

# A Morpho-Syntactic Study of Contemporary Science Fiction Short Stories

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## Abstract

The aim of the present study is to research two morphological processes: acronym and compounding (phrasal compounds/circumlocution) and one syntactic category which are 'existential sentences' in science fiction short stories. The present paper identifies different types and rates of existential sentences. In this respect, 'bare existential and locative' read the high percentages and may be contrasted with other classifications of English existential sentences which have a verb other than 'be' and a definite expression. 'Phrasal compounds' vary in rates as they constitute notable percentage for those that involve 'lexical means and lexical relations' followed by 'prepositional compounds', 'conjunctive compounds', and those involve 'a noun, pronoun, and an adjective'. Furthermore, 'phrasal compounds' containing a verb' having the value of zero. Analysis of data has acknowledged that 'atomic' acronym constitutes the high percentage than 'molecular' and this explains the abundance of the unpronounceable acronym in science fiction. Generally, existential sentences, existential sentences may give the entire clause a fresh status.

**Keywords:** atomic acronym, existential sentences, molecular acronym, phrasal compounds/circumlocution, science fiction

## 1. Introduction

The present study is within the framework of science fiction which is one of the most popular and commercially successful genres of the 20th century. The boundaries among the technological, the personal and the virtual have been redrawn in the computer age, and this self-conscious concern with the status of reality and fiction continuous into 1990s.

An extension of this, which also suggests a form of communication about technology and science/fiction, is the 'acronym'. In this respect, science fiction will be examined morphologically and syntactically through a number of contemporary notable science fiction short stories. A particularly fruitful form of word-formation process has been also investigated namely, 'compounding' of 'phrasal circumlocution' in order to prove its survival in science fiction short stories.

Interest has been concentrated on the structure and the classification of 'there-family' (Ross 1977), i.e., 'Existential Sentences' which is now the subject of a very considerable literature.

Further and more focus study with bigger data is needed to confirm and give support to the findings and conclusions. Though, eight contemporary science fiction short stories have been tackled to do the requirement. These short stories are: *Avatars of Mars* by Jake Bartolone (2003), *The Thursday Night League* by James Hartley (2008), *Minds Game* by Dylan Fox (2009), *Dog Star* by Jeffrey Carver (2009), *Galactic Stress* by David Levine (2009), *The Freshmen Hook Up* by Wil McCarthy (2009), *Life on Mars* by Deborah Kean (2013), *Beauty and the Bot* by Athul Krishna A. (2015).

Hopefully, the present paper is expected to be significant for teachers of English linguistics, researchers, and all those who are wholly or partially interested in the study of 'science fiction'.

To the best knowledge of the researcher, no paper has addressed this topic under contemporary science fiction short stories. It is time to regard it as an outstanding aspect in science fiction literature.

To this stage, this paper tries to answer the followings questions:

- 1) Does 'atomic' or 'molecular' acronym read the most frequent type in science fiction short stories?
- 2) In accordance to their internal structure, what are the common classifications of 'phrasal compounds' which are prominent in the data under analysis?
- 3) What are the emerging forms/groups of 'Existential sentences' in science fiction short stories?

## 2. Science Fiction/Science Fiction Short Stories: Literature Review

The term science fiction tries to explore various predictions by fiction. It tries to explore predictions by depicting the influences of cutting-edge technology on the future of human and communities.

Historically, science fiction has always studied the connection between machine/technology and magic and human. It offers challenging narratives as a genre which should be used as pedagogical tools to critically change what it considered as curriculum and learning to be, as well as when it settles (Thomas, 2013, p. 118). There is no need to say that science fiction is regarded as a combination of literature and science, science because it depicts science and technological advances, and literature because of its fictional events and characters. These (events and characters) are created by the authors. Needless to mention that science fiction often portrays the fictional scientific advances that became involved with the future of humans. It (science fiction) comprises different futuristic elements of human, society and culture as a literary genre of scientific ideas and philosophy (Mirenayat et al., 2017, pp. 4–5).

Science fiction has been one of the most influential literary genres since the 19th century through endless stories that reflect different reflexes in human life and technology. Writers of science fiction take us into imaginary worlds. They show both terrifying results of technological applications and promising into the life of future human (Ibid.) Similar to comics/graphic novels, science fiction and speculative fiction are genres that "move readers to imagine alternative ways of being alive"—notably in that they have thrived in a wide range of media from traditional text-only works to TV and movies to comics/graphic novels. Like comics and graphic novels (Thomas, 2010, p. 24).

Science fiction is linked strongly to the market: "Science fiction as a self-conscious publishing category is generally considered to have begun in 1926, when editor Hugo Gernsback published the first issue of 'Amazing Stories', the first magazine devoted exclusively to science fiction" (Booker & Thomas, 2009, p. 7).

Science Fiction short stories are prominent element in the development of the genre. They are regarded as an important connection between medium and genre as well as a powerful element in the double-edged sword of popularity for the genre. Seemly, Science fiction basically created a keystone between the critics and the genre. Booker and Thomas (Ibid.) explain that 'Amazing Stories' established a key arena for the next editor, John W. Campbell, and writers—Isaac Asimov, Lester Del Ray, Robert Heinlein, Theodore Sturgeon, A. E. Von Vogt.

Significant science fiction texts have cornered on technological ranks and advancements starting from the beginnings of the 20th century along. Such as 'Brave New World' (1932) by Aldous Huxley (British author 1899–1963). 'I', 'Robot' (1950) by Issac Asimov (American writer, 1920–1992) and other science fiction novels (Best & Kellner, 2001, p. 103).

As an interdisciplinary literary genre, science fiction builds a special unique language by which writers predict its negative and positive effects. Further, science fiction creates this uncommon language by which writers by foreseeing human future life (Bostrom, 2005, pp. 87–89).

Reider (2012, pp. 1–2) believes that:

The term science fiction became widely used in the pulps in the 1930s, and it is strongly associated with the dominant form taken by it in the 1940s and 1950s pulp magazines, a period that continues to be called science fiction's Golden Age even though the honorific connotations of that period term have long ago faded away". Science fiction was the term that almost would appear on the cover of a paperback to represent its genre to potential reader in the 1950s, when the market for this kind of fiction began to move from the pulp magazines to paperbacks.

Science fiction became interested in matters of realization, subjectivity and the influence of technology on the personal life, in the 1960s, beginning in Britain but relating American writers and spreading to the US. It is worth noting that this 'New Wave' was resembled by a new self-consciousness in style. Further, this 'New Wave' was matched with experiments in form and content emerging in the science fiction magazines. The 1970s identified the science fiction is being used toward new political ends (it was approved by the women's movement) to state the wish and desire for a more equal society, whether by inverting reality, and extrapolating oppression from aspects of our own world (Stock well, 2000, p. 15)

### 3. English Word Formation Process

#### 3.1 Acronym

'Acronymization' is defined by Booij (2007) as "a morphological process in which a combination of initial letters of a word sequence is pronounced as a word". A good example can be found in English and French such as NATO (North Atlantic Organization) and a French example OTAN (Organization du Traité de l'Atlantique Nord).

Bauer (1983) in Danks (2003, p. 98) add that acronym is "a word coined by taking the initial letters of the words in a title or a phrase and using them as a new word". For example, 'SALT' to indicate 'Strategic Arms Limitation Talks'. Acronyms "may include other than initial letters to make them more word-like (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 1581–1582; Danks, 2003, p. 99). A good example is 'radar' to refer to 'Radio Detecting and Ranging'. So far and accompanying may omit also some 'non-lexical' words in the source phrase. For example, 'laser' 'Light Amplification by the Stimulated Emission of Radiation'.

Plag (2002, p. 163) says that when the acronyms are pronounced as words, they may include initial and non-initial letters, or a mixture of initial and non-initial letters. He further adds that they may also be pronounced as a mixture of two, i.e., 'a combination'. For example, 'IUPAC' /airpark/.

Stockwell (2000, p. 119) adds that taking the initial letters of words can be 'atomic' in that every individual letter is pronounced. 'Molecular' in which the acronym is pronounced continuously as if it was a word. As for the first one (atomic), 'AI' is a clear example which refers to (artificial intelligence), whereas 'molecular' examples include Lessing's 'sowf', and 'HAL' in 'Hardware Abstraction Layer'.

Acronyms and abbreviations are "product of irregular word formation" (Lijung, 2003, p. 153). He (Ibid) claims that there are two main types of word formation: 'irregular and regular word formation'. 'Regular' is concerned with the process of adding inflections to words in order to construct words that belong to another grammatical category. For example, adding a suffix to a noun in order to make an adverb or adjective. The second type 'irregular' which makes new words to enhance the vocabulary.

#### 3.2 Compounding

Bauer (2001, p. 695) points out that "Compound is a lexical unit made up of two or more elements, each of which can function as a lexeme, independent of the other(s) in other contexts, and which shows some phonological and/or grammatical isolation from normal syntactic usage".

Plag (2002, pp. 170–208) states that "compound or compounding or compositions may consist of more than two more members word". For example, 'University Teaching Award Committee Member'. In addition, Bauer (Ibid.) claims that compounding includes binary structures that may repeat to shape a new compound. This is named 'recursively'. 'Recursively' refers to one compound or more can be added to an occurring/standing compound. Ralli (2013, p. 10) says that "compounds consist of more than one lexeme which can be realized as words or stems based on the language under investigation."

Bauer (Ibid.) argues also, that "actually a compound is not always and only a combination of words like what is mentioned above, but also including the use of plural noun as the element of the compound". For example, 'Systems analyst'.

Another example of a combination of roots is 'biochemistry': 'bio' is a bound morpheme which behaves like word not affix. So, 'biochemistry' is a combination of bound and free morphemes. If the words are linked to make another single word, these are often called 'lexical blends'. For example, 'holodeck' and 'orgasmatron'. Also, words can be shaped as noun and verb compound like, 'wrap-drive', or as adjective and verb 'doublethink'. It is worth mentioning that most common familiar forms of adjective are the collection of noun and noun as 'ion-gun', 'rim-world', etc. (Stockwell, 2000, p. 118).

The term 'phrasal circumlocution' is another type of compound which is a formation of lexical item. Lessing's (1981a) 'sense-of-we-feeling' or (its acronym 'sowf') is a complex noun phrase used to describe a new way of thinking (Ibid, pp. 118–119). Other examples of phrases what maintain a sense of their origins and newness is: 'cultural engineering', 'hollow earth' and 'alternate world'.

Bauer (1983, p. 206) suggests 'phrase compounds' as "constructions where an entire phrase seems to be involved in the formation of a new word". He suggests a classification into three categories/subsequent subcategories as follows:

A- 'Endocentric phrase compounds': 'lady in waiting', 'a what-do-you-think-movement'.

B- Dvandva constructions: they look the least like compounds and the most like syntactic phrases as ‘milk-and-water’.

C- Exocentric phrase compounds: a variable group that comprises for example: plant and standing for names: ‘forget-me-not’ (plant name), has ‘been’ (to denote people).

Similarly, Nosek (1985, p. 159) uses the term quotational compounds and defines them as “multiword groups”, “mostly hyphenated”, “consisting of three or more words or morphemes”. He (ibid) excludes two-word phrasal compounds.

Here is the classification of phrasal compounds in accordance to their internal structure (Ibid, pp. 161–162):

A- Phrasal compounds which include nouns, pronouns or adjective such as ‘a fish-and-chips shop’ and ‘all-or-nothing decision’.

B- Phrasal compounds with a verb:

1) A finite verb in the indicative such as ‘a do-it-yourself job’ and in the indicative as ‘a boys-will-be-boys excuse’.

2) Gerund, participle and infinitive as ‘bride-to-be, teacher-turned-President’.

3) Verb with an unclear status such as ‘happy-go-lucky man’.

C- Conjunctive phrasal compounds may also be subdivided into three groups according to the conjunction as the following: ‘and, or, than’, ‘larger than life’, ‘touch and go’, ‘all-or-nothing matter’.

D- Prepositional phrasal compounds are subdivided in accordance to the preposition: such as: ‘to, up, of, in, within, etc.: ‘flight-by-night’, ‘off-the-shoulder blouse’, ‘on-the-spot report’.

E- A classification based on lexical means and lexical relationships as the following classifications (Ibid, p. 162):

1) Symmetrical phrasal compounds: one of the components is repeated such as ‘day-to-day’.

2) A symmetrical phrasal compounds which do not contain a repeated element although the elements are semantically related such as ‘hand-in-glove’.

3) A symmetrical phrasal compounds which do not have a noun as their first but as the third component as ‘off-her-shoulder blouse’.

4) Phrasal compounds which are together symmetrical and a symmetrical contain a semantic contrast to repeat one of the components: ‘take-it-or-leave-it’.

#### 4. Existential Sentences

The term ‘existential sentence’ goes back somewhat as far as Jespersen (1942, p. 155) and is used “to describe many languages in order to refer to a designated construction. So, it is difficult to distinguish what these constructions have in common cross linguistically.” In many languages, existential sentences have a special syntactic shape, different from regular subject-predicate sentences, as illustrated by English sentences:

1) *There are two holes in my left pocket.*

2) *Two holes are in my left pocket.*

“Existential constructions are constructions with non-canonical morph syntax which express a proposition about the existence or the presence of someone or something in a context “(Francez, 2007; Mc Nally, 2011. p. 1830).

On the other hand, Bolinger (1977, p. 94) claims that “existential ‘there-sentences’ have often been characterized as serving a ‘preventative’ discourse function i.e., drawing attention to an element that comes into the view or to the attention of the addressee”. He (Ibid.) adds that “the construction ‘presents something to our minds includes a piece of knowledge which is brought into consciousness’”. This is accounted to introduce explicitly an item into the world of discourse.

Downing and Locke (1992) say that “there typically has a function in which the indefinite subject is moved to another position for the purpose of the ‘end-focus’ and the ‘end-weight’ principle”.

Furthermore, Collins and Hollo (2000) point out that “existential sentences permit few verbs to follow the preventative ‘there’”. Examples are ‘remain’, ‘appear’, ‘follow’, ‘seem’, and ‘emerge’.

Quirk et al. (1980, p. 1402) point out that English employs the existential ‘there’ in order to avoid beginning an utterance with the theme which carry new information. In this respect, ‘a ghost is the cave’, the speaker says ‘there is a ghost in the cave’. This tells that the sentence with an indefinite theme is felt to be clumsy/stiff.

Existential sentences in English may be grouped under four headings (Ibid. 1, pp. 1402–1414):

A- Locative existential: it claims the existence of an entity in a certain location. It has the structure (there, be, predication). It can directly be related to the basic pattern of English sentences as in this example:

3) *In the next room*, a professor is giving a workshop—In the next room, there is a professor giving a workshop.

B- Bare existential: that affirms the absolute existence of a person/thing that have the construction: (there, be, nominal expression). See the following example:

4) *There is no justice.*

5) *There are many people who would like to do it.*

6) *There is no way to stop.*

Sentences (5, 6) show the construction which includes the patterns where indefinite expression is modified either by ‘to infinitive’ or ‘relative clause pattern’.

C- Existential with other verbs than ‘be’ such as verbs that point out appearance or coming into existence, as in the following (Breivik, 1981).

7) *There appeared some clouds in the horizon.*

D- Existential with a definite expression (there, be, definite expression). This definite existential are termed as ‘list sentences’. “Existential ‘there-construction’ with a definite notional subject tend to occur when a series of elements is introduced often marked explicitly by a conjunction or linking adverb(first) or additive adverbials (too)” (Biber et al., 1999, p. 947). The following examples illustrate this type:

8) *First, there is the lecture with a meeting.*

9) *How could we get there?—Well, there’s the trolley.*

## 5. Data Analysis

Morphologically, the present paper manipulated two morphological processes, namely, ‘acronym’ and ‘compounding’ for the analysis of science fiction short stories.

### 5.1 The Classification of the Acronym

As for acronym (classification of Stock well, 2000), the paper reveals 26 acronyms from the whole data which are classified according to ‘Atomic’ which reads 21 out of 26. This constitutes 81%, whereas, ‘Molecular’ reads 5 only from the total number of acronyms which constitutes 19%. See Tables 1 and 2 below:

Table 1. Atomic acronym

Atomic Acronym	Identification
U.N.	United Nations
ID’s.	Identity
YMCA	Young Men’s Association
SOBs	Son of a Beast
WSA	Water Supply Act
EFST	Environmental Field Sampling Study
HND	Hemolytic Disease of the New Born
IQ	Intelligence Quotient
AI	Answer Indicator
IP	Artificial Intelligence Protocol
TV	Television
GPS	Global Positioning System
ESA	Emergency Service Access
LEDs	Light Emitting Diode
Ph.D	Philosophiae Doctor
L2	Level 2
HVF	High Voltage Fuse
Atomic Acronym	Identification
U.N.	United Nations

Table 2. Molecular acronym

Molecular Acronym	Identification
NASA	National Aeronautic and Space Administration
OK	Okay
EMAIL	Electronic Mail
EUROs	European Monetary Unit
Bot	Robot

These two tables exemplify the two types of acronym and their identifications according to the texts they represent i.e., science fiction short stories.

In the following table, ‘atomic’ and ‘molecular’ acronyms are stated with their frequencies and percentages:

Table 3. The frequencies and the percentages of ‘Atomic’ and ‘Molecular’ acronym

Type of Acronym	Frequency	Percentage
Atomic	21	81%
Molecular	5	19%
Total	26	100%

### 5.2 The Classification of Phrasal Compounds/ Circumlocation

According to the classification of (Nosek, 1985), ‘Phrasal Compounds/Circumlocation’ is formulated in this paper that comprises the total number 16. As for that classification which involves ‘noun, pronoun, and adjective’, its representation is 2 only from the total 16 which reads 13%. ‘Conjunctive phrasal compounds’ involves 3 from the total 16 and it reads 19%. ‘Prepositional compounds’ constitutes 4 and reads 25%. The classification based on lexical means and lexical relationships constitutes 7 from the total number 16 and it reads 44% which is the highest percentage comparing to the rest groups. In order to set the stage, the following table figures out the classification of phrasal compounds:

Table 4. Classification of phrasal circumlocation/compounds in accordance to their internal structure

Classification	Phrasal Compounds	Frequency	Percentage
Involve noun, pronoun, adjective	The-third-most-powerful-scientific data. Much-too-bright flare	2	13%
Conjunctive Phrasal Compounds	Three-hundred-and-seventy-nine a month Four-hundred-and-sixteen Black-and-white	3	19%
Prepositional phrasal compounds	Picture-over-IP Quarter-past-eighteen Evening-going-on-night Little-to-no	4	25%
Lexical means and lexical relationships	Five-year-old Half-an-hour Half-a-dozen One-of-a-kind Six-foot-cubed coffin Thirteen-year-old Multi-billion-dollar	7	44%
Containing a Verb	None	Nil	Nil
	Total	16	100%

### 5.3 The Classification of Existential-There

The syntactic category analyzed in this paper is ‘existential-there’ and they are examined in terms of (Quirk et al., 1980). The total number of ‘existential-there’ is 66. ‘Bare Existential’ reads 36 from the total number 66 and this constitutes 55%. ‘Locative Existential’ reads 25 and this constitutes 38%. ‘Existential with a definite expression’ and ‘Existential with a verb other than *be*’ constitute least percentages as 6% for those of a definite expression and 3% for those which contain a verb other than ‘*be*’. The properties of the four types of existential sentences are summed up in the following Table 5.

Table 5. Headings of existential sentences

Headings	Frequency	Percentage
Bare Existential	35	53%
Locative Existential	25	38%
Existential with a Definite Expression	4	6 %
Existential with a Verb other than 'Be'	2	3%
Total	66	100%

Below are the examples of **bare**, **locative**, **existential with a definite expression** and **existential with a verb other than 'be'** that emerged in contemporary science fiction short stories:

Table 6. Data analysis of existential sentences

<u>Bare Existential</u>	<u>Locative Existential</u>	<u>Existential with a Definite Expression</u>	<u>Existential with a Verb other than 'Be'</u>
1) <i>There's no way to identify them even if ...</i>	1) <i>"There were no work postings scheduled for that area".</i>	1) <i>..., there's a bay.</i>	1) <i>There comes a point in the puddle's expansion when a large ...</i>
2) <i>There's no evidence that...even if there were more ...</i>	2) <i>"There's a critic on every ship".</i>	2) <i>Well, yeah. That's because there's a force-".</i>	2) <i>There were supposed to be safeguards. but the HVF was...</i>
3) <i>There are three hundred colonists.</i>	3) <i>..., and there was suddenly a much-too-bright flare of rocket exhaust in his peripheral vision ...</i>	3) <i>"There's one thing we can try, said Keith"</i>	
4) <i>There are as many differences among the colonists</i>	4) <i>"There must be something in here we could signal ..."</i>	4) <i>"here's time" he told the others</i>	
5) <i>There was no answer, and he knew ...</i>	5) <i>"There's plenty of dust and loose stuff here".</i>		
6) <i>So, there was no way they could fly back under their own power.</i>	6) <i>There was a lot of space to cross between here and the base station.</i>		
7) <i>There used to be redundancy?</i>	7) <i>...for there are large numbers of Freshmen hanging around the periphery...</i>		
8) <i>There's something that's always bothered me.</i>	8) <i>..., there's an undeniable menace behind them.</i>		
9) <i>There's special kind of supernova that astronomers know are all pretty ...</i>	9) <i>There were two guards on duty at the door.</i>		
10) <i>...thing is, there's this special kind of supernova that astronomers know are all...</i>	10) <i>There was a new kind in my department, Joe Collins.</i>		
11) <i>...there are creatures so vastly much larger than the Bitomites that mere philosophy...</i>	11) <i>...there's nothing except business in them.</i>		
12) <i>...there are peculiar things that can happen in a rain puddle when it gets...</i>	12) <i>There were some directions I haven't been able to safely crack from my ID at work.</i>		
13) <i>There's just few on the black list, people who have, well, over-cooperated with ...</i>	13) <i>There was something there worth investigating yes, and ...</i>		
14) <i>Funny thing, I thought there was something familiar about the locations and ...</i>	14) <i>There was a door in the hill, let into the side ...</i>		
15) <i>If there was anything to see, we should be ...</i>	15) <i>There should not be any changes in the irises at all.</i>		
16) <i>He thought there was more to it, ...</i>	16) <i>...but there was no way for anyone on Earth to know anything about it.</i>		
17) <i>And there might well be!</i>	17) <i>There was just some kind of glitch in the system.</i>		
18) <i>She noted that there were stairs, weathered and rounded (how)?</i>	18) <i>There was an awful lot of mostly empty space in the solar system.</i>		
19) <i>...and there was no way to tell what color his eyes had been...</i>	19) <i>There were tears in her eyes.</i>		
20) <i>There was a medical bed.</i>	20) <i>There's a lifetime of smog and sweat and grease and dirt in my lungs and it...</i>		
21) <i>There was no need for it anymore—the narrow vision it ...</i>	21) <i>There's a waiting area with a dozen expensive chairs, a table, a television, ...</i>		
22) <i>She had been warned that there could be perceptual side effects, and ...</i>	22) <i>There's at least a dozen in</i>		
23) <i>There might be more universe beyond that limit—in fact, there most ...</i>			
24) <i>There's a double-bed, a wardrobe which is older than me, ...</i>			
25) <i>There's a window which opens so you can breathe in the views of the cobbled road...</i>			
26) <i>There's thick curtain so you can block it all out.</i>			
27) <i>"There was ...your brother." she glances up at me, ...</i>			
28) <i>...there's security guards and bullet-proof glass that you need a swipe card to get...</i>			
29) <i>I get back and there's two missed calls for me.</i>			
30) <i>..., and there's nothing.</i>			
31) <i>..., and there's people jogging and walking their dogs.</i>			
32) <i>There was little-to-no chance that I'd be</i>			

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learning...	<i>there</i> , from coffee...
33) ... <i>there</i> was a message waiting for me.	23) <i>There's</i> nothing happening
34) ...and <i>there</i> can be a couple of aesthetically	<i>behind</i> her eyes.
pleasing streams...	24) ... <i>there</i> were far too few
35) ..., <i>there'd</i> be questions and he was too	drugs being used for the amount
paranoid to risk them.	of ...
	25) ..., but <i>there's</i> a deafening
	<i>roar</i> from outside as another
	plane takes off.

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## 6. Findings

Findings reveal that atomic acronym constitutes the highest percentage with 81% than 'molecular' which constitutes 19%. As for 'phrasal compounds' that involve 'lexical means and lexical relationships', they constitute the highest level which reads 44%. The next highest percentage is found in 'prepositional phrasal compound' that constitutes 25%, 'conjunctive phrasal compounds' reveals 19%, whereas those phrasal compounds which involve 'noun, pronoun and adjective' compose 13%. Phrasal compounds containing a verb is associated with the value zero (Nil) in this data.

The existential sentence type, or 'there-family', in science fiction contemporary short stories takes a number of different syntactic forms. Briefly, 'bare existential' compose the large number with 53%, second level has gone to 'locative existential' with 38% percentage. Two lowest percentages have been found in those sentences with a 'definite expression', which have the structure: (There + be + definite expression) and constitute 6%, and existential sentences with a verb other than 'be' read only 3%. This is due to the distinctive differences among types of existential sentences.

It is worth stating that existential sentences of the type 'subject-verb inversion' has a very little consideration in this type of short stories. They read only 2 instances from the whole data:

- 1) And there he *was*
- 2) There he *was*!

And since it is out of the model analysis (it is mentioned only in one short story: 'Galactic Stress'), the researcher refers to it only in this section.

## 7. Conclusion

The study exposes the productiveness of atomic acronym in science fiction short stories. As for the existential sentences of 'there-family', the paper affirms the absolute existence of a person/thing that have the construction: (there, be, nominal expression) in science fiction stories. Another consideration is also given to locative existential sentences in these stories as they claim the existence of an entity in a certain location.

It is believed that writers of science fiction short stories refer occasionally to existential sentences for linguistic and rhetorical purposes: to assert existence, to present new information and may be to introduce topics. 'Phrasal compounds', on the other hand, may allow easy employment in fiction/science fiction stories because of their pithiness and being graphically notice.

In a nut shell, existential sentences may give the entire clause a fresh status.

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