefore, the analyzed clippings are divided into several groups based on their field of origin

#### 8.3.1 Military

The first category to be explored is military. In military there has always been a tendency of using as few words as possible. Clipping words and also acronyms might be vital in military slang. Consequently, military speakers are often inclined to use abbreviations on a large scale when they are in a conflict to minimize the amount of words they produce. Thus, the analyzed clippings we collected and that can be classified as military are: ‘aggro’ (→ aggression), ‘ammo’ (→ ammunition), ‘auto’ (→ automatic) as in semi-auto weapon,

‘binocs’ (→ binoculars), ‘bio’ (→ biological) as in biological weapon, ‘bot’ (→ robot) as in soldier bot, ‘camo’ (→ camouflage), ‘chute’ (→ parachute), ‘Cong’ (→ Vietcong), ‘copter’ (→ helicopter), ‘intel’ (< intelligence) as in military intel, ‘mag’ (→ magazine), ‘mish’ (→ mission), ‘op’ (→ operation), ‘recon’ (→ reconnaissance), ‘sarge’ (→ sergeant), ‘sub’ (→ submarine), ‘vet’ (→ veteran). Moreover, in the words ‘frag’ (→ fragmentation grenade), ‘gat’ (→ gatling gun), and ‘nuke’ (→ a nuclear weapon) it can be seen that their abbreviations were formed by removing not only morphemes, but also entire lexemes. In all of the three cases, the head of each noun phrase was completely deleted. Yet, the newly created clipping form retains the part of speech of the noun phrase head. Consequently, we can state that the right-hand rule seems inapplicable and thus irrelevant when it comes clipping.

### 8.3.2 IT & Science

In this group we included clippings which originated in the technological spheres. This category also creates a group where the representation of clippings is higher. For illustration, the words belonging to this group are ‘admin’ (→ administrator), ‘amp’ (→ amplifier), ‘app’ (→ application), ‘auto’ (→ automobile), ‘bio’ (→ biology), ‘cap’ (→ capacity), ‘carb’ (→ carburetor), ‘fax’ (→ facsimile), ‘info’ (→ information), ‘lab’ (→ laboratory), ‘mike’ (→ microphone), ‘phone’ (→ telephone), ‘sim’ (→ simulation), ‘stats’ (→ statistics), ‘stereo’ (→ stereophonic), ‘sync’ (→ synchronization), ‘tech’ (→ technology/technician), ‘telly’ (→ television).

### 8.3.3 Medicine

This group deals with clippings that are related to medicine. Therefore, we can find clippings in our corpora, such as ‘ab’ (→ abdominal muscle), ‘cardio’ (→ cardiovascular exercise), ‘chemo’ (→ chemotherapy), ‘coke’ (→ cocaine), ‘detox’ (→ detoxification), ‘doc’ (→ doctor), ‘flu’ (→ influenza), ‘med’ (→ medical/medicine), ‘meth’ (→ methamphetamine), ‘rehab’ (→ rehabilitation), ‘staph’ (→ staphylococcus), and ‘vet’ (→ veterinarian).

### 8.3.4 Teenager Speech

Our corpora also include clippings spoken by young people, especially those still at school. Moreover, this category might well be called speech of students, as most terms have to do with school, such as e.g. ‘alko’ (→ alcohol), ‘anglina’ (→ angličtina), ‘bio’ (→ biology),

‘bi’ (→ bisexual), ‘bro’ (→ brother), ‘bud’ (→ buddy), ‘burger’ (→ hamburger), ‘bus’ (→ omnibus/autobus), ‘cig’ (→ cigarette/cigar), ‘coke’ (→ Coca-cola), ‘ed’ (→ education), ‘exam’ (→ examination), ‘grad’ (→ graduate), ‘gym’ (→ gymnasium), ‘hetero’ (→ heterosexual), ‘hospa’ (→ hospoda), ‘lit’ (→ literature), ‘matika’ (→ matematika), ‘mayo’ (→ mayonnaise), ‘němina’ (→ němčina), ‘pade’ (→ padesát), ‘prof’ (→ professor), ‘průmka’ (→ průmyslovka), ‘retka’ (→ cigaretky), ‘soph’ (→ sophomore) and ‘uni’ (→ university/univerzita) which appears in both target-languages.

### 8.3.5 Other Fields of Use

We discovered that other fields of use of clippings might be politics, e.g. ‘cong’ (→ congress), ‘dem’ (→ democrat), ‘cred’ (→ credibility), ‘legit’ (→ legitimate), ‘pol’ (→ politician), ‘rep’ (→ representative), or car industry, e.g. ‘auto’ (→ automobile), ‘bus’ (→ omnibus), ‘cab’ (→ cabriolet), ‘gas’ (→ gasoline), ‘kára’ (→ motokára), ‘limo’ (→ limousine), ‘taxi’ (→ taxicab), and ‘van’ (→ caravan).

## 8.4 Ambiguity

Can clippings sometimes cause ambiguity in speech? We can see that there is a number words in the corpus that are polysemous, thus having more than one meaning. Therefore, this may sometimes lead to misunderstanding situations. For instance, the term ‘ad’ can have two different meanings. Even though that the part of speech in both cases remains the same—noun, in one context it means ‘advertisement’, whereas in another it means ‘advantage’. In addition, we can find a different clipping term for ‘advertisement’. That is the word ‘advert’. As this expression is closer to its original form, it may not cause misunderstanding and ambiguity in speech. Another ambiguous expression could be the word ‘auto’. We can refer to it either as ‘automobile’ or ‘automatic’. Furthermore, the word ‘bio’ can be referred to either as ‘biology’ or ‘biological’. The same analogy can be observed in the word ‘med’, where it can stand either for ‘medical’ or ‘medicine’. It is obvious that these expressions are semantically similar. They only differ in their various parts of speech. Other ambiguous clippings can be ‘cap’ (→ capitalization or capacity), ‘coke’ (→ Coca-cola or cocaine), ‘doc’ (→ doctor or document), ‘op’ (→ operation or opportunity), ‘prob’ (→ problem or probably), ‘tech’ (→ technician or technology), or ‘vet’ (→ veteran or veterinarian). Thus, we can state that there are clippings in English that



could cause ambiguity in speech. Since the number of Czech clippings is lower, it may not lead into ambiguous situations.

Least but not last, we cannot omit to mention that clippings can possibly serve as a means for creation of new affixes. Taking into consideration the word *auto*, we can find expressions in which ‘*auto-*’ occurs in a form of prefix, e.g. ‘*autopilot*’, ‘*autonomic*’, or ‘*automotive*’. Therefore, ‘*auto-*’ can create a new combining form which represents either ‘*automobile*’ or ‘*automatic*’, depending on the context.

## 9 THE TYPES OF CLIPPINGS

In this part the aim is focused on different types of clippings in English and Czech. Based on our corpus we tried to discover what the most common types of clippings in the target languages are. In English, the following division consists of three main categories: back-clipping, front-clipping, and combined clipping. As far as the Czech language is concerned, we classified clippings into three classes: back-clipping, front-clipping, and middle clipping. For the sake of transparency and simplicity, the results of our analysis are displayed in the charts below.

### 9.1 English Clippings

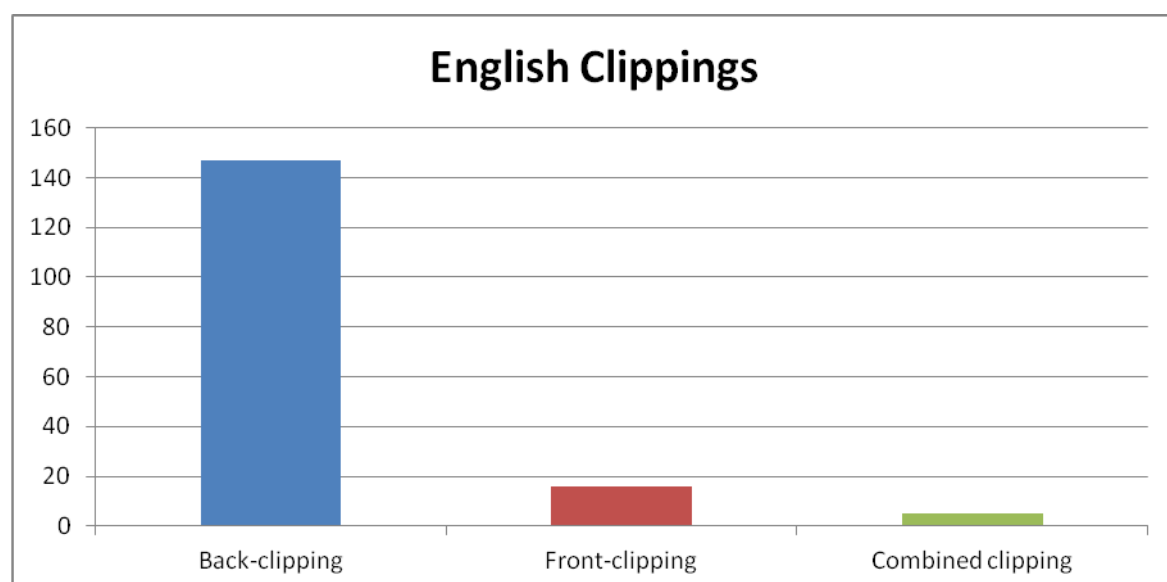


Chart 8: The proportion of different categories of English clippings (Thesis author)

Chart 8 demonstrates the proportion of different categories of clippings in the English language. The results show that the back-clipping type makes the largest category of English clippings with 146 words out of 168, e.g. ‘advert’ (→ advertisement), ‘bio’ (→ biology), or ‘cab’ (→ cabriolet). In addition, there are 16 words belonging to the front-clipping category, e.g. ‘bot’ (→ robot), ‘burger’ (→ hamburger), or ‘chute’ (→ parachute); and only five words belonging to the combined-clipping category, e.g. ‘flu’ (→ influenza), ‘fridge’ (→ refrigerator), or ‘script’ (→ prescription). Therefore, we can state that back-clipping is the major category, whereas fore-clipping and combined clipping are rather minor categories in English.

## 9.2 Czech Clippings

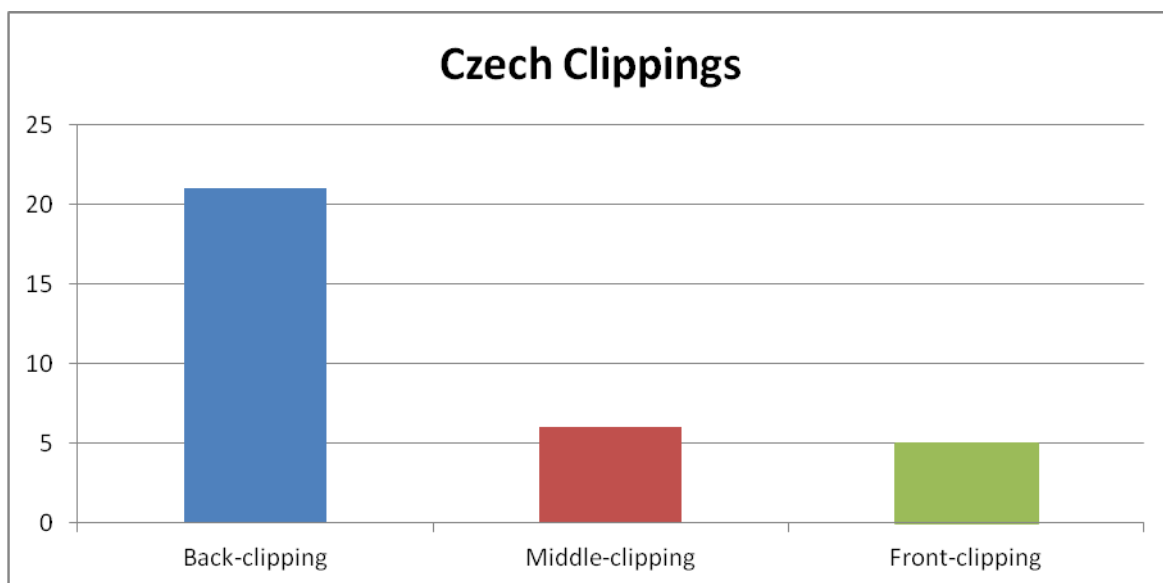


Chart 9: The proportion of different categories of Czech clippings (Thesis author)

Chart 9 displays the frequency of the target categories in Czech. It is obvious that there is also a significant number of words which belong to the back-clipping category. Thus, there are 21 words out of 32 belonging to the back-clipping type, e.g. ‘alko’ (→ alkohol), ‘kilo’ (→ kilogram), and ‘nealko’ (→ nealkoholický). On the other hand, we can find only five words in the front-clipping category, e.g. ‘bus’ (→ autobus), ‘čiči’ (→ čevabčiči), or ‘kára’ (→ motokára); and six words in the middle clipping category.

Unlike in English, there are no examples of combined clippings in Czech, where the middle part of the word is retained, e.g. ‘still’ (→ distillery). However, we can find a category in Czech that is absent in English. That is middle clipping in which only parts of words — usually the beginning and the end — are retained. Consequently, the middle part of words is deleted, e.g. ‘anglina’ (→ angl-ičt-ina), ‘Blava’ (→ b-ratis-lava), ‘matika’ (→ ma-tema-tika), ‘němina’ (něm-či-na), ‘Ova’ (→ o-stra-va), and ‘průmka’ (→ prům-yslov-ka).

## ANALYSIS SUMMARY

The practical part of our thesis deals with comparative research on unpredictable, i.e. minor word-formation processes to be found in English and Czech with the focus on blending and clipping. Therefore, corpora needed to be created in order to conduct such research. The corpora consist of more than 400 different words across the English and Czech languages. We were interested whether unpredictable word-formation processes in Czech are or are not influenced by English. The corpora are divided into several columns according to various criteria, e.g. parts of speech, origin, types of clipping. Afterwards, charts were created for a clear and better orientation.

It was found that the production of unpredictable word-formation processes is more typical and traditional in English than in Czech, as the Czech language is highly inflectional and thus making it more difficult to produce new blends and clippings. Therefore, it was proved that there is a tendency in Czech to borrow new blends and clippings from English. Even when they refer to non-English realia, such as German “Ost” + nostalgia = ostalgia referring to nostalgia for previous socialist regime in East Germany. Czech speakers have no problems with words like this, because they sound very similar or even very much the very the same in Czech, e.g. “nostalgie”. Consequently, we can state that the creation of new blends and clippings is becoming popular, since the amount of them keeps increasing year by year. Furthermore, we discovered that nouns are the most prevailing part of speech in the creation of new clippings and blends.

As far as the level of formality is concerned, we can claim that not all of the abbreviated forms are perceived as informal, e.g. ‘disco’ (→ discotheque), ‘fax’ (→ facsimile), ‘piano’ (→ pianoforte), ‘kino’ (→ kinematograf). Some of the words moved from a colloquial language to Standard English and ‘Standard’ Czech.

Last but not least, we tried to discover the popular fields in which new clippings emerge. These are, for instance, military (e.g. ammo, binocs, copter, op), IT (e.g. app, admin, phone), medicine (e.g. cardio, doc, flu), and teenager speech (e.g. bro, bud, prof).

## **CONCLUSION**

The aim of this work was to determine whether unpredictable word-formation processes in Czech are influenced by the English language. It was proved that Czech is influenced by English since Czech morphology is highly inflectional. Therefore, that makes it hard for the Czech language to produce new blends and clippings on its own. Consequently, blends and clippings in Czech mostly appear in the form of borrowings.

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

e.g.

For example

i.e.

That is

## APPENDICES

- P I List of English Blends
- P II List of Czech Blends
- P III List of English Clippings
- P VI List of Czech Clippings

## APPENDIX P I: LIST OF ENGLISH BLENDS

#	Word	Parts	Part of speech	Origin
1	Advertorial	advertisement + editorial	n+n→n	1940s
2	Aerobatics	aero + acrobatics	n+n→n	1910s
3	Affluenza	affluent + influenza	adj+n→n	1970s
4	Animatronics	animated + electronics	adj+n→n	1970s
5	Arcology	architecture + ecology	n+n→n	1960s
6	Automagically	automatically + magically	adv+adv→adv	1940s
7	Banoffi (pie)	banana + toffee	n+n→n	1970s
8	Beefalo	beef + buffalo	n+n→n	1970s
9	Biopic	biographical + picture	adj+n→n	1950s
10	Bit	binary + digit	adj+n→n	1940s
11	Boatel	boat + hotel	n+n→n	1950s
12	Boxercise	boxer + exercise	n+n→n	1980s
13	Blaxploitation	blacks + exploitation	n+n→n	1970s
14	Blogebrity	blog + celebrity	n+n→n	2000s
15	Bodacious	bold + audacious	adj+adj→adj	19th century
16	Bohunk	Bohemian + hunk	n+n→n	1900s
17	Bollywood	Bombay + Hollywood	n+n→n	1970s
18	Bootylicious	booty + delicious	adj+adj→adj	1990s
19	Brangelina	Brad + Angelina	n+n→n	2000s
20	Britcom	British + comedy	adj+n→n	1970s
21	Bromance	brother + romance	n+n→n	2000s
22	Brunch	breakfast + lunch	n+n→n	19th century
23	Cambozola	camembert + gorgonzola	n+n→n	1900s
24	Camcorder	camera + recorder	n+n→n	1980s
25	Caplet	capsule + tablet	n+n→n	1930s
26	Carjack	car + hijack	n+v→v	1990s
27	Czenglish	Czech + English	n+n→n	2000s
28	Celebutante	celebrity + debutante	n+n→n	1930s
29	Cellophane	cellulose + diaphane	n+n→n	1910s
30	Cheesburger	cheese + hamburger	n+n→n	1920s
31	Chillax	chill + relax	v+v→v	2000s
32	Chinglish	Chinese + English	n+n→n	1950s
33	Chocoholic	chocolate + alcoholic	n+n→n	1960s
34	Chork	chopstick + fork	n+n→n	2000s
35	Chugger	charity + mugger	n+n→n	2000s
36	Chunnel	channel + tunnel	n+n→n	1920s
37	Cineplex	cinema + complex	n+n→n	1970s
38	Cockapoo	cockerspaniel + poodle	n+n→n	1970s
39	Codec	coder + decoder	n+n→n	1960s
40	Contrail	condensation + trail	n+n→n	1940s

41	Cosmeceutical	cosmetic + pharmaceutical	adj+adj→n	1980s
42	Cosplay	costume + play	n+n→n	1990s
43	Clothgasm	clothes + orgasm	n+n→n	2000s
44	Cremains	cremated + remains	adj+n→n	1940s
45	Croissantwich	croissant + sandwich	n+n→n	1980s
46	Cyborg	cyber + organism	adj+n→n	1960s
47	Cybrarian	cyber + librarian	adj+n→n	1990s
48	Dancersize	dance + exercise	v+v→v	1960s
49	Dataveillance	data + surveillance	n+n→n	1980s
50	Diabesity	diabetes + obesity	n+n→n	1980s
51	Digerati	digital + literati	adj+n→n	1990s
52	Digicam	digital + camera	adj+n→n	1990s
53	Docudrama	documentary + drama	adj+n→n	1960s
54	Docusoap	documentary + soap	adj+n→n	1990s
55	Dormobile	dormitory + automobile	n+n→n	1950s
56	Dramedy	drama + comedy	n+n→n	1970s
57	Ebonics	ebony + phonics	n+n→n	1970s
58	Eduroam	education + roaming	n+n→n	2000s
59	Edutainment	education + entertainment	n+n→n	1980s
60	Electrocute	electric + execute	adj+v→v	19th century
61	Email	electronic + mail	adj+n→n	1980s
62	Emoticon	emotion + icon	n+n→n	1990s
63	Escalator	escalade + elevator	v+n→n	1900s
64	Faction	fact + fiction	n+n→n	1960s
65	Fantabulous	fantastic + fabulous	adj+adj→adj	1950s
66	Fanzine	fan + magazine	n+n→n	1940s
67	Folksonomy	folks + taxonomy	n+n→n	2000s
68	Frankenfood	Frankenstein + food	n+n→n	1990s
69	Freeware	free + software	adj+n→n	1980s
70	Freakonomics	freak + economics	adj+n→n	2000s
71	Frenemy	friend + enemy	n+n→n	1950s
72	Fucktard	fucking + retard	adj+n→n	2000s
73	Fugly	fucking + ugly	adj+adj→adj	1970s
74	Gaydar	gay + radar	adj+n→n	1980s
75	Gerrymander	Garry + salamander	n+n→n	19th century
76	Ginormous	giant + enormous	adj+adj→adj	1940s
77	Greenwash	green + whitewash	adj+n→n	1980s
78	Guesstimate	guess + estimate	v+v→v	1930s
79	Hazmat	hazardous + material	adj+n→n	1980s
80	Humongous	huge + monstrous	adj+adj→adj	1970s
81	Infomercial	information + commercial	n+n→n	1980s
82	Immittance	impedance + admittance	n+n→n	1950s
83	Infotainment	information + entertainment	n+n→n	1980s

84	Insinuendo	insinuation + innuendo	n+n→n	19th century
85	Internet	international + network	adj+n→n	1970s
86	Interpol	international + police	adj+n→n	1920s
87	Jazzercise	jazz + exercise	n+v→v	1970s
88	Jeggins	jeans + leggings	n+n→n	2000s
89	Knork	knife + fork	n+n→n	19th century
90	Lidar	light + radar	n+n→n	1960s
91	Liger	lion + tiger	n+n→n	1930s
92	Malware	malicious + software	adj+n→n	1990s
93	Mechatronics	mechanics + electronics	n+n→n	1980s
94	Medevac	medical + evacuation	adj+n→n	1960s
95	Medicare	medical + care	adj+n→n	1960s
96	Meld	melt + weld	v+v→v	1930s
97	Metrosexual	metropolitan + heterosexual	adj+n→n	1990s
98	Mingy	mean + stingy	adj+adj→adj	1900s
99	Moblog	mobile + weblog	adj+n→n	2000s
100	Mockney	mock + Cockney	adj+n→n	2000s
101	Mockumentary	mock + documentary	adj+n→n	1960s
102	Modem	modulator + demodulator	n+n→n	1950s
103	Moobs	man + boobs	n+n→n	1990s
104	Moped	motor + pedal	n+n→n	1950s
105	Motel	motor + hotel	n+n→n	1920s
106	Motorcade	motor + cavalcade	n+n→n	1910s
107	Napalm	naphtene + palmitate	n+n→n	1940s
108	Netiquette	internet + etiquette	n+n→n	1990s
109	Netizen	internet + citizen	n+n→n	1990s
110	Nickeldeon	nickel + melodeon	n+n→n	1900s
111	Nucleonics	nuclear + electronics	adj+n→n	1940s
112	Oxbridge	Oxford + Cambridge	n+n→n	19th century
113	Paratroops	parachute + troops	n+n→n	1940s
114	Parkade	park + arcade	n+n→n	1950s
115	Parsec	parallax + second	n+n→n	1900s
116	Permafrost	permanent + frost	adj+n→n	1940s
117	Permaculture	permanent + agriculture	adj+n→n	1970s
118	Pixel	picture + element	n+n→n	1960s
119	Podcast	iPod + broadcast	n+n→n	2000s
120	Pokemon	pocket + monster	n+n→n	1990s
121	Prosumer	professional + consumer	n+n→n	1980s
122	Pulsar	pulsating + star	adj + n	1960s
123	Radome	radar + dome	n+n→n	1940s
124	Redox	reduction + oxidation	n+n→n	1920s
125	Republicrat	Republican + Democrat	n+n→n	19th century
126	Rockumentary	rock + documentary	n+n→n	1970s

127	Rollick	romp + frolic	v+v→v	19th century
128	Romcom	romantic + comedy	adj+n→n	2000s
129	Screenager	screen + teenager	n+n→n	1900s
130	Sexcapade	sex + escapade	n+n→n	1960s
131	Sexploitation	sex + exploitation	n+n→n	1940s
132	Sexpert	sex + expert	n+n→n	1920s
133	Sext	sex + text	n+v→v	2010s
134	Simulcast	simultaneous + broadcast	adj+n→n	1940s
135	Shopaholic	shop + alcoholic	n+n→n	1980s
136	Silastic	silicon + elastic	n+n→n	1940s
137	Sitcom	situation + comedy	n+n→n	1960s
138	Skort	skirt + shorts	n+n→n	1990s
139	Slanguage	slang + language	n+n→n	19th century
140	Slurb	slum + suburb	n+n→n	1960s
141	Smaze	smoke + haze	n+n→n	1990s
142	Smog	smoke + fog	n+n→n	19th century
143	Spam	spiced + ham	adj+n→n	1930s
144	Spork	spoon + fork	n+n→n	1900s
145	Stagflation	stagnation + inflation	n+n→n	1960s
146	Starchitect	star + architect	n+n→n	1940s
147	Swaption	swap + option	n+n→n	1980s
148	Sysop	system + operator	n+n→n	1980s
149	Tangelo	tangerine + pomelo	n+n→n	1900s
150	Tanorexia	tan + anorexia	n+n→n	1980s
151	Telematics	telecommunication + informatics	n+n→n	1970s
152	Telethon	telephone + marathon	n+n→n	1940s
153	Televangelist	television + evangelist	n+n→n	1970s
154	Telex	teleprinter + exchange	n+n→n	1930s
155	Thermistor	thermal + resistor	adj+n→n	1940s
156	Tigon	tiger + lion	n+n→n	1920s
157	Travelogue	travel + monologue	v+n→n	1900s
158	Turducken	turkey + duck + chicken	n+n+n→n	1980s
159	Tweenager	between + teenager	preposition+n→n	1990s
160	Vidiot	video + idiot	n+n→n	1960s
161	Vog	volcanic + smog	adj+n→n	1980s
162	Wallyball	wall + volleyball	n+n→n	1970s
163	Webcast	web + broadcast	n+v→v	1990s
164	Webinar	web + seminar	n+n→n	1990s
165	Webisode	web + episode	n+n→n	1990s
166	Wiger	white + nigger	adj+n→n	1980s
167	Workaholic	work + alcoholic	n+n→n	1960s
168	Yogalates	yoga + pilates	n+n→n	1990s
169	Zillionaire	zillion + millionaire	n+n→n	1940s

170	Zorse	zebra + horse	$n+n \rightarrow n$	19th century
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## APPENDIX P II: LIST OF CZECH BLENDS

#	Word	Parts	Part of speech	Origin
1	Alobal	aluminiový + obal	adj+n→n	Czech
2	Beton	becherovka + tonik	n+n→n	Czech
3	Botel	boat + hotel	n+n→n	English
4	Celofán	cellulose + diaphane	n+adj→n	English
5	Čedok	česká + dopravní + kancelář	adj+adj+n→n	Czech
6	Čengličtina	čeština + angličtina	n+n→n	Czech
7	Čokololik	čokoláda + alkoholik	n+n→n	English
8	Drutěva	družstvo + tělesně + vadných	n+adv+adj→n	Czech
9	Eduroam	education + roaming	n+n→n	English
10	Franzine	Franz + magazine	n+n→n	English
11	Gaydar	gay + radar	n+n→n	English
12	Gramodeska	gramofónová + deska	adj+n→n	Czech
13	Internet	international + network	adj+n→n	English
14	Interpol	international + police	adj+n→n	English
15	Jogolates	jóga + Pilátes	n+n→n	Czech
16	Kyborg	kybernetický + organismus	adj+n→n	English
17	Matfyz	matematicko + fyzikální + fakulta	adv+adj+n→n	Czech
18	Metrosexuál	metropolitian + heterosexuál	adj+n→n	English
19	Modem	modulator + demodulator	n+n→n	English
20	Moped	motor + pedál	n+n→n	Czech
21	Motel	motor + hotel	n+n→n	English
22	Motorest	motoristická + restaurace	adj+n→n	Czech
23	Muni	Masarykova + univerzita	pronoun+n→n	Czech
24	Napalm	naphtene + palmitate	n+n→n	English
25	Netiketa	net + etiketa	n+n→n	English
26	Oxbridge	Oxford + Cambridge	n+n→n	English
27	Umprum	uměleckoprůmýšlová + škola	adj+n→n	Czech
28	Parsek	parallax + second	n+n→n	English
29	Permakultura	permanentní + kultura	adj+n→n	English
30	Permafrost	permanent + frost	adj+n→n	English
31	Podcast	iPod + broadcast	n+n→n	English
32	Pokémon	pocket + monster	n+n→n	English
33	Pulzar	pulsating + star	n+m→	English
34	Řempo	řemeslnické + potřeby	adj+n→n	Czech
35	Sazka	sázková + kancelář	adj+n→n	Czech
36	Semafor	sedm + malých + forem	n+adj+n→n	Czech
37	Setuza	severočeské + tukové + závody	adj+adj+n→n	Czech
38	Sextovat	sex + text	n+v→v	English
39	Shopaholik	Shop + alkoholik	n+n→n	English
40	Sitcom	situation + comedy	n+n→n	English

41	Skort	skirt + shorts	n+n→n	English
42	Smog	smoke + fog	n+n→n	English
43	Socped	sociální + pedagogika	adj+n→n	Czech
44	Stagflace	stagnace + inflace	n+n→n	Czech
45	Svazarm	svaz + pro + spolupráci + s + armádou	n+n+n→n	Czech
46	Sysop	system + operator	n+n→n	English
47	Tangelo	tangerine + pomelo	n+n→n	English
48	Tanorexie	tan + anorexie	n+n→n	English
49	Telematika	telekomunikace + informatika	n+n→n	Czech
50	Termistor	termální + rezistor	adj+n→n	English
51	Valmez	valašské + meziříčí	adj+n→n	Czech
52	Webcast	web + cast	n+v→v	English
53	Webinář	web + seminář	n+n→n	English
54	Webizoda	web + epizoda	n+n→n	English
55	Workoholik	work + alkoholik	n+n→n	English

### APPENDIX P III: LIST OF ENGLISH CLIPPINGS

#	Word	Original form	Part of speech	Type of clipping
1	Ab	an abdominal muscle	noun	back-clipping
2	Ad	an advertisement	noun	back-clipping
3	Ad	advantage	noun	back-clipping
4	Admin	an administrator	noun	back-clipping
5	Advert	an advertisement	noun	back-clipping
6	Aggro	aggression	noun	back-clipping
7	Ammo	ammunition	noun	back-clipping
8	Amp	amplifier	noun	back-clipping
9	App	an application	noun	back-clipping
10	Auto	an automobile	noun	back-clipping
11	Auto	automatic	adjective	back-clipping
12	Bi	bisexual	adjective	back-clipping
13	Bike	a bicycle	noun	back-clipping
14	Binocs	binoculars	noun	back-clipping
15	Bio	biology	noun	back-clipping
16	Bio	biological	adjective	back-clipping
17	Biz	a business	noun	back-clipping
18	Bookie	a bookmaer	noun	back-clipping
19	Bot	a robot	noun	front-clipping
20	Bra	brassiere	noun	back-clipping
21	Bro	a brother	noun	back-clipping
22	Bronc	a bronco	noun	back-clipping
23	Bud	a buddy	noun	back-clipping
24	Burger	a hamburger	noun	front-clipping
25	Bus	omnibus	noun	front-clipping
26	Cab	a cabriolet	noun	back-clipping
27	Caff	a cafe	noun	back-clipping
28	Cam	a camera	noun	back-clipping
29	Camo	camouflage	noun	back-clipping
30	Cap	campitalization	noun	back-clipping
31	Cap	capacity	noun	back-clipping
32	Carb	carburettor	noun	back-clipping
33	Cardio	a cardiovascular exercise	noun	back-clipping
34	Cause	because	conjunction	front-clipping
35	Champ	a champion	noun	back-clipping
36	Cello	a violoncello	noun	front-clipping
37	Chemo	chemotherapy	noun	back-clipping
38	Chimp	a chimpanzee	noun	back-clipping
39	Chute	a parachute	noun	front-clipping
40	Cig	a cigarette/cigar	noun	back-clipping

41	Coke	Coca-cola	noun	back-clipping
42	Coke	cocaine	noun	back-clipping
43	Combo	combination	noun	back-clipping
44	Comfy	comfortable	adjective	back-clipping
45	Con	a convict	noun	back-clipping
46	Cong	Vietcong	noun	front-clipping
47	Coon	a raccoon	noun	front-clipping
48	Condo	condonmium	noun	back-clipping
49	Cong	congress	noun	back-clipping
50	Copter	a helicoptoper	noun	front-clipping
51	Cred	credibility	noun	back-clipping
52	Crip	a cripple	noun	back-clipping
53	Croc	a crocodile	noun	back-clipping
54	Deco	decompression	noun	back-clipping
55	Deets	details	noun	back-clipping
56	Defrag	defragment	verb	back-clipping
57	Deli	delicatessen	noun	back-clipping
58	Delish	delicious	adjective	back-clipping
59	Dem	a democrat	noun	back-clipping
60	Demo	a demonstration	noun	back-clipping
61	Detox	detoxification	noun	back-clipping
62	Diff	a difference	noun	back-clipping
63	Dino	a dinosaur	noun	back-clipping
64	Disco	a discoteque	noun	back-clipping
65	Doc	a doctor	noun	back-clipping
66	Doc	a document	noun	back-clipping
67	Dorm	a dormitory	noun	back-clipping
68	Ed	education	noun	back-clipping
69	Emo	emotional	adjective	back-clipping
70	Exam	an examination	noun	back-clipping
71	Exec	an executive	noun	back-clipping
72	Expo	exposition	noun	back-clipping
73	Fab	fabulous	adjective	back-clipping
74	Fan	a fanatic	noun	back-clipping
75	Fax	a facsimile	noun	back-clipping
76	Flu	influenza	noun	combined clipping
77	Frag	a fragmentation grenade	noun	back-clipping
78	Fridge	refrigerator	noun	combined clipping
79	Gas	gasoline	noun	back-clipping
80	Gat	a gatling gun	noun	back-clipping
81	Gator	an alligator	noun	front-clipping

82	Gent	a gentleman	noun	back-clipping
83	Grad	a graduate	noun	back-clipping
84	Gym	a gymnasium	noun	back-clipping
85	Hash	hashish	noun	back-clipping
86	Hetero	a heterosexual	noun	back-clipping
87	Info	information	noun	back-clipping
88	Intel	intelligence	noun	back-clipping
89	Intro	an introduction	noun	back-clipping
90	Kilo	a kilogram	noun	back-clipping
91	Lab	a laboratory	noun	back-clipping
92	Lav	a lavatory	noun	back-clipping
93	Legit	legitimate	adjective	back-clipping
94	Lib	liberation	noun	back-clipping
95	Limo	a limousine	noun	back-clipping
96	Lino	linoleum	noun	back-clipping
97	Lit	literature	noun	back-clipping
98	Mag	a magazine	noun	back-clipping
99	Max	maximum	noun	back-clipping
100	Mayo	mayonnaise	noun	back-clipping
101	Med	medical	adjective	back-clipping
102	Med	medicine	noun	back-clipping
103	Meth	methamphetamine	noun	back-clipping
104	Mike	a microphone	noun	back-clipping
105	Mish	a mission	noun	back-clipping
106	Nuke	a nuclear weapon	noun	back-clipping
107	Nympho	a nymphomaniac	noun	back-clipping
108	Op	an operation	noun	back-clipping
109	Op	opportunity	noun	back-clipping
110	Papers	a newspapers	noun	front -clipping
111	Perk	perquisite	noun	back-clipping
112	Pen	peninsula	noun	back-clipping
113	Perv	a pervert	noun	back-clipping
114	Phone	a telephone	noun	front -clipping
115	Photo	a photograph	noun	back-clipping
116	Piano	pianoforte	noun	back-clipping
117	Pic	a picture	noun	back-clipping
118	Plane	an airplane	noun	front -clipping
119	Pol	a politician	noun	back-clipping
120	Pop	popular	adjective	back-clipping
121	Porn	pornography	noun	back-clipping
122	Prep	preparation	noun	back-clipping
123	Pro	a professional	noun	back-clipping
124	Pro	professional	adjective	back-clipping

125	Prof	a professor	noun	back-clipping
126	Prom	promenade	noun	back-clipping
127	Promo	promotion	noun	back-clipping
128	Prob	a problem	noun	back-clipping
129	Prob	probably	adverb	back-clipping
130	Prop	property	noun	back-clipping
131	Psycho	a psychopath	noun	back-clipping
132	Pub	a public house	noun	back-clipping
133	Rad	radical	adjective	back-clipping
134	Rec	recreation	noun	back-clipping
135	Recon	a reconnaissance	noun	back-clipping
136	Rehab	rehabilitation	noun	back-clipping
137	Rep	a representative	noun	back-clipping
138	Rhino	a rhinoceros	noun	back-clipping
139	Ruck	a rucksack	noun	back-clipping
140	Sarge	a sergeant	noun	back-clipping
141	Script	a prescription	noun	combined clipping
142	Sec	a second	noun	back-clipping
143	Sim	a simulation	noun	back-clipping
144	Soph	a sophomore	noun	back-clipping
145	Spec	specification	noun	back-clipping
146	Stats	statistics	noun	back-clipping
147	Staph	staphylococcus	noun	back-clipping
148	Stereo	stereophonic	adjective	back-clipping
149	Sub	a submarine	noun	back-clipping
150	Still	distillery	noun	combined clipping
151	Sync	synchronization	noun	back-clipping
152	Taxi	a taxicab	noun	back-clipping
153	Tec	a detective	noun	combined clipping
154	Tech	a technician	noun	back-clipping
155	Tech	a technology	noun	back-clipping
156	Telly	a television	noun	back-clipping
157	Trad	traditional	adjective	back-clipping
158	Tux	a tuxedo	noun	back-clipping
159	Typo	a typographical error	noun	back-clipping
160	Uni	a university	noun	back-clipping
161	Vamp	a vampire	noun	back-clipping
162	Van	a caravan	noun	front-clipping
163	Veg	a vegetable	noun	back-clipping
164	Vet	a veteran	noun	back-clipping

165	Vet	a veterinarian	noun	back-clipping
166	Wig	periwig	noun	front-clipping
167	Zine	a magazine	noun	front-clipping
168	Zoo	a zoological garden	noun	back-clipping

## APPENDIX P VI: LIST OF CZECH CLIPPINGS

#	Word	Original form	Part of speech	Type of clipping
1	Auto	automobil	noun	back-clipping
2	Admin	administrátor	noun	back-clipping
3	Alko	alkohol	noun	back-clipping
4	Anglina	angličtina	noun	middle clipping
5	Bezva	bezvadné	adjective	back-clipping
6	Bio	biologický	adjective	back-clipping
7	Blava	Bratislava	noun	middle clipping
8	Bus	autobus	noun	front-clipping
9	Čiči	čevabčiči	noun	front-clipping
10	Foto	fotografie	noun	back-clipping
11	Hospa	hosпода	noun	back-clipping
12	Kára	motokára	noun	front-clipping
13	Kilo	kilogram	noun	back-clipping
14	Kino	kinematograf	noun	back-clipping
15	Klima	klimatizace	noun	back-clipping
16	Kola	Coca-cola	noun	front-clipping
17	Krim	kriminál	noun	back-clipping
18	Krimi	kriminalistický	adjective	back-clipping
19	Limo	limonáda	noun	back-clipping
20	Matika	matematika	noun	middle clipping
21	Nealko	nealkoholický	noun	back-clipping
22	Net	internet	noun	back-clipping
23	Němina	němčina	noun	middle clipping
24	Ova	Ostrava	noun	middle clipping
25	Pade	padesát	numeral	back-clipping
26	Porno	pornografie	noun	back-clipping
27	Průmka	průmyslovka	noun	middle clipping
28	Retka	cigaretka	noun	front-clipping
29	Sono	sonografie	noun	back-clipping
30	Telka	televize	noun	back-clipping
31	Uni	univerzita	noun	back-clipping
32	Zoo	zoologická zahrada	noun	back-clipping