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Bakalářská práce

**WORD FORMATION PROCESSES WITH FOCUS ON
THE INTERNET COMMUNICATION**

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*Prohlašuji, že jsem práci zpracovala samostatně
a uvedla v ní všechny použité literární a jiné odborné zdroje.*

.....
Ilona Štěrbová

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1 INTRODUCTION

As I am growing up in a generation of computers and virtual reality, I had an idea to focus on words that are frequently used among the young and other computer users mainly during the Internet communication. Internet has become a part of everyday life of the majority of people not just as the most widely used source of information, but also as a provider of free and quick communication. The specific language of the Internet communication penetrates more and more into commonly used written or spoken language. People appreciate the possibility of expressing the idea they have in their mind as quickly as possible to save time and to keep conversation going without time gaps between individual replies. And that is why new words on the basis of already existing words or parts of words are created.

The thesis is divided into two large parts - theoretical and practical part. The intention of the theoretical part is to provide an outline of types of word formation processes in English and to illustrate the range of patterns that exists. Moreover, it deals with the special linguistic features which appear in the Internet communication. To make the thesis more comprehensible and obvious, each topic is accompanied by appropriate examples. The theoretical part is based on studies of well-known linguists like David Crystal, Ingo Plag, Laurie Bauer and Naomi Baron.

The aim of the practical part is to find out, whether there is the awareness of the Internet expressions in real life among people of different age and nationality, except the native speakers, at various levels of the English language. For the purpose of this part we made a questionnaire, which appeared to be a best way of gaining decisive results. The questions of the research will be analysed in this part, providing suitable graphs and comments on the results we obtained.

2 WORD FORMATION PROCESSES

Word formation is a discipline dealing with creation of new words by exploring which way and by using of what new words are created. It describes the ways that new vocabulary is added to a language. As the main topic of this bachelor theses is creation of new words, we should firstly define what the term ‘word’ actually means. We all know what the word is, but it is difficult to find an unambiguous definition as there are a lot of them and it can be sometimes unclear what it exactly refers to. There are also different ways how the word can be defined from different points of view. For our purpose, the definition of the word from the written point of view, thus morphological, is substantial.

Crystal defines word as “a unit of expression which has universal intuitive recognition by native speaker, in both spoken and written language” [1], or as “the smallest unit which can constitute, by itself, a complete utterance” [2]

Word is also defined as “the smallest element that can be uttered in isolation with objective or practical meaning”. [3]

To simplify the above-mentioned definitions, we can agree that the word is a group of letters that has its meaning and is usually separated by spaces in writing. English is a complex language and there are quite many possibilities of how a word can be created – compounding, conversion, affixation, back formation, reduplication, abbreviations and some others on which we take a closer look in following chapters.

2.1 COMPOUNDING

Compounding is according to Plag “the most productive type of word formation processes in English”. [4] The word ‘compounding’ is evidently derived from the word ‘compose’. The newly created words are then called compound words or just simply compounds.

According to Crystal, compound is “a unit of vocabulary which consists of more than one lexical stem”. [5] He describes that the word then functions as a “single item, which has its own meaning and grammar”. [6] Quirk et al. describe a compound similarly as “a lexical unit consisting of more than one base and functioning both grammatically and semantically as a single word”. [7]

Summarized, we can say that these words are usually characterized as words formed by combining two or more words, each of which can also be used separately. It follows that *flower-pot* does not refer to a flower and a pot, but to a single object. And as it behaves as a unit, its plural is not *flowers-pots*, but *flower-pots*. We can also comment that in the definitions above there are used different terms for elements that make up a compound.

The spelling of compounds varies. They can be found in three different shapes. Many compounds are open, i.e. written easily as two separate words, e.g. *ice cream*, *crime report*, *human being*, apart from that, they can be solid, i.e. written as one word, e.g. *snowball*, *notebook*, *sunrise* and there are also varieties, that can be hyphenated, i.e. written as two words joined with hyphen between the constituents, e.g. *living-room*, *chewing-gum*, *blue-eyed*. For some compounds it is possible to be written all three ways, e.g. *flower pot*, *flowerpot*, *flower-pot*. There is a certain tendency to spell established compounds either hyphenated or solid, while new compounds, on the other hand, are usually spelt separately. It is generally said that the important determinant of writing these words is frequency of

occurrence, i.e. compounds that are not used frequently are not usually spelled as one word or hyphenated. [8] [9] Quirk et al. state that “there is a progression from open to solid as a given compound becomes established and hence accepted as a permanent lexical item”. [10]

Concluded, the spelling of compounds in English is very inconsistent and therefore it cannot be considered an applicable criterion for the identification of these formations.

In English, we can also find compounds consisting of elements, which are not attested as independent words as they normally function as affixes in some places. These elements are usually of Greek or Latin origin. Examples are *astro-*, *electro-*, *hydro-*, *photo-*, *bio-*, in words *astrophysics*, *electroscope*, *hydroplane*, *photoionize*, *biochemistry*. [11] [12] These bound elements are best classified as roots and thus Plag redefines compounding as “the combination of roots, and not of words”. [13]

The major part of compound words in English is headed, which means that one of the constituent of the compound word is dominant (head) and the other is its modifier. [14] Plag et al. comment that “structurally, compounds generally consist of a head, the element that bears the crucial semantic and grammatical information about a compound, and a modifier, the element that describes the head”. [15] Plag also says that “the term ‘head’ is generally used to refer to the most important unit in the complex linguistic structure” [16] These compounds are called subordinative. Examples are *stone-deaf*, *age-long*, *baby-sitter*, *wrist-watch*. Other type of compounds is called coordinative. The typical feature of this type is that neither of the components dominates the other. They are structurally and semantically independent, e.g. *secretary-stenographer* is a person who is both secretary and stenographer. It is clear that the constituents of the compound can function independently. They denote a person or an object that is two things at the same time. Other examples are *girlfriend*, *queen-bee*, *tape-measure*. [17]

2.1.1 Compound nouns

The vast majority of compounds in English are nouns. In the section below we will take a closer look at all possible combinations how noun compounds can stand together.

Noun + noun

The most productive combination seems to be noun + noun group. Bauer states, that “many types of semantic relationship can be isolated within this grouping, as well as different patterns”, [18] He also adds that “the majority of compounds in this class are endocentric” [19] He divides this structure into three main categories. The first group consists of compounds made up of gerund + noun, e.g. *fishing rod, shooting match, sleeping sickness*. The second group is that where the first element of the compound is a proper noun, e.g. *Duchenne dystrophy, Lie algebra, Mao flu*. The last group consists of those compounds made up of two common nouns, which is the most productive type of compounds, e.g. *adventure playground, domino theory, brain death, family planning, language laboratory*. [20]

Verb + noun

Bauer distinguishes two distinct patterns in this category. The first is where the noun is the direct object of the verb. These compounds are all exocentric, e.g. *cut-throat, pickpocket, kill-joy*. The second pattern is where the noun is not the direct object of the verb. These compounds are all endocentric, e.g. *drownproofing, dangle-dolly, goggle-box*. [21]

Noun + verb

According to Bauer, this pattern does not appear to be productive because there is a problem of knowing whether the second element is a noun or a verb. But there exist some words which seem to fit this pattern, e.g. *nosebleed, sunshine*. [22]

Verb + verb

Bauer states that “this pattern is extremely rare, and probably not productive”. [23]

Adjective + noun

“It can be difficult to decide whether a given adjective + noun collocation is a compound or simply a noun phrase. The criterion taken as distinguishing between the two here is stress: nuclear stress on the adjective indicates a compound, nuclear stress on the noun indicates a noun phrase”. [24] Examples are *fast-food, hard-stuff, software*.

Particle + noun

Bauer indicates that “this is quite a productive pattern”. [25] Examples are *afterheat, over-kill, in-crowd*.

Adverb + noun

On the other hand, according to Bauer, “this is very restricted pattern, partly because only adverbs of time or place occur in such compounds”. [26] He adds that “this class is not distinct from the previous class, since many of the particles can also be interpreted as adverbs showing time or place”. [27] Example is *now generation*.

Verb + particle

Bauer says that “the majority of words of this form are nominalizations of phrasal verbs”. [28] Examples are *drawback, put-down, drop-out*.

Phrase compounds

Bauer mentions one more group which can be covered in this category of noun compounds and he calls it phrase compounds. These compounds can be described as “constructions where an entire phrase seems to be involved in the formation of a new word”. [29] Examples are *son-in-law, milk-and-water, lady-in-waiting*.

There exist also other types of compound words in English. As the most productive type of compounds are compound nouns, which we discussed in detail in the previous section, we will now provide just a brief outline of other types. As for compound verbs and adjectives, we constructed tables on the basis of Bauer's *English word-formation* book (1983, pp.207-212), which show us their combinations and their examples clearly.

2.1.2 Compound verbs

	VERB	NOUN
NOUN	sky-dive	breath-test
VERB	typewrite	shunpike
ADJECTIVE	double-book	brown-bag
PARTICLE	overeducate	-

2.1.3 Compound adjectives

	ADJECTIVE	NOUN	VERB	PARTICLE
NOUN	childproof	coffee-table	-	-
VERB	fail safe	turn-key	go-go	see-through
ADJECTIVE	bitter-sweet	grey-collar	high-rise	
ADVERB	over-qualified	-	-	-
PARTICLE	-	before-tax	-	-

2.1.4 Compound adverbs

“The most common way of forming compound adverbs is by the suffixation of *-ly* to a compound adjective, e.g. *whole-heartedly*. However, other patterns are found, e.g. *double-quick*, *over-night*.” [30]

2.2 CONVERSION

According to Bauer, “conversion is an extremely productive way of producing new words in English”. [31] Quirk et al. note that conversion cannot be considered as “a historical process, but rather as a process now available for extending the lexical resources of the language”. [32] Other term for conversion is zero derivation. It can be for the obvious reason that there are not used any derivational tools, thus zero suffix, during the creation of the new word. We can simply say that conversion is the creation of a new word from an already existing word without changing its form. Mair describes conversion as “a process by the means of which a new word is made on the basis of another one without any change in its form, simply by changing its word class”. [33] Quirk et al. explain conversion more specifically as “the derivational process whereby an item is adapted or converted to a new word class without the addition of an affix”. [34] Crystal adds that “the items chiefly produced in this way are nouns, adjectives, and verbs – especially the verbs which come from nouns, e.g. *to bottle*, and the nouns which come from verbs, e.g. *a doubt*”. [35]

Summarized, as can be seen, we can agree on that converted word is a word that changes only the part of speech, not the form. There is no difference in form between the two words.

We can distinguish different types of conversion, especially verb to noun (nominalization), adjective to noun, noun to verb (verbalization), adjective to verb and noun to adjective. In the following table we created a list of all possible ways that converted words can be created by using of examples from the Crystal’s *Cambridge encyclopaedia of the English language* book. (2003, p.129.)

Verb → noun	<i>a swim, a hit, a cheat, a bore, a drive-in, a show-off</i>
Adjective → noun	<i>a bitter, a natural, a final, a regular, a wet, a monthly</i>
Noun → verb	<i>to bottle, to catalogue, to oil, to brake, to bicycle, to referee</i>
Adjective → verb	<i>to dirty, to empty, to dry, to calm down, to sober up</i>
Noun → adjective	<i>it is cotton, brick, reproduction</i>

2.3 AFFIXATION

Affixation, which is also called derivation, is a process of word formation, in which affixes are added to a base. Base is a part, which can be used separately and the affix is a part which cannot stand separately. Affixes can be distinguished into three possible types, according to the position in which they occur - prefixes, which occur before the base, infixes, which are inserted into the base, and suffixes, which appear after the base. These processes are then called prefixation, infixation or suffixation as for the type of affix we use. The words created this way are called derivatives.

2.3.1 Prefixation

Prefixation is a process of affixation in which a prefix is added to a base. In English, prefixation is typically class-maintaining. “A class-maintaining process of derivation produces lexemes which belong to the same word class as the base”. [36] To better describe this class-maintaining derivation, we can use an example. If the prefix *dis-* is added before the verb *connect*, another verb *disconnect* results. This is the case of maintenance of the word class of the base and the newly created word, thus class-maintaining derivation.

In the table below, we made a list of some varieties of existing prefixes by using of examples which we found in the Crystal's *Cambridge encyclopaedia of the English language* book. (2003, p.128.)

Negation	<i>atheist, disobey, incomplete, non-smoker, unhelpful</i>
Reversal	<i>defrost, disconnect, undo</i>
Disparaging	<i>maltreat, mislead, pseudointellectual</i>
Size or degree	<i>hypermarket, minibus, overworked, superman, ultramodern, vice-president</i>
Orientation	<i>antisocial, autobiography, contraindicate, pro-socialist</i>
Location and distance	<i>extramural, foreshore, intermarry, intravenous, telescope, transplant,</i>
Time and order	<i>ex-husband, neoclassical, post-war, preschool, prototype, recycle</i>
Number	<i>bilingual, dioxide, multiracial, polygamy, unisex</i>

2.3.2 Suffixation

Suffixation is a process of affixation in which a suffix is added to a base. Suffixes differ from prefixes in changing the meaning of the word to which they are attached and thus we can say that suffixation is typically class-changing. "A class-changing process of derivation produces lexemes which belong to a form class other than the form class of the base". [37] To better describe this process of derivation, we can show it on example. If we add *-ly* to the noun *king*, the adjective *kingly* results. Because a noun has been turned into an adjective, we can talk about a class-changing derivation.

In the section below, we created a table of the commonest English suffixes. There are categories in which we can find suffixes, supplemented by examples which we found in the Crystal's *Cambridge encyclopaedia of the English language* book. (2003, p.198)

Abstract-noun-makers	<i>frontage, slavery, cupful, farming, brotherhood, idealism, friendship, aristocracy</i>
Concrete-noun-makers	<i>engineer, cooker, lioness, usherette, piglet, gangster, duckling</i>
Adverb makers	<i>quickly, onwards, clockwise</i>
Verb makers	<i>orchestrate, deafen, beautify, modernize, advertise</i>
Adjective/Noun makers	<i>Chinese, Parisian, loyalist, socialite</i>
Nouns from verbs	<i>breakage, refusal, lubricant, exploration, absentee, driver, building, actor, equipment</i>
Nouns from adjectives	<i>rapidity, happiness</i>
Adjectives from nouns	<i>pointed, useful, accidental, atomic, foolish, careless, friendly, ambitious, sandy</i>
Adjectives from verbs	<i>drinkable, attractive</i>

2.3.3 Infixation

Infixation is a process of affixation in which an infix is placed within the stem of a word to express such notions as tense, number or gender. In English, there is no system of infixes, but people from time to time, commonly while swearing or being pathetic, think of words, into which other forms have been inserted, i.e. *absobloominglutely, kangabloodyroo, absofuckinglutety, funfuckingtastic*. [38] But on the other hand, as for Wikipedia, these insertions are rather words than affixes, so these examples do not need to be considered as examples of infixation.

2.4 BACK FORMATION

In English, it is quite common to form a new word by adding a prefix or a suffix to an already existing word, as we could see in the previous chapter. However, there also exists a process of word formation that works the other way around. Back formation is a process, where “a shorter word is derived from a longer one by deleting an imagined affix.” [39] It can be considered as a special type of reduction process reversed to suffixation. To explain this process in a simplified way, we can say that the word, which is in the process of back-formation, is a word with suffix or is just interpreted as such, and the new word is created by deleting it. According to Bauer, “the great majority of back-formations in English are verbs”. [40] He explains that “verbs have a larger field of derivatives around them than other form classes”. [41]

E.g. advisor → *advise*, burglar → *burgle*, inspector → *inspect*, editor → *edit*. We can also find verbs created from action nouns, e.g. Christmas-shopping → *Christmas-shop*, deconstruction → *deconstruct*, sun-bathing → *sun-bathe*. These nouns are often considered as derivatives formed in the process of suffixation from verbs, but from the historical point of view, the nouns were created earlier. There also exists a formation of verbs from agent nouns, e.g. baby-sitter → *baby-sit*, housepainter → *housepaint* and less commonly we can also find nouns created from adjectives, e.g. polymeric → *polymer*. [42]

There exists a simple pattern that represents the creation of the new word by the process of back-formation, which we found in a Bauer’s English word-formation book. (1983, p.231) In this pattern, ‘X’ and ‘Y’ symbolize form class of the particular word and ‘A’ represents a particular suffix.

Formation :	X	+	A	→	Y
Back-formation :	Y	-	A	→	X

2.5 REDUPLICATION

Reduplication is an interesting process of word formation, where the lexeme is made from two same or very similar words. We can also talk about reduplicatives as about compounds whose constituents are either identical or only slightly different. According to Quirk et al., “the difference between the two constituents may be in the initial consonant, e.g. *walkie-talkie*, or in the medial vowels, e.g. *criss-cross*”. [43] They also add that “most of the reduplicatives are highly informal or familiar, and many belong to the sphere of child-parent talk”. [44] Crystal notes that “reduplication is not a major means of creating lexemes in English, but it is perhaps the most unusual one”. [45]

Reduplicatives are used in different varieties of ways: to imitate sounds, e.g. *tick-tock*, *ha-ha*, *bow-wow*, to suggest alternating movements, e.g. *seesaw*, *flip-flop*, *ping-pong*, to disparage, e.g. *higgledy-piggledy*, *hocus-pocus*, *wishy-washy*, *dilly-dally*, *shilly-shally* or to intensify, e.g. *teeny-weeny*, *tip-top*. [46]

2.6 ABBREVIATIONS

According to Crystal, abbreviations are one of the most noticeable features of present-day English linguistic life that is often thought to be an exclusively modern habit. The beginnings of the abbreviations can be found over 150 years ago. He says that there exist six types of abbreviations and we will analyse some of them in the following chapters. [47]

2.6.1 Acronyms

As for Bauer, an acronym is “a word coined by taking the initial letters of the word in a title or phrase and using them as a new word”. [48] Quirk et al. describe acronyms similarly as “words formed from the initial letters of words that make up a name”. [49] Bauer adds that if the word is an acronym, it must be pronounced as a word, not as the series of letters.

[50] Examples of acronyms which are pronounced as single words are: *laser* (light amplification by the stimulated emission of radiation), *NATO* (North Atlantic Treaty Organization), *UNESCO* (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization), *SALT* (Strategic Arms Limitation Talks), *BASIC* (Beginners' All-purpose Symbolic Instruction Code) and many others. [51]

2.6.2 Initialisms

Initialisms, which is also called alphabetisms, are the majority of abbreviations. It is quite similar to acronyms but the main difference between initialisms and acronyms is in the pronunciation. While acronyms are pronounced as a word, items of initialisms are pronounced as individual letters, e.g. *BBC*, *DJ*, *USA*. These examples are created from the initial letters of the word. But not all abbreviations must necessarily be created from the first letters of the constituent, e.g. *PhD* uses the first two letters of the word philosophy or *TV* takes a letter from the middle of the word. [52]

2.6.3 Clipping

According to Bauer, "clipping refers to the process whereby a lexeme is shortened, while still retaining the same meaning and still being a member of the same form class". [53] Crystal describes word created by clipping simply as "a part of a word which serves for the whole". [54] He further divides these words, which we call clippings, into two main types. The first type, which is commoner, is such that only the first part of the word is kept, e.g. *demo* (demonstration), *exam* (examination), *pub* (public house), *ad* (advertisement), *lab* (laboratory), *photo* (photograph), *prof* (professor). The second type is such that just the last part of the original word is kept, e.g. *bus*, *plane* (airplane), *phone* (telephone). But there also exist clippings, which were created from the middle part of the original word. e.g. *fridge* (refrigerator), *flu* (influenza) and some of the words are also created by retaining letters from

more than one part of the word, e.g. *maths* (mathematics), *gents* (gentlemen's lavatory), *specs* (spectacles). And as well we can find clippings made by adaptation, e.g. *fries* (French fried potatoes), *Betty* (Elizabeth), *mike* (microphone). [55] [56]

2.6.4 Blending

The process of blending is quite similar to the process of clipping because both of them include removing of parts of the words. The difference between them is in the base which is used. The process of clipping use only one base while in the process of blending two parts of bases are used to create the new word. We can simply say that blends are words created from parts of two different words. The linguistic unit created this way is called a blend. Crystal defines a blend in a simple term as “a word which is made out of the shortened forms of two other words”. [57] And then also more profoundly that “a lexical blend takes two lexemes which overlap in form, and welds them together to make one”. [58] Quirk et al. describe blends as “formations in which a compound is made by ‘blending’ one word with another” [59]

Examples are *motel* (motor + hotel), *brunch* (breakfast + lunch), *heliport* (helicopter + airport), *smog* (smoke + fog), *advertorial* (advertisement + editorial), *toytoons* (toys + cartoons), *infomercials* (information + commercials), *Eurovision* (European + television), *stagflation* (stagnation + inflation), *telecast* (television + broadcast), *travelogue* (travel + catalogue). [60] [61]

Crystal further explains that “the second element is the one which controls the meaning of the whole”. [62] He explains it on the example: *brunch* is a kind of lunch, not a kind of breakfast – which is why the lexeme is *brunch* and not *lunkfast*. [63] He also says that the popularity of blending increased in the latter half of the 20th century in commercials and

advertising, because these new forms are very striking, e.g. *sportsational*, *swimsational*, *dramacons*, *docufantasies*, *roskumentaries*. [64]

2.6.5 Familiarity markers

In this section we will discuss the mixture of abbreviations and affixation. Crystal explains that the combination of an affix with an abbreviation produce a lexeme which is highly informal in tone. [65] Quirk et al. says that familiarity markers “characterize the type of slang developed in close social groups such as families, schools, military institutions, etc”. [66] We created a table with all possible options that familiarity markers can be seen with examples found in *A comprehensive grammar of the English language* from Quirk et al. (1986, p.1584)

-y / -ie	<i>telly, baddy, auntie, daddy, hippy, druggy, comfy, sweetie, weirdie, nudie, goalie, familiar forms of first names: Katie, Billy, Freddy, Molly, Charlie</i>
-o	<i>ammo</i> (ammunition), <i>aggro</i> (aggravation), <i>weirdo</i> , <i>arvo</i> (afternoon, AustralE)
-er	<i>footer</i> (football), <i>fresher</i> (freshman), <i>rugger</i> , <i>soccer</i> , <i>tucker</i> (food, AustralE)
-s	<i>Moms, Debs, Gramps, Babs, nuts, bananas</i> (mad)

3 LANGUAGE OF THE INTERNET

The Internet is one of the most exceptional things that was ever created with a huge impact on society. Since the Internet that we know nowadays was found, around 30 years ago, the communication between people has been rapidly changing. Thanks to the technological progress, the English vocabulary has enormously expanded. The Internet has quickly become a part of everyday life of the majority of people not only as a useful source of information but, what is more, also as a significant means of communication. It all went together with chat rooms and groups where people could discuss everything quickly and for free. People wanted to mainly express their ideas as quickly as possible to save time and to keep conversation going without time gaps and thus the new language varieties came into existence. This specific language of the Internet is called ‘*Netspeak*’, or also ‘*Computer Mediated Communication*’ (CMC). Baron describes computer mediated communication as “a written natural language message sent via the Internet”. [67] CMC is also defined as “any human communication that occurs through the use of two or more electronic devices”. [68] We can thus say that it includes emails, chats, messaging via applications (instant messaging) and also text messaging. This messaging via the Internet gave rise to the new unusual language which is very popular nowadays and is called the Internet slang. It is often described as a kind of a new language that people create to confuse the older generation of people. We can also consider it as a type of specifically coded language which is used just by certain group of people, e.g. groups in chat rooms, online gaming or specific groups of people with similar interests.

In the following chapters we will present the special linguistic features which appear in the CMC and also in the Internet slang.

3.1 EMOTICONS

In this chapter we will briefly introduce the phenomenon of emoticons, which are also called smileys or emojis. It is generally known that there is the difference between the face-to-face communication and the written communication. The written communication and thus also Netspeak “lacks the facial expressions, gestures, and conventions of body posture and distance which are so critical in expressing personal opinions and attitudes and in moderating social relationships”. [69] But emoticons solve this problem. “In virtual worlds, there are commands which allow people to express textually the emotion they feel, often with the addition of synthesized sounds and visual effects”. [70] They are described according to Crystal as “combinations of keyboard characters designed to show a facial expression”. [71] He further adds that “they are typed in sequence on a single line, and placed at the end of a sentence”. [72] As the modern technologies are developing, the number of emoticons is increasing. “Today, there are countless emoticons in use around the Internet. It would likely be impossible to count them all, but it is for certain that they number in the tens, if not hundreds, of thousands of them with more and more being created every single day”. [73]

The most common emoticons according to Crystal (2003, p. 431) are:

: -)	pleased, jokey	: -O	shocked, amazed
: -(sad, unhappy	: -]	sarcastic
; -)	winking	: *)	drunk
; -(crying	: -@	screaming
%-(confused	8-)	wearing sunglasses

3.2 LOGOGRAMS

Logograms are according to Crystal “the most noticeable feature of text orthography”. [74] He describes them as “the use of single letters, numerals and typographic symbols [which] represent words, parts of words, or even noises associated with actions”. [75] Logograms in texting may be used alone or in combinations. To present some logograms, we constructed the following table, with the examples taken from various websites online:

b	be	b4	before
2	to	2day	today
@	at	@oms	atoms
x	kiss	4e	forever
u	you	gr8	great
r	are	no1	no one
y	why	zzz	sleeping

3.3 ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviations are words formed by shortening of words by different ways. This chapter deals with various abbreviated forms of words used in CMC. Baron assume that “abbreviations (and acronyms) have long been part of the written language tradition, appearing both in handwritten manuscript and print”. [76] He further adds that “their most common function in both off-line writing and CMC is to conserve energy and/or space”. [77] Abbreviations that are used in CMC may be distinguished into clipping, which we discussed in detail in the chapter 2.6.3, initialisms and omissions which will be presented in the following chapters.

3.3.1 Initialisms

We have already mentioned in the chapter 2.6.2, that initialisms are words formed from initial letters of words or word phrases. Crystal mentions that people use initialisms for centuries. “The Latin initialism *pm* (*post meridiem* ‘after midday’) is first recorded in English in 1666, *NB* (*nota bene* ‘note well’) in 1673.” [78] He further mentions initialisms created long time ago like *RIP* (*rest in peace*), *ETA* (*estimated time of arrival*), *ND* (*no date*) or *AKA* (*also known as*). To present the most common ones used in the Internet communication, we made a research based on comparing several websites and books. According to our research, we may present the table of commonly used initialisms on the Internet:

BRB	Be right back	AFAIK	As far as I know
ASAP	As soon as possible	TBH	To be honest
WTF	What the fuck	TTYL	Talk to you later
OMG	Oh my god	BTW	By the way
LOL	Lough out loud	IDK	I don’t know
IMHO	In my humble opinion	FYI	For your information

3.3.2 Omitted letters

An initialism is a word, where all the letters are omitted except the first one. But there also exists other case, where the word is shortened by omitting the letters from the middle. Crystal further explains that these omitted letters are usually vowels, but it can also be the final, silent consonants or other parts. [79] But he also adds that the letters from words can be omitted in many different ways, e.g. *tonight* as *tnight*, *tonyt*, *tonite*, *tonit*, *2nt*, *2night*, *2nyt*, *2nite* etc. [80] We can thus say that there is no written rule how to write an omission, the writer makes a decision oneself.

We found examples in Crystal's book called *Txtng The Gr8 Db8* (2008, pp.46-47), some of them are presented in the following table:

tmrw	tomorrow	aftn	afternoon
msg	message	btwn	between
xlnt	excellent	txtng	texting
difclt	difficult	amt	amount

3.4 NONSTANDARD SPELLING

According to Crystal, people tend to miss-spell both unconsciously and deliberately. Nonstandard spelling also includes representations of informal or regional speech. [81] Nonstandard spelling is nowadays used without any sanction in conversational settings, but since 18th century, it was heavily penalized in traditional writing. Nonstandard spelling does not have to be considered as a lack of education but simply a lack of editorial revision or typing inaccuracy. It is widely used to reflect the pronunciation. [82] Examples of nonstandard spelling, which are in the following table, were taken from Crystal's book called *Txtng The Gr8 Db8* (2008, pp.48-49)

cos, cuz	because	da	the
fone	phone	dunno	don't know
luv	love	gonna	going to
thru	through	wanna	want to
sum	some	wassup, sup	what's up
wot	what	gizza, gissa	give us a
ya	you	wotcha	what are you
bin, bn	been	wenja	when do you
dat	that	wiv	with
sorta	sort of	ova	over

At the end of this part, we will present an extract from an essay (taken from Crystal's book *Txtng The Gr8 Db8* (2008, p.25)), which was written by some teenager completely in textspeak and it shows in practice the connection of all phenomena we discussed in previous chapters.

My smmr hols wr CWOT.
B4, we used 2go2 NY 2C my bro,
his GF & thr 3 :-@ kids FTF.
ILNY, it's a gr8 plc.

Translated like this:

My summer holidays were a complete waste of time.
Before, we used to go to New York to see my brother,
his girlfriend and their three screaming kids face to face.
I love New York. It's a great place.

4 INTRODUCTION OF PRACTICAL PART

The practical part of this bachelor thesis includes key questions that we determined at the beginning of the research and the research that will support our answers. The survey that we made is related to the Internet communication. It focuses on people with various levels of the English language and their knowledge of the Internet slang used during the Internet communication. We mainly wanted to examine whether there is the awareness of the Internet expressions in real life among people who use the English language and other subjects connected to the Internet communication, which will be specified below.

The anonymous questionnaire that we used for our research was created online on the website www.surveymonkey.com and comprises 20 questions. The majority of questions are of a close-ended format, some of them are also open-ended where people were asked to write their own thoughts. As the bachelor thesis focuses on the English Internet communication, the whole survey was written in English with easily comprehensible questions since we asked people of different levels of the English language. The questionnaire was sent directly to people of various age and nationality in private message via social website Facebook.com. The main criterion of choosing people for this research was their knowledge of the English language. It turned out that social websites have really strong power and it seems to be very effective way of providing some help.

A lot of respondents answered immediately that there is no problem with filling in the survey and then also wrote me that it was really interesting to fill in such type of questionnaire. A part of them also offered me to send it to some friends of them so that I could get as many answers as possible. The research took about one month. It finished on 22 Mars 2018 with the result of 85 gathered questionnaires.

The data we gathered will be analysed in the following chapter. The questions of the questionnaire will be presented providing some graphs and comments on the results we obtained. At the beginning of our survey, we specified 5 main questions related to the communication on the Internet which will be answered at the end of the research as the conclusion of the practical part of this bachelor thesis. The questions are following:

1. Do people have an awareness of using the Internet slang expressions?
2. Do people use these expressions mainly among friends or also in communication with authorities?
3. Which type of services do people mainly use for communication with others nowadays and how often?
4. How often do people use various acronyms and abbreviations of the Internet slang and are they able to deduce and rewrite some of them?
5. Does the language of the Internet influence written or spoken language of people?

4.1 ANALYSIS OF THE GATHERED DATA

The opening set of questions in our questionnaire examines the characteristics of the respondents. The very **first question** is related to the gender of respondents. The questionnaire was filled in by 50 women, which constitute 59%, and 35 men, which represent 41% of the total number of respondents. The result does not need to symbolize that there are more women speaking English than men, it just concentrates on people who were asked to fill in the survey.

In **question number two**, people were asked about their age. It turned out that the biggest group of respondents are at the age of 19-24 (69%), second large group are people at the age of 25-30 (24%). The negligible number of respondents represent teenagers at the age of 15-18 (2%) and people at the age of 31 and more (5%).

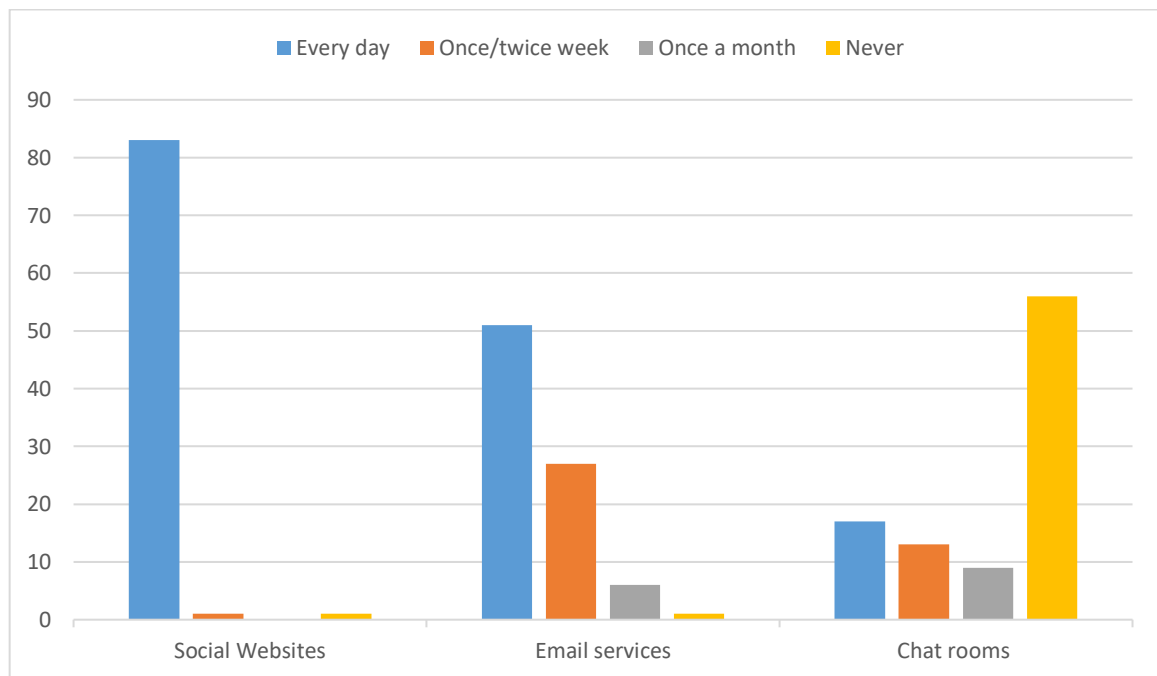
Question number three referred to whether the respondents are students or not. The questionnaire was filled in by 61 students, which constitute 72%, and by 24 non-students, which represent 28% of the total amount of respondents.

Considering the level of English language according to *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR), which we investigated in **question number four**, the majority of respondents (39%) classified themselves as users of the English language at the level B2 (upper intermediate). The second largest group of people (27%) is at the level C1 (advanced) and the third largest group (21%) are those with the level B1 (intermediate). People at the elementary level (A2) represents 8% and only 5% of respondents consider themselves being at the level of proficiency (C2).

With the following question, the research of the Internet communication begins. The first question of this section, **question number five**, investigates how many respondents use

the Internet in order to communicate with others. The result is *Yes* in 99% cases, only 1 respondent answered that he or she does not use the Internet for communication.

Question number six aims to find out which of the services our respondents use for communication with others and how often. We focused on social websites, email services and chat rooms. The following graph demonstrates the results clearly:



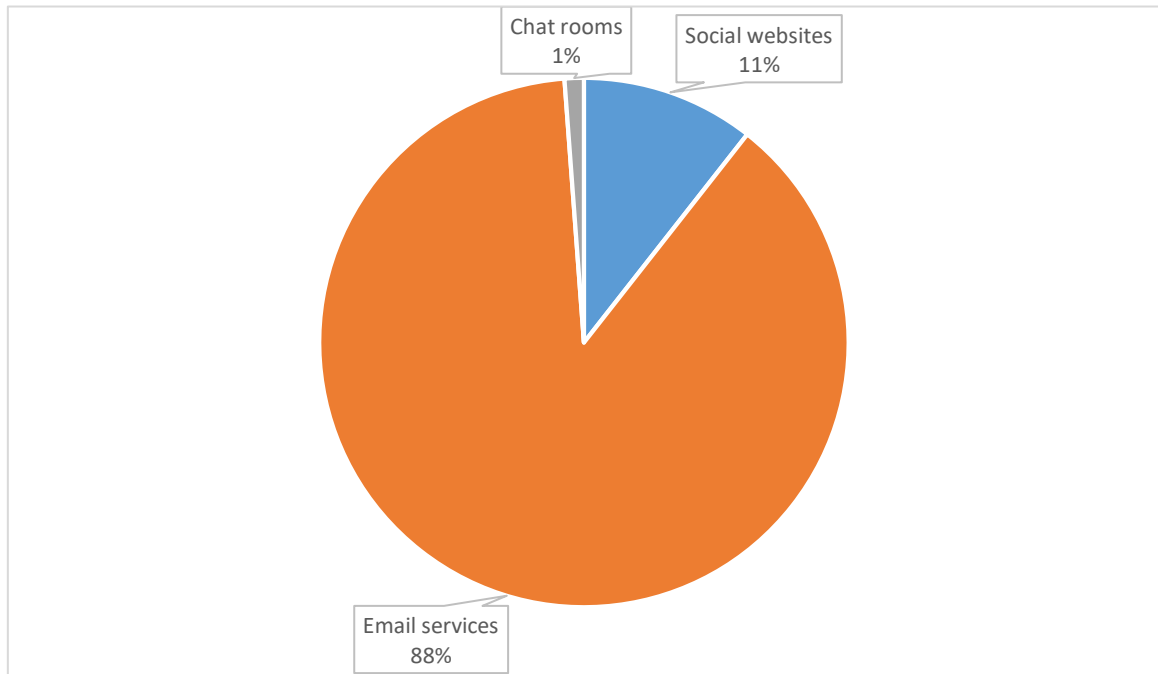
Considering the results, 98% of respondents answered that they use social websites every day, only negligible number of respondents (2%) claims that they use such type of service once or twice a week or never. We may assume that this type of communication channel is the most popular and the most often used one among respondents. Email services are also popular in a similar way, but with lower frequency of using. Email services use 60% of respondents every day, 32% once or twice a week, 7% once a month and only 1% of respondents never use email services for communication. On the other hand, the popularity of chat rooms is quite smaller compared to social websites. 66% of respondents say that they never use chat rooms for communication, only 20 % of people use it every day and 14%

once or twice a week or once a month. We can thus say that the specific communication of chat rooms does not have such impact on respondents' spoken or written discourse as they do not use this type of services as much.

In **question number seven** we wanted to investigate if respondents also use other services for communication instead of social websites and emails. This type of question was formed with the chance of choosing more options. We concentrated on phone applications connected to the Internet, because to hold a phone ceaselessly seems to be a natural thing nowadays. The popularity of using these apps is surprisingly high. The most favourite application used among respondents is Messenger (chat application from Facebook), which use 95% of them, WhatsApp (phone application for chatting) is used by 62% of respondents, which is also very high number. In contrary, Viber seems to be less common as it is used by only 11%, 4% of respondents say that they do not use such type of services. The respondents add also other applications which are used among them, e.g. iMessage, Instagram, Instagram direct, Snapchat etc.

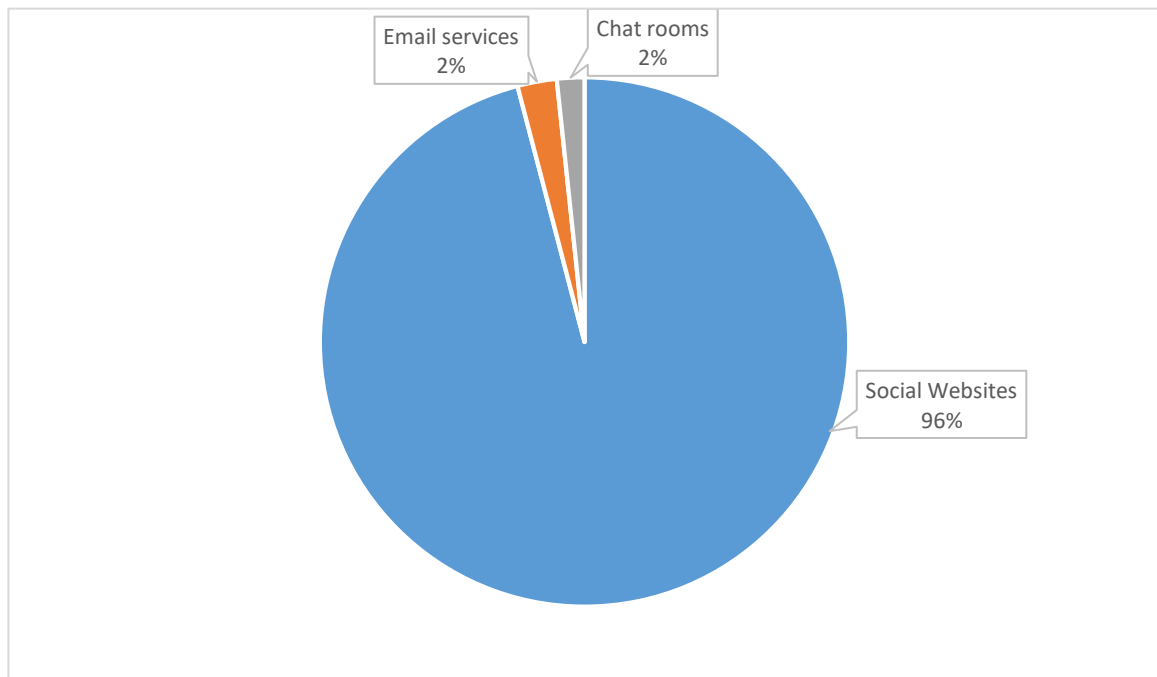
Question number eight is connected to the previous question. We wanted to find out the frequency of using of these applications. 93% of respondents say that they use them every day, only 2% never use these applications and remaining 5% of respondents take advantages from these applications only once or twice a week or once a month. The frequency of using seems to be really high and thus we may claim that we are swallowed by the tools of these modern technologies.

The following questions, **question number nine** and **ten**, deal with the preference the respondents give to which of the communication devices to contact either the school/office authorities or their friends. The results we received are very interesting and the following graphs will demonstrate them clearly. The first graph shows the communication of respondents with school or office authorities:



Most of the respondents (88%) prefer to contact school or office authorities via email services and only 11% of the rest use for communication with this kind of people social websites. 1% of respondents claim that they contact them via chat rooms.

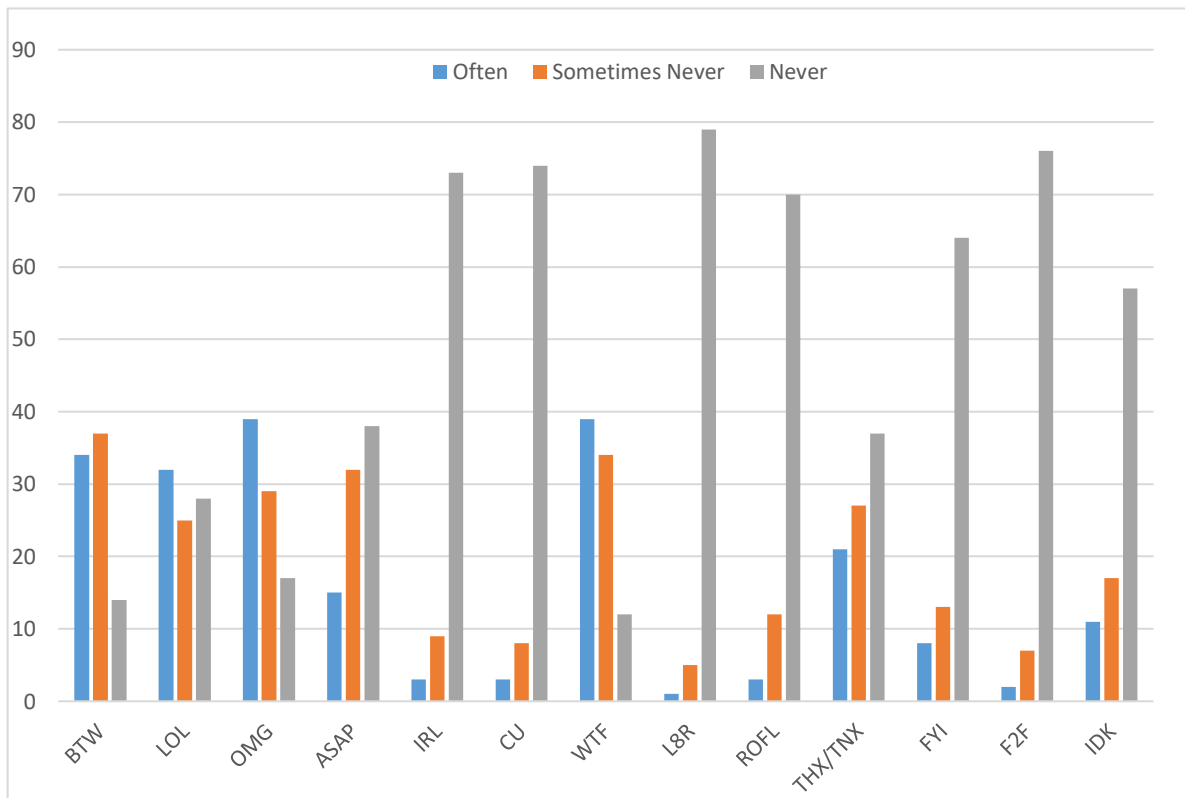
To compare, the next graph aims to present the results of the communication among friends:



The majority of respondents (96%) claim that for communication with friends they use social websites, the remaining 4% of people prefer to contact their friends either via email services or via chat rooms.

As for the results, we may purport that among people there still exists an awareness of the formal and informal style of writing. The habit of contacting these higher authorities via email services instead of other devices still appears to be politer for them. On the basis of these results it can be assumed that people are somehow influenced by using of social websites and the Internet slang but they are also able to distinguish the certain situations in which they can use informal style of language and vocabulary, e.g. when chatting with friends, and the situation of communication with authorities, when they choose rather the formal one.

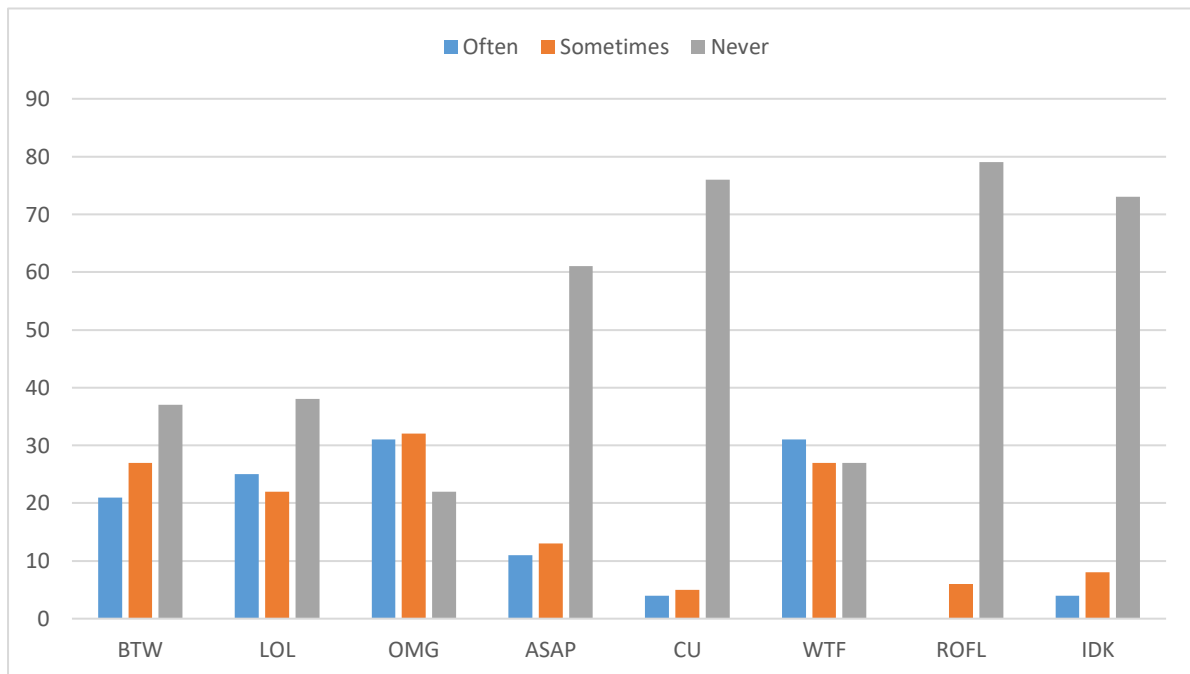
In question number eleven, the list of 13 well known expressions of the Internet slang was presented. Our respondents were asked to mark the expressions they know and to say how often do they use each of them. These expressions chosen for the purpose of this question were selected from various lists of the most common Internet abbreviations online and are following: *BTW*, *LOL*, *OMG*, *ASAP*, *IRL*, *CU*, *WTF*, *L8R*, *ROFL*, *THX/TNX*, *FYI*, *F2F*, *IDK*. The following graph demonstrates our results:



According to the gathered data, it may be affirmed that the most frequently used expressions of the Internet slang among respondents are *WTF* (*What The Fuck*), *OMG* (*Oh My God*), *BTW* (*By The Way*) and *LOL* (*Laugh Out Loud*). The expression *L8R* (*Later*), on the other hand, appears to be the least common one from our selected expressions of the Internet slang among the participants of the research. The next not so popular expressions

are *F2F (Face To Face)*, *CU (See You)*, *IRL (In Real Life)*, *ROFL (Rolling on the Floor Laughing)*, *FYI (For Your Information)* and *IDK (I Don't Know)*.

The preceding question finds out the frequency of using the abbreviations in chatting. To compare the impact of the Internet slang on the written but also on the spoken discourse of respondents, **question number twelve** investigates, whether the certain Internet expressions are also used when speaking to someone else. For the purpose of this question, we chose the same abbreviations as in the question above except the ones, which are not usually used in talking. The expressions are *BTW*, *LOL*, *OMG*, *ASAP*, *CU*, *WTF*, *ROFL*, *IDK* and the results are following:

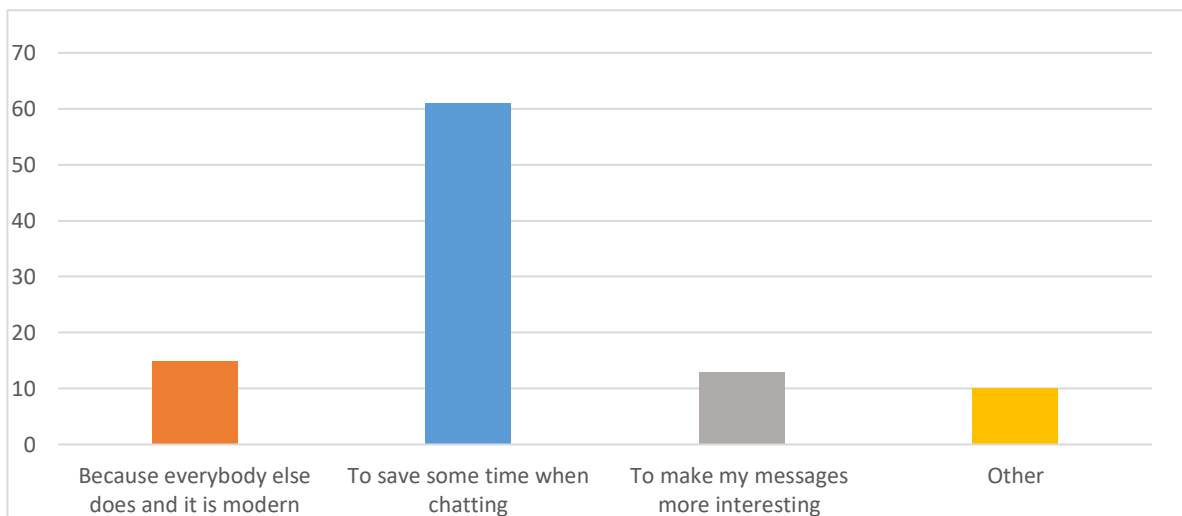


The graph shows us that there is the occurrence of the Internet slang expressions also in the spoken discourse of our respondents. *ROFL*, *CU*, *IDK* and *ASAP* still appear among the least common used, as in the previous question, and thus seem not to be convenient for spoken discourse. But on the other hand, the considerable group of people claim that they regularly use *WTF*, *OMG*, *LOL*, *BTW* and other expressions when speaking. According to

these results, it can be assumed that the target group of respondents does use the similar Internet slang abbreviations also in spoken discourse, however, the usage seems to be rather occasional than periodical.

In the following question, **question number thirteen**, we made a query whether the respondents use also some other similar expressions of the Internet slang. We received a lot of answers from which 68% of respondents say that they do not use other Internet expressions, the remaining 32% of the participants use other abbreviations including: LMAO (*Laughing My Ass Off*), WTH (*What The Hell*), YOLO (*You Only Live Once*), AFK (*Away From Keyboard*), FU (*Fuck You*), TGIF (*Thank God It's Friday*), KMA (*Kiss My Ass*), DH (*Dickhead*), BRB (*Be Right Back*), FTW (*For The Win*), AF (*As Fuck*), IMO (*In My Opinion*), SMH (*Shaking My Head*), FML (*Fuck My Life*), FFS (*For Fuck's Sake*), GJ (*Good Job*), OMFG (*Oh My Fucking God*), BFF (*Best Friends Forever*), AKA (*Also Known As*), PLS (*Please*), MMT (*Moment*), Y (*Why*), 4U (*For You*). In some answers there also appear variations of the word YES and NO, e.g. *yep, yup, yeah, nope, nah*, which can be considered as the words of the Internet slang as well as the answer *dunno* used instead of *I don't know*, which are the examples of nonstandard spelling. Some answers were also in the Czech language thus we will not mention them. As for the meaning of the formulations, we can agree on the fact, that these expressions seem to be used mainly in the communication with friends.

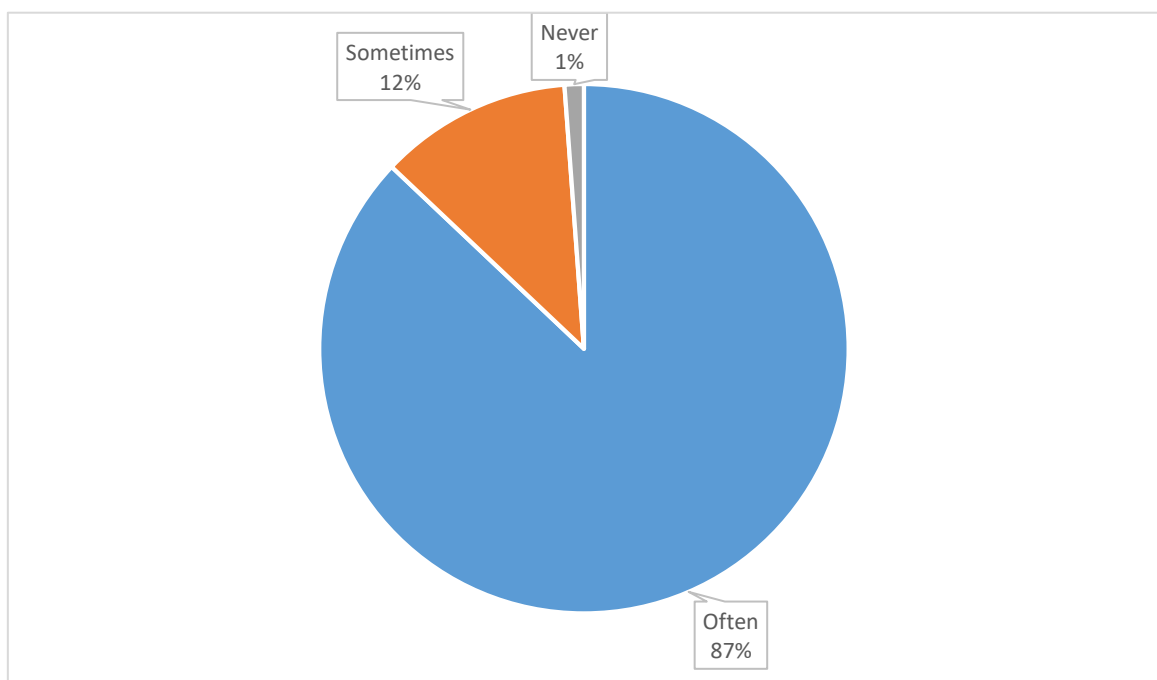
Question number fourteen finally deals with the crux of the matter. It examines why exactly the respondents use these expressions of the Internet slang.



The majority of respondents (73%) declares that they use these expressions mainly to save some time when chatting. Surprising number of 18% of people claim that the purpose of using these abbreviations is that it is modern and everybody else uses it, 16% of them use it to make their messages more interesting. The remaining 11% of respondents say either they do not use it at all or they mention some other reasons of using it, e.g. because they like it, because it sounds better than Czech, just for fun or because they think it is normal nowadays. The data gathered prove that the main purpose of using the Internet slang expressions among people is the one from which it was originally created – to save some time. We can only guess if the respondents, who use the expressions because everybody else does, know the exact meaning of the formulations.

The following **question, number fifteen**, further investigates whether the respondents have ever used these expressions in some formal piece of writing. The majority of them (84%) answered *No*, remaining 16% say that they use the expressions of the Internet slang also in a formal writing (emails, essays etc.).

Question number sixteen examines the usage of emoticons since they can be somehow considered as a form of the Internet slang. It seems to be a trend of nowadays society to use them all the time as there exist thousands and thousands of them expressing anything we have on our mind. The following graph demonstrates clearly that emojis are used by 99% of respondents from which 87% use them often and 11% sometimes. Only 1 person of our participants say that he or she has never used a smiley when chatting.



Question number seventeen deals with the omitting of letters in words when texting. The examples *message* → *msg* and *tomorrow* → *tmrw* were stated at the beginning of the question to imagine clearly what exactly we mean. The majority of participants (47%) claims that they sometimes use such type of writing, 14% of them use it regularly and 39% of respondents say that they never omit a letter when writing. We can thus say that 61% of respondents have an awareness of using this type of writing and as it is more than a half of the total number of participants, it seems to be a trend.

The **last three questions** concentrate on rewriting of some expressions used in the Internet communication. We presented three little more complicated phrases to respondents and they were asked to guess, whether they know or not the exact meaning of each one of them.

The first expression – R U RDY? – seems to be quite simple according to respondents as 88% of them rewrote the expression ‘Are you ready?’ correctly only with variations of the size of the letters or the number of question marks. The rest of the respondents (12%) say they either do not know the abbreviation or wrote an incorrect answer.

The second expression – C U L8R – appears to be more difficult for respondents than the previous one, since only 68% wrote the answer correctly – ‘See you later’. But the other results are also interesting. We can say that the participants tried hard to find the correct answers and so 8% of them wrote ‘Call you later’, 3% ‘Can you later’ and 1% also ‘Come you later’. It can be thus assumed that the other 12% people know at least the second part of the phrase. The remaining 20% did not know the answer.

The last task of this questionnaire was to rewrite the phrase – IYKWIM – with the meaning ‘If you know what I mean’. The majority of respondents (85%) did not know the answer, only 15% of participants of the research answered the question correctly.

We succeeded in choosing the well-known expression as well as the less common one. The results prove that among people there is an awareness also of more difficult abbreviations and phrases. We may therefore claim that those percentages of respondents with the correct answers use the expressions of the Internet slang correctly knowing the exact meaning.

4.2 CONCLUSION

The main aim of the questionnaire given to the participants of the research was to find out, whether there is the knowledge of the Internet slang expressions among people of different age at various levels of the English language. We wanted to further investigate if they use these expressions also in communication with authorities, which type of services they mainly use for written communication in general, how often do they use such expressions and how the Internet slang influence their language. At the beginning of the research we specified 5 questions, which we want to answer on the grounds of the results of our questionnaire.

According to the results, the majority of respondents are students at the age of 19-24 with the level of the English language B2 (upper intermediate). The question number one: *‘Do people have an awareness of using the Internet slang expressions?’* can be supported by the fact that 99% of respondents use Internet for communication with others. We can thus suppose that they have certainly come across the Internet slang expressions as the usage of the Internet slang is so popular nowadays.

The following question: *‘Do people use these expressions mainly among friends or also for communication with authorities?’* can be answered clearly on the grounds of the results. For communication with authorities the majority of respondents prefer to use email services, for communication with friends they choose rather social websites. It is evident that people sense when and in what relations they can use certain services for communication and we can state that email services still appear to be more formal for corresponding with authorities. It may be thus predicted that if something would influence the discourse of people, it would be most probably connected with the communication among friends, not with the communication between the student and the school officer or between the employee and the

boss, because the majority of respondents also claim that they do not use these expressions of the Internet slang in a formal piece of writing for which emails to authorities can be considered.

The next question we wanted to solve investigates: ‘*Which type of services do people mainly use for communication with others nowadays and how often?*’. As for the results, we found out that instead of websites, which gained the highest popularity and are the most often used among respondents, they claim that they also use phone applications, as for example Messenger and WhatsApp, with the same frequency of using. Emails also appear to be popular services for communication, however, the frequency of using seems to be smaller. On the other hand, the popularity of chat rooms rapidly declines in comparison with other services.

Last but one question of our survey is connected with the usage of the Internet expressions. We wanted to know, ‘*How often do people use various acronyms and abbreviations of the Internet slang and are they able to deduce and rewrite some of them?*’. According to the results, some of the expressions of the Internet slang appear to be used very often among respondents, e.g. *WTF, OMG, BTW, LOL*, some of them, on the other hand, seem to be quite unknown with small frequency of using, e.g. *L8R, F2F, CU, IRL, ROFL, FYI or IDK*. In comparison, it emerged that the popularity of using these expressions is similar also in spoken discourse, as *WTF, OMG, BTW* and *LOL* gained again the highest popularity and *ROFL, CU, IDK* and *ASAP* still appear among the least common ones. On the basis of these results, we can say that people are aware of using the expressions of the Internet slang, but some of the expressions are more popular and thus often used, some of them are not so common and are used only by small percentage of people. This fact may be proven by the final set of questions of our research, where people were asked to rewrite some

phrases. The first phrase, which is generally known, was rewritten correctly by the majority of respondents, the last one, which appeared more complicated, was rewritten only by small number of respondents.

According to our speculations, we can finally conclude our research by answering the last question we stated: '*Does the language of the Internet influence written or spoken language of the people?*'. As we mentioned above, the written and also the spoken discourse are somehow influenced by using of these new technologies, but there evidently still exists some kind of an unwritten rule, that these expressions of the Internet slang are considered to be rather informal among respondents and are more likely used in communication with friends. The research thus revealed that our respondents are aware of some kind of style and accuracy requirements when using the Internet slang expressions, they use and are able to use various features of Netspeak and they claim to use them mainly to save some time when chatting.

5 ENDNOTES

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7 ABSTRACT

The aim of this bachelor thesis is to provide an outline of types of word formation processes, which enable the creation of new words, and to illustrate the range of patterns that exists. Moreover, it deals with the specific linguistic features and phenomena which appear in the Internet communication. Each topic is accompanied by appropriate examples to make the thesis more comprehensible and obvious. The practical part focuses on the awareness of the Internet expressions among people of different age and nationality, at various levels of the English language.

8 RESUMÉ

Cílem této bakalářské práce je poskytnout přehled typů slovtvorných procesů, které umožňují tvorbu nových slov a názorně ukázat množství tvarů, které existují. Tato práce se dále zabývá specifickými jazykovými prvky, které se objevují v rámci internetové komunikace. Aby byla práce jasná a lépe srozumitelná, každé téma je doplněno vhodnými příklady. Praktická část se zaměřuje na internetové výrazy a jejich povědomí mezi lidmi různého věku a národnosti, s různými úrovněmi znalosti anglického jazyka.

9 APPENDIX

Questionnaire used for our research

1. Gender

- a. male
- b. female

2. Age

- a. 15 – 18
- b. 19 – 24
- c. 25 – 30
- d. 31 +

3. Are you a student?

- a. yes
- b. no

4. What is your level of English?

- a. A1 – beginner
- b. A2 – elementary
- c. B1 – intermediate
- d. B2 – upper intermediate
- e. C1 – advanced
- f. C2 – proficient

5. Do you use Internet to communicate with others?

- a. yes
- b. no

6. How often do you use these services for communication with others?

	Every day	Once/twice a week	Once a month
Social websites (Facebook, twitter)			
Email services			
Chat rooms			

7. Which of these phone apps do you also use for communication?

- a. Messenger
- b. WhatsApp
- c. Viber
- d. None of these
- e. Other...

8. How often do you use these apps?

- a. Every day
- b. Once or twice a week
- c. Once a month
- d. Never

9. Which of these services do you prefer to contact school or office authorities?

- a. Social websites
- b. Email services
- c. Chat rooms
- d. Other...

10. Which of these services do you prefer to contact your friends?

- a. Social websites
- b. Email services
- c. Chat rooms
- d. Other...

11. Did you ever use these expressions of the Internet slang?

	Often	Sometimes	Never
BTW			
LOL			
OMG			
ASAP			
IRL			
CU			
WTF			
L8R			
ROFL			
THX/TNX			
FYI			
F2F			
IDK			

12. Do you also use these expressions in spoken communication? (when you talk to your friends etc.)

	Often	Sometimes	Never
BTW			
LOL			
OMG			
ASAP			
CU			
WTF			
ROFL			
IDK			

13. Do you use some other similar expressions?

14. Why do you use these expressions of the Internet slang?

- Because everybody else does and it is modern
- To save some time when chatting
- To make my messages more interesting
- Other...

15. Have you ever used any kind of Internet slang expressions in a formal piece of writing?

- yes
- no

16. How often do you use emojis? (😊, 😞, ...)

- Often
- Sometimes
- Never

17. Did you ever omit a letter in some word in texting? (message → msg, tomorrow → tmrw)

- Yes, regularly
- Yes, sometimes
- Never

18. R U RDY? (Try to rewrite this abbreviation, if you don't know, type 'X' as the answer)

19. C U L8R (Try to rewrite this abbreviation, if you don't know, type 'X' as the answer)

20. IYKWIM (Try to rewrite this abbreviation, if you don't know, type 'X' as the answer)