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FINAL
QUALIFICATION WORK

on the theme

«Compounding as a type of word-formation
(on the material of Modern English)»

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INTRODUCTION

The overall aim of educational policy in Uzbekistan is the radical changes in the quality improvement and training highly qualified specialists. On this aim many legislative documents were issued in our country since 1991. The New Law on Education, National Program of Personnel Training and several decrees, concepts and other documents were adopted in the last 20 years.

The President of the Republic of Uzbekistan Islam Karimov several times in his works has mentioned, that learning foreign languages as one of the directions of spiritual development of the society: "One more important task is – to assist the development of the language, culture, customs and traditions to the all nations and nationalities residing in Uzbekistan, further expansion of possibility and conditions in this sphere".[1]

Independent Uzbekistan is developing by the model chosen by the nation, along the road of open and free market relations, and along the road of building a just society and a strong law - governed democratic state[2].

The National Program for Personnel training is directed to the training of new generation personnel, that can be creative, sociable, and have the ability for problem-solving[3].

In order to create harmoniously developed, highly educated, modern-thinking young generation the President of the Republic of Uzbekistan Islam Karimov signed a Decree "On Measures to further improve foreign language learning system"[4]. This document is a legal basis of reforming Foreign Language Learning system in the country. A lot of works done and being done in our country in order to achieve the highest effectiveness in foreign language learning system.

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[1] Каримов И.А. Наша высшая цель – независимость и процветание Родины, свобода и благополучия народа. – Ташкент, 2000 – С.65.

[2] Karimov I.A. Uzbekistan along the road of deepening economic reform – T.: Uzbekistan, 1995 - P.3

[3] Национальная программа по подготовке кадров // Гармонично развитое поколение – основа прогресса Узбекистана. – Т.: Шарк, 1997. – С. 1-3.

[4] Постановление Президента Республики Узбекистан «О мерах по дальнейшему совершенствованию системы изучения иностранных языков». // Вечерний Ташкент. От 11 декабря 2012 г.

Among other foreign languages English plays an important role, as it is one of the well-spread languages of the world. English is a key access to the 80 per cent information of science in the world. That`s why, we have to study its structure thoroughly. As a graduate student of the English Department, I chose the topic of English world-building system for my graduate qualification work.

An important distinctive feature of any language is that its word-stock may be replenished by new words. They are either borrowed from the other languages or formed from native vocabulary with the help of some types of word-formation.

Vocabulary changes are observed daily throughout a life of one generation: any innovation in the technician, in social life, in the area of policy, economy and culture is accompanied by occurrence of new words and expressions.

Any language needs to elaborate its forms and functions of communication to equip itself to meet the demand of different fields of knowledge. There are different essential means of modernizing a language, and one of them is formation of new words.

Process of expansion of vocabulary system of a language proceeds during the periods of deep political and technical shocks and changes especially intensively. The language vocabulary reacts actively to the phenomena caused by these public changes.

Replenishment of the vocabulary by forming new words is important feature of transforming of vocabulary stock.

So, language needs to elaborate its forms and functions of communication to equip itself to meet the demand of different fields of knowledge.

The process of expanding the vocabulary of the language is particularly intensive in periods of major social and political upheaval, social and cultural change. Language vocabulary is actively responding to the phenomenon, brought to life by these social changes.

The XXI-th century has witnessed the explosion of knowledge particularly due to the advancement in the field of word-formation. We can see that new words appear intensively in a short period of time. So much it is probably obvious that the

new words are initially used in the English language and later have been translated into other languages.

Thus, the theme of our qualification paper is *relevant*.

The aim of our qualification paper is to study the compundg as a productive way of word-building in Modern English .

The object of our qualification paper: word formation as a means of the language development.

Hypothesis of our research: various types of word-formation are very productive way of the modern English language development and progress.

The goal, object and subject have demanded the decision of the following *tasks*:

– to study theoretical and practical sources on the problems of the research;

– to give definition of word-formation in the English language;

– to consider various types of compounding and their peculiarities;

– to make a practical research of using various types of compounds.

Methods of our qualification paper: scientific analysis of the information sources and references, description, comparative analysis and interpretation of sources, conceptual analysis of the literature, synthesis, study, content-analysis.

Methodological basis of our qualification work: R.Z. Ginzburg's and F. Ungerer's theories of word-formation as a brunch of lexicology, I.V. Arnold's thesis of derivation, classification of word-formation types, formed by R.Z. Ginzburg, I.V. Arnold, G.B. Antrushina, E.M. Dubenetz. J. Buranov and A. Muminov.

Practical value: our qualification work can be useful for students at classes in the English lexicology and teachers of the English language.

Our qualification work consists of the introduction, two chapters (1 theoretical and 1 practical), the conclusions, references and appendix.

Introduction includes the foreword, the goal, the hypothesis, the subject and the object, objectives, methodological basis and methods of the research.

The theoretical part consists of three divisions which describe main theoretical issues of the research, in the practical part we analyze types of word-

formation. There analyzed the use and formation of compoundings in the English language.

Conclusion part includes drawings from the theoretical and practical parts. References comprise about 40 sources. Appendix shows tables and figures.

CHAPTER I. WORD-FORMATION AS A MEANS OF THE LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

1.1. Definition and features of word-formation

Word-formation as a means of the language development was widely studied by many linguists, foreign and native. All of them agree that word-formation is one of main ways of language replenishment and enriching.

R.Z. Ginzburg states that «word-formation is that branch of lexicology which studies the derivative structure of existing words and the patterns on which a language, in this case the English language, builds new words» [5, P. 111].

The appearance of a great number of new words and the development of new meanings in the words already available in the language may be largely accounted for by the rapid flow of events, the progress of science and technology and emergence of new concepts in different fields of human activity.

The influx of new words has never been more rapid than in the last few decades of this century. Estimates suggest that during the past twenty-five years advances in technology and communications media have produced a greater change in our language than in any similar period in history. The specialised vocabularies of aviation, radio, television, medical and atomic research, new vocabulary items created by recent development in social history – all are part of this unusual influx.

Thus, the XXI-th century has brought into English such vocabulary items as *blackout, fifth-columnist, paratroops, A-bomb, V-Day*, etc.; the development of science gave such words as *hydroponics, psycholinguistics, polystyrene, radar, cyclotron, meson, positron; antibiotic,* etc.; the conquest and research of cosmic space gave birth *to sputnik, lunnik, babymoon, space-rocket, space-ship, space-suit, moonship, moon crawler, Lunokhod,* etc. [6, p. 81].

F. Ungerer recognizes, that «Word-formation is one of those linguistic terms that may be unsatisfactory on a more theoretical level, but that are immensely useful when one tries to survey processes of extending the lexicon» [7, p. 5]. Word-

formation ranges from prefixation and suffixation to processes not even reflected in the phonological form of the item involved (e.g., conversion); there, word-formation borders on purely semantic processes of metaphor and metonymy. Between these two extremes may be placed the many ways in which words can be combined, fused, and condensed (as in compounds, lexical blends, back-formations, clippings, and acronyms).

Since English is one of the languages that makes use of all these processes, mostly English examples will be chosen for illustrative purposes, but it should be kept in mind that some of the processes, in particular affixation, are much more widespread and more differentiated in other languages.

The growth of the vocabulary reflects not only the general progress made by mankind but also the peculiarities of the way of life of the speech community in which the new words appear, the way its science and culture tend to develop.

The peculiar developments of the American way of life for example find expression in the vocabulary items like *taxi-dancer* – a girl employed by a dance hall, cafe, cabaret to dance with patrons who pay for each dance; *to job-hunt* – to search assiduously for a job.

The political life of America of to-day gave items like *witchhunt* – the screening and subsequent persecution of political opponents; *ghostwriter* – a person engaged to write the speeches or articles of an eminent personality; *brinkmanship* – a political course of keeping the world on the brink of war; *to sit in* – to remain sitting in available places in a cafe, unserved in protest of down of a group of people in a public place to disrupt traffic as a form of protest or demonstration; *to nuclearise* – to equip conventional armies with nuclear weapons; *nuclearisation; nuclearism* – emphasis on nuclear weapons as a deterrent to war or as a means of attaining political and social goals.

All these examples demonstrate one of the ways of a language development – word-formation.

By *word-formation* I.V. Arnold understands *process of producing new words from the resources of this particular language,* or *the system of derivative types of*

words and the process of creating new words from the material available in the language after certain structural and semantic formulas and patterns. [6, p. 95].

Together with borrowing, word-building provides for enlarging and enriching the vocabulary of the language.

1.2. Linguistic peculiarities of word-formation

Word-formation has some features that can be considered from various points of view: *morphemic, structural or semantic.*

From the *morphemic* aspect the analysis is limited to stating the number and type of morphemes that make up the word, or how the words are maid: the word *girlishness* may be analysed into three morphemes: the root – *girl* – and two suffixes – *ish* and – *ness».* The morphemic classification of words is as follows: one root morpheme – a root word *(girl),* one root morpheme plus one or more affixes – a derived word *(girlish, girlishness),* two or more stems – a compound word *(girl-friend),* two or more stems and a common affix – a compound derivative *(old-maidish).* The morphemic analysis establishes only the ultimate constituents that make up the word.

A structural word-formation analysis proceeds further: it studies the structural correlation with other words, the structural patterns or rules on which words are built.

This is done with the help of the principle of oppositions, i.e. by studying the partly similar elements, the difference between which is functionally relevant; in our case this difference is sufficient to create a new word. *Girl* and *girlish* are members of a morphemic opposition. They are similar as the root morpheme – *girl* – is the same. Their distinctive feature is the suffix – *ish.* Due to this suffix the second member of the opposition is a different word belonging to a different part of speech. This binary opposition comprises two elements.

«Structurally new vocabulary items represent two types of lexical units: words, e.g. *blackout, microfilm-reader, unfreeze,* and word-groups, mostly phraseological units, e.g. *blood bank* – a place where blood plasma are stored; *atomic pile* – reactor, etc.» [8, p. 67].

Words in their turn comprise various structural types:

1. – *simple words*, e.g. *jeep* – a small, light motor vehicle esp. for military use; *zebra* – street crossing-place, marked by black and white stripes;

2. – *derived words*, such as *collaborationist* (stem + suffix) – one who in occupied territory works helpfully with the enemy; *centrism* – a middle-of-the road or a moderate position in polities, *a preppie* (slang) – a student or graduate of a preparatory school*;*

3. – *compounds*, e.g. *corpsman* – a member of a hospital squad trained to administer first aid to wounded servicemen, *script-show* – a serial program on radio and television; *house-husband* (American English) – a married man who manages a household. The analysis of new words for their derivational structure shows a marked predominance of derived and compound words and a rather small number of simple words [9, p. 37].

Word-groups comprise a considerable part of vocabulary extension. Structurally, the bulk of the word-groups belong to theattributive-nominal type built on the *A +N* (attribute + noun) and *N + N* (noun +noun) formulas, e.g.*frequency modulation, jet engine, total war, Common Marketeer, machine time,* etc.

«Word-groups and different types of words are unequally distributed among various lexical stylistic groups of the vocabulary, with a predominance of one or another type in every group. For example, new words in the field of science are mostly of derived and compound structure, but the technical section of the vocabulary extension is characterised by simple words» [10, P. 49].

The greater part of word-groups is found among scientific and technical terms; the political layer of vocabulary is rather poor in word-groups. Besides this peculiar distribution of different types of words, every type acquires its own specific peculiarity in different lexical stylistic groups of the vocabulary, for example, although derived words are typical both of scientific and technical terms, words formed by conversion are found mostly among technical terms.

Semantic analysis deals with semantic structure of the new words which are formed from others.

I.V. Ginzburg mentions that new vocabulary items in Modern English belong only to the notional parts of speech, i.e. only to nouns, verbs and adjectives; of these nouns are most numerous [5, P. 183].

New vocabulary units are as a rule monosemantic and most of them are marked by peculiar stylistic value – they primarily belong to the specialised vocabulary. Neutral words and phrases are comparatively few. Terms used in various fields of science and technique make the greater part of new words.

«Semantic word-building can be divided into shortening, sound – and stress-interchange which traditionally are referred to minor ways of word-formation» [11, P. 87].

By semantic word-building some linguists understand any change of word-meaning, e.g. *stock* – the lower part of the trunk of a tree; something lifeless or stupid; the part of an instrument that serves as a base, etc.; *bench*– a long seat of wood or stone; a carpenter's table, etc.

The majority of linguists, however, understand this process only as a change in the meaning of a word that may result in the appearance of homonyms, as is the case with *flower*–a blossom and *flour*–the fine meal, powder made from wheat and used for making bread; *magazine*–a publication and *magazine*–the chamber for cartridges in a gun or rifle, etc. «The application of the term word-formation to the process of semantic change and to the appearance of homonyms due to the development of polysemy seems to be debatable for the following reasons: as semantic change does not, as a rule, lead to the introduction of a new word into the vocabulary, it can scarcely be regarded as a word-building means» [12, P. 112].

One of the features of word-formation is *an aspect of productivity*. All types of word-formation can be divided into productive and non-productive. Productive ways are used more often for forming new words. For instance, affixation has been a productive way of forming words ever since the Old English period; on the other hand, sound-interchange must have been at one time a word-building means but in Modern English its function is actually only to distinguish between different classes and forms of words.

Productivity of word-building ways, individual derivational patterns and derivational affixes is understood as their «ability of making new words which all

who speak English find no difficulty in understanding, in particular their ability to create what are called occasional words or nonce-words» [13, p. 48].

The term suggests that a speaker coins such words when he needs them; if on another occasion the same word is needed again, he coins it afresh. Nonce-words are built from familiar language material after familiar patterns.

The following words may serve as illustration: (his) *collarless* (appearance), a *lungful* (of smoke), a *Dickensish* (office), *to unlearn* (the rules), etc. [14, P. 183]

Productivity of derivational means is relative in many respects. Moreover, there are no absolutely productive means; derivational patterns and derivational affixes possess different degrees of productivity. Therefore it is important that conditions favouring productivity and the degree of productivity of a particular pattern or affix should be established.

«Three degrees of productivity are distinguished for affixes: I) highly-productive, 2) productive or semi-productive and 3) non-productive» [15, p. 57].

Productive affixes are those used to form new words in the period in question. The most productive prefixes in Modern English are: de – (decontaminate), re – (rethink), pre – (prefabricate), non – (non-operational), un – (unfunny), anti – (antibiotic).

The most productive English suffixes are

Noun-forming suffixes	-er (manager), – ing (fighting), – ness (sweetness), – ation (automation), – ee (evacuee), – or (reactor), – ics (cybernetics),
Adjective-forming suffixes	-able (tolerable), – ish (smartish), – ed (learned), – less (jobless)
Verb-forming suffixes	-ize (vitaminize), – ate (oxidate)
Adverb-forming suffixes	-ly (equally).

Non-productive affixes are the affixes which are not able to form new words in the period in question. Non-productive affixes are recognized as separate

morphemes and possess clear-cut semantic characteristics. Non-productive suffixes in English are as follows:

Noun-forming suffixes	-th (truth), – hood (sisterhood), – ship (csholarship)
Adjective-forming suffixes	-ful (peaceful), – ly (sickly), – some (tiresome)
Verb-forming suffixes	-en (strengthen)

An affix may loose its productivity and then become productive again in the process of word-formation. This was happened to the suffix – dom. For a long period of time it was non-productive, but in the last years it got a new lease of life so that a great amount of words was coined with its help; serfdom, slavedom, etc.

The productivity of an affix should not be confused with its frequency of occurrence. The frequency is understood as the existence in the vocabulary of a great number of words containing the affix.

An affix may occur in hundred of words, but it is not used for word-formation. For example, the adjective suffix – **ful** is met in many words (beautiful, hopeful, trustful, useful), but there are no new words with it. [12, p. 75].

There many productive ways of word-formation are distinguished in English. All of them are worth to study independently.

1.3. Types of word-formation

By productive ways (affixation, conversion, word-compounding, shortening) of word-formation, we understand the ways of word-building, which can create as much new words as possible.

The available linguistic literature on the subject cites various types and ways of forming words. Earlier books, articles and monographs on word-formation and vocabulary growth used to mention morphological, syntactic and lexical and semantic types of word-formation. At present the classifications of the types of word-formation do not, as a rule, include lexical and semantic word-building. Of interest is the classification of word-formation means based on the number of motivating bases which many scholars follow. A distinction is made between two large classes of word-building means.

R.Z. Ginzburg refers to Class I «ways of building words having one motivating base» [5, p. 86]. For example, the noun **catcher** is composed of the base **catch –** and the suffix – er, through the combination of which it is morphologically and semantically motivated.

Class II includes the ways of building words containing more than one motivating base. They are all based on compounding (**country-club, door-handle, bottle-opener,** etc., all having two bases through which they are motivated).

Most linguists consider as productive chief processes of English word-formation: *word-derivation (affixation, conversion, word-compounding (composition) and shortening (abbreviation, acronymy, clipping).*

There are some non-productive (minor) ways of word-formation: *back-formation, sound interchange, distinctive stress, sound imitation, blending.*

Ways of word-formation can be shown at the scheme (see Appendix A, fig. 1).

Let's study the most productive ways of word-formation.

1.   *Affixation.* Words which consist of a root and an affix (or several affixes) are called *derived words* or *derivatives* and are produced by the process of word-building known as *affixation* (or *derivation).* [17, p. 83]

Derived words are extremely numerous in the English vocabulary.

The process of *affixation (prefixation and suffixation)* consists in coining a new word by adding an affix (prefix or suffix) or several affixes to some root morpheme. The role of the affix in this procedure is very important and therefore it is necessary to consider certain facts about the main types of affixes. From the etymological point of view affixes are classified into the same two large groups as words: native and borrowed, e.g. native suffixes are: – er, – ness, – ing, etc, borrowed suffixes are: – tion, – able, – ous, etc.

Affixes can also be classified into productive and non-productive types. By *productive* affixes we mean the ones, which take part in deriving new words in this particular period of language development.

The best way to identify productive affixes is to look for them among *neologisms* and so-called *nonce-words,* i. e. words coined and used only for this particular occasion. The latter are usually formed on the level of living speech and reflect the most productive and progressive patterns in word-building. When a literary critic writes about a certain book that it is an *unputdownable thriller,* we will seek in vain this strange and impressive adjective in dictionaries, for it is a nonce-word coined on the current pattern of Modern English and is evidence of the high productivity of the adjective-forming borrowed suffix – *able* and the native prefix *un* – [18, p. 69]

In order to study affixation more precisely, we should divide this way into prefixation and suffixation.

Prefixation is the formation of words with the help of prefixes. The interpretation of the terms **prefix** and **prefixation** now firmly rooted in linguistic literature has undergone a certain evolution. For instance, some time ago there were linguists who treated prefixalion as a part of word-composition (or compounding). The greater semantic independence of prefixes as compared with suffixes led the

linguists to identify prefixes with the first component part of a compound word. [19, p. 94]

At present the majority of scholars treat prefixation as an integral part of word-derivation regarding prefixes as derivational affixes which differ essentially both from root-morphemes and non-derivational prepositive morphemes. Opinion sometimes differs concerning the interpretation of the functional status of certain individual groups of morphemes which commonly occur as first component parts of words.

R. Burchfield, for instance, analyses words like *to overdo, to underestimate* as compound verbs, the first components of which are locative particles, not prefixes. [21, c. 114] In a similar way he interprets words like income, onlooker, outhouse qualifying them as compounds with locative particles as first elements.

There are about 51 prefixes in the system of Modern English word-formation.

According to the available word-counts of prefixal derivatives the greatest number are verbs-42.4%, adjectives comprise 33,5% and nouns make up 22.4% [7, p. 96] E.g. prefixal verbs: *to enrich, to co-exist, to disagree, to undergo*, etc.;

prefixal adjectives: *anti-war, biannual, uneasy, super-human*, etc.;

prefixal nouns: *ex-champion, co-author, disharmony, subcommittee*. [22, p. 101]

Proceeding from the three types of morphemes that the structural classification involves two types of.prefixes are to be distinguished:

1) those not correlated with any independent word (either notional or functional), e.g.*un-, dis-, re-, pre-, post-*, etc.; and

2) those correlated with functional words (preposition-like adverbs), e.g.*out-, over-, up-, under-*, etc.

Prefixes of the second type are qualified as semi-bound morphemes, which implies that they occur in speech in various utterances both as independent words and as derivational affixes, e.g. **'over***one's head'*, **'over***the river'* (cf. to *overlap,* to overpass); *'to run**out',** to take smb **out*** (cf. to *outgrow,* to *outline);'to look **up'**,

*'hands **up'** (cf. *upstairs*, to *upset*);*'**under** the same roof*, *'to go **under'** (cf. *to underestimate, undercurrent),* etc. [23, c. 94]

Prefixes may be classified on different principles. Diachronically distinction is made between prefixes of native and foreign origin. Synchronically prefixes may be classified:

1) according to the class of words they preferably form.

The majority of prefixes (in their various denotational meanings) tend to function either in nominal parts of speech (41 patterns in adjectives, 42 in nouns) or in verbs (22 patterns);

2) as to the type of lexical-grammatical character of the base they are added to into: a) deverbal, e. g. rewrite, outstay, overdo, etc.; b) denominal, e.g. unbutton, detrain, ex-president, etc. and c) deadjectival, e.g.***uneasy, biannual,*** etc. It is of interest to note that the most productive prefixal pattern for adjectives is the one made up of the prefix *un* – and the base built either on adjectival stems or present and past participle, ***unknown, unsmiling, unseen.***

3) as to the generic, denotational meaning there are different groups that are distinguished in linguistic literature:

a) **negative prefixes**, such as: *uni-, non-, in-, dis;-, a-*, e.g. *ungrateful* (cf. grateful), *unemployment (*cf. employment), *non-politician* (cf. politician), *non-scientific* (cf. scientific), *incorrect* (cf. correct), *disloyal* (cf. loyal*), disadvantage* (cf. advantage), *amoral* (cf. moral), a*symmetry* (cf. symmetry), etc. [24, c. 117]

It may be mentioned in passing that the prefix in – occurs in different phonetic shapes depending on the initial sound of the base it is affixed to; in other words, the prefixal morpheme in question has several allomorphs, namely *il-, im-, ir-, in, e.g. illegal, improbable, immaterial, irreligious, inactive,* etc.;

b) **reversative or privative** prefixes, such as un-, de-, dis;-, e.g. *untie* (cf. tie), *unleash* (cf. leash), *decentralize* (cf. centralize*), disconnect* (cf. connect), etc.;

c) **periorative** prefixes, such as *mis-, mal-, pseudo-*, e.g. *miscalculate* (cf. calculate), *misinform* (cf. inform), *maltreat* (cf. treat), *pseudo-classicism* (cf. classicism), *pseudo-scientific* (cf. scientific), etc.;

d) prefixes **of time and order**, such as *fore-, pre-, post-, ex-,* e.g. *foretell* (cf. tell), *foreknowledge* (cf. knowledge), *pre-war* (cf. war), *post-war* (cf. war), *post-classical* (cf. classical), *ex-president* (cf. president);

e) prefix **of repetition** *re-,* e.g. *rebuild* (cf. build), *re-write* (cf. write), etc.;

f) **locative** prefixes, such as *super-, sub-, inter-, trans-,* e.g. *superstructure* (cf. structure*), subway* (cf. way), *inter-continental* (cf. continental), *trans-atlantic* (cf. atlantic), etc. and some other groups. [25, c. 87]

6) prefixes may be also classified as to the degree of productivity into highly-productive, productive and non-productive.

Suffixation is the formation of words with the help of suffixes, which usually modify the lexical meaning of the base and transfer words to a different part of speech. There are suffixes however, which do not shift words from one part of speech into another; a suffix of this kind usually transfers a word into a different semantic group, e.g. a concrete noun becomes an abstract one, as is the case with*child–childhood, friend–friendship*, etc.

Chains of suffixes occurring in derived words having two and more suffixal morphemes are sometimes referred to in lexicography as compound suffixes:

$– ably = – able + – ly$ (e.g. *profitably, unreasonably*);

$– ical-ly = – ic + – al + – ly$ (e.g. *musically, critically);*

$– ation = – ate – i – ion$ (e.g. *fascination, isolation)* and some others. [26, p. 68]

Of interest is also the group-suffix *– manship* consisting of the suffixes *– man* and *– ship*. It denotes a superior quality, ability of doing something to perfection, e.g. *authormanship, quotemanship, lipmanship*, etc, (cf. *statesmanship,* or *chairmanship* built by adding the suffix *– ship* to the compound base *statesman –* and *chairman –* respectively).

It also seems appropriate to make several remarks about the morphological changes that sometimes accompany the process of combining derivational morphemes with bases. Although this problem has been so far insufficiently investigated, some observations have been made and some data collected. For

instance, the noun-forming suffix – ess for names of female beings brings about a certain change in the phonetic shape of the correlative male noun provided the latter ends in – *er, – or*, e.g. *actress* (cf. actor*), sculptress* (cf. sculptor), *tigress* (cf. tiger), etc. It may be easily observed that in such cases the sound [a] is contracted in the feminine nouns.

There are different classifications of suffixes in linguistic literature, as suffixes may be divided into several groups according to different principles:

1) The first principle of classification is the part of speech formed with thew help of the suffix. Within the scope of the part-of-speech classification of suffixes naturally fall into several groups, such as:

a) *noun-suffixes*, i.e. those forming or occurring in nouns, e.g. – *er, – dom, – ness, – ation, etc.* (*teacher, Londoner, freedom, brightness, justification, etc.*);

b) *adjective-suffixes*, i.e. those forming or occurring in adjectives, e.g. – *able, – less, – ful, – ic, – ous, etc.* (*agreeable, careless, doubtful, poetic, courageous*, etc.);

c) *verb-suffixes*, i.e. those forming or occurring in verbs, e.g. – *en, – fy, – ize* (*darken, satisfy, harmonize*, etc.);

d) *adverb-suffixes,* i.e. those forming or occurring in adverbs, e.g.*-ly, – ward* (*quickly, eastward*, etc.). [27, p. 121]

2) Suffixes may also be classified into various groups according to the lexico-grammatical character of the base the affix is usually added to. Proceeding from this principle one may divide suffixes into:

a) *deverbal* suffixes (those added to the verbal base), e.g. – *er, – ing, – ment, – able, etc.* (*speaker, reading, agreement, suitable*, etc.);

b) *denominal*s uffixes (those added to the noun base), e.g. – *less, – ish, – ful, – ist, – some, etc.* (*handless, childish, mouthful, violinist, troublesome*, etc.);

c) de-adjectival suffixes (those affixed to the adjective base), *e.g. – en, – ly, – ish, – ness, etc. (blacken, slowly, reddish, brightness, etc.)* [23, c. 89]

3) A classification of suffixes may also be based on the criterion of sense expressed by a set of suffixes. Proceeding from this principle suffixes are classified

into various groups within the bounds of a certain part of speech. For instance, noun-suffixes fall into those denoting:

a) the agent of an action, e.g. – *er*, – *ant* (*baker, dancer, defendant*, etc.);

b) appurtenance, e.g. – *an*, – *ian*, – *ese,* etc. (*Arabian, Elizabethan, Russian*, etc.)

c) collectivity, e.g. – *age*, – *dom*, – *ery (-ry), etc.* (*freightage, officialdom, peasantry*, etc.);

d) diminutiveness, e.g. – *ie*, – *let*, – *ling,* etc. (*birdie, girlie, cloudlet, squireling, wolfling*, etc.) [29, p. 69]

5) Suffixes are also classified as to the degree of their productivity. They can be called dead and living ones. Dead affixes are described as those which are no longer felt in Modern English as component parts of words; they have so fused with the base of the word as to lose their independence completely. It is only by special etymological analysis that they may be singled out, e.g. **– d** in***dead, seed, – le, – l, – el*** in***bundle, sail, hovel*; **– ock** in***hillock*; **– lock** in***wedlock*; **– t** in***flight, gift, height.*** It is quite clear that dead suffixes are irrelevant to present-day English word-formation, they belong in its diachronic study.

Living affixes may be easily singled out from a word, e.g. the noun-forming suffixes-*ness, – dom, – hood, – age, – ance***,** asin **darkness, freedom, childhood, marriage, assistance,** etc. or the adjective-forming suffixes – *en, – ous, – ive, –ful,* – *y*as in***wooden, poisonous, active, hopeful, stony,*** etc.

The treatment of certain affixes as non-productive naturally also depends on the concept of productivity. The current definition of non-productive derivational affixes as those which cannot be used in Modern English for the coining of new words is rather vague and may be interpreted in different ways. Following the definition the term non-productive refers only to the affixes unlikely to be used for the formation of new words, e.g.-*ous, – th, fore* – and some others (cf. ***famous, depth, to foresee).***

If one accepts the other concept of productivity mentioned above, then non-productive affixes must be defined as those that cannot be used for the formation of

occasional words and, consequently, such affixes as – *dom,* – *ship,* – *ful,* – *en,* – *ify,* – *ate* and many others are to be regarded as non-productive.

The degree of productivity of a suffix or, to be more exact, of a derivational affix in general may be established on a statistical basis as the ratio of the number of newly-formed words with the given suffix to the number of words with the same suffix already operating in the language.

A derivational affix may become productive in just one meaning because that meaning is specially needed by the community at a particular phase in its history. This may be well illustrated by the prefixed in the sense of 'undo what has been done, reverse an action or process', e.g., ***deacidify*** *(*paint spray), ***decasualize*** (dock labour), ***decentralize*** (government or management), ***deration*** (eggs and butter), ***de-reserve*** (medical students), ***desegregate*** (coloured children), and so on.

Furthermore, there are cases when a derivational affix being nonproductive in the non-specialized section of the vocabulary is used to coin scientific or technical terms. This is the case, for instance, with the suffix – *ance* which has been used to form some terms in Electrical Engineering, e.g. ***capacitance, impedance, reactance.*** The same is true of the suffix – *ity* which has been used to form terms in physics and chemistry such as ***alkalinity, luminosity, emissivity*** and some others.

2. Conversion consists in making a new word from some existing word by changing the category of a part of speech; the morphemic shape of the original word remains unchanged, e.g. *work – to work, paper – to paper* [30, c. 87]. Sometimes it is called zero-derivation.

A word of one lexical category (part of speech) is converted to a word of another lexical category; for example, the noun *green* in golf (referring to a putting-green) is derived ultimately from the adjective *green*.

Conversions from adjectives to nouns and vice versa are both very common and unnotable in English; much more remarked upon is *verbing*, the creation of a verb by converting a noun or other word (e.g., the adjective *clean* becomes the verb *to clean*).

The new word acquires a meaning, which differs from that of the original one though it can be easily associated with it. The converted word acquires also a new paradigm and a new syntactic function (or functions), which are peculiar to its new category as a part of speech, e.g. *garden – to garden.*

Conversion is sometimes referred to as an affixless way of word-building or even affixless derivation. Saying that, however, is saying very little because there are other types of word-building in which new words are also formed without affixes (most compounds, contracted words, sound-imitation words, etc.).

The term *«conversion»*, which some linguists find inadequate, refers to the numerous cases of phonetic identity of word-forms, primarily the so-called initial forms, of two words belonging to different parts of speech. This may be illustrated by the following cases: **work–to work; love–to love; paper–to paper; brief–to brief,** etc. As a rule we deal with simple words, although there are a few exceptions, e.g. wireless–to wireless.

As a type of word-formation, conversion exists in many languages.

The main reason for the widespread development of conversion in present-day English is no doubt the absence of morphological elements serving as classifying signals, or, in other words, of formal signs marking the part of speech to which the word belongs.

Types of conversion. Among the main types of conversion are: 1) verbalization (the formation of verbs), e.g. *to ape* (from *ape* n.); 2) substantivation (the formation of nouns), e.g. *a private* (from *private* adj.); 3) adjectivation (the formation of adjectives), e.g. *down* (adj) (from *down* adv.); 4) adverbalization (the formation of adverbs), e.g. *home* (adv.) (from *home* n.) [31, P. 65].

The two categories of parts of speech especially affected by conversion are nouns and verbs.

Verbalization is the creation of a verb from a noun, adjective or other word. In modern linguistics it is also called verbification, or verbing,

Examples of verbification in the English language number in the thousands, including some of the most common words, such as *mail* and *e-mail*, *strike*, *talk*,

salt, *pepper*, *switch*, *bed*, *sleep*, *ship*, *train*, *stop*, *drink*, *cup*, *lure*, *mutter*, *dress*, *dizzy*, *divorce*, *fool*, *merge*, and many more, to be found on virtually every page in the dictionary.

Proper nouns can also be verbed in the English language. «Google» is the name of a popular internet search engine. *To google something* now means to look it up on the Internet, as in «He didn't know the answer, so he googled it.»

Verbs converted from nouns are called **denominal verbs.** If the noun refers to some object of reality (animate or inanimate) the converted verb may denote:

1) action characteristic of the object: *ape* n. >*ape* v. imitate in a foolish way;

2) instrumental use of the object: *whip* n. >*whip* v. strike with a whip;

3) acquisition or addition of the *object: fish* n. >*fish* v. 'catch or try to catch fish';

4) deprivation of the object: *dust* n. >*dust* v. remove dust from smth.;

5) location: *pocket* n. >*pocket* v. put into one's pocket. [32, c. 65]

Verbs with adjective stems, such as *blind, calm, clean, empty, idle, lame, loose, tidy, total* show fairly regular semantic relationships with the corresponding adjectives. Like verbs with adjective stems that had been formerly suffixed and lost their endings (e. g. *to thin<OE thynnian)* they denote change of state. If they are used intransitively, they mean 'to become blind, calm, clean, empty, etc.', their formula as transitive verbs is: 'to make blind, calm, clean, etc.'.

Substantivation. Nouns converted from verbs are called **deverbal substantives.** Ifthe verb refers to an action, the converted noun may denote:

1) instance of the *action: jump* v. >*jump* n. sudden spring from the ground;

2) agent of the action: *help* v. >*help* n. a person who helps;

3) place of the action: *drive* v. >*drive* n. a path or road along which one drives;

4) result of the action: *peel* v. >*peel* n. the outer skin of fruit or potatoes taken off;

5) object of the action: *let* v. >*let* n. a property available for rent.

In case of polysemantic words one and the same member of a conversion pair may belong to several groups. For example, the deverbal substantive *slide* is referred

to the group denoting place of the action (point 3) in the meaning *a stretch of smooth ice or hard snow on which people slide* and to the group *agent of the action* (point 2) when this noun means *a sliding machine part*.

Deverbal nouns formed by conversion follow the regular semantic correlations observed in nouns formed with verbal stems by means of derivation. They fall, among others, under the categories of process, result, place or agent.

Nouns may be formed by conversion from any other part of speech as well, for instance from **adverbs**:.; *the bounding vitality which had carried her through what had been a life of quite sharp ups and downs*. [33, P. 95]

Nouns can be formed from **adjectives,** in this case they are called substantivized adjectives, i.e. those that in the course of time have been converted to nouns and therefore have acquired the ability to name substances or objects: *The bride was dressed in white. You mix blue and yellow to make green.*

3. **Shortening.** During the process of communication words and word-groups can be shortened. Shortening includes extra-linguistic and linguistic types. Extra-linguistic types are abbreviations, acronyms, initials, blends which are formed because the tempo of life is increasing and it becomes necessary to give more and more information in the shortest possible time.

There are also linguistic causes of abbreviating words and word-groups, such as the demand of rhythm, which is satisfied in English by monosyllabic words. When borrowings from other languages are assimilated in English they are shortened. Here there is modification of form on the basis of analogy, e.g. the Latin borrowing «fanaticus» is shortened to «fan» on the analogy with native words: man, pan, tan etc.

There are two main types of shortenings: graphical and lexical.

Graphical abbreviations are the result of shortening of words and word-groups only in written speech while orally the corresponding full forms are used. They are used for the economy of space and effort in writing.

The oldest group of graphical abbreviations in English is of Latin origin. In these abbreviations in the spelling Latin words are shortened, while orally the

corresponding English equivalents are pronounced in the full form, e.g. a.m. – in the morning (ante meridiem), p.a. – a year (per annum), d – penny (dinarius), lb – pound (libra), i. e. – that is (id est) etc.

There are also graphical abbreviations of native origin, where in the spelling we have abbreviations of words and word-groups of the corresponding English equivalents in the full form. We have several semantic groups of them:

a) days of the week, e.g. Mon – Monday, Tue – Tuesday etc

b) names of months, e.g. Apr – April, Aug – August etc.

c) names of counties in UK, e.g. Yorks – Yorkshire, Berks – Berkshire etc

d) names of states in USA, e.g. Ala – Alabama, Alas – Alaska etc.

e) names of address, e.g. Mr., Mrs., Ms., Dr. etc.

f) military ranks, e.g. capt. – captain, col. – colonel, sgt – sergeant etc.

g) scientific degrees, e.g. B.A. – Bachelor of Arts, D.M. – Doctor of Medicine. (Sometimes in scientific degrees we have abbreviations of Latin origin, e.g., M.B. – Medicinae Baccalaurus).

h) units of time, length, weight, e.g. f. / ft – foot/feet, sec. – second, in. – inch, mg. – milligram, etc. [34, P. 49].

The reading of some graphical abbreviations depends on the context, e.g. «m» can be read as: male, married, masculine, metre, mile, million, minute, «l.p.» can be read as long-playing, low pressure.

Initial abbreviations (achronyms). Initialisms are the bordering case between graphical and lexical abbreviations. When they appear in the language, as a rule, to denote some new offices they are closer to graphical abbreviations because orally full forms are used, e.g **J.V. – joint venture**.

When they are used for some duration of time they acquire the shortened form of pronouncing and become closer to lexical abbreviations, **e.g. BBC** is as a rule pronounced in the shortened form.

There are three types of initialisms in English:

a) initialisms with alphabetical reading, such as UK, BUP, CND etc

b) initialisms which are read as if they are words, e.g. UNESCO, UNO, NATO etc.

c) initialisms which coincide with English words in their sound form, such initialisms are called acronyms, e.g. CLASS (Computer-based Laboratory for Automated School System).

d) there are also compound-shortened words where the first component is an initial abbreviation with the alphabetical reading and the second one is a complete word, e.g. A-bomb, U-pronunciation, V – day etc. In some cases the first component is a complete word and the second component is an initial abbreviation with the alphabetical pronunciation, e.g. Three – Ds (Three dimensions) [30, p. 137].

Clipping is a lexical shortening. Abbreviation of words consists in clipping a part of a word. As a result we get a new lexical unit where either the lexical meaning or the style is different form the full form of the word. In such cases as «fantasy» and «fancy», «fence» and «defence» we have different lexical meanings. In such cases as «laboratory» and «lab», we have different styles.

Abbreviation does not change the part-of-speech meaning, as we have it in the case of conversion or affixation, it produces words belonging to the same part of speech as the primary word, e.g. *prof* is a noun and *professor* is also a noun. Mostly nouns undergo abbreviation, but we can also meet abbreviation of verbs, such as *to rev* from *to revolve*, *to tab* from *to tabulate* etc.

But mostly abbreviated forms of verbs are formed by means of conversion from abbreviated nouns, e.g. *to taxi, to vac* etc. Adjectives can be abbreviated but they are mostly used in school slang and are combined with suffixation, e.g. comfy, dilly, mizzy etc. As a rule pronouns, numerals, interjections. conjunctions are not abbreviated. The exceptions are: fif (fifteen), teen-ager, in one's teens (apheresis from numerals from 13 to 19).

4.　　***Word-composition*** is the way of word-building: a word is formed by joining two or more stems to form one word. The structural type of compound words and the word-building type of composition have certain advantages for communication purposes.

Composition is not quite so flexible a way of coining new words as conversion but flexible enough. Among compounds are found numerous expressive and colourful words. They are also comparatively laconic, absorbing into one word an idea that otherwise would have required a whole phrase (cf. *The hotel was full of week-enders* and *The hotel was full of people spending the week-end there).* [17, P. 110]

Both the laconic and the expressive value of compounds can be well illustrated by English compound adjectives denoting colours (cf. *snow-white* – as *white as snow).*

There are two characteristic features of English compounds:

a) Both components in an English compound are free stems, that is they can be used as words with a distinctive meaning of their own. The sound pattern will be the same except for the stresses, e.g. «a green-house» and «a green house».

b) English compounds have a two-stem pattern, with the exception of compound words which have form-word stems in their structure, e.g. middle-of-the-road, off-the-record, up-and-doing etc.

Classification of compounds.

1. Compound words can be divided according to the parts of speech compounds:

a) nouns, such as: baby-moon, globe-trotter,

b) adjectives, such as: free-for-all, power-happy,

c) verbs, such as: to honey-moon, to baby-sit, to henpeck,

d) adverbs, such as: downdeep, headfirst,

e) prepositions, such as: into, within,

f) numerals, such as: fifty-five [27, P. 95].

2. According to the way components are joined together compounds are divided into:

a) neutral, which are formed by joining together two stems without any joining morpheme, e.g. ball-point, to windowshop,

b) morphological where components are joined by a linking element: vowels «o» or «i» or the consonant «s», e.g. («astrospace», «handicraft», «sportsman»),

c) syntactical where the components are joined by means of form-word stems, e.g. here-and-now, free-for-all., do-or-die.

3. According to their structure compounds are subdivided into:

a) compound words proper which consist of two stems, e.g. to job-hunt, train-sick, go-go, tip-top,

b) derivational compounds, where besides the stems we have affixes, e.g. ear-minded, hydro-skimmer,

c) compound words consisting of three or more stems, e.g. cornflower-blue, eggshell-thin, singer-songwriter,

d) compound-shortened words, e.g. boatel, tourmobile, VJ-day, motocross, intervision, Eurodollar, Camford.

4. According to the relations between the components compound words are subdivided into:

a) subordinative compounds where one of the components is the semantic and the structural centre and the second component is subordinate, e.g. honey-sweet, eggshell-thin, knee-deep, dog-cheap, etc

b) coordinative compounds where both components are semantically independent. Here belong such compounds when one person (object) has two functions, e.g. secretary-stenographer, woman-doctor, Oxbridge etc. Such compounds are called additive [20, P. 69].

5. According to the order of the components compounds are divided into compounds with direct order, e.g. kill-joy, and compounds with indirect order, e.g. nuclear-free, rope-ripe.

Secondary ways of word-formation (sound interchange, stress interchange, sound imitation, blends, back formation)

Sound interchange is the way of word-building when some sounds are changed to form a new word. It is non-productive in Modern English, it was productive in Old English and can be met in other Indo-European languages.

The causes of sound interchange can be different. It can be the result of Ancient Ablaut which cannot be explained by the phonetic laws during the period of the language development known to scientists., e.g. to strike – stroke, to sing – song etc. It can be also the result of Ancient Umlaut or vowel mutation which is the result of palatalizing the root vowel because of the front vowel in the syllable coming after the root (regressive assimilation), e.g. *hot – to heat (hotian), blood – to bleed (blodian)* etc. [22, P. 54].

In many cases we have vowel and consonant interchange. In nouns we have voiceless consonants and in verbs we have corresponding voiced consonants because in Old English these consonants in nouns were at the end of the word and in verbs in the intervocal position, e.g. *bath – to bathe, life – to live, breath – to breathe* etc.

Stress interchange can be mostly met in verbs and nouns of Romanic origin: nouns have the stress on the first syllable and verbs on the last syllable, e.g. `accent – to ac`cent. This phenomenon is explained in the following way: French verbs and nouns had different structure when they were borrowed into English, verbs had one syllable more than the corresponding nouns. When these borrowings were assimilated in English the stress in them was shifted to the previous syllable (the second from the end).

Later on the last unstressed syllable in verbs borrowed from French was dropped (the same as in native verbs) and after that the stress in verbs was on the last syllable while in nouns it was on the first syllable. As a result of it we have such pairs in English as: to af'fix -`affix, to con`flict – `conflict, to ex`port -`export, to ex`tract – `extract etc. As a result of stress interchange we have also vowel interchange in such words because vowels are pronounced differently in stressed and unstressed positions.

Sound imitation is the way of word-building when a word is formed by imitating different sounds. There are some semantic groups of words formed by means of sound imitation

a) sounds produced by human beings, such as: to whisper, to giggle, to mumble, to sneeze, to whistle etc.

b) sounds produced by animals, birds, insects, such as: to hiss, to buzz, to bark, to moo, to twitter etc.

c) sounds produced by nature and objects, such as: to splash, to rustle, to clatter, to bubble, to ding-dong, to tinkle etc.

The corresponding nouns are formed by means of conversion, e.g. clang (of a bell), chatter (of children) etc. [6, P. 58]

Blends are words formed from a word-group or two synonyms. In blends two ways of word-building are combined: abbreviation and composition. To form a blend we clip the end of the first component (apocope) and the beginning of the second component (apheresis).

As a result we have a compound – shortened word. One of the first blends in English was the word «smog» from two synonyms: smoke and fog which means smoke mixed with fog. From the first component the beginning is taken, from the second one the end, «o» is common for both of them.

Blends formed from two synonyms are: slanguange, to hustle, gasohol etc. Mostly blends are formed from a word-group, such as: **acromania** (acronym mania), **cinemadict** (cinema adict), **chunnel** (channel, canal), **dramedy** (drama comedy), **detectifiction** (detective fiction), **faction** (fact fiction: fiction based on real facts), **informecial** (information commercial), **Medicare** (medical care), **magalog** (magazine catalogue) **slimnastics** (slimming gymnastics), **sociolite** (social elite), **slanguist** (slang linguist), etc. [30, P. 40].

Backformation is the way of word-building when a word is formed by dropping the final morpheme to form a new word. It is opposite to suffixation, that is why it is called back formation. At first it appeared in the languauge as a result of misunderstanding the structure of a borrowed word. This mistake is explained by the influence of the whole system of the language on separate words. E.g. it is typical of English to form nouns denoting the agent of the action by adding the suffix – er to a verb stem (speak – speaker).

So when the French word «beggar» was borrowed into English the final syllable «ar» was pronounced in the same way as the English – er and Englishmen formed the verb «to beg» by dropping the end of the noun. Other examples of back formation are: to accreditate (from accreditation), to bach (from bachelor), to collocate (from collocation), to enthuse (from enthusiasm), to compute (from computer), to emote (from emotion) to reminisce (from reminiscence), to televise (from television) etc. [18, P. 97].

As we can notice in cases of back formation the part-of-speech meaning of the primary word is changed, verbs are formed from nouns.

Concluding our theoretical and theoretical-practical part, we can state that word-formation as a means of language development is a very important item in lexicology as one of the sources of language development. As a subject of study English word-formation is that branch of English lexicology which studies the derivative structure of words and the patterns on which the English language builds new words.

Word-formation is the process of creating words from the material available in the language after certain structural and semantic formulas and patterns.

There are different types of word-formation. It includes productive and non-productive kinds (productive are used very frequent in communication, non-productive are not very common). Word-formation has a function of forming of new words and replenishing the language.

There are two main groups types of word-formation in Modern English: productive and non-productive. Within the types further distinction is made between the various ways and means of word-formation.

Productive ways of word-formation are: affixation, conversion, word-compounding, shortening.

Non-productive ways of word-formation are: sound interchange, stress interchange, sound imitation, blends, back-formation.

In order to conclude a classification of word-formation types, we have made a general table of all types of word-formation, according to R.S. Ginzburg, G.B. Antrushina, I.V. Arnold.

Types of word-formation

Author	Productive types of word-formation	Non-productive types of word-formation
Ginzburg R.S.	affixation conversion word-composition	sound-interchange stress-interchange
Antrushina G.B.	derivation (affixation) conversion word-composition shortening	sound-imitation reduplication back-formation
Arnold I.V.	affixation conversion compounding shortening	blending sound-interchange back-formation

CHAPTER II. COMPOUND WORDS OF ENGLISH: USE AND FORMATION

2.1. Types of compounds in Modern English

Most English compound nouns are noun phrases (i.e. nominal phrases) that include a noun modified by adjectives or noun adjuncts. Due to the English tendency towards conversion, the two classes are not always easily distinguished. Most English compound nouns that consist of more than two words can be constructed recursively by combining two words at a time.

Combining "science" and "fiction", and then combining the resulting compound with "writer", for example, can construct the compound "science fiction writer". Some compounds, such as *salt and pepper* or *mother-of-pearl*, cannot be constructed in this way.

Since English is a mostly analytic language, unlike most other Germanic languages, it creates compounds by concatenating words without case markers. As in other Germanic languages, the compounds may be arbitrarily long.

However, this is obscured by the fact that the written representation of long compounds always contains spaces. Short compounds may be written in three different ways, which do not correspond to different pronunciations, however:

• The "solid" or "closed" forms in which two usually moderately short words appear together as one. Solid compounds most likely consist of short (monosyllabic) units that often have been established in the language for a long time. Examples are *housewife*, *lawsuit*, *wallpaper*, *basketball*, etc.

• The *hyphenated* form in which two or more words are connected by a hyphen. Compounds that contain affixes, such as *house-build(er)* and *single-mind(ed)(ness)*, as well as adjective-adjective compounds and verb-verb compounds, such as *blue-green* and *freeze-dried*, are often hyphenated. Compounds that contain articles, prepositions or conjunctions, such as *rent-a-cop*, *mother-of-pearl* and *salt-and-pepper*, are also often hyphenated.

• The *open* or *spaced* form consisting of newer combinations of usually longer words, such as *distance learning*, *player piano*, *lawn tennis*, etc.

Usage in the US and in the UK differs and often depends on the individual choice of the writer rather than on a hard-and-fast rule; therefore, open, hyphenated, and closed forms may be encountered for the same compound noun, such as the triplets *container ship*/*container-ship*/*containership* and *particle board*/*particle-board*/*particleboard*.

In addition to this native English compounding, there is the *classical* type, which consists of words derived from Latin, as *horticulture*, and those of Greek origin, such as *photography*, the components of which are in bound form (connected by connecting vowels, which are most often *-i-* and *-o-* in Latin and Greek respectively) and cannot stand alone.

Semantic classification

A common semantic classification of compounds yields four types:

- endocentric
- exocentric (also bahuvrihi)
- copulative (also dvandva)
- appositional

An endocentric compound consists of a *head*, i.e. the categorical part that contains the basic meaning of the whole compound, and modifiers, which restrict this meaning. For example, the English compound *doghouse*, where *house* is the head and *dog* is the modifier, is understood as a house intended for a dog. Endocentric compounds tend to be of the same part of speech (word class) as their head, as in the case of *doghouse*. (Such compounds were called *tatpuruṣa* in the Sanskrit tradition.)

Exocentric compounds (called a *bahuvrihi* compound in the Sanskrit tradition) are hyponyms of some unexpressed semantic head (e.g. a person, a plant, an animal...), but not of any its component which may be perceived as a formal head, and their meaning often cannot be transparently guessed from its constituent parts. For example, the English compound *white-collar* is neither a kind

of collar nor a white thing. In an exocentric compound, the word class is determined lexically, disregarding the class of the constituents. For example, a *must-have* is not a verb but a noun. The meaning of this type of compound can be glossed as "(one) whose B is A", where B is the second element of the compound and A the first. A bahuvrihi compound is one whose nature is expressed by neither of the words: thus a ***white-collar*** person is neither white nor a collar (the collar's colour is a <u>metonym</u> for socioeconomic status). Other English examples include *barefoot*.

Copulative compounds are compounds which have two semantic heads.

Appositional compounds are lexemes that have two (contrary) attributes which classify the compound.

Type	Description	Examples
endocentric	A+B denotes a special kind of B	*darkroom*, *smalltalk*
exocentric	A+B denotes a special kind of an unexpressed semantic head	*skinhead*, *paleface* (head: 'person')
copulative	A+B denotes 'the sum' of what A and B denote	*bittersweet*, *sleepwalk*
appositional	A and B provide different descriptions for the same referent	*actor-director*, *maidservant*

Languages differ in the mechanisms they provide for combining existing words into new, "compound" words. This chapter will focus on two major types of compound: synthetic –ER compounds, like English *dishwasher* (for either a human or a machine that washes dishes), where "-ER" stands for the crosslinguistic counterparts to agentive and instrumental *-er* in English; and endocentric bare-stem compounds, like English *flower book*, which could refer to a book about flowers, a book used to store pressed flowers, or many other types of book, as long there is a salient connection to flowers.

With both types of compounding we find systematic cross-linguistic variation, and a literature that addresses some of the resulting questions for child

language acquisition. In addition to these two varieties of compounding, a few others will be mentioned that look like promising areas for coordinated research on cross-linguistic variationand language acquisition.

2.2. PROCEDURE OF THE ANALYSIS OF COMPOUNDS

A compound word is a union of two or more words to convey a unit idea or special meaning that is not as clearly or quickly conveyed by separated words. Compound words may be hyphenated, written open (as separate words), or written solid (closed).

A **hyphenated compound**—also called a **unit modifier**—is simply a combination of words joined by a hyphen or hyphens. The hyphen is a mark of punctuation that not only unites but separates the component words; thus, it aids understanding and readability and ensures correct pronunciation. Words are hyphenated mainly to express the idea of a unit and to avoid ambiguity.

shell-like cloud-to-ground strokes

well-to-do roof-to-wall construction

Mesozoic to Cenozoic north-trending graben

fluvial-paludal floodplain system

An **open compound** is a combination of words so closely associated that they convey the idea of a single concept but are spelled as unconnected words:

lowest common denominator

canyon head

A **solid (closed) compound** combines two or more words into one solid word (e.g., breakdown).

The use of compounding in our language is an evolving process. As expressions become more popular or adopt special meanings, they follow a gradual evolution from two or more separate or hyphenated words to single words.

audio visual ....audio-visual........................audiovisual

copy editor.........................copy-editor ....copyeditor

wild life..............................wild-life ....wildlife

For some years now, the trend has been to spell compounds as solid words as soon as acceptance warrants. This is a trend, not a rule, but it can be helpful in deciding how to format a new or different compound expression. (Note, however,

the precautions regarding arbitrary compounding in the following paragraph and about hyphenation of unit modifiers in rule CW.8.)

Compounding is in such a state of flux that dictionaries do not always agree and, worse yet, many compound terms are unlisted. In applying the compounding rules in this guide and in *GPO* (the primary basis for MMS rules), keep in mind the living fluidity of our language. Because word forms change constantly, it is important to remember that the rules for compounding cannot be applied inflexibly.

It is also important to avoid arbitrary compounding. When you have a compounding problem, check the rules and especially the lists provided in this guide and *GPO* for analogy with listed words.

The list at the end of this section, which was based largely on *GPO*, offers the preferred compounding of many potentially troublesome words and expressions frequently used in MMS Offshore scientific and technical publications. Some words are included simply for quick reference. The few exceptions to the list of GPO-recommended usages are expressions of MMS or historical industry usage. These exceptions are indicated with an asterisk in the list at the end of this section.

Additionally, *Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English Language* (*WNI 3*) is the reference source for words in the MMS listing that are not in *GPO*. (Although the compounding rules of *WNI 3* don't always agree with those of *GPO*, *WNI 3* is an excellent *secondary* reference because it is so extensive. As in all matters of MMS style, *GPO* remains the *primary* reference source.)

Compound Words (CW) 3.—Certain expressions are written as separate words when they are used as **noun phrases** but are hyphenated or written solid when they are used as adjectives before nouns. (See Unit Modifiers, rules CW.7–15.)

deep sea ....deep-sea fauna

deep water ....deep-water technology

food web...food-web dependencies

dark green...dark-green algae

Compound Words —When **verbs** are combined with a preposition or adverb, write them as two words. When the same two words are used as **nouns** or **adjectives**, however, they should be hyphenated or joined.

verb noun or adjective

break up ....breakup

build up..buildup

run off ....runoff

shut down...shutdown

shut in ....shut-in

Prefixes, Suffixes, and Combining Forms

Compound Words 5.—Most words with prefixes, suffixes, or combining forms are printed solid, except as indicated elsewhere in this guide and in *GPO*. Lists of specific examples can be found in *GPO* rules 6.11, 6.29, and 6.30. Note, however, that although most words beginning with the short prefixes *co, de, pre, pro,* and *re* are printed solid, a hyphen is sometimes used to **avoid doubling a vowel or tripling a consonant**. A hyphen is also used to join a prefix or combining form to a capitalized word or to distinguish a compound word from a homonym.

- cooperation preexisting pre-Neogene
- postlease presale prelease
- hull-less shell-like un-American
- micro-organism ultra-atomic
- recreation (leisure), re-creation (create again)
- recover (return to normal), re-cover (cover again)

A prefix that is standing alone but is representative of a compound word carries a hyphen. Eg. over- and underused, micro- and macroeconomics.

– The pre- and postsale activities were documented.

– The pre- and postlease sale reports were completed.

In their rule 6.11, *GPO* states that compounds ending in the words listed usually are printed solid. For quick reference, the following might be most applicable within MMS: book, craft, field, fish, land, over, owner, site, wide, work.

Solid Compounds

Compound Words 6.—For a listing of commonly used solid compounds, see *GPO,* rules 6.8. through 6.14.

Unit Modifiers

Compound Words 7.—The term *unit modifier* used in *GPO* refers to one-thought adjectives or adverbs consisting of two or more words that are connected with a hyphen. Unit modifiers can be perplexing, especially when you can't locate a specific rule or example for their use. In such cases, the question of hyphenation necessarily must be left to the discretion of the editor and the author, who must collaborate on how

best to clearly and logically present the information to the intended audience. Once a decision has been made, stick with it throughout the manuscript—consistency within individual manuscripts is important! (See rules CW.12, CW.19, and CW.20 for numerical compounds.)

Compound Words 8.—Use the hyphen to join two or more words in a **unit modifier before a noun**, but do **not** hyphenate **unit modifiers that appear after a noun**.

large-scale project ....the project is large scale

low-grade metamorphic rocks.......metamorphic rocks of low grade

bluish-green sea.............................the sea was bluish green

3-inch-diameter pipe ....a pipe 3 inches in diameter

U.S.-Mexican border ....border of the United States and Mexico

Compound Words 9.—Use hyphens with discretion. When the meaning is clear or when a compound is well established or widely known in its field, omit the hyphen. Note that the names of many chemicals, animals, and plants are in this category.

Bowhead, whale study, natural gas company, grey whale migration, oil and gas lease, sale activities, high school, student royalty, bidding system, land use program, Miocene age strata.

But crude-oil processing, oil- and gas-related activities, oil-spill risk analysis, oil-spill risk analysis data

Compound Words 10.—Do **not** use a hyphen in a compound predicate adjective or predicate noun when the second element is a **present participle**.

– The horst is northeast trending.

– The effects could be far reaching.

– The shale was oil bearing.

– Commercial fishermen used the area for salmon harvesting.

But northeast-trending horst, far-reaching effects, oil-bearing shale, salmon-harvesting area.

Compound Words 11.—Do not use a hyphen in a compound predicate adjective, when the second element is a **past participle** or in a predicate, modifier of **comparative** or **superlative** degree.

– The refinery is State owned.

– The area is drought stricken.

– The material has been fire tested.

– The analysts are best informed.

but

State-owned refinery, drought-stricken area, fire-tested material.

Compound Words 12.—When a series of hyphenated compounds precede a common basic element, the hyphens are retained with each unit. (Note that the hyphens are retained in parenthetical expressions of dual measurements.)

5- by 20-meter radial gate, long- and short-term field studies, oil- and gas-related activities, 150- to 200-m bathymetric line, 3.1- to 12.2-meter (10- to 40-ft) intervals 3.1-m (10-foot) pipe, 1-m (39.37-inch) pipe, 200-m line

Compound Words 13.—Do not use hyphens with unit modifiers when the first element is a **comparative** or **superlative**.

better drained soil larger sized grains, higher level decision lower income group

Compound Words 14.—Do not use hyphens in **two-word unit modifiers** where the first element is an adverb ending in *ly* (see also CW.18.3.), or in **three-word unit modifiers** where the first two elements are adverbs.

eagerly awaited moment

seismically induced ground failure

tightly compacted sandstones

unusually swift stream

unusually well preserved specimen, *but* well-preserved specimen

Compound Words 15.—Do not use a hyphen in a unit modifier containing a **letter or numeral as its second element**.

article 3 provisions

section C recommendations

type 304 stainless steel

Multiple Modifiers

Compound Words.16.—Use **hyphens** to express group unit modifiers and to avoid ambiguity. Where you place the hyphen can alter the meaning of the sentence (but note and heed the precaution in rule CW.17).

camel's-hair brush............................camel's hairbrush

re-creation...recreation

Compound Words.17.—Use **multiple compound adjectives** with restraint. They tend to break the continuity of the sentence and keep the reader waiting for the main noun. Try instead to recast the sentence.

Try this Instead of this

high-energy sandstones occur in shallow-water, high-energy shallow water sandstones an oil spill of 1,000 barrels or 1,000-barrel-or-greater oil spill greater equivalent strata of the Endicott Endicott Group equivalent strata Group

Lithologic Descriptions

Compound Words.18.—Correct hyphenation of compound unit modifiers is crucial in lithologic descriptions. The following rules can be helpful.

Compound Words.18.1.—Compound unit modifiers that precede the noun are generally hyphenated.

– Fine-grained sandstone interfingers with thin-bedded shale.

– Olive-green shale is present locally in this unit.

– This rock is olive-green shale.

– The limestone weathers into 20-cm-thick, irregular-shaped plates.

medium-crystalline limestone

blue-green algae

light-gray dolomite

noncoal-bearing member

If the first word in a three-word unit modifier of a noun applies to the other two, the hyphen is used between all three words.

light-olive-gray limestone

Compound Words.18.2.—The same words are not hyphenated when used as a compound predicate adjective following the verb.

– The sandstone is fine grained and thin bedded.

– The shale is olive green.

– The limestone is medium crystalline.

– The dolomite is light gray.

– The shale was oil bearing.

Compound Words.18.3.—If the first word of a **unit modifier is an adverb ending in *ly***, the hyphen is not used.

finely crystalline limestone

coarsely crystalline dolomite

early formed traps

Compound Words.18.4.—The hyphen is not used in a **three-word unit modifier** if the first two words are **adverbs**. However, the hyphen should be used between the second and third words if the first word only is an adverb and it modifies the second and third words.

unusually well defined specimen

but

very light-gray shale

fairly high-energy deposit

Compound Words.18.5.—In **stratigrahic sections**, **well logs**, and similar lists, unit modifiers that follow the noun they modify are hyphenated according to the rules used when they precede the noun (*STA*, p. 233).

SANDSTONE: moderate-reddish-orange, high-angle crossbedded, medium-to finegrained, well-sorted, subrounded

CLAYSTONE: dark-reddish-brown, flat lens-shaped bed; laterally discontinuous

Compound Words.18.6.—The following examples demonstrate the correct form for a **stratigraphic section**.

bluish-gray, coarse-grained, highly shattered sandstone, dark-gray to dark-brownish-gray basaltic andesite

Note the following acceptable terms describing sand-grain sizes and dolomite or limestone crystallinity.

Sandstone Unconsolidated sand

- very fine-grained sandstone, very fine sand
- very fine to fine-grained sandstone, very fine to fine sand
- fine-grained sandstone, fine sand
- fine- to medium-grained sandstone, fine-to-medium sand
- medium-grained sandstone, medium sand
- medium- to coarse-grained sandstone, medium-to-coarse sand
- coarse-grained sandstone coarse sand
- coarse- to very coarse-grained sandstone, coarse to very coarse sand
- very coarse-grained sandstone very coarse sand

Carbonates

very finely crystalline limestone (*or* dolomite *or* dolostone)

finely crystalline limestone

medium-crystalline limestone

coarsely crystalline limestone

Numerical Compounds

Compound Words.19.—A **unit modifier** containing a numeral or spelled-out number is usually hyphenated.

20-kilometer-long canal

3-square-mile section

15-minute test

2-to-1 slope

10,560- to 11,220-foot intervals

two-thirds

3/4-inch pipe

1 3/4-inch pipe

1 1/2-inch pipe

2-ft hole

Improvised Compounds

Compound Words.20.—Use a hyphen to join the elements of an improvised compound.

6-year-old

hard-and-fast-rule

the well-to-do

Single-Letter Compounds

Compound Words.21.—Use a hyphen to join a **single capital letter** to a noun or participle.

I-beam X-ray

U-boat T-square

Compass Direction

Compound Words.22.—Print as one word compass directions consisting of two points, but when three points are combined, use a hyphen after the first point.

northeast north-northeast

southwest south-southwest *but*

north-south direction

north-south-trending horst

List of Compound and Hyphenated Words

Compound Words 23.—The following list contains examples of compound and hyphenated words that should cover most of the situations an author or editor could encounter in Offshore publications. This list is based on the listing found in chapter 7 of *GPO* (1984, p. 81–116) and contains very few exceptions to *GPO*-recommended usage.

These exceptions are marked with an asterisk. Additionally, some entries are not in *GPO.*

The reference source for most of these words is *Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English Language (WNI* 3). The *Glossary of Geology* (American Geological Institute, 1980) also was used as a reference for words and terms that could not be located in *GPO* or *WNI* 3. To use the list, combine the words that are printed flush left with the words that follow to form solid or hyphenated

compounds. Other special notes regarding use are as follows:

– Abbreviations used in the list are *(n.)* noun, *(v.)* verb, *(u.m.)* unit modifier, *(adj.)* adjective, *(adv.)* adverb, *(c.f.)* combining form, and *(pref.)* prefix.

– The symbols used in the list are the spacemark (#), which indicates a two-word form; hyphen (-); and asterisk (*), which indicates exceptions to *GPO*-recommended

usage.

– Most two-word forms use a hyphen in the adjective (or unit-modifier) position. Many of these are shown on the list, and some exceptions are noted in rules CW.13-15 of this guide and rules 6.16, 6.21, and 6.24 of *GPO*.

Some word pairs convey different meanings when they are hyphenated. Consider: small-toothed whale small, toothed whale

1.   «New Year's Resolutions. I will not: Drink more than fourteen alcohol units a week. Smoke. Waste money on: pasta-makers, ice-cream machines or other culinary devices which will never use; books by unreadable literary authors to put impressively on shelves; exotic underwear, since pointless as have no boyfriend».

Resolutions, unreadable, impressively – an example of affixation.

Resolution – a noun, formed from the verb with the help of noun-forming suffix

– tion with the meaning of the result of the action.

unreadable – an example of affixation. An adjective was formed from the verb «to read» with the help of the prefix un – (with the opposite meaning), adjectival suffix – able with the meaning of quality.

Impressively – an adverb formed from the adjective with the help of the productive suffix – ly.

pasta-makers, ice-cream, boyfriend, underwear, pointless are examples of word-composition. The first compound word (noun) is formed from 2 words and ending. It is a derivative compound.

The second (adjective) consists of two stems and is called a proper compound.

The third (noun) is a proper compound. It consists of two stems.

According to the way of joining the first two compounds are syntactical, the third is neutral.

According to the relations between the components these compounds are coordinative.

Underwear – a proper, neutral compound was formed from two stems – the first is an adverb, the second is a noun (adv + noun). According to the relations between the components it is coordinative.

Pointless – an adjective formed from the noun and adverb *less*. It is a proper, neutral compound. According to the relations between the components it is coordinative.

2.» Allow in-tray to rage out of control».

In-tray – an example of word-composition. It is a proper, neutral, subordinative compound, consisting of two stems.

3.» Fall for any of following: alcoholics, workaholics, commitment phobics, people with girlfriends or wives, misogynists, megalomaniacs, chauvinists, emotional fuckwits or freeloaders, perverts».

workaholics, girlfriends, megalomaniacs, fuckwits, freeloaders – examples of word-composition.

workaholic – a compound-shortened word, subordinative, morphological. They are formed from two stems. The second stem is abbreviation from *alcoholic*.

girlfriend – a compound proper, coordinative, neutral. It is formed from two nouns – girl+friend.

Megalomaniac – The word megalomania is derived from the Greek words «μεγαλο»: megalo-, meaning large or great, and «μανία»: mania, meaning madness, frenzy. The first attested use of the word «megalomania» in English is in 1890 as a translation of the French word «mégalomanie».

4.   «My dear, you flatter me. I certainly have had my share of beauty, but I do not pretend to be anything extraordinary now. When a woman has grown-up daughters, she ought to give over thinking of her own beauty.»

Certainly – an example of affixation, an adverb was formed from the adjective with the help of the suffix – ly. It is an adverb-forming, deadjectival suffix – ly (*certain* →*certainly*). Its notion is «in what manner». It forms a new part of speech and possesses productiveness in word-formation.

Anything – an example of word-composition. The pronoun is formed from a pronoun «any» and a noun «thing».

Extraordinary – example of prefixation. An adjective is formed from the Latin borrowed prefix extra- + adjective «ordinary». The prefix denotes a meaning «outside of».

grown-up – an example of word-composition, an adjective is formed from the verb «to grow» + preposition «up». It is neutral, compound proper, subordinative.

thinking – example of suffixation. Gerund is formed from the verb «to think» + suffix – *ing,* which changes the part of speech (to think → thinking) and denotes action or process.

5.   «It is a truth universally acknowledged, that a single man in possession of a good fortune, must be in want of a wife. However little known the feelings or views of such a man may be on his first entering a neighbourhood, this truth is so well fixed in the minds of the surrounding families, that he is considered the rightful property of someone or other of their daughters».

Universally, possession, feelings, entering, neighbourhood, surrounding, rightful, property – these are words formed with the help of affixes.

Universally (an adverb) was formed from the noun and consists of the stem *univers* – and two suffixes: – *al* and – *ly*. The fitst suffix is an adjective-forming, denominal suffix (*universe → universal*). Its notion is «relating to» and it denotes quality of the subject. The second is an adverb-forming, deadjectival suffix – *ly* (*universal → universally*). Its notion is «in what manner». Both suffixes form a new part of speech and possess productiveness in word-formation.

Acknowledged is a Participle II (non-finite form of the verb) formed from the verb. It consists of the prefix *ac-*, root *know,* suffix – *ledge*. Prefix *ac* – denotes «addition or increase», it doesn't change a part of speech, Suffix – *ledge* is archaic and is very rare in the English word-formation.

Possession is noun formed from the verb (*to possess → possession)* with the help of the deverbal, noun-forming suffix – *sion* which is borrowed from French. It changes a part of speech and has a notion of state or quality.

Feeling – noun is formed with the noun-forming, deverbal, productive suffix – *ing,* which changes the part of speech (to feel → feeling) and denotes action or process.

Entering, surrounding – Gerunds formed from the verb (to enter, to surround) with the help of noun-forming, deverbal, productive suffix – *ing,* which changes the part of speech (to feel → feeling, to surround – surrounding) and denotes action or

process. In this sentence *entering* has a function of the object, *surrounding* – in the function of adjective.

Neighborhood – noun is formed with the noun-forming, non-productive suffix – *hood,* which doesn't change the part of speech (neighbor → neighborhood) and denotes state, condition or quality.

Rightful – an adjective which is formed from the noun «right» with the denominal, adjective-forming suffix – ful. It has a notion «full of» and changes a part of speech.

Property – a noun formed from the adjective (proper → property) with the help of the noun-forming, non-productive suffix – ty. It denotes state, condition or quality and changes a part of speech.

someone is an example of word-composition. The pronoun is formed from two pronouns – some + one. It is neutral, compound proper, subordinative.

6. «You are overscrupulous surely. I dare to say my brother will be very glad to see you; and I will send a few lines by you to assume him of my hearty consent to his marrying whichever he chooses of the girls».

Overscrupulous, surely, hearty, marrying – words formed with affixes.

Overscrupulous is an adjective which consists of the prefix *over* – (with the meaning of excessiveness), which is attached to the borrowed from French word *scrupulous.* The prefix doesn't change the part of speech.

Surely – an adverb that was formed from the adjective *sure* and an adverb-forming, deadjectival productive suffix – *ly,* which denotes «in what manner» and changes a part of speech (adj → adv).

Hearty – an adjective formed from the noun *heart* and an adjective-forming, denominal, non-productive suffix – *ty* which changes a part of speech (n → adj). and denotes state, condition or quality.

Marrying – a Gerund (non-finite form of the verb) in the function of object formed from the verb *to marry* and a productive deverbal suffix – *ing* and denotes action or process.

Whichever – is an example of word-composition. The pronoun is formed from one pronoun and one adverb – which + ever. It is neutral, compound proper, subordinative.

7. «There is no happiness like that of being loved by your fellow-creatures, and feeling that your presence is an addition to their comfort».

Happiness – an example of affixation. A noun was formed with the suffix-*ness* is a productive noun-forming, deadjectival suffix, it joins an adjective and expresses value of a condition of a subject. It changes a part of speech (adj → n).

fellow-creature – is an example of word-composition. The noun is formed from two nouns. It is neutral, compound proper, coordinative.

Creature – an example of affixation – a noun formed from the verb «to create» with the help of the non-productive, borrowed, noun-forming, deverbal suffix – *ure* (denotes condition, action). This suffix changes a part of speech (v → n).

Being, feeling – examples of affixation – Participles I (non-finite form of the verb) formed from verbs with a productive deverbal suffix – *ing* that denotes action or process. This suffix changes a part of speech (v → *Part*. I).

Addition – an example of affixation – a noun, formed with the help of the productive, noun-forming, deverbal suffix – *tion*, it joins a verb, forms nouns from verbs and expresses abstract value. It changes a part of speech (adj → n).

Presence – an example of affixation – a noun, formed with the help of the productive, noun-forming, deverbal borrowed suffix – *ence*, it joins to a verb (to present), forms nouns from verbs and expresses abstract value. It changes a part of speech (v → n).

8. «But consider your daughters. Only think what an establishment it would be for one of them. They are determined to go, merely on that account, for in general, you know, they visit no newcomers. Indeed you must go, for it will be impossible for them to visit him if you do not.»

Establishment, merely, impossible – examples of affixation.

Establishment – a noun, formed with the help of the productive, noun-forming, deverbal suffix – *ment,* it joins a verb, forms nouns from verbs and expresses the action or result of action. It changes a part of speech (v → n).

merely – an example of affixation. An adverb was formed from the adjective *mere* and an adverb-forming, deadjectival productive suffix – *ly,* which denotes «in what manner» and changes a part of speech (adj → adv).

Impossible – an example of prefixation. An adjective was formed from the adjective *possible* and a borrowed prefix im – with negative meaing, which denotes «opposite quality» and doesn't change a part of speech.

Newcomers – an example of word-composition. A noun is formed from two stems – adj *new* + noun *comer*, which is formed by suffixation. It is neutral, compound proper, subordinative.

9. «My brother was so odd a mixture of quick parts, sarcastic humour, reserve, and caprice, that the experience of three-and-twenty years had been insufficient to make his wife understand his character. And my sister was less difficult to develop. She was a woman of mean understanding, little information, and uncertain temper. When she was discontented, she fancied herself nervous. The business of her life was to get her daughters married; its solace was visiting and news».

Mixture, sarcastic, experience, insufficient, understanding, information, uncertain, discontented, nervous, business, visiting – examples of affixation.

Mixture – a noun was formed from a verb *to mix* with the help of the non-productive, noun-forming, borrowed from French, deverbal suffix – *ure,* it forms nouns from verbs and expresses the measure of the object. It changes a part of speech (v → n).

Sarcastic – an adjective was formed from a noun *sarcasm* with the help of the non-productive, noun-forming, borrowed from Latin suffix – *ic,* it forms adjectives from nouns and expresses the quality of the object. It changes a part of speech (n → adj).

experience – a noun, formed with the help of the non-productive, noun-forming, borrowed from French, deverbal suffix – *ence,* it forms nouns from verbs and expresses the state of the object. It changes a part of speech (v → n)

three-and-twenty – is an example of word-composition. The noun is formed from two nouns. It is morphological, compound proper, coordinative.

insufficient – an adjective, formed from the adjective *sufficient* with the help of the negative prefix in-, which gives an opposite meaning to the word. It doesn't change a part of speech (adj → adj).

understanding, visiting – Gerunds formed from verbs (to understand, to visit) with the help of noun-forming, deverbal, productive suffix – *ing,* which changes the part of speech (v → Gerund) and denotes action or process. In this sentence *entering* has a function of the object, *surrounding* – in the function of adjective.

uncertain – an adjective, formed from the adjective *certain* with the help of the negative prefix un-, which gives an opposite meaning to the word. It doesn't change a part of speech (adj → adj).

information, compassion – examples of affixation. Nouns were formed from verbs with the help of the productive, noun-forming, borrowed from French, deverbal suffixes – tion, – *sion,* they form nouns from verbs and express the state of the object. They change a part of speech (v → n).

nervous – an example of affixation – an adjective, formed from the verb *to nerve* with the help of the non-productive, noun-forming, borrowed from French, deverbal suffix – *ous,* it forms nouns from verbs and expresses the state of the object. It changes a part of speech (v → adj).

business – an example of affixation – a noun, formed with the help of the productive, noun-forming suffix – *ness (*expresses a process) from the adjective *busy*. It changes a part of speech (adj → n).

10. «He loved argument. He was sometimes shamed of the harshness that leapt to his tongue, but when he let himself go, argument made him fierce, cheerful, quite spontaneous and self-forgetful».

argument – the noun formed from the verb with the help of productive, noun-forming, deverbal suffix – *ment,* expressing value of the action, result.

Harshness (haste) – the noun formed from the verb with the help of the suffix – *ness* which expresses value of condition of the subject. It is a productive noun-forming, deadjectival suffix, it joins an adjective and changes a part of speech (adj → n).

cheerful, *self-forgetful* – adjectives formed from verbs with the help of the productive adjective-forming, denominal and deverbal suffix – *ful*. This suffix changes a part of speech (n → adj) and expresses value «full, fraught, overflown with that the basis»

self-forgetful – an example of word-composition. An adjective is formed from a noun *self* (with the meaning «type of a person») + adj. f*orgetful*.

It is an example of neutral, derivative, subordinative.

spontaneous – the adjective formed with the help of the borrowed adjective-forming suffix – ous from basis of the noun, but this basis does not function in the English language as an independent word.

11. «'Mum. It's eight thirty in the morning. It's summer. It's very hot. I don't want an air-hostess bag.'

'Julie Enderby's got one. She says she never uses anything else.'

Exhausted, I held the phone away from my ear, puzzling about where the missionary luggage-Christmas-gift zeal had stemmed from. When I put the phone back she was saying: '… in actual fact, you can get them with a compartment with bottles for your bubble bath and things. The other thing I thought of was a shopping trolley.'»

air-hostess, luggage-Christmas-gift are examples of word-composition. The first compound word (adjective) is formed from 2 words. It is a compound proper.

The second (adjective) consists of three stems.

According to the way of joining all compounds are syntactical.

According to the relations between the components all compounds are coordinative.

12. «When I got to the Alconburys' and rang their entire-tune-of-town-hallclock-style doorbell I was still in a strange world of my own – nauseous, vile-headed, acidic».

entire-tune-of-town-hallclock-style,   own–nauseous,   vile-headed are examples of word-composition. The first compound word (adjective) is formed from 6 words. It is a compound proper, syntactical, coordinative compound.

The second and the third (adjectives) are derivatives, neutral, compounds proper, coordinative.

13. «I was also suffering from road-rage residue after inadvertently getting on to the M6 instead of the M1 and having to drive halfway to Birmingham before I could find anywhere to turn round».

road-rage, halfway are examples of word-composition. It is noun, consists of two stems, a compound proper. According to the way of joining it is syntactical compound. According to the relations between the components compound word is coordinative.

Road-rage is also an example of conversion. It is an adjective converted from the compound noun (n → adj).

M6, M1 – are examples of abbreviations. M means a kind of a road in Britain.

Inadvertently – an example of affixation. An adverb was formed from the adjective *advertent* with the help of the negative prefix in – and adverb-making suffix – ly.

14. «She seemed to manage to kiss me, get my coat off, hang it over the banister, wipe her lipstick off my cheek and make me feel incredibly guilty all in one movement, while I leaned against the ornament shelf for support».

lipstick is an example of word-composition. It is noun, consists of two stems, a compound proper.

According to the way of joining it is neutral compound.

According to the relations between the components this compound word is coordinative.

Incredibly, guilty – examples of affixation.

Incredibly – an adverb was formed from the adjective *incredible* with the help productive, adverb-making suffix – ly.

guilty – an adjective was formed from the noun *guilt* with the help of the productive suffix – ty.

15. «She led me through the frosted-glass doors into the lounge, shouting, 'She got lost, everyone!'»

frosted-glass is an example of word-composition. It is an adjective, consists of two stems, a derivational compound.

According to the way of joining it is syntactical compound.

According to the relations between the components compound word is subordinative.

16. «'Bridget! Happy New Year! said Geoffrey Alconbury, clad in a yellow diamond-patterned sweater».

diamond-patterned is an example of word-composition. It is an adjective, consists of two stems, a derivational compound.

According to the way of joining it is syntactical compound.

According to the relations between the components this compound word is subordinative.

17. «'Junction nineteen! Una, she came off at Junction nineteen! You've added an hour to your journey before you even started. Come on, let's get you a drink. How's your love-life, anyway?'»

love-life is an example of word-composition. It is noun, consists of two stems, a compound proper.

According to the way of joining it is syntactical compound.

According to the relations between the components this compound word is coordinative.

18. «Everyone knows that dating in your thirties is not the *happy-go-lucky free-for-all* it was when you were twenty and that the honest answer is more likely to be. Actually, last night my married lover appeared wearing suspenders and a

darling little Angora crop-top, told me he was gay/a sex addict/a narcotic addict/a commitment phobic and beat me up with a dildo».

happy-go-lucky, free-for-all, crop-top are examples of word-composition. These are two nouns and an adjective. Nouns consist of three stems, adjective consists of two stems.

According to the way of joining the first and the last are neutral compounds.

The second is a syntactical compound.

The third is a compound proper, consisting of two stems.

According to the relations between the components these compound words are coordinative.

19. 'Big beyond all sense. How are the ear-hair clippers?' The rich, divorced-by-cruel-wife Mark – quite tall – was standing with his back to the room, scrutinizing the contents of the Alconburys' bookshelves: mainly leather-bound series of books about the Third Reich, which Geoffrey sends off for from Reader's Digest.

ear-hair, divorced-by-cruel-wife, leather-bound are examples of word-composition. All these compounds are adjectives. The first and the third consist of two stems (compound proper), the second – of three stems.

According to the way of joining the second word is syntactical compound, the first and the third are neutral.

According to the relations between the components these compound words are subordinative.

20. «I racked my brain frantically to think when I last read a proper book. The trouble with working in publishing is that reading in your spare time is a bit like being a dustman and snuffling through the pig bin in the evening. I'm halfway through Men are from Mars, Women are from Venus, which Jude lent me, but I didn't think my friend, though clearly odd, was ready to accept himself as a Martian quite yet. Then I had a brainwave».

Dustman, halfway, brainwave are examples of word-composition. These are nouns, consist of two stems, compounds proper.

According to the way of joining these are neutral compounds.

According to the relations between the components this compound word is coordinative.

21. They attacked him in various ways; with barefaced questions, ingenious suppositions, and distant surmises; but he eluded the skill of them all; and they were at last obliged to accept the second-hand intelligence of their neighbor.

Barefaced, second-hand are examples of word-composition. The first compound word (adjective) is formed from 2 words and ending. It is a derivative compound.

The second (adjective) consists of two stems it is called a proper compound.

According to the way of joining the first is neutral, the second is syntactical.

According to the relations between the components both compounds are subordinative.

22. «Laughter seems to signal an attempt to ingratiate oneself in a society».

To signal is an example of verbalization from a noun to a verb: n → v. It is a complete conversion. The verb «to signal» was formed from the noun «a signal» in order to show a kind of communication. Denominal verb denotes instrumental use of an object. The new verb possesses all grammatical characteristics of the verb as a part of speech, in our example it is an infinitive as a part of compound verbal predicate.

23. «Why? I haven't left the country. I was not about to leave the country. But I handed over my passport just the same. He leafed through it, pausing at the entry-and-exit stamps of other journeys. He inspected my photograph, opened the yellow small-pox vaccination certificate stapled to the back cover. At the bottom of the last page he saw penciled in a faint set of letters and figures».

Handed, leafed, pausing, stapled, *penciled* are examples of full conversion. Type of conversion – verbalization – forming verbs from nouns.

Denominal verbs denote instrumental use of an object. The new verb possesses all grammatical characteristics of the verb as a part of speech, in our example it is Past Indefinite, Active voice.

Verbs were formed from nouns in order to show person's activity. Denominal verb denotes the same meaning of the noun – activity of the object.

24. «Billy rolled the lids back from the mare's eyes with his thumb and forefinger. He felt the lower lip and fingered the black, leathery teats».

The verb *to finger* was convertedly formed from the noun *finger* with meaning ' to point out with the finger '. It is an example of verbalization from a noun to a verb: n → v. It is a complete conversion. Denominal verb denotes instrumental use of an object (finger). The new verb possesses all grammatical characteristics of the verb as a part of speech, in our example it is Past Indefinite, Active voice.

For realization of this meaning in all cases the same microcontext consisting of a verb to finger+ a noun, being by a direct object to this verb is used.

23. «He had never been as striking, as stand-up as Aileen, though possibly she might have more sense. Jove! If he could find a woman like Aileen to-day. Life would take on a new luster».

Stand-up – an example of adjectivization of the verb, a new adjective was formed from the verb «to stand-up» which has a meaning «straight». It is a complete conversion. But the new adjective was formed with the help of affixation (suffix – ish). It has the same meaning with the verb, but denotes an attendant feature of the person «being upright, honest».

2.3 Results of the analysis

We have researched 23 abstracts from the novel of the modern American writer Helen Fielding «Bridget Jones' Diary».

We have found 98 examples of word-formation.

Within these cases there are 49 examples of affixation (42 suffixations and 7 prefixations), 7 examples of conversion, 2 abbreviations, 40 compounds.

Practical research has confirmed our theoretical proposals.

The English language has a great versatility of ways in replenishing vocabulary.

As we can conclude from our practical research, the most productive way is affixation, and specifically, suffixation. There are a lot of productive suffixes in

English that are used in forming new words: – *er, – al, – ing, – tion*, etc. There are non-productive archaic suffixes in English that were used early times and now they are very rare (*-hood, – ic*).

The second productive means of word formation is word-composition. The most frequently using compounds in modern English, as we can see from the modern fiction, are compounds consisting of three and more stems with syntactical way of joining.

The third productive technique of word-formation is conversion. The most common type of conversion is verbalization – forming verbs from nouns.

CONCLUSION

On the basis of the analyzed theoretical and practical material we came to the following conclusions.

The term «word-formation» has two major values which should be distinguished precisely. In the first value it is used for expression of constant process of formation of new words in a language. The language is in a condition of the continuous development including certain language processes, including process of creation of new lexical units. This process has received the name of «word-formation».

Word-building is one of the main ways of enriching vocabulary.

The essence of word-formation processes consists in creation of the new names, new secondary units of a designation and as such names are words, the term «word-formation» is first of all the name of process of formation of words.

In the second value the term «word-formation» designates the section of a science engaged in studying of process of formation of lexical units.

There are four main ways of word-building in modern English: affixation, composition, conversion, abbreviation. There are also secondary ways of word-building: sound interchange, stress interchange, sound imitation, blends, back-formation.

As practical research has shown the most productive ways are the first two because basically new words are formed by such ways. The affixal way shares on prefixal and suffixal.

The analysis of affixal derivatives has shown that the following characteristics are inherent in affixes: joining to a making basis, the affix expresses the certain value and is easily allocated as productive word-forming element, and the making basis possesses ability to be used in language without an affix.

Research has shown that the suffixal way of formation of nouns from verbs more often is used.

Compounding is widely used in English. It is a characteristic feature of the English word-building system. It is also called affix-less derivation or zero-suffixation. By this source of forming new words there are verbalization, substantivization as the most productive ways.

Word-composition is also a very productive means of word-formation, in modern English there are mostly compounds with two-stems, but there is a tendency to form words with three or more stems.

Other ways – sound interchange, stress interchange, sound imitation, blends, back-formation – are not very productive and are not used so frequently in English.

In the given qualification work we tried to study the general features of compounding of Modern English. While writing the given qualification work we have collected more than 300 compound words. Summing up we can say that, compounding is one of the productive ways of Modern English word-formation.

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ANNEXES

Compound Word List #1

lifetime	elsewhere	upside	grandmother
cannot	baseball	fireworks	passport
together	become	became	sunflower
crosswalk	basketball	sweetmeat	superstructure
moonlight	football	railroad	rattlesnake
anybody	weatherman	throwback	skateboard
meantime	earthquake	everything	herein
sometimes	also	backward	schoolhouse
butterflies	upstream	nowhere	bypass
fireflies	because	somewhere	spearmint
something	another	somewhat	airport
anyone	today	himself	grasshopper
inside	themselves	playthings	footprints
therefore	uplift	supergiant	homemade
without	backbone	scapegoat	peppermint

Compound Word List # 2

eyeballs	longhouse	forget	afternoon
southwest	northeast	alongside	meanwhile
keyboard	whatever	blacksmith	diskdrive
herself	nobody	seashore	nearby
silversmith	watchmaker	subway	horseback
itself	headquarters	sandstone	limestone

underground	glassmaking	riverbanks	touchdown
honeymoon	bootstrap	toothpick	toothpaste
dishwasher	household	township	shadyside
popcorn	airplane	pickup	housekeeper
bookcase	babysitter	saucepan	lukewarm
bluefish	hamburger	honeydew	raincheck
thunderstorm	spokesperson	widespread	weekend
hometown	commonplace	moreover	pacemaker

Compound Word List # 3

supermarket	supermen	supernatural	superpower
somebody	someday	somehow	someone
anymore	anyplace	anytime	anyway
backhand	watchdog	backlog	backpack
backstage	waterfall	backtrack	noisemaker
underage	underbelly	underbid	undercharge
bookworm	bookstore	bookshelf	bookend
superscript	supersonic	superstar	supersensitive
bookkeeper	bookmark	bookmobile	forgive
forklift	format	fortnight	honeycomb
honeysuckle	honeybee	keyhole	keynote
keyway	keyword	lifeblood	lifeboat
lifeguard	lifelike	lifeline	lifelong
forefinger	forefather	forehand	forehead

Compound Word List # 4

onetime	supercargo	supercharge	overabundance
backside	backslap	backspace	backspin
undercut	underdevelop	underdog	underestimate
superstrong	supertanker	superweapon	superwoman
underexpose	underfoot	however	eyesight
airfield	sidekick	crossover	sunbathe
anywhere	anyhow	backache	backbite
backbreaker	backdrop	backfire	background
textbook	underachieve	underact	underarm
keypad	keypunch	keystone	keystroke

upstairs	softball	uptight	upstate
supercool	superego	superfine	superhero
foreleg	foreman	foresee	oneself

Compound Word List # 5

washroom	blackbird	blackboard	blackberries
upend	blacktop	whitecap	whitefish
whitewall	whitewash	friendship	pancake
daytime	upbringing	upbeat	upcoming
repairman	firefighter	standby	bedroom
blackjack	blacklist	blackmail	blackout
uphill	waterline	upkeep	upland
firehouse	teenager	carpool	bellbottom
ballroom	brainchild	pinstripe	bodywork
upward	upwind	upturn	storerooms
deadline	rainbow	watermelon	waterway
daybreak	daybook	daydream	daylight
update	upgrade	upheaval	upheld

Compound Word List # 6

upload	washstand	upon	upperclassman
lifesaver	forearm	forbearer	forbid
carhop	carload	carport	carpetbagger
wastepaper	upshot	uplink	upstage
newspaper	grandchild	grandparent	grandchildren
fishpond	fishtail	hookup	eyecatching
taxicab	taxpayer	teacup	teamwork

uppercut	uppercase	uppermost	uprising
newsreel	newsstand	newsworthy	granddaughter
grandfather	grandmaster	grandaunt	grandnephew
upright	uproar	uproot	upstart
grandnieces	grandson	grandstand	granduncle
boldface	bankbook	bankroll	dishcloth
dishpan	dishwater	cardboard	carefree

Compound Word List # 7

caretaker	carsick	carfare	cargo
uptake	upthrust	newsroom	uptime
carryall	cartwheel	wheelbase	wheelbarrow
washcloth	fishlike	waterproof	fishnet
newsdealer	watershed	newsman	snowdrift
intake	courtyard	overflow	cornmeal
underclothes	overcoat	undercover	undercurrent
takeover	talebearer	taleteller	tapeworm
superhuman	wasteland	superman	superhighways
afterlife	setback	overland	highway
mainland	caveman	drawbridge	lifework
firebomb	someplace	passbook	passkey
airtime	firecracker	sidewalk	fireball
allover	notebook	throwaway	fireproof
buttermilk	footnote	moonbeam	Sunday

Compound Word List # 8

handmade	candlelight	firearm	airline
crossbow	sideshow	software	sunfish
moonstruck	rattletrap	weatherproof	earthworm
schoolboy	sweetheart	butternut	hereafter
playback	foothill	eyelid	southeast
horseplay	headache	blueprint	raindrop
weekday	hammerhead	foreclose	foreclosure
slowdown	skyscraper	motherhood	fatherland
forecast	highball	forebear	mainline
slumlord	snowball	snakeskin	soundproof
firebreak	aircraft	crosscut	railway
earthward	buttercup	allspice	noteworthy
playboy	footlocker	handgun	horsepower
rainstorm	bluegrass	cheeseburger	weeknight
headlight	bedrock	standoff	commonwealth

Compound Word List # 9

cancan	fireboat	airlift	Passover
crossbreed	sideburns	sunbaked	moonshine
schoolbook	hereby	playhouse	butterfingers
footlights	handbook	backslide	eyelash
steamship	headline	spillway	houseboat
longhand	horsehair	standpipe	whatsoever
foresight	soybean	bookseller	blueberry

cheesecake	raincoat	thunderbolt	standpoint
bedroll	cardsharp	bellboy	brainwash
bodyguard	pinhole	ponytail	newsboy
careworn	duckpin	duckbill	hookworm
courthouse	afterimage	highchair	mothball
sixfold	skintight	skylight	slapstick
snowbank	standout	handout	eyeglasses
footrest	stepson	stockroom	stonewall

Compound Word List # 10

sailboat	watchword	timesaving	timeshare
salesclerk	showoff	sharecropper	sheepskin
candlestick	newsbreak	newscaster	newsprint
butterscotch	turnabout	turnaround	turnbuckle
eyewitness	starfish	stagehand	spacewalk
shoemaker	turndown	turnkey	turnoff
horsefly	comedown	comeback	cabdriver
bluebird	tablespoon	tabletop	tableware
stoplight	sunlit	sandlot	snowbird

bluebell	wheelhouse	fishhook	fishbowl
stronghold	tailgate	taillight	taillike
pinup	tailspin	takeoff	takeout
bellhop	taproot	target	taskmaster
steamboat	dairymaid	teaspoon	daisywheel
pinwheel	telltale	tenderfoot	tenfold

Compound Word List # 11

timekeeper	watchword	timesaving	timeshare
shoelace	showoff	sharecropper	sheepskin
newfound	newsbreak	newscaster	newsprint
timetable	turnabout	turnaround	turnbuckle
sharpshooter	starfish	stagehand	spacewalk
turncoat	turndown	turnkey	turnoff
aboveboard	comedown	comeback	cabdriver
tablecloth	tablespoon	tabletop	tableware
sundial	sunlit	sandlot	snowbird
wheelchair	wheelhouse	fishhook	fishbowl
tagalong	tailgate	taillight	taillike

tailpiece	tailspin	takeoff	takeout
taproom	taproot	target	taskmaster
teammate	dairymaid	teaspoon	daisywheel
showplace	telltale	tenderfoot	tenfold

Compound Word List # 12

shortbread	teapot	timesaving	timeshare
firewater	airmen	sharecropper	sheepskin
moonscape	schoolwork	newscaster	newsprint
hereupon	weathercock	turnaround	turnbuckle
handcuff	headdress	stagehand	spacewalk
housetop	forever	turnkey	turnoff
tailcoat	bedclothes	comeback	cabdriver
upstanding	fisheye	tabletop	tableware
afterglow	highland	sandlot	snowbird
sisterhood	skylark	fishhook	fishbowl
waistline	walkways	taillight	taillike
walleyed	wallpaper	takeoff	takeout
wardroom	warehouse	target	taskmaster

warlike	warmblooded	teaspoon	daisywheel
warpath	telltale	tenderfoot	tenfold

Compound Word List # 13

around	washbowl	fisherman	schoolbus
ashtray	washboard	beachcomb	washout
blackball	upmarket	washtub	wastebasket
sunroof	sundown	snowshovel	sunup
upset	wastewater	superimpose	watchband
jailbait	jetliner	dogwood	downbeat
atchcase	backlash	watchman	below
jetport	boardwalk	jackpot	ballpark
watchtower	timepieces	watercolor	watercooler
gumball	goodbye	nevermore	coffeemaker
watercraft	backstroke	waterfront	waterlog
moonwalk	woodshop	jellyfish	waterfowl
uphold	watermark	fishmonger	waterpower
shipbottom	goodnight	nutcracker	racquetball
waterscape	newsletter	waterside	waterspout

Compound Word List # 14

scarecrow	toolbox	gearshift	tailbone
watertight	waterworks	waterwheel	wavelength
thunderbird	bugspray	overshoes	paycheck
wavelike	warfare	waxwork	waybill
bowtie	crewcut	typewriter	jumpshot
wayfarer	waylaid	wayward	wayside
deadend	eardrum	postcard	fruitcup
overboard	jellybean	centercut	rubberband
sunray	clockwise	downunder	earache
turntable	driveway	matchbox	motorcycle
nightfall	graveyard	carrack	doorstop
tadpole	eggshell	stopwatch	limelight
ironwork	cattail	nursemaid	sunglasses
wipeout	egghead	eardrop	earthbound
daybed	earring	housework	haircut

Compound Word List New

blowgun	forethought	upscale
duckweed	forewarn	upstroke
bowlegs	foreknowledge	uptown
forebrain	foregone	washhouse
forefeet	foreshadow	washrag
forefoot	foretold	
forego	foreword	
foreground	grassland	
butterball	horseman	
forecastle	horseradish	
foremost	moonlit	
forepaws	catwalk	
cardstock	newborn	
foredoom	newsperson	
forestall	rainwater	