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ИНГЛИЗ ТИЛИ ЛЕКСИКОЛОГИЯСИ КАФЕДРАСИ**

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QUALIFICATION PAPER

**CONTEXTUAL ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH
CONTRACTED WORDS**

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the bachelor's degree**

**THE QUALIFICATION PAPER
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Introduction

The present Qualification Paper deals with the study of English contracted words in modern English, mainly shortenings in conditions of the world integration and globalization in the course of human activities. All people round the world have the tendency to short the lexical units. The peculiarities of development of the medium by which speakers of a language communicate their thoughts and feelings to others, the tool with which they conduct their business or the government, and the vehicle by which the science, the culture has been transmitted is surely worth of study. It is reasonable to assume that a liberally educated person should know something of the conventions of the foreign language we learn, the lexical changes of its vocabulary together with the sources from which that vocabulary has been enriched.

As President I.A.Karimov has declared in the program speech “Harmoniously development of generation a basis of progress of Uzbekistan “: ...all of us realize that achievement of great purposes put today before us noble aspirations it is necessary for updating a society”. The effect and destinies of our reforms carried out in the name of progress and the future results of our intentions are connected with highly skilled, conscious staff the experts who are meeting the requirements of time.¹

The actuality of the Qualification paper is defined by concrete results of the investigation. Special emphasis is laid on various types of rendering the structure, the semantic features, and the usage of the contracted words in English.

The aim of this Qualification Paper is to show the significance of contracted words in English and define their role in the context in Present day English, according to this general aim there put forward the following particular **tasks**:

¹Каримов. И. А. Гармонично развитие поколение—основа прогресса Узбекистана.- Ташкент: Шарк, Сит.1998.-стр. 156-168.

1. To define wordformation ways as a subject;
2. To describe the various types and ways of forming shortened words;
3. To analyze the productivity of English shortening;
4. To investigate the contracted words in the context;
5. to study the lexico-semantic peculiarities of context;
6. to search implementation ways of shortened words in teaching.

The degree of study of the research. As a type of word-building shortening of spoken words has grown more and more productive ever since. This growth becomes especially marked in many European languages in the 20th century, and it is a matter of common knowledge that this development is particularly intense in English. Shortening investigated by many scholars as Amosova N.N. learned the role of words in the context in her ‘English Contextology’ in 1968, Akhmanova O.S. studied the ways of formation of curtailed words in her “Lexicology: Theory and Method” in 1972, Marchand H. explored syntax and word-formation in the field of lexicology in 1974, Nida E. investigated the componential analysis of meaning and some shortened words in 1975, Meshkov .D searched the ways of wordformation in modern English and partly learned shortened words too in 1976, Ginsburg R.G., Khidekel S.S., Knyazeva G.Y. in their “ A course in Modern English lexicology” study all possible ways of wordformation including shortening in 1981, Antrushina G.B, Afanasyeva V.A in their "English lexicology" investigated the essential ways of contracted words in 1985, Arnold I.V. in his “Modern English Lexicology” wrote that the shortening is the most productive way of word building in 1986 and Uzbek linguist Muminov.O.M. in his “Lexicology of the English language” explored various ways of forming shortenings in 2008. . After getting acquainted the above given scholars work we found out that the significance of contracted words in English context in Present day English haven’t studied completely and there is still left some debatable points for research .

The method of investigation is based on the **material** of contracted words taken from The Longman Register of New Words and English-Russian Dictionary by Muler. The materials served for this paper were the books of Lexicology and materials from internet. The works of well-known scientists such as Adams V. "Introduction into English Word formation", Arnold I.V. "The English Word", L. Bauer "English word-formation", and Wikipedia information and unconventional English were widely used.

The object of my study is the wealth of English language, ambiguity of its vocabulary and the most common shortened words in English

The subject matter of this qualification paper is to study the development of shortened words and their contextual analysis .

The novelty of the work is that the thorough analysis the problems of the contracted words in Present day English which have not been researched deeply yet; moreover studying the word-building means in the context. Besides, although shortenings were repeatedly subject of investigation, there is a lot left to reveal and to analyze something about deep-seated developmental tendencies of the language that are not clearly evident. We have analyzed specific peculiarities of the English contracted words in Modern English.

The theoretical importance of the research is determined by the necessity of detailed and comprehensive analysis of peculiarities of word-building means which form a big layer of the English vocabulary. The results of this qualification paper can be used by people who are involved in learning English Lexicology

The practical value of this qualification paper is that it can be used as an aid for the theoretical courses of English lexicology and word-formation, as well as in the process of teaching English. And it also can be used as a topic for discussion for the students of Language Universities and Institutions.

The aim and the tasks of research define the **methods** of investigation, which represent the complex approach to the study of shortened words, including structural, morphological, semantic, lexical and contextual ways of analysis.

The scientific hypothesis of this qualification paper is that this investigation may be used in theoretical and practical lessons on Grammar, Lexicology, and Stylistics soon in future.

The structure of the given Qualification Paper consists of introduction, three chapters and conclusion which are followed by the list of literature used in the course of the research.

Introduction determines the actuality, scientific novelty, the aim and tasks of the work, methods of research, its practical value, shows the material that served the basis for executed work.

The first chapter deals with the general characteristics of shortening in the field of word formation.

The second chapter deals with the contextual analysis of shortened words in present day English.

The third chapter deals with the usage of shortened words in teaching process and investigates some methods of teaching.

Conclusion presents the results of the investigation on the internet abbreviations in present day English.

The list of used literatures gives the list of literature used in the course of the investigation and includes scientific literature, dictionaries and other sources.

The approbation was made on the basis of the theme of the qualification paper an article in the English language have been published: the article under the title of “The role of internet abbreviations in learning language”.

CHAPTER I General characteristics of shortening in the field of word formation

As a subject of study, wordformation is that branch of Lexicology, which studies the patterns on which a language, in this cases the English language, builds new words. It is self – evident that word formation can deal only with words which are analyzable both structurally and semantically. Like any other linguistic phenomenon word – formation may be studied from two angles – synchronically and diachronically. It is necessary to distinguish these two approaches, for synchronically the linguists investigates the present day system of the types of word – formation, while diachronically it is concerned with the history of word building. To illustrate the difference of approaches we shall stop at different types of word – formation.

Word – formation is the process of creating new words from the material available in the language after certain structural and semantic formula and patterns. There are different types of word – formation: Affixation, Shortening, Compound words, Borrowing, conversion and etc. in the following lines we are going to discuss briefly about each type and then completely about abbreviations in the next paragraph.

While many words in English have been inherited from older stages of the language, many words have come into it by other means. Indeed we are always adopting new words into English and the topic of the present bachelor’s paper is the significance of abbreviation-process impact on the modern English language in conditions of the world integration and globalization in the course of human activities. All people round the world have the tendency to short the lexical units. The peculiarities of development of the medium by which speakers of a language communicate their thoughts and feelings to others, the tool with which they

conduct their business or the government, and the vehicle by which the science, the culture has been transmitted is surely worth of study. It is reasonable to assume that a liberally educated person should know something of the conventions of the foreign language we learn, the lexical changes of its vocabulary together with the sources from which that vocabulary has been enriched.

All the above-mentioned aspects are gathered under the single name of the English language in the present work thus it is fruitful to discuss and examine in most detail the evolution of the modern English language which is marked by the greatest influence of abbreviations.

In the process of communication words and word-groups can be shortened. 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 from the full form of the word. The causes of shortening can be linguistic and extra-linguistic. By extra-linguistic causes changes in the life of people are meant. We can suppose that in Modern English many new abbreviations, acronyms, initials, blends 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 we have 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.

They have been readily accepted by the people and handed down to the present day, because they have a universal value. We can find abbreviations, which fit any business situation and this gives them general application.

Shortenings are used to save time and space, and to make long names of organizations and long technical terms easier to remember and less tedious to refer to repeatedly in an extended piece of writing such as a newspaper article or textbook. In such contexts, if the contracted word is not a very common one, the long name or technical term is often given in full at the first mention, with the abbreviation in brackets after it. After that just the shortening is used. Some shortenings can form new words in which they act as root morphemes by different ways of word building:²

a) affixation, e.g. AWALism, ex-rafer, ex- POW, to waafize, AIDSophobia etc.

b) conversion, e.g. to raff, to fly IFR (Instrument Flight Rules),

c) composition, e.g. STOLport, USAFman etc.

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) - стереофильм.

Taking into consideration the above given descriptions we learned productive and non-productive types of word formation.

1.1. Productive and non-productive types of word formation

The available linguistic literature on the subject cites various types and ways of forming words. Books dealing with the problems of word-formation in the Uzbek language, as well as some books on English Lexicology usually mention morphologic, syntactic and semantic types of word-formation.

In conformity with the basic structural types of stems and words described above the following two types of wordformation may be distinguished: *word derivation* and

²Арнольд И.В. Лексикология современного английского языка. - М: Высшая школа, 1959. – с. 90.

word-composition (or *compounding*) words created by *word-derivation* have only *one primary stem* and *one derivational affix* in terms of word-formation analysis, for example, *cleanness* (from *clean*), *to overestimate* (from *to estimate*), *chairmanship* (from *chairman*), *waterproofness* (from *waterproof*), *openhandedness* (from *openhanded*) etc. Some derived words have no affixes, because derivation is achieved through conversion, for instance, to *paper* (from *paper*), *a fall*, and so on.

Words created by *word-composition* have *at least two primary stems*, e.g. coal-black, ice-cold , looking-glass , daydream, hotbed, speedometer etc. Besides, there are words built by a simultaneous application of composition and derivation (suffixation or conversion) - derivational compounds, eg., long-legged, open-minded, a breakdown and others.

The shortening of words stands apart from the above two-fold division of word-formation. It cannot be regarded as part of either word-derivation or word-composition for the simple reason that neither the root morpheme nor the derivational affix can be singled out from the shortened word (lab, exam, V- day,) Consequently, the shortening of words should be treated separately as a specific type of word-formation.

Within the types, further distinction may be made between ways of forming words, the basic ways of forming words in word- derivation, for instance, are affixation and conversion. The lexicalization of grammatical forms, sound and stress interchange and some others are usually referred to as minor ways of forming words.

Conversion, one of the principle ways of forming words in Modern English is highly productive in replenishing the Engl. voc. with new words. The term conversion 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. It is treated differently in linguistic literature. Some linguists define it as a morphological; others as a morphological-syntactic way of forming words, still others consider conversion from a purely syntactic angle.

The 2 members of conversion pair belong to different parts of speech, they are similar only in their initial forms.

The paradigm as (set of forms) must be absolutely different.

e.g. *He bagged a cat.*

She carried a bag.

Conversion is sometimes defined as a formation of new words through the change of paradigm as (non- affixed, zero derivation).

Conversion is a highly productive way of coining new words in Modern English.

Conversion is sometimes referred to as an affix less way of word-building, a process of making a new word from some existing root word by changing the category of a part of speech without changing the morphemic shape of the original root-word.³

The transposition of word from one part of speech into another brings about changes of the paradigm.

Conversion is not only highly productive but also a particularly English way of word-building. It is explained by the analytical structure of Modern English and by the simplicity of paradigms of English parts of speech. A great number of one-syllable words is another factor that facilitates conversion.

Affixation

Affixation is generally defined as the formation of words by adding derivational affixes to different types of bases. Derived words formed by affixation may be the result of one or several applications of word- formation rule and thus the stems of words making up a word-cluster enter into derivational relations of different degrees. The zero degree of derivation is ascribed to simple words, i.e. words whose stem is homonymous with a word- form and often with a root-morpheme (e.g. *atom, haste, devote, anxious, horror*, etc.). Derived words whose bases are built on simple stems and thus are formed by the application of one derivational affix are described as having the first degree of derivation (e.g. *atomic, hasty, devotion*, etc.). Derived

³Muminov.O.M.Lexicology of the English language.- Tashkent: Mehridaryo, 2008.- pp.39-42

words formed by two consecutive stages of coining possess the second degree of derivation (e.g. *atomically, hastily, devotional, etc.*), and so forth.

Types of affixes

Affixes usually are divided into:

- prefixes
- suffixes
- infixes

Consequently it becomes important to describe the constraints imposed on and the factors favoring the productivity of affixation patterns and individual affixes. The degree of productivity of affixation patterns very much depends on the structural, lexico-grammatical and semantic nature of bases and the meaning of the affix. For instance, the analysis of the bases from which the suffix *-ize* can derive verbs reveals that it is most productive with noun-stems, adjective-stems also favor its productivity, whereas verb-stems and adverb-stems do not, e. g. *criticize(critic), organize (organ), itemize (item), mobilize (mobile), localize(local), etc.*⁴

Comparison of the semantic structure of a verb in *-ize* with that of the base it is built on shows that the number of meanings of the stem usually exceeds that of the verb and that its basic meaning favors the productivity of the suffix *-ize* to a greater degree than its marginal meanings, e. g. *to characterize- character, to moralize — moral, to dramatize - drama, 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.⁵

⁴Maurer D.W., High F.C. *New Words - Where do they come from and where do they go.* -New York: American Speech., 1982-. p. 45

⁵Ginzburg R.G., Khidekel S.S., Knyazeva G.Y.. "A course in Modern English lexicology".- М: Высшая школа, 1981.-pp.114-119

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 (*famous*, *depth*, *foresee*). If one accepts the other concept of productivity mentioned above, then nonproductive affixes must be defined as those that cannot be used for the formation of occasional words and, consequently, such affixes as *-dom*, *-ship*, *-fill*, *-en*, *-ify*, *-ate* and many others are to be regarded as non-productive. The theory of relative productivity of derivational affixes is also corroborated by some other observations made on English word-formation. For instance, different productive affixes are found in different periods of the history of the language. It is extremely significant, for example, that out of the seven verb-forming suffixes of the Old English period only one has survived up to the present time with a very low degree of productivity, namely the suffix *-en* (e. g. *to soften*, *to darken*, *to whiten*).

Derivational affix

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 prefix *de-* in the sense of undo what has been done, reverse an action or process e. g. *deicide* (*paint spray*), *decasualize* (*dock labour*), *decentralize* (*government or management*), *duration* (*eggs and butter*), *de-reserve* (*medical students*), *desegregate* (*colored 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* and some others.

Back formation: Backformation makes use of a process called analogy to device new words, but in a rather back words manner, that is from an older word that is mistakenly assumed to be a derivative at it.⁶

For example: We have words such as *revision*, and *revise*, *supervision*, *supervise*. *Revision* is formed by a regular derivation from *revisetion*.

When television was invented, the verb *televise* was back formed on the basis of analogy with review.

Hence an editor must edit, a sculptor must sculpt, and burglars, peddlers, and swindlers, and swindlers must burgle, peddle or swindle.

Blending is combination of the two parts of two words, usually beginning of one word and the end of another: *smog* – from smoke and fog; *brunch* from breakfast + lunch, and *chortle* from chucle + snort. (Lewic Carrol invented this blend, and his poem Jabberwacky contains several other examples of interesting blends. L. Carrol called them portmanteau words)

Clipping: Frequently we shortened words without paying attention to the derivational morphology of the word (or related words). We see here again the element of reduction, already seen in blending. “*Exam*” has been clipped from the word “*examination*”; *dorm* from the word *dormitory*, both *taxi* and *cab* from *taxi*, *cab* (itself a clipping from *taximeter* and *cabriolet*). Because clipping often ignores lexical and morphemic boundaries and cuts instead in the middle of a morpheme, we end up creating new morphemes and enriching the stock of potential building material for making other words.

Compound words.

6 . Maurer D.W., High F.C. New Words - Where do they come from and where do they go.- New York: American Speech., 1982- p. 47.

The next type of word – formation is compound words in Modern English. Compound words are words consisting of it least two stems which occur in the language as free forms. In a compound word the immediate constituents obtain integrity and structural cohesion that make them function in a sentence as a separate lexical unit.⁷

The structural cohesion and integrity of a compound may depend upon unity of stress, solid or hyphenated spelling, semantic unity of morphological and syntactic functioning or, more often, upon the combined effect of several of these or similar phonetic, graphic semantic, morphological or syntactic factors.

The integrity of a compound is manifested in its indivisibility, i. e. the impossibility of inserting another word or word – group between its elements. If, for example, speaking about a sun beam we can insert some other word between the article and the noun e. g. *a bright sunbeam, a bright and unexpected sunbeam*, because the article is a separate word, no such insertion is possible between the stems *sun and beam*, for they are not words but morphemes.⁸

In describing the structure of a compound one should examine three types of relations, namely the relations of the members to each other, the relation of the whole to its members, and correlation with equivalent free phrases.

The semantic integrity of a compound is on the other hand very often idiomatic in its character, so that the meaning of the whole is not a mere sum of its elements. A compound can be often very different in meaning from a corresponding syntactic group. Thus, *a blackboard* is very different from a *black board*. Its essential feature is being a teaching aid: not every board of a

⁷ Ginzburg R.G., Khidekel S.S., Knyazeva G.Y.. “ A course in Modern English lexicology”.- М: Высшая школа, 1981.-pp.140-158

⁸ Adams V. Introduction into English Word formation.- London: L, 1983.- pp.34-78

black color is a blackboard. A *blackboard* may be not board at all but a piece of linoleum or some other suitable material.

Its color is not board necessarily black: It may be brown or something else. Thus, *blackboard* a board which is black. A *chatterbox* is not a box, it is a person who talks a great deal without saying anything important: the combination is used only figuratively the same metaphorical character is observed in the compound *slowcoach*. It is also idiomatic as it does not name a vehicle but a person who acts and thinks slowly. A *fuss – pot* is a person easily excited and nervous about trifles. Thus for the original motivation of the idiomatic compound could be easily re – created the following examples illustrate idiomatic compounds compounds where it is not so obvious: *blackleg* ‘*strike – breaker*’, *black mail* - getting money or some other profit from a person by threats’, *bluestocking* ‘a woman affecting literary tastes and learning.’⁹

Specific features of English compounds.

There are two important peculiarities distinguishing compounding in English from compounding in other languages. Firstly, both immediate constituents of an English compound are free forms i. e. they can be used as independent words with a distinct meaning of their own. The conditions of distribution will be different but the sound pattern the same, except for the stress, the point may be illustrated by a brief list of the most frequently used compounds studied in every elementary courses of English: *afternoon, anyway, anybody, anything, birthday, layoff, downstairs, everybody, fountain – pen, grown – up, large – scale, looking glass, mankind, mother – in – law, motherland, never the less,*

⁹Leonard Bloomfield. Language.- New York: New York, 1933. - p. 23.

*note – book, nowhere, post – card, railway, schoolboy, skating – rink, somebody, staircase, Sunday*¹⁰.

It is common knowledge that the combining elements in Russian are as a rule bound forms (руководства), but in English combinations like Anglo – Saxon, Indo – European or politico – economical, where the first elements are bound forms, occur very rarely and seem to be avoided. They are coined on the neo – Latin pattern.

The second feature that should attract attention is that the regular pattern for the English language is a two – stem compound, as is clearly testified by all the preceding examples. An exception to this rule is observed when the combining element is represented by a form – word stem, as *in mother – in – law, bread – and – butter, whisky – and – soda, deaf – and – dumb, good – for – nothing, man – of – war, mother – of – pearl, stick – in – the – mud*.¹¹

If, however, the number of stems is more than two, so that one of the immediate constituents is itself a compound, it will be often the determinant that one of the determinates. Thus, *aircraft – carrier, wastepaper basket* are words, but *baby outfit, village schoolmaster, night watchman* and similar combinations are syntactic group with two stresses, or even phrases, with the conjunction and *book – keeper and typist*.

One more specific feature of English compounding is the important role the attribute syntactic function can play in providing a phrase with structural cohesion and turning it into a compound. Compare: We've done last – minute changes before (PRIESTLEY) and the same combination as a free phrase in the function of an adverbial: we changed it at the last minute more than once.

¹⁰ Koonin A. "English lexicology" – M: Nauka, 1940.- p. 339

¹¹ Koonin A. "English lexicology".- M. Nauka, 1940.- p. 339

If often happens that elements of a phrase united by their attributive function become further united phonemically by stress and graphically by a hyphen, or Such a bound form is a phrase formative.

1.2. Shortening and its relation with minor ways of word formation

The group we have opposed to the curtailed forms of words is based on clipped phrases set expressions. These differ considerably from word clipped as they result from a combined effect of curtailment, ellipsis and substantiation.

Ellipsis is defined as the shortening of a word or words considered essential for grammatical completeness but not for the conveyance of the indeed lexical meaning, as in the following example: “*Police summons are being served in an effort to stop the big sit-down planned for September 17 (“Daily worker”)*”, where *sit-down* stands for *sit-down demo station*.

S. Ulmann follows Breal in emphasizing the social causes for these.¹² Professional and other communities with a specialized sphere of common interests are the ideal the setting ellipsis. Open on for open fire on, and put tea for put ship to sea are of wartime and navy origin, and bill for bill of exchange comes from business circles, in newspaper office daily paper and weekly paper were quite naturally shortened to daily and weekly. It is clear from the above examples always results in a change of lexico-grammatical meaning and therefore the new word belong to a different part of speech. Various other processes are often interwoven with ellipsis.

For instance: *finals* for final examinations of the first element, whereas *prelims* for *preliminary examinations* results from ellipsis, substantiation and clipping. Other examples of the same complex type of *perm* for *permanent wave*, *pop* for *popular*

¹²Canon G. Historical Changes and English Word formation.: New Vocabulary items. - N.Y: New York, 1986.-p. 201.

music, from for promenade concert, complex type of perm: e.x. concert at which at least part of the audience is not seated and can walk about, pub: public house, an inn or tavern, taxi: taxi-cab, itself formed from taximeter-cab. In side this group a subgroup with prefixed derivatives as first elements of prototype phrases can be distinguished .e.g. co-ed “a girl student at a co-educational institution”, co-op “cooperative store or society”, prefab “a prefabricated house or structure”, to prefabricate means “to manufacture component parts of building prior to their assembly on a site ”.

It has already been mentioned that curtailed words from compounds are few; cases of curtailment combined with composition set off against phrasal prototypes are slightly more numerous, e.g. *ad-lib(v)* “to speak without notes or preparation” from the Latin phrase *ad libitum* meaning “at pleasure”; *subchaser(n)* from submarine chaser. A curious derivational compound with a clipping for one of its stem is the word *teen-ager* “a person between 13 and 19” i.e. “person in his or her teens” The jocular and ironical name *Lib-Labs* (Liberal Labour MP’s i.e. a particular group) illustrates clipping, composition and ellipsis and imitation of reduplication all in one word. Among these formations there is a specific group that has attracted special attention of several authors and was even given several different names: fusions or portmanteau words. The last term author of “Alice in wonderland” and “Through the looking Glass” One of the most linguistically conscious writers, he made a special technique of using blends coined by himself, such a *chortle* v = chuckle + short, *mimsy* adj.=miserable+flimsy, *galumph* v=gallop+triumph, *slithy* adj.=slimy+lithe. Humpty Dumpty explaining these words to Alice says: “You see it’s like a portmanteau-there two meanings packed into one word.” The process formation is called telescoping because the word seem to slide into one another like section of a telescope¹³.

¹³ H.C. Wyld. The Universal English Dictionary. – L: Macmillan, 1952.

Compare also *snob wish* may have been originally an abbreviation for *sine nobilitate*, written after a name in the registry of fashionable English schools to indicate that the bearer of the name did not belong to nobility. One of the most recent examples is *bit*, the fundamental unit of information, which is for binary digit. Other examples are: the already mentioned *paratroops* and the words *lyzer and bloodalyzer and breathalyzer* for apparatuses making blood and breath test.

The analysis into immediate constituents is helpful in so far as it permits the definition of a blend as a word with the first constituent by a stem of which the initial part is missing. The second constituent when used in a series of similar blends may turn into a suffix. A new suffix *-on* is for instance, well under way in such term as *nylon, silon*, formed from the final element of *cotton*.¹⁴

Depending upon the prototype phrases with which they can be two types of blends can be distinguished. One may be termed additive, the second restrictive. Both involve the sliding together not only of sound but of meaning as well. Yet the semantic relations which are work are different. The first, i.e. additive types is transformable into a phrase consisting of the respective complete stems combined by the conjunction *and*: e.g. *smog*=*smoke and fog* "a mixture of smoke and fog".

The shortening of words consists in sub-words graphical a part for a whole. The process of shortening is not confined only to words; many word-groups also become shortened in the process of communication. Therefore, the term "shortening of words" is to be regarded as conventional as it involves the shortening of both words and word-groups¹⁵.

Distinction should be made between shortening of words in written speech and in the sphere of oral intercourse. Shortening of words in written speech results in graphical abbreviations which are, in fact, signs representing words and word-groups of high frequency of occurrence in various spheres of human activity; note, for

¹⁴Antrushina G.B, Afanasyeva V.A "English lexicology" – М: Дрофа, 1985.-р.187

¹⁵Мешков Д. «Словообразование современного английского языка»- М Высшая школа, 1976. - р. 312

instance, *RD* for *Road* and *St* for *Street* in addresses on envelopes and in letters; to for tube, are for aerial in Radio Engineering literature, etc. English graphical abbreviations include rather numerous shortened variants of Latin and French words and word-groups, e. g. *a. m.* (L. ante meridian) in the morning, before noon; *p. m.* (L. postmeridian)--'in the afternoon, afternoon i.e. (L. widest) that is *R.S. V. P.* (Fr. Repondez sil vous plait) reply please etc.

The characteristic feature of graphical abbreviations is that they are restricted in use to written speech, occurring only in various kinds of texts, articles, books, advertisements, and letters. In reading many of them are substituted by the words and phrases that they represent, e. g. *Dr.-doctor, Mr.-mister, Oct.-October*, etc., the abbreviations of Latin and French words and phrases being usually read as their English equivalents. It is only natural that in the course of language development some graphical abbreviations should gradually penetrate into the sphere of oral intercourse and, as a result, turn into lexical abbreviations used both in oral and written speech. That is the case, for instance, with *M. P.* Member of Parliament, *S.O.S.* Save our Souls, etc. Lexical Shortened variants of words and shortening phrases are used as independent lexical units with a certain phonetic shape and a semantic structure of their own. Some of them occur both in oral and written speech, others only in oral colloquial speech, cf. *bus, mike, phone*, on the one hand, and *trig, math's, sis, OH* the other.

In most cases a shortened word exists in the vocabulary together with the longer word from which it is derived and usually has the same lexical meaning differing only in emotive charge and stylistic reference. The question naturally arises whether the shortened forms and the original forms should be considered separate words. Some linguists hold the view that as the two units (e. g. *exam* and *examination*) do not differ in meaning but only in stylistic application, it would be wrong to apply the term word to the shortened unit. In fact, the shortened unit is a word-variant (e. g. *exam* is a word-variant of the word *examination*).

Other linguists contents that even when the original word and its shortened form are generally used with "a difference in the implied tone of feeling" they are both to be recognized as two distinct words. If this treatment of the process of word-shortening is accepted, the essential difference between the shortening of words and the usual process of word-formation (such as affixation, compounding, etc.) should be pointed out. It will be recalled that words built by affixation, for instance, are of a more complex character both structurally and semantically.

For examples; *teach-teacher, develop- development, usual-unusual*, etc. It is not the case with word shortening; shortened words are structurally simple words and, as was mentioned above, in most cases have the same lexical meaning as the longer words from which they are derived. Another peculiarity of word-shortening if treated as a derivational process is that there are no structural patterns after which new shortened words could be coined. At any rate, linguistic research has failed to establish any so far. Among shortenings of the lexical type distinction should be made between lexical abbreviations and clippings.

Lexical abbreviations are formed by a simultaneous operation of shortening and compounding, which accounts for the Russian term *сложно-сокращенные слова* universally applied to them in Russian linguistic literature. They are made up of the initial sounds or syllables of the components of a word-group or a compound word usually of a terminological character. There are two ways to read and pronounce such abbreviations: as a succession of the alphabetical readings of the constituent letters; *B. B. C, [bi: 'bi: si:]* - British Broadcasting Corporation; *-T.V. [ti: vi:]* television; etc. as a succession of sounds denoted by the constituent letters, i. e. as if the abbreviations were ordinary words, e. g. *UNO [ju: noy]* -United Nations Organization; *NATO [neitou]* - North Atlantic Treaty Organization; *laser [leiza]* light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation; etc. As a rule, lexical abbreviations do not include functional words (prepositions, articles, etc.). although there are some exceptions, e. g. *R. and D. [a: rsn'di]* research and development program.

In some cases only the first component of a two-member word-group or the first two components of a three-member group are shortened, the last one undergoing no change at all, e. g. *V.J.-Day* [vi: dgei'dei] -Victory over Japan Day, etc.

As a general rule, lexical abbreviations first make their appearance in written speech, mostly in newspaper style and in the style of scientific prose, and gradually find their way into the sphere of oral intercourse.¹⁶

Clipping consists in the cutting off of one or several syllables of a word. In many cases the stressed syllable is preserved, e.g. *sis* from *sister*, *Jap* from *Japanese*, *doc* from *doctor*, etc. Diminutives of proper names are often formed in this way, e.g. *AF* from *Alfred*, *Ed* from *Edward*, *Sam* from *Samuel*, etc. Sometimes, however, it is the unstressed syllable that remains e. g. *phone* from *telephone*, *plane* from *airplane*, *dome* from *aerodrome*, etc. Traditionally clippings are (classified into several types depending on which part of the word is clipped: Words that have been shortened at the end they so called apocope [апокоп]-апокопа, e. g. *ad* from *advertisement*, *lab* from *laboratory*, etc. Words that have been shortened at the beginning the so-called aphaeresis [a'fairesis] — афerezис, e. g. *car* from *motor-car*, *phone* from *telephone*, etc.

Words in which some syllables or sounds have been omitted from the middle—the so-called syncope —синкопа, e.g. *math's* from *mathematics*, *pants* from *pantaloons*, *specs* from *spectacles*, etc.

Words that have been clipped both at the beginning and at the end, e. g. *flu* from *influenza*, *tec* from *detective*, *frig* from *refrigerator*, etc.

It is typical of word-clipping in Modern English that in most cases it is the nouns that are shortened. There are very few clipped adjectives all of them belonging to jargonize, e. g. *add* from *ardent*, *dilly* from *delightful* and some others. As for clipped

¹⁶ Toizburg R.S. A Course in Modern English Lexicology.- M: Nauka, 1979-.pp.72-82

verbs it is usually a case of conversion from clipped nouns, e. g. *to taxi* from *taxi*, *to phone* from *phone*, *to perm* from *perm* a permanent wave etc.

When performing in the sentence some peculiarities the syntactical functions of ordinary of Clipped words and lexical Abbreviations, abbreviations take on grammatical inflections, e. g. *exams*, *M. P. s* (will attack huge arms bill).

These two categories of shortened words may be used with the definite and the indefinite article, e. g. *the B.B.C*, *a bike*, *the radar*, etc.¹⁷

They may be combined with derivational affixes and also be used in compounding, e. g. *Y. C L.-er- member of the Y.C.L. M. P.-ess-woman-member of Parliament*; *hanky* from *handkerchief*, *nighttime* from *nightdress* (with the diminutive suffix *-ie*) *radar man-оператор радиолокационной станции*, etc.

Clipped words are characteristic of colloquial speech. The number of clipped words used in everyday speech is rather considerable and newly clipped words keep entering the vocabulary. In the course of time many clipped words find their way into the literary language losing their stylistic coloring, though not infrequently they still preserve the stamp of colloquial words and, as a result, are restricted in use.

The term blending is used to signage the method of merging parts of words (not morphemes) into one new word; the result is a blend, also known as a portmanteau word. The noun *smog* is an example in point. It is composed of the parts of the nouns *smoke* and *fog* (smoke-fog). Thus blending is in fact compounding by means of clipped words. The result of blending is an unanalyzed, simple word, for the parts of words blended by the word-coiner (for instance, *sin* and *go* in *smog*) are not morphemes at all in terms of the English language. Therefore a blend is perceived as a simple word unless speakers have received the extra- linguistic information about its composition. Many blends are short-lived. A fair proportion, however, have become established in the vocabulary, e. g. *clash-clap H-crash or dash*; *flush become*

¹⁷Buranov. Muminov. Readings on Modern English Lexicology - T: O'qituvchi, 1985 .- pp. 34-47

established in the vocabulary, e. g. clash-clap H-crash or dash; flush -flash blush; brunch- breakfast ,lunch; language=slang-language; amaze smoke haze, etc.

In most cases blends belong to the colloquial layer of words sometimes bordering on slang, e. g. *amaze, brunch, language, politician pollute politician-* грязный политикан, etc. There are numerous blends, however, in the terminological sector of the vocabulary, e.g. *recon-radar beacon-радиолокационный маяк; transceiver - transmitter-receive-приемное-передающая станция; transistor-transfer resistor-транзистор, etc.*

In considering the diachronic and the formation synchronic approach to language study reference was made, in particular, to the verb to beg derived from the noun beggar borrowed from Old French. The noun *beggar* was later presumed to have been derived from a shorter word on the analogy of the derivative correlation of the "speak-speaker" type. This process of word- formation is called backformation (or back-derivation) and has diachronic relevance only. It does not affect the derivative correlation for present-day speakers who do not feel any difference between the relationship "speak— speaker", on the one hand, and "beg-beggar", on the other. Examples of backformation are numerous: to burgle from burglar; to edit from editor; to enthuse from enthusiasm; to sculpt from sculptor, to liaise from liaison, etc.¹⁸

At the present time backformation combined with conversion seems to be active in the formation of verbs from compound nouns mostly of a terminological character, e.g. *to blood-transfuse from blood-trans fusion — переливание крови; to rush-develop from rush-development — быстрое проявление пленки; to finger-print from finger-printing — взятие отпечатков пальцев; to baby-sit from baby-sitter-приходящая няня etc.*

Sound-interchange

Sound-interchange is the gradation of e.g. Sound- and stress- sounded occupying one and the same interchange. Place in the sound-form of one and the

¹⁸ Muminov O.. Lexicology of the English language.-Tashkent: Mehridaryo,2008.-p.56

same morpheme in various cases of its occurrence. Both sound and stress-interchange may be regarded as ways of forming words only diachronically because in Modern English not a single word can be coined by changing the root-vowel of a word or by shifting the place of the stress. Sound-interchange as well as stress-interchange is absolutely non-productive and in fact has turned into a means of distinguishing between different words, primarily between words of different parts of speech and as such is rather wide-spread in Modern English, e.g. *to sing-song, to live-life, to breathe-breath, etc.* It also distinguishes between different word-forms, e.g. *man-men, wife-wives, to know-knew, to leave-left, etc.*¹⁹

Sound-interchange naturally falls into two groups: vowel-interchange and consonant-interchange.

By means of vowel-interchange we distinguish different parts of speech, e.g. *full-to fill, food-to feed, blood-to bleed, etc.*

In some cases vowel-interchange is combined with affixation, e.g. *long-length, strong-strength, broad- breadth; nature-natural, nation-national, etc.* Intransitive verbs and corresponding transitive ones with a causative meaning also display vowel-interchange, e.g. *to rise-to raise, to sit-to set.*

The type of consonant-interchange typical of Modern English is the interchange of a voiceless fricative consonant in a noun and the corresponding voiced consonant in the corresponding verb, e.g. *use-to use, mouth- to mouth, house-to house, advice-to advise, etc.* There are some particular cases of consonant-interchange: [k]-[tʃ] to *speak-speech; to break- breach [k]-[tʃ] defense-to defend, offence-to offend; evidence-evident; importance- important; etc.* Consonant-interchange may be combined with vowel-interchange, e.g. *bath- to bathe; breath-to breathe; life-to live, etc.*

¹⁹Canon G. Historical Changes and English Word formation: New Vocabulary items.- N.Y: New York, 1986.- p. 201.

¹⁹Canon G. Historical Changes and English Word formation: New Vocabulary items.- N.Y: New York, 1986.- p. 201.

Many English verbs of Latin-French origin are distinguished from the corresponding nouns by the position of stress. Here are some well-known examples of such pairs of words: export to export o; import n- to import v; conduct n-to conduct v; present n-to present v; contrast n- to contrast u; increase n-to increase v, etc. Stress-interchange is not restricted to pairs of words consisting of a noun and a verb. It may also occur between other parts of speech, for instance, between adjective and verb, cf. frequent adj.-to frequent v, absent adv- to absent v, etc.

Relationship Sound-interchange in English is often between sound (stress)- combined with a difference only in the interchange paradigm. Hence the question arises of the relativistic between sound-interchange and conversion. To investigate the problem the following three types of relations should be distinguished:

1) *Breath- to breathe*

As far as cases of this type are concerned, sound-interchange distinguishes only between words; it does not differentiate word-forms of one and the same word. Consequently it is no relation to the paradigms of the words. Hence, cases of this type cannot be regarded as conversion.

2) *Song-to sing*

In the given example the vowel in song interchanges with three different vowels, the latter interchanging with one another in the forms of the verb to sing.²⁰

Like the previous type, the words song--to sing is not related by conversion: song differs from to sing (sang, sung) not only in the paradigm, its root-vowel not occurring in the word-forms of the verb and vice versa.

3) *House-to house*

In such cases the type of sound-interchange used to distinguish the two words (verb and noun) is the same as that which distinguishes the word-forms of the noun, cf. house [haus]-houses [hauziz] and to house [hauz]. Consequently, the only

²⁰ Buranov, Muminov. Readings on Modern English Lexicology – T: O'qituvchi, 1985.- pp. 34-47

difference between the two words lies in their paradigms, in other words, word-pairs like house-to house are cases of conversion. It is fairly obvious that in such cases as present-to present, accent-to accent, etc. which differ in the position of stress the latter does not distinguish the word-forms within the paradigm of the two words. Thus, as far as cases of this type are concerned, the difference in stress is similar to the function of sound-interchange in cases like breath- to breathe. Consequently cases of this type do not belong to conversion.

Shortening of words and word summary groups is typical of present-day English and is occurring in various spheres of oral and written intercourse. Graphical abbreviations are restricted in use to written speech. Lexical abbreviations and especially clippings are peculiar to the sphere of oral communication.

The result of blending which is a compounding of clipped words is always a simple word. In most cases blends belong to the colloquial layer of words. There are, however, numerous blends in the terminological section of the vocabulary. The process of back formation is of diachronic relevance only. The function of sound-interchange and stress-inter change in Modern English is to distinguish between different words and word-forms. Sound-interchange is often accompanied by affixation.

1.3. Types of shortenings and the differences between them.

As a type of word-building shortening of spoken words, also called clipping or curtailment is recorded in the English language as far back in the 15th century. It has grown more and more productive ever since. This growth becomes especially marked in many European languages in the 20th century, and it is a matter of common knowledge that this development is particularly intense in English.

Newly shortened words appear continuously; this is testified by numerous neologisms, such as *dub* v, a cinema term meaning to make another recording of sound-track in a film in a different language (from double); *frig* or *fridge* n from refrigerator; *mike* n from microphone; *telly* or T. V. n from television set; *vacuum* from vacuum cleaner, etc. Many authors are inclined to overemphasize the role of "the strain of modern life" as the mainspring of this development. This is, obviously, only one of the reasons, and the purely linguistic factors should not be overlooked. Among the major forces are the demands of rhythm, which are more readily satisfied when the words are monosyllabic. The spelling is given according to Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary²¹.

When dealing with words of long duration, one will also note that a high percentage of English shortenings are involved into the process of loan word assimilation. Monosyllabic goes farther in English than in any other European language, and that is why shortened words sound more like native ones than their long prototypes. Curtailment may therefore be regarded as caused, partly at least, by analogical extension, i.e. modification of form on the basis of analogy with existing and widely used patterns. Thus, the three homonyms resulting from abbreviation of three different words, *van* a large covered vehicle, a railway carriage, the short for caravan (by apheresis); *van* the front of an army, the short of vanguard which in its turn is a clipping of the French word *avant-garde*; and *van* - a lawn tennis term, the short for advantage, all sound quite like English words. Cf. *ban* n and v, *can*, *fan*, *man*, *ran* (Past Tense of run), *tan*, etc.

Shortening of spoken words or curtailment consists in the reduction of a word to one of its parts (whether or not this part has previously been a morpheme), as a result of which the new form acquires some linguistic value of its own.

The part retained does not change phonetically, hence the necessity of spelling changes in some of the examples above (*dub*- double, *mike* - microphone, etc.).

²¹Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary, 1956

The change is not only quantitative: a curtailed word is not merely a word that has lost its initial, middle or final part. Nor is it possible to treat shortening as just using a part for the whole as Hackett suggests, because a shortened word is always in some way different from its prototype in meaning and usages. Moreover, every kind of shortening differs from derivation, composition and conversion in being not a new arrangement of existing morphemes, but often a source of new ones.

Shortening may be regarded as a type of root creation because the resulting new morphemes are capable of being used as free forms and combine with bound forms. They can take functional suffixes: "Refs Warning Works Magic" (the title of a newspaper article about a football match where the referee called both teams together and lectured them on rough play). Cf. *Sing.* — *bike*, *1 Pl.* *bikes*, *bodes*, *Inf.* — *to vac*, *2 Part. I* — *vacking*, *Past Tense and Part.II* — *vacked*. They also serve as basis for further word-formation: *fancy n* (from *fantasy*), *fancy v*, *fancier n*, *fanciful adj*, *fancifully adv*, *fancifulness n*, *fancy-ball n*, *fancy-dress n*, *fancy-work n*, etc.

It is interesting in this connection to compare the morphemes "tele" in television and telecast. They are homonymous but not identical. Tele- in television is derived from "Tele+vision", it is a combining form used to coin many special terms denoting instruments and processes which produce or record results at a distance, such as telecommunication, telemechanics, telepathy, telephone, telescope and television itself. Tele- in telecast does not mean far it is a new development — the shortened variant of television rendering a special new notion. This becomes obvious from the following simple transformations: *television - vision at a distance*, *tele(broad)"cast HO a broadcast at a distanced tele (broad) cast a television broadcast*. In this new capacity tele- enters many combinations: *television*, *tele-prompter (an electronic device that slowly unrolls the speaker's text, in large print out of sight of the audience)*,

*televiwer one who uses a television set, tele star (Anglo-American satellite used as television relay station).*²²

The correlation of a curtailed word with its prototype is of great interest. Two possible developments should be noted:

1. The curtailed form may be regarded as a variant or a synonym differing from the full form quantitatively, stylistically and sometimes emotionally, the prototype being stylistically and emotionally neutral, e. g. doc- doctor; exam- examination. Also in proper names: *Becky-Rebecca, Frisco - San Francisco, Japs- the Japanese*. The missing part can at all times be supplied by the listener, so that the connection between the prototype and the short form is not lost. The relationship between the prototype and the curtailment belongs in this case to the present-day vocabulary system and forms a relevant feature for synchronistic analysis. Much yet remains to be done in studying the complex relations between the prototype and the clipping, as it is not clear when one should consider them two separate synonymous words and when they are variants of the same word.

2. In the opposite extreme case the connection can be established only technologically. The denotative or lexico-grammatical meaning, or both, may have changed so much that the clipping becomes a separate word. Consequently a pair of etymological doublets comes into being. Cf. *chap- chapmen a peddlers, fan an enthusiastic devotee fanatic, fancy - fantasy, miss -mistress*. A speaker who calls himself a football fan would probably be offended at being called a fanatic. A fanatic is understood to have unreasonable and exaggerated beliefs and opinions that make him socially dangerous, whereas a fan is a harmless devotee of a specified amusement. The relationship between curtailed forms and prototypes in this second group is irrelevant to the present-day vocabulary system, and is a matter of historic, i. e. dichromatic study. In both types the clipped forms (doc, exam, chap, fan, etc.) exist in the language alongside their respective prototypes. The difference, however, is that

²²Marchand H. *Studies in Syntax and Word-Formation*. –Munich., 1974-.p.347

whereas words belonging to the first group can be replaced by their prototypes and show in this way a certain degree of interchangeability, the doublets are never equivalent lexically as there are no contexts where the prototype can replace the shortened word without a change of meaning.

The possibility of substitution in case of variants may be shown by the following example: if a newspaper article about a certain musician is entitled "*The Boss of the Tenor Sax*", there is nothing very unusual in substituting saxophone for sax ("The Boss of the Tenor Saxophone"). The prototype is stylistically neutral and therefore it can stand for the curtailed word. A similar example is furnished by the following heading of a brief newspaper note about the prescription of eyeglasses for racing horses in Chicago. It runs as follows: "Racehorses Are Fitted with Specs". The substitution of spectacles for specs would make the heading a little less lively but not unacceptable. This substitution, as a rule, can go only one way. It would be, for instance, impossible to use mug for magazine in the following passage of literary criticism: The public he [Ch. Dickens] wrote for was largely a new public brought to consciousness by the industrial revolution, a public for which magazine proprietors had not catered before 1832... (W. ALLEN) The specific stylistic character of the clipped form greatly limits the possibilities of usage. The semantic status of the group of variants (or synonyms) and that of the group of doublets is also different. Curtailed words of the first group (variants) render one of the possible meanings of the prototype creating by this very novelty a greater expressiveness, a colloquial or slangy shade and often emotional coloring as well. The following extract will illustrate this coloring:

"Still, I suppose you want to find your room. I wonder where they've put you. Half a mo — // come down and look on the board. You go and make the co//, Con" she called back as she came downstairs, "I shan't be a jiff". Everything with her was an abbreviation. Striking a match by the notice board, she searched for the number of

my room. "Presuming the Ass Mat's remembered" "The who?".Assistant Matron, old Fanny Harriman²³

It is typical of the curtailed words to render only one of the secondary meanings of a polysemantic word. For instance the verb double may mean to multiply by two, to increase twofold, to amount to twice as much, when used by musicians it means add the same note in a higher or a lower octave. In a military context the meaning is to move in double time or run.

As a nautical term it is synonymous to the expression to get round headland, etc. Dub, on the contrary, renders only one of the specific meanings. The curtailed words belonging to this type are mostly mono-semantic as, for example, lab, exam, and fan! Also they are often homonymous: compare van and vac as also gym for gymnastics and gym for gymnasium, or vet for veteran and veterinary. Most of these by conversion produce verbs: to phone, to vac, to vet, etc., in which the semantic relationship with the prototype remains quite clear.²⁴ Between the two groups of well-defined extreme cases, namely variants or synonyms and doublets, there exist numerous intermediate cases, where the classification is difficult. The appearance of a more complex semantic structure in a word is a step towards its acquiring greater independence and thus becoming not a variant but a doublet of the prototype. This intermediate state is illustrated by the word polio which means not only the illness but also a person suffering from poliomyelitis, although the phrases a polio case or a polio victim are more often used. The second extreme group, the etymological doublets, may develop semantic structures of their own. Very complex semantic cases like fancy with its many meanings and high valiancy are nevertheless rare.

It has been specified in the definition of the process that the clipped part is not always a complete morpheme, so that the division is only occasionally correlated with the division into immediate constituents. For instance, in phone for telephone

²³M. DICKENS "The who?..."

²⁴Ginsburg R.S "A course in Modern English lexicology."- М: Высшая школа, 1987.- p.108-109

and photo for photograph the remaining parts are complete morphemes occurring in other words. On the other hand in *ec or eco* (from economics) the morphological structure of the prototype is disregarded. All linguists agree that most often it is either the first or the stressed part of the word that remains to represent the whole. An interesting and convincing explanation for this is offered by M. M. Segal, who quotes the results of several experimental investigations dealing with informal vine parts of words. These experiments carried out by psychologists have proved very definitely that the initial components of words are imprinted in the mind and memory more readily than the final parts. The signaling value of the first stressed syllable, especially when it is at the same time the root syllable, is naturally much higher than that of the unstressed final syllables with their reduced vowel sounds.

As a rule, but not necessarily, clipping follows the syllabic principle of word division, e. g. *pep* from pepper, or *plane* from aero plane. In other instances it may be quite an arbitrary part of the prototype, e.g. *prep* (school.)- Homework is from preparation.

Unlike conversion, shortening produces new words in the same part of speech. The bulk of curtailed words is constituted by nouns, verbs are hardly ever shortened in present-day English, *Rev* from revolve and *tab* from tabulate may be considered exceptions. Such clipped verbs as do occur are in fact converted nouns.

Consequently the verbs *to perm*, *to phone*, *to taxi*, *to vac*, *to vet* and many others are not curtailed words diachronically but may be regarded as such by right of structure, from the synchronic point of view. As to the verbs *to pent*, *to mend*, *to tend* and a few others, they were actually coined as curtailed words but not at the present stage of language development.

Shortened adjectives are very few and mostly reveal a combined effect of shortening and suffixation, e. g. *comfy*- comfortable, *dilly*-delightful, *imposes*- impossible, *muzzy*- miserable, which occur in schoolgirl slang. As an example of a shortened interjection *Shun!*- Attention, the word of command may be mention various classifications of shortened words have been or may be offered.

The generally accepted one is that based on the position of the clipped part. According to whether it is the final, initial or middle part of the word that is cut off we distinguish final clipping (or apocope), 2.initial clipping (or aphaeresis) 3.and medial clipping (or syncope).²⁵

There are various kinds of abbreviation. The most common is the set of **initials**, for example *DIY* for Do It Yourself, *DSS* for Department of Social Security, *gbh* for grievous bodily harm, *JCB* for a machine invented by Joseph Cyril Bamford.

Some abbreviations are the first part of a longer word and are pronounced as words, not said as a sequence of letters of the alphabet. Examples are *ad* and *advert* from advertisement, *bra* from brassière, *gym* from gymnasium, and *limo* from limousine.

Other abbreviations made by cutting off the end of the word are not used in speech, for example *adv* for adverb and *cont* for continued. If these need to be read aloud, they are read as the unabbreviated full forms.

Some words lose bits in the middle. *Bdg* stands for building; *Chas* for Charles. *Dr*, *ft*, *Mr*, and *Mrs* are other examples. These are read aloud as their unabbreviated full forms. A few words lop off the first part, for example *bus* and *plane*, though these are now so well established that they are really no longer thought of as reduced forms, but as words in their own right.

There is a significant proportion of abbreviations which it is possible for an English speaker to pronounce as words rather than as sequences of letters of the alphabet. For example, *NATO* is said [nay-toe] and never [en ei tee ou]. Sets of initials like *NATO*, and new forms made up of the first parts of two or more words, such as *OXFAM*, are called acronyms. Further examples

²⁵Jespersen, Otto. Growth and Structure of the English Language.- London: Oxford, 1982.- p.246-249

are UNESCO, Amstrad, GATT, ACORN, dinky, Aids, laser, ERNI, and CLEAR. A few abbreviations are pronounced both ways, VAT being the prime example.

Acronyms are often new words. The word Nato did not exist before it began to be used as a quick way of referring to the North Atlantic Treaty Organization. It is not, in fact, a very typical English word, although it is easy enough for English speakers to pronounce. COHSE, the Confederation of Health Service Employees, looks un-English, but is pronounced [cosy].

Laser, on the other hand, looks thoroughly at home in English. There are probably many people who are quite unaware that it is an acronym, derived from: *light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation*. The fact that it is not written in capital letters, and is a common noun rather than the name of an organization, also helps to disguise it. This is the sort of acronym that easily makes its way into a dictionary. *Yuppie*, from: *young upwardly mobile professional*; and *radar*, from: *Radio Detection and Ranging*, are other examples.

Some acronyms are existing words taken over as more easily used alternatives to full forms, ACORN, for example, which stands for: A Classification of Residential Neighborhoods, a sampling system based on different kinds of dwelling; or AIDS, from: acquired immune deficiency syndrome; or WASP, from: White Anglo-Saxon Protestant.

Some organizations deliberately choose terms for products, projects, or equipment so that the initials will make an existing name. An example of this is ERNIE, from: Electronic Random Number Indicator Equipment. This is the machine that chooses the winners of Premium Bonds. A TESSA is a Tax Exempt Savings Bond. These short and friendly-sounding names suggest something pleasant and accessible. Another case of image manipulation by acronym is the choice of the title Fast Reactor Experiment, Dounreay to give FRED.

Campaigning organizations, in particular, choose names to yield an acronym that is suggestive of their aims. ASH, Action on Smoking and Health wants people to stop

smoking; GASP is the Group Against Smog Pollution; SCUM, the Society for Cutting Up Men, wants to attract your attention.

The form in which acronyms are written varies. The small number that are common nouns rather than names are often found in small letters, and become indistinguishable from words. These are nouns such as laser, radar, and aids. The plural is made, as with most ordinary words, by simply adding s, for example KOs, JCBs, lasers. No apostrophe is needed.

Names of organizations are most often written as a string of capital letters without full stops, but practice is variable, and you may see Unesco or UNESCO as well as UNESCO. You may even see U.N.E.S.C.O..

Note that not all abbreviations that could be acronyms are so in fact. BA, for example, is always said [bee eh] and never [bar]. A particularly interesting case is ETA. When it means 'Estimated Time of Arrival' it is an abbreviation, and is pronounced [ee tee eh], but when it stands for the Basque separatist group it is an acronym, and is pronounced [etter], to rhyme with better.

There are two main types of shortenings in modern lexicology: graphical and lexical. Initialisms are the bordering case between graphical and lexical abbreviations.

Graphical abbreviations

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 Russian this type of abbreviation is not typical. In these abbreviations in the spelling Latin words are shortened, while orally the corresponding English equivalents are pronounced in the full form, e.g. for example (Latin *exempli gratia*), a.m. - in the

morning (ante meridiem), No - number (numero), p.a. - a year (per annum), d - penny (dinarius), lb - pound (libra), i. e. - that is (id est) etc.

Some graphical abbreviations of Latin origin have different English equivalents in different contexts, e.g. p.m. can be pronounced «in the afternoon» (post meridiem) and «after death» (post mortem).

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 :²⁶

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.

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.

²⁶Akhmanova O.S. Lexicology: Theory and Method.- М: Высшая школа, 1972.- р. 89.

Types of initials, peculiarities of their pronunciation

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.

In some cases the translation of initialisms is next to impossible without using special dictionaries. Initialisms are denoted in different ways. Very often they are expressed in the way they are pronounced in the language of their origin, e.g. ANZUS (Australia, New Zealand, United States) is given in Russian as АНЗУС, SALT (Strategic Arms Limitation Talks) was for a long time used in Russian as СОЛТ, now a translation variant is used (ОСВ – Договор об ограничении стратегических вооружений). This type of initialisms borrowed into other languages is preferable, e.g. UFO - НЛО, СП - JV etc.

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).

Some scientists unite groups b) and c) into one group which they call acronyms.

Some initialisms can form new words in which they act as root morphemes by different ways of wordbuilding:²⁷

²⁷ Ginzburg R.S. et al. A Course in Modern English Lexicology.-М: 1979-.P.134.

- a) affixation, e.g. AWALism, ex-rafer, ex- POW, to waafize, AIDSophobia etc.
- b) conversion, e.g. to raff, to fly IFR (Instrument Flight Rules),
- c) composition, e.g. STOLport, USAFman etc.
- 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) - стереофильм.

Lexical abbreviations , their reference to styles

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 from the full form of the word. In such cases as »fantasy» and «fancy», «fence» and «defense» 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 pronoun, numerals, interjections, conjunctions are not abbreviated. The exceptions are: fif (fifteen), teenager, in one's teens (aphaeresis from numerals from 13 to 19)²⁸.

²⁸ Арнольд И.В. Лексикология современного английского языка.-М: Высшая школа, 1959. - р. 90

Lexical abbreviations are classified according to the part of the word which is clipped. Mostly the end of the word is clipped, because the beginning of the word in most cases is the root and expresses the lexical meaning of the word. This type of abbreviation is called apocope. Here we can mention a group of words ending in «o», such as *disco (discothèque)*, *expo (exposition)*, *intro (introduction)* and many others. On the analogy with these words there developed in Modern English a number of words where «o» is added as a kind of a suffix to the shortened form of the word, e.g. *combo (combination)* - *небольшой эстрадный ансамбль*, *Afro (African)* - *прическа под африканца* etc.

In other cases the beginning of the word is clipped. In such cases we have apheresis, e.g. *chute (parachute)*, *varsity (university)*, *copter (helicopter)*, *thuse (enthuse)* etc. Sometimes the middle of the word is clipped, e.g. *mart (market)*, *fanzine (fan magazine)* *maths (mathematics)*. Such abbreviations are called syncope. Sometimes we have a combination of apocope with apheresis, when the beginning and the end of the word are clipped, e.g. *tec (detective)*, *van (avanguard)* etc.

Sometimes shortening influences the spelling of the word, e.g. «c» can be substituted by «k» before «e» to preserve pronunciation, e.g. *mike (microphone)*, *Coke (coca-cola)* etc. The same rule is observed in the following cases: *fax (facsimile)*, *teck (technical college)*, *trank (tranquilizer)* etc. The final consonants in the shortened forms are substituted by letters characteristic of native English words.

In the modern English society there is a tendency to social stratification, as a result there are neologisms in this sphere as well, e.g. *belonger* - представитель среднего класса, приверженец консервативных взглядов.²⁹ To this group we can also refer abbreviations of the type *yuppie* /young urban professional people/, such as: *muppie*, *gruppie*, *rumpie*, *bluppie* etc. People belonging to the lowest layer of the society are called *survivors*, a little bit more prosperous are called *sustainers*, and

²⁹Halliday M.A.K. Language as Social Semiotics. Social Interpretation of Language and Meaning. - London: L, 1979.- P. 145

those who try to prosper in life and imitate those, they want to belong to, are called emulators. Those who have prospered but are not belongers are called achievers. All these layers of society are called VAL /Value and Lifestyles/.

The rich belong also to jet set that is those who can afford to travel by jet planes all over the world enjoying their life. Sometimes they are called «jet plane travellers».

During Margaret Thatcher's rule the abbreviation PLU appeared which means «People like us» by which snobbistic circles of society call themselves. Nowadays /since 1989/ PLU was substituted by «one of us».

There are also abbreviations of different types, such as resto, teen /teenager/, dinky /dual income no kids yet/, ARC /AIDS-related condition, infection with AIDS/, HIV /human immuno-deficiency virus/.

Quite a number of neologisms appear on the analogy with lexical units existing in the language, e.g. snowmobile /automobile/, danceaholic /alcoholic/, airtel /hotel/, cheeseburger /hamburger/, autocade /cavalcade/.

We can find the following lexical units of common usage³⁰:

aggro /aggression/

Algol /algorhythmic language/

apex /eipeks/ - advanced purchased excursion/ payment for an excursion ninety days before the time of excursion/

A-day /announcement Day- day of announcing war/

AID / artificial insemination by a donor/

AIDS / acquired immunity deficiency syndrome/

Ala / Alabama/

a.s.a.p. /as soon as possible/

³⁰ The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English. Oxford 1964.

Bar-B-Q, barb /barbecue/

to baby-sit / baby-sitter/

A-level /advanced level/

BC /birth certificate/

Burger /hamburger/ Camford, Oxbridge

CALL /computer-assisted language learning/

CAT /computer-assisted training/

cauli / cauliflower/ COD / cash on delivery/

COBOL / k ubol/ /common business-oriented language/

Comp /komp, k mp/ /accompaniment/

DINKY /double income, no kids yet/

E-Day /entrance day

Common Market - / expo/exposition/

edbiz/ educational business/

El-hi / elementary and high

Schools/, ex lib/ex libris/ /from the library of/

Euratom fax /facsimile/

G-7 / group of seven: GB, Germany, Japan, France, Canada, Italy,Spain/. FORTRAN /formula translation/.

As for conclusion as the type of word-building the shortening has a great role in enrichment of English vocabulary. Abbreviations are used to save time and space, and to make long names of organizations and long technical terms easier to remember and less tedious to refer to repeatedly in an extended piece of writing such as a

newspaper article or textbook. In such contexts, if the abbreviation is not a very common one, the long name or technical term is often given in full at the first mention, with the abbreviation in brackets after it. After that just the abbreviation is used. Some abbreviations can form new words in which they act as root morphemes by different ways of word building. When dealing with words of long duration, one will also note that a high percentage of English shortenings are involved into the process of loan word assimilation. Monosyllabic goes farther in English than in any other European language, and that is why shortened words sound more like native ones than their long prototypes. Curtailment may therefore be regarded as caused, partly at least, by analogical extension, i.e. modification of form on the basis of analogy with existing and widely used patterns.

All the above-mentioned aspects are gathered under the single name of the English language in the present work thus it is fruitful to discuss and examine in most detail the evolution of the modern English language which is marked by the greatest influence of abbreviations.

In the process of communication words and word-groups can be shortened. 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 from the full form of the word. The causes of shortening can be linguistic and extra-linguistic. By extra-linguistic causes changes in the life of people are meant. We can suppose that in Modern English many new abbreviations, acronyms, initials, blends are formed because the tempo of life is increasing and it becomes necessary to give more and more information in the shortest possible time.

CHAPTER II. Contextual analysis of English contracted words

2.1. Lexico-Semantic Peculiarities of Context in Modern English

There is a great amount of different definitions of the term “context”. Many scientists and researchers have been working upon this problem for many years. If we try to combine those numerous definitions by different authors, we can get a short formula given by Torsueva I.G., “Context is a fragment of the text minus the determined unit”³¹. The fragment of the text must include the determined unit and constitute its right and left environment. Moreover that fragment must be a necessary and sufficient condition to determine the meaning and should not contradict to the general sense of the text.

The dictionaries³² give the following definitions of the term “context”. Context - 1.the parts of a written or spoken statement that precede or follow a specific word or passage, usually influencing its meaning or effect: e.g., You have misinterpreted my remark because you took it out of context; 2.the set of circumstances or facts that surround a particular event, situation, etc. Origin: 1375-1425; late ME < L contextus a joining together, scheme, structure, equiv. to context(ere) to join by weaving (con- + text to plait, weave) + -tus suffix of v. action; cf. text³³.

So context is defined as the aggregate of linguistic, situational, social and cultural variables that surround linguistic units such as texts, discourses, utterances, words, morphemes, phonemes, sounds, and distinctive features.

³¹ Елисеева В.В. Лексикология английского языка. - М., 1989. - 143с.

³² Лингвистический энциклопедический словарь. - М.: Советская энциклопедия, 1990. - 682с

³³ Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English. – LONDON: Oxford University Press, 2000.

The most detailed and consistent definition of the term “context” is considered to be given by Amosova N.N. In her work “English Contextology” she defines context as the minimal stretch of speech determining each individual meaning of the word, its immediate syntactical environment³⁴. This is not to imply that polysemantic words have meanings only in the context. The semantic structure of the word has an objective existence as a dialectical entity which embodies dialectical permanency and variability. The context individualizes the meanings, brings them out. It is in this sense that we say that meaning is determined by context³⁵. According to Prof. Amosova, the word the meaning of which is to be realized is called the semantic dependant. In other words, context is the connection of the word with its indicator, which is either in direct or indirect syntactical connection with the actualized word. The semantic indicator is the element of the same syntactical unit which denotes the appropriate meaning of the word in a given context.

Some linguists do not distinguish speech situation (immediate extra-lingual circumstances under which the utterance takes place) from context. Kolshansky G.V. discriminates between linguistic and extra_linguistic context, defining context as the whole set of conditions under which a linguistic unit is used³⁶.

It is clear that the whole utterance, or a phrase, or a word and the conditions of its usage do not influence on choosing the necessary part of the meaning scope of a polysemantic word in a linear way. That's why we can find a huge amount of different typologies and classifications of context in literature. All of them appeared against the aims and tasks of each researcher. Thus they distinguish micro- and macro-context, where micro-context is the minimal environment of the unit plus additional encoding in form of associations, connotations, etc., while macro-context

³⁴ Amosova N.N. English Contextology. - Leningrad: LOLGU, 1968. - 106 pp.

³⁵ Arnold I.V. Modern English Lexicology. - M.: Foreign Languages Publishing House, 1986. - 295 pp

³⁶ Dijk, van T.A. Text and context. London: Longman. - 1977.

is the unit's environment which helps to define its function in the text in general. They say also there explicit verbal/non-verbal and implicit contexts. According to the functional principle, enabling, reducing, compensative and other types of context can be distinguished .

Our task does not include the full research of the complicated problem of context. Thus we confine ourselves with the description of types of context according to the Amosova's theory. According to her, context is a notion used in the language sciences (linguistics, sociolinguistics, discourse analysis, pragmatics, semiotics, etc.) in two main ways, namely as linguistic context and non-linguistic context ³⁷ .

The Essential Characteristics of Linguistic Context

Linguistic context refers to surrounding text or talk of an expression (word, sentence, conversational turn, speech act, etc.). The idea is that verbal context influences the way we understand the expression. Since much contemporary linguistics takes texts, discourses or conversations as its object of analysis, the modern study of 'verbal context' takes place in terms of the analysis of discourse structures and their mutual relationships, for instance the coherence relation between words, phrases and sentences³⁸ .

Before talking about main types of the linguistic context it is important to mention about such notion as context clues. Text book writers usually know when they must use a word that will be new to their readers. So they often include other words or phrases to help with the understanding of the new word. These words or phrases are referred to as context clues. They are built into the sentences around the difficult word. If you become more aware of the words around the difficult words you encounter in your reading, you will save yourself many trips to the dictionary. You

³⁷ Amosova N.N. English Contextology. - Leningrad: LOLGU, 1968. - 106 pp.

³⁸ Dijk, van T.A. Acceptability in Context//Acceptability in Language. - The Hague: Mouton Publ., 1977

will be able to make logical guesses about the meanings of many words. There are four common types of context clues³⁹:

- Definition - the word is defined directly and clearly in the sentence in which it appears. E.g., *The arbitrator, the neutral person chosen to settle the dispute, arrived at her decision.*

- Antonym (or contrast) - often signaled by the words whereas, unlike, or as opposed to. E.g., *Unlike Jamaal's room, which was immaculate, Jeffrey's room was very messy. Whereas Melissa is quite lithe, her sister is clumsy and awkward.*

- Synonym (or restatement) - other words are used in the sentence with similar meanings. E.g., *The slender woman was so thin her clothes were too big on her.*

- Inference - word meanings are not directly described, but need to be inferred from the context. E.g., *Walt's pugnacious behavior made his opponent back down. The man giggered the large fish, but he needed his friend to enlarge the hole to drag it out of the frigid water.*

Linguistic context is the set of suitable defined linguistic units that co-occur with a given linguistic unit within a given text⁴⁰. The two more or less universally recognized main types of linguistic contexts which serve to determine individual meanings of words are the lexical context and the grammatical context. These types are differentiated depending on whether the lexical or the grammatical aspect is predominant in determining the meaning.

Lexical Context

According to Prof. Amosova, when indication comes from the lexical meaning of the indicator it is a case of lexical context⁴¹. The author subdivides this type of

³⁹ T. Context as Other Minds. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. - 2005

⁴⁰ Koonin A.V. English Lexicology. State Textbook. - Publishing House, 1940

⁴¹ . Amosova N.N. English Contextology. - Leningrad: LOLGU, 1968. - 106 pp.

context into that of the first degree and that of the second degree. The contextual elements of lexical context of the first degree have a direct (immediate) syntactical connection between them. Lexical context can be variable: the indicator may be varied without affecting the semantic content of the dependent word. If, in the unit of the context, only one certain indicator realizes a particular meaning of the dependant, then the context is constant. A phraseological unit is a unit of constant context.

In lexical contexts of primary importance are the lexical groups combined with the polysemantic word under consideration. This can be illustrated by analyzing different lexical contexts in which polysemantic words, e.g. heavy or take, are used. The adjective heavy in isolation is understood as meaning 'of great weight, weighty' (heavy load, a heavy table, etc.). When combined with the lexical group of words denoting natural phenomena such as wind, storm, snow, etc., it means 'striking, falling with force, abundant' as can be seen from the contexts, e.g. heavy rain, wind, snow, storm, etc. In combination with the words industry, arms, artillery and the like, heavy has the meaning 'the larger kind of something' as in heavy industry, heavy artillery, etc.

The verb take in isolation has primarily the meaning 'lay hold of with the hands, grasp, seize', etc. When combined with the lexical group of words denoting some means of transportation (e.g. to take the tram, the bus, the train', etc.) it acquires the meaning synonymous with the meaning of the verb go.

It can be easily observed that the main factor in bringing out this or that individual meaning of the words heavy and take is the lexical group with which the word in question is combined. This can be also proved by the fact that when we want to describe the individual meaning of a polysemantic word, we find it sufficient to use this word in combination with some members of such lexical groups. To describe but a few meanings of the word handsome, for example, it is sufficient to combine it

with the following words--a) man, person, b) size, reward, sum. The meanings 'good looking' and 'considerable, ample' are adequately illustrated by the contexts .

The meanings determined by lexical contexts are sometimes referred to as lexically (or phraseologically) bound meanings what implies that such meanings are to be found only in certain lexical contexts.

Some linguists go so far as to assert that word-meaning in general can be analyzed through its collocability with other words . They hold the view that if we know all the possible collocations (or word-groups) into which a polysemantic word can enter, we know all its meanings. Thus, the meanings of the adjective heavy, for instance, may be analyzed through its collocability with the words weight, safe, table; snow, wind, rain; industry, artillery, etc. The meaning at the level of lexical contexts is sometimes described as meaning by collocation.

Grammatical Context

Prof. Amosova suggests that in the case of the grammatical context the semantic indication is provided by syntactical structure of the sentence in which the dependant is used.

In grammatical contexts it is the grammatical (mainly the syntactic) structure of the context that serves to determine various individual meanings of a polysemantic word. One of the meanings of the verb make, e.g. 'to force, to induce', is found only in the grammatical context possessing the structure to make somebody do something, or in simpler terms this particular meaning occurs only if the verb make is followed by a noun and the infinitive of some other verb (to make smb laugh, go, work, etc.). Another meaning of this verb 'to become', 'to turn out to be' is observed in the contexts of a different structure, e.g. make followed by an adjective and a noun (to make a good wife, a good teacher, etc.).

Such meanings are sometimes described as grammatically (or structurally) bound meanings. Cases of the type she will make a good teacher may be referred to as syntactically bound meanings, because the syntactic function of the verb make in this particular context (a link verb, part of the predicate) is indicative of its meaning 'to become, to turn out to be'. A different syntactic function of the verb, e.g. that of the predicate (to make machines, tables, etc.), excludes the possibility of the meaning 'to become, turn out to be'⁴². Grammatical context appears in case some grammar functions plays the role of the indicator. For example, the meaning of the word ill depends on the function it fulfills in the utterance. If it is the predicative function (fall ill, be taken ill), the meaning of the analyzed unit should be understood as in bad health. If the function is attributive (ill luck, ill will), the meaning of the unit under consideration is bad, hostile. As you can see two meanings are quite different. That's why it is of great importance to take into account the grammatical context.

2.2. The phenomena of contextual analysis

The contextual method of linguistic research holds its own alongside statistical, structural and other developments. Like structural methods and procedures, it is based on the assumption that difference in meaning of linguistic units is always indicated by a difference in environment. Unlike structural distributional procedures it is not formalised. In some respects, nevertheless, it is more rigorous than the structural procedures, because it strictly limits its observations and conclusions to an impressive corpus of actually recorded material. No changes, whether controlled or not, are permitted in linguistic data observed, no conclusions are made unless there are a sufficient number of examples to support their validity. The size of a representative sample is determined not so much by calculation though, but rather by

⁴² . Amosova N.N. English Contextology. - Leningrad: LOLGU, 1968. - 106 pp.

custom. Words are observed in real texts, not on the basis of dictionaries. The importance of the approach cannot be overestimated; in fact, as E. Nida puts it, “it is from linguistic contexts that the meanings of a high proportion of lexical units in active or passive vocabularies are learned.”⁴³

The notion of context has several interpretations. According to N. N. Amosova context is a combination of an indicator or indicating minimum and the dependant that is the word, the meaning of which is to be rendered in a given utterance.

The results until recently were, however more like a large collection of neatly organised examples, supplemented with comments. A theoretical approach to this aspect of linguistics will be found in the works by G. V. Kolshansky.

Contextual analysis concentrated its attention on determining the minimal stretch of speech and the conditions necessary and sufficient to reveal in which of its individual meanings the word in question is used. In studying this interaction of the polysemantic word with the syntactic configuration and lexical environment contextual analysis is more concerned with specific features of every particular language than with language universals.

Roughly, context may be subdivided into lexical, syntactical and mixed. Lexical context, for instance, determines the meaning of the word *black* in the following examples. *Black* denotes colour when used with the key-word naming some material or thing, e. g. *black velvet, black gloves*. When used with key-words denoting feeling or thought, it means ‘sad’, ‘dismal’, e. g. *black thoughts, black despair*. With nouns denoting time, the meaning is ‘unhappy’, ‘full of hardships’, e. g. *black days, black period*.

⁴³ Nida E. Componential Analysis of Meaning .- The Hague-Paris: Mouton, 1975. - P. 195.

If, on the other hand, the indicative power belongs to the syntactic pattern and not to the words which make it up, the context is called syntactic. E. g. *make* means ‘to cause’ when followed by a complex object: *I couldn't make him understand a word I said*.

A purely syntactic context is rare. As a rule the indication comes from syntactic, lexical and sometimes morphological factors combined. Thus, *late*, when used predicatively, means ‘after the right, expected or fixed time’, as *be late for school*. When used attributively with words denoting periods of time, it means ‘towards the end of the period’, e. g. *in late summer*. Used attributively with proper personal nouns and preceded with a definite article, *late* means ‘recently dead’.

All lexical contexts are subdivided into lexical contexts of the first degree and lexical contexts of the second degree. In the lexical context of the first degree there is a direct syntactical connection between the indicator and the dependent: *He was arrested on a treason charge*. In lexical context of the second degree there is no direct syntactical connection between a dependent and the indicator. E.g.: *I move that Mr Last addresses the meeting* (Waugh). The dependent *move* is not directly connected to the indicating minimum *addresses the meeting*⁴⁴.

Alongside the context N. N. Amosova distinguishes speech situation, in which the necessary indication comes not from within the sentence but from some part of the text outside it. Speech situation with her may be of two types: text-situation and life-situation. In text-situation it is a preceding description, a description that follows or some word in the preceding text that help to understand the ambiguous word.

E. Nida gives a slightly different classification. He distinguishes linguistic and practical context. By practical context he means the circumstances of

⁴⁴ Arnold I.V. Modern English Lexicology. - M.: Foreign Languages Publishing House, 1986. - 56 pp

communication: its stimuli, participants, their relation to one another and to circumstances and the response of the listeners.

2.3. Analysis of shortened words in the context.

Shortening – is one of kind of word formation, which has achieved a high degree of productivity nowadays, especially in American English.

Shortenings (or contracted/curtailed words) are produced in two different ways. The first is to make a new word from a syllable (rarer, two) of the original word. The latter may be lose its beginning (as in *phone* made from *telephone*, *fence* from *defence*), its ending (as in *hols* from *holidays*, *vac* from *vacation*, *props* from *properties*, *ad* from *advertisement*) or both the beginning and ending (as in *flu* from *influenza*, *fridge* from *refrigerator*).

As we managed to reveal, an abundance of shortening words are considered as the main source of neologisms. Majority of shortening words are used widely in headlines of tabloids and broadsheets, as a specific feature of newspaper language. The external factors are caused to appear shortening words in the process of word formation: development of science-technology, and shortened names of organizations, objects, materials, and mass media, which provided possibility of remembering abbreviations among people.

Some of shortening words, are met in English newspapers, born in newspaper and became widely used in any style. Another part of them is outside of newspaper materials. The last group of them came from technical literature of business language i.e. from other functional styles. For this reason we choose newspaper articles as an context.

While reading newspaper the reader came across with shortenings, which he does not find from dictionaries and reference books. They are considered as newly appeared notions; spring up in connection with political events, development of

science and technology. There are emerging new parties, organizations, even countries. Due to their long name become so well-known, there shortening is admitted. Next passage taken from “Sunday News” can be an example of shortening, in which there is three of it: First came the A-bomb, and then the nuclear- powered missile carrying submarines and the MIRV missiles, now it is the N-bomb. Shortening, is met frequently in English and American editorials can be divided into several main groups. In fact, it would not be mistake that any word in newspaper headline may represent toward the reader in shortened form⁴⁵.

The first and large group includes shortening of names of parties, different kinds of organizations and positions.

WAY	World Assembly of Youth	xalqaro yoshlar uyushmasi
NORAD	North American Air Defense Commanol	BBC Shimoliy Amerika harakati
FBI AT SACB HEARING LETS 6th STOOLIE OUT OF COOP	Federal Bureau of Investigation	Federal qidiruv bo`limi
PEACE WOMEN REPULSR HUAC	House Un-American Activities Committee	antiamerika harakati qidiruv komissiyasi
SACB	Subversiv Activities Control Board	Yer osti ishlari nazorat boshqaruvi
THE NAM'S NEXT ANTI-UNION GOAL	National Association of Manufacturers	Sanoatchilar milliy uyushmasi
DEMO, GOP PICK FLOOR LEADERS AS CONGRESS OPENS TODAY	Democratic Party Grand Old Party	Respublikachilar partiyasi laqabi
D. OF J, OFFICIAL, EAST-LAND, DEFEND PAID STOOLIES	Department of Justice	Adliya vazirligi
REPRESENTATIVES OF	World Health Organization	Butun jahon sog`liqni saqlash

⁴⁵ Карашук. П.М. Словообразование английского языка. - М.: Высшая школа, 1977.-С. 153

THE SCOTTISH INDUSTRY OPPOSED TO WHO		tashkiloti
GOPster LIKELY TO AGREE	Grand Old Party+ ster (suffix)	AQSH respublikachilar partiyasining a`zosi

The wide use of shortened names of organizations and positions in English is not less than American newspaper headlines:

COLD COMFORT IN CHEMICALS ICI WARNING	Imperial Chemical Industries
AEU LEADERS UNDER FIRE	Amalgamated Engineering Union
2,500,000 EMPTY SEATS CAUSE LOSS ON BEA	British European Airways
STOP ALL TESTS CALL BY CO-OP IN LCC	Cooperative Party; London County Council
TO LOBBY THEIR MP —THE PM	Member of Parliament; Prime Minister
REBUFF FROM PMG FOR PHONE MEN	Postmaster-General
EXECUTIVE OF ETU EXPELS THE ABSENT	Electrical Trades Union

The second group shortening is also used frequently in English and American newspaper. These are shortened surnames or family nicknames of well-known politics or public figures. Such kind of shortenings make number of troubles while understanding the headlines: (FDR = Franklin Delano Roosevelt; GBS = George Bernard Shaw; RLS= Robert Louis Stevenson) are almost not registered in dictionaries. Typical shortenings in headlines are followings:

DEF LENDS JFK A HELPING HAND	Diefenbaker; John F. Kennedy
LABOR IS GOR LBJ	Lyndon Baines Johnson
ROCKY AND THE CUBAN CRISIS	Nelson Rockefeller
OLD FOX SAYS HE'LL GO, BUT WILL HE?	Adenauer

STEEL WORKERS CHALLENGE McC WITCHHUNTERS	McCarthy
MAC'S POPULARITY SLUMPS	Macmillan
GEO BROWN TO 'ASTONISH THE WORLD'	George
THEIR SAY ON MM AND ORDWAY'S OBIT	Marilyn Monroe, obituary
' RED DEAN ' BIDS FAREWELL	Hewlett Johnson

But as our work showed, these shortenings are not in common in the style of Uzbek newspaper material. Shortenings are given fully in all editorials, but nicknames are changed with surnames.

The third group of shortenings, spread in headlines at all is – place names. Especially, they are met in American newspapers. There is not any problem while transferring them into Uzbek. These types of shortenings are translated fully into Uzbek language. Shortenings of this group find difficulty in understanding of headlines, in particular, when it is too hardship to make, do we have to deal with shortening of geographical names or some kind of organizations.

Distinguishing feature of shortening of geographical names is that, in most cases, letters are separated by dots, or after shortening dot is put. As a rule, it is not usual in shortenings of organizations. There are given examples:

S. P. HOSPITAL SHUTS SEGREGATED WARD	South Pacific
N. J. DEPUTY WINS CONGRESS SEAT	New Jersey
ALBANY, GA. , STRUGGLES CIVIL RIGHTS FIGHT IN 21 ST CENTURY	Georgia
SMITH ACT INDICTMENTS VOIDED BY CONN. JUDGE	Connecticut
L.A. BERKLEY TACKLE SCHOOL JIMCROW, BUT SF STANDS PAT	Los Angeles, San Francisco
ONT. TORIES HIGH ON PROMISES, ELECTION JUST AROUND THE CORNER	Ontario

20, 000 PENNSY WORKERS SET STRIKE SUNDAY	Pennsylvania
MORE ABOUT DEMOS IN SACTO	Sacramento
THIS WAY TO INCREASE E-W TRADE	East-West
SASK. GOV'T INTERVENES AGAINST B.C. 'S BILL 42	Saskatchewan, British Columbia
MISS. PEOPLE STILL DEFYING NATION'S WILL	Mississippi

So as our work showed, there are several differences of the usage of shortenings (abbreviations) in English and Uzbek languages. The utilization of conversion in English newspaper texts is almost the same with Uzbek newspaper materials. It is considered as one of distinguishing features of newspaper style. The consumption of shortenings and abbreviations in English and Uzbek headlines also completely differs from each other. Abbreviation is usually met in English editorials while it is uncommon in Uzbek newspaper texts.

In materials of newspaper style we can often meet polysemantic terms, terms-synonyms, abbreviations of terms and names.

The term “state” in political terminology of the USA can have two meanings “государство” и «штат». *Both the state and Federal authorities are bent on establishing a police state.* ⁴⁶In the first case the term “state” stands in one row with an adjective “federal” and means “правительство штатов” in contrast to “правительство всей страны”. In the second case “state” is used in the meaning of “государство”. Terms which are widely known, are often used in the text in a shortened form:

⁴⁶ Daily Mirror. – 2007. №27, 35

E.g. *Youth is also virtually excluded from congress, the average age of members of the Senate being 56 years and of the House 51 years.*⁴⁷

Here we can see the usage of shortened term “*House*” instead of full term “*The House of Representatives*”. One and the same term can have different meaning; it depends on the ideological trend of the text it is used in. The term “idealism” can be used in philosophical meaning as the name of the outlook, opposed to materialism, and have positive or negative sense which depends on the ideological position of an author. But it is more frequently used in positive sense, correlating directly with the concept ideals- идеалы with the meaning of serving high ideals.

E.g. *The foreign Secretary’s most elaborate and numerous speeches seem to prove that idealism in his guiding star.*⁴⁸

Wide usage of personal names, names of companies, geographical names in the newspaper style make concrete the report and refer the given information to the certain, persons, institutions or regions. This fact presupposes the Receptor’s essential preliminary knowledge, which allows him to find the connection between the name and the naming object.

So, English Receptor knows well even without the context that Park Lane is the street, Piccadilly Circus is the place, and Columbia Pictures is the film company. Names of persons and other names are often used in newspaper materials in the form of abbreviations. These abbreviations can often be unfamiliar to the wide circle of readers and their meanings are given in the same note or report.

E.g. AFLCIO = American Federation of Labor Congress of Industrial Organizations, GOP = Grand Old (Republican) Party, DD = Defense Department.

⁴⁷ Economic Review. – 2006. №4, 8

⁴⁸ Interview of best people. – 2005. №7, 39.

As far as we understand, they are divided into several groups.

1) Surnames and names of famous political figures:

E.g. JFK = John F. Kennedy , Rocky = Rockefeller.

2) Geographical names:

AFEW - AIDS Foundation East-West

CBF - Central Bureau for Fundraising

CEE - Central and Eastern Europe(an)

DCCA - Development and Co-operation in Central Asia

DfID - UK's Department for International Development

EJAF - Elton John AIDS Foundation

FSU - Former Soviet Union

GG&GD - Municipal Health Service, Amsterdam, The Netherlands

RF - Russian Federation

SIDA - Swedish International Development Agency

TACIS/EU - Technical Assistance to the Commonwealth of Independent States/European Union

TAMPEP - Transnational AIDS/STI Prevention Among Migrant Prostitutes in Europe Project

UN - United Nations⁴⁹

3) Titles before names:

Mrs., Mr., Ms., Prof., Dr., Gen., Rep., Sen., St. (for Saint).

Notice that Miss is not an abbreviation, so we don't put a period after it. Ms. Is not an abbreviation, either, but we do use a period after it — probably to keep it

⁴⁹ Апресян Ю.Д. Новый большой англо-русский словарь. - Москва: М, - 1993.

consistent with Mr. and Mrs⁵⁰.

The plural of Mr. is Messrs. (We invited Messrs. Carter, Lincoln, and Ford.) The plural of Dr. is Drs. (We consulted Drs. Carter, Lincoln, and Ford.) The plural of Mrs. is Mmes or Mmes. (with or without the period).

In most formal prose, we do not use titles, abbreviated or otherwise, with individuals. Ms. Emily Dickinson is simply Emily Dickinson, and after the first use of her full name, Dickinson will do (unless we need *Emily* to avoid confusion with other Dickinson's).

The abbreviations Rev. and Hon. (for Reverend and Honorable) are not, strictly speaking, titles; they are adjectives. In informal language or when we're trying to save space or make a list, we can write Rev. Alan B. Darling and Hon. Francisco Gonzales. In formal text, we would write "the Reverend Alan B. Darling" and "the Honorable Francisco Gonzales" (i.e., it's not a good idea to abbreviate either Reverend or Honorable when these words are preceded by "the").

4)Titles after names:

Sr., Jr., Ph.D., M.D., B.A., M.A., D.D.S⁵¹. These are standard abbreviations, with periods. The *APA Publication Manual* recommends *not* using periods with degrees; other reference manuals do recommend using periods, so use your own judgment on this issue. All sources advise against using titles before *and* after a name at the same time (i.e., she can be Dr. Juanita Espinoza or Juanita Espinoza, PhD, but she cannot be Dr. Juanita Espinoza, PhD). And we do not abbreviate a title that isn't attached to a name: "We went to see the doctor (not dr.) yesterday."

⁵⁰ Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English. Longman Group . Ltd.,- 1992.

⁵¹ Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English. Longman Group UK Ltd., 1992.

The Chicago Manual of Style recommends not using a comma to separate the Jr./Sr./III from the last name, but you should follow the preferences of the individual if you know those preferences. If you list a "junior" with his spouse, the "Jr." can go after both names, as in "Mr. and Mrs. Arthur C. Banks Jr." or "Mr. Arthur C. Banks Jr. and Gloria Banks — but *not* Arthur C. and Gloria Banks Jr. You should avoid using a "Jr." or "Sr." when you have only the last name — Mr. Banks Jr.

5) Names of familiar institutions — UConn, MIT, UCLA, CIA, FBI, NATO; **countries** - U.S.A., U.K.; **corporations** — IBM, CBS, NPR, CNN, ITT; **famous people** — LBJ, FDR, JFK, MLK; **very familiar objects** — TV, VCR, CD-ROM.

Notice that U.S.A. can also be written USA, but U.S. is better with the periods. Also, we can use U.S. as a modifier (the U.S. policy on immigration) but *not* as a noun (He left the ~~U.S.~~ U.S.A.).

6)Terms of mathematical units: 15 in., 15 ft, 15 kg, 15 m, 15 lb

Generally, you would use these abbreviations only in technical writing. There is a space between the number and the abbreviation. Notice that we do not put an *s* after such abbreviations even when the plural is indicated. Also, we do not use a period with such abbreviations except for *in.* when it might be confused with the preposition *in.*

When the term of measurement is used as a modifier, we put a hyphen between the number and the term of measurement: a 15-ft board, a 6-lb line, etc.

7)Long, common phrases,⁵²

⁵² Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English. Longman Group UK Ltd., 1992.

Such as IQ (Intelligence Quotient), rpm (revolutions per minute), mph (miles per hour), and mpg (miles per gallon). Such abbreviations are acceptable even in formal academic text and may be used without periods.

8) Words used with numbers: He left at 2:00 a.m. She was born in

9) 1520 B.C.

Either lower or upper case letters can be used with A.M., a.m., P.M., p.m. The abbreviation B.C. (before Christ) is used *after* the date; A.D. (*anno domini*, "in the year of the Lord") appears *before* the date. The abbreviations B.C. and A.D. are sometimes replaced with B.C.E. (before the Common Era) and C.E. (Common Era), both used after the date (although one must add that those abbreviations are neither widely used nor commonly understood). Sometimes you will see 790 BC and AD 78 written without periods and written in SMALL CAPS. Note that many style books are now recommending SMALL CAPS for all appearances of acronyms, such as NAACP or NCAA. The effect of this practice is to allow the acronym to blend more smoothly with the rest of the text.

It is considered bad form to use these abbreviations without a specific number attached to them: "We'll do this in the a.m." or "We'll do this tomorrow a.m."

10) Common Latin terms:

etc. (*et cetera* — and so forth), i.e. (*id est* — that is), e.g. (*exempli gratia* — for example), et al. (*et alii* — and others).

The abbreviation i.e. (i.e., that is) is often confused with other abbreviations (e.g., e.g.). The i.e. generally is used to introduce matter that is explanatory as opposed to being the name of an example or list of examples. If you can say *for example* as a substitute for the abbreviation, you want to use e.g., not i.e. Do not italicize or

underline these abbreviations. Most sources recommend avoiding the use of Latin abbreviations except within parenthetical notes and some sources say not to use Latin abbreviations at all (use the English terms instead) except within citations or reference lists. Good advice.

11) Names of states and territories

In references and addresses, but not in normal text. Abbreviations accepted by the U.S. Postal Service (including abbreviations for words like *Boulevard* and *Alley*) are listed online. Do not use state abbreviations simply to save time or space except in an address on an envelope or list. We do not use periods with state abbreviations: CT, NY, and NJ. We use D.C. after the name of the city within the District of Columbia: Washington, D.C.; the *APA Manual* does not use periods with DC. The U.S. postal service, incidentally, does not insert a comma between the city and the abbreviated state name: Hartford CT, Portland OR — at least not in the addresses on envelopes⁵³.

Abbreviate "Saint" in U.S. place names, as in St. Louis and St. Petersburg, Florida, and the St. Lawrence River. For the same word in other countries, you might have to consult a good dictionary (one that contains place names): St./Saint Martin's in the Fields, Saint Moritz, Saint Lucia, Mont-Saint-Michel, Saint Petersburg (Russia). When the word Saint is used to refer to a holy person, spell out the word — Saint Theresa, Saint Francis of Assisi. If an institution is named after a saint, spell out the word *Saint* unless you have some reason to save space — Saint Francis Hospital, Saint Joseph College, Saint Joseph's University. It is wise, as always, to consult the actual institution. Colleges, universities, and hospitals named after Saint Mary are about evenly divided between *St.* and *Saint*, but in formal situations, *Saint* seems to be favored more frequently. We shouldn't abbreviate the following:⁵⁴(In

⁵³ According to: Webster's New World Dictionary of American English. N.Y., 1978.

⁵⁴ According to: Quirk R. *Style and Communication in the English Language*. Lnd., 1980.

formal academic prose it is considered bad form to abbreviate words simply to save space, time, or energy.)

- Words such as through (thru), night (nite).
- Days of the week or months of the year (in the normal flow of text).
- Words at the beginning of a sentence.
- People's names such as Chas. (for Charles) or Jas. (for James), unless those abbreviations have come to be accepted as nicknames for those particular individuals.
- States' names such as Mass. (for Massachusetts) or Conn. (for Connecticut). When appropriate (as in the addresses for envelopes), use the U.S. postal service's approved two-letter abbreviations: MA, CT (without periods).
- Courses such as econ (for economics) or police (for political science).

12) Spacing and Periods

Abbreviations of units of measure are written without periods (with the exception of "in" when it could be confused with the preposition). We use periods for most lower-case abbreviations such as e.g. and i.e. and c.o.d. For very common abbreviations, leave out the periods, as in rpm and mph. When an abbreviation with a period ends a sentence, that period will suffice to end the sentence: He lives in Washington, D.C. Suffixes for people's names require periods:⁵⁵ Joe Smith Jr. lives in Erie. In formal text it is not a good idea to abbreviate military titles — Lieutenant Colonel Chester Piascyk — but in informal text Lt. Col. Chester Piascyk would be acceptable. (Note the space after "Lt.") Academic degrees can be written with periods or not, but don't insert spaces — Ph.D. or PhD, M.B.A. or MBA — within the degree.

In conclusion contextual analysis concentrated its attention on determining the minimal stretch of speech and the conditions necessary and sufficient to reveal in

⁵⁵ According to: Webster's New World Dictionary of American English. N.Y., 1978.

which of its individual meanings the word in question is used.

Shortening, is met frequently in English and American editorials can be divided into several main groups. In fact, it would not be mistake that any word in newspaper headline may represent toward the reader in shortened form. The first and large group includes shortening of names of parties, different kinds of organizations and positions. The wide use of shortened names of organizations and positions in English is not less than American newspaper headlines.

The second group shortening is also used frequently in English and American newspaper. These are shortened surnames or family nicknames of well-known politics or public figures. But as our work showed, these shortenings are not in common in the style of Uzbek newspaper material. Shortenings are given fully in all editorials, but nicknames are changed with surnames.

Distinguishing feature of shortening of geographical names is that, in most cases, letters are separated by dots, or after shortening dot is put. As a rule, it is not usual in shortenings of organizations.

So as our work showed, there are several differences of the usage of shortenings (abbreviations) in English and Uzbek languages. The utilization of conversion in English newspaper texts is almost the same with Uzbek newspaper materials. It is considered as one of distinguishing features of newspaper style. The consumption of shortenings and abbreviations in English and Uzbek headlines also completely differs from each other. Abbreviation is usually met in English editorials while it is uncommon in Uzbek newspaper texts.

CHAPTER III. The properties of teaching English texts at secondary schools

3.1. Words in context are the key to vocabulary development.

In order to know a word one must not only know its definitional relations with other words, but also be able to interpret its meaning in a particular context.

Traditionally, vocabulary used to be offered to learners in the form of lists and vocabulary instruction has focused on having students look up word meanings and memorize them. This teaching approach provides only the surface and short term learning of words. The Texas Reading Initiative found that students who simply memorize word meanings frequently have troubles applying the information in definitions and often make mistakes about the meaning.

A word used in different contexts may have different meanings: thus simply learning definitions of a word without examples of where and when the word occur» will not help learners to fully understand its meaning. Learning an isolated list of words without reference to the context is a memorization exercise that makes it difficult for learners to use the words in spoken and written language.

Looking at the context in which the word appears seems to be the best way of learning vocabulary and learn how its meaning relates to the words around it. Moreover, an approach that includes definitions as well as its use in the text can generate a full and flexible knowledge of word meanings.

When students are given several sentences that use a word in different ways they begin to see how a word's meaning can change and shift depending on its context. Learners need to see words in different contexts in order to learn them thoroughly.

Honeyfield⁵⁶ stresses the importance of context by arguing that even with a functional vocabulary of the 3000 most frequently occurring items in English learners will not still know approximately 20 percent of the items they will come across in an unsimplified text. Too much dictionary work can kill all interest in

⁵⁶Honeyfield J. Word frequency and the importance context in vocabulary learning. New York: Cambridge University Press. 1997, p.35.

reading and even interfere with comprehension “because learners become more concerned with individual items and less aware of the context, which gives them meaning. It also results in very slow and inefficient reading”.

Therefore, good learners often acquire much of their vocabulary through independent reading are learned through context. However, Watanable claims that " Although incidental learning of vocabulary through context is possible , it is not always efficient".

Indeed, vocabulary learning must be meaningful to students. This occurs when a learner is able to relate new words to his/her prior knowledge or schema. Schema is defined by Pearson and Spiro as little pictures or associations you conjure up in your head when you read a word or sentence.

The rich literary context for each word not only provides a literary context, but also exposes students to fiction and non-fiction by various authors.

Dale and O'Rourke have summarized the four stages of word knowledge as follows:

- 1. I have never seen it before.***
- 2. I have never heard of it, but I do not know what it means.***
- 3. I recognized it in the context -it has something to do with....***
- 4. I know it.***

Seeing vocabulary in rich context provided by the authentic texts, rather than isolated vocabulary drills, produced strong vocabulary learning. Rich and strong vocabulary instruction goes beyond definitional knowledge; it gets students actively engaged in using and thinking about word meaning , associate with other words, guessing from the context. If learners decide that a word is worth guessing, they might follow a five step procedure like that of Nation and Coady:

1. Determine the part of speech of unknown word.
2. Look at immediate context and simplify it if necessary.
3. Look at the wider context.

This entails examining the clause with the unknown word and its relationship to the surrounding clauses and sentences.

1. Guess the meaning of the unknown word.
2. Check that the guess is correct.

The few studies of guessing words from context indicate that a large proportion of the unknown words can be successfully dealt with in this way.

As it was mentioned before, Linda Diamond and Linda Gutlohn pointed out that one of the word learning strategies is contextual, involves inferring the meaning of an unfamiliar word by examining the text surrounding it. Instruction in contextual analysis generally involves teaching students to use both general and specific types of context clues.

Several writers describe various types of clues that can provide information to help in guessing. Brown lists definition, learners' experience of the world contrast, inference and analysis. Stainberg lists grammar, punctuation, definition, contrast, connectives, reference words, word analysis and the learner's experience and common sense. But all these approaches lack in semantic procedure to follow. Only Chandrasegaran uses a questioning procedure to guide learners in guessing, but this is dependent on the teacher's choice of questions.

As stated in the Texas Reading Initiative, these are some techniques for enhancing students' awareness of the importance of context clues:

- Model basic strategies for using context clues when reading text.
- Provide explanations of how , when and why to use context to figure out word meanings.
- Provide guided practice in using context.
- Remind students to apply the skill when reading on their own .

Long and Nation agreed with the Texas Reading Initiative's statements by giving steps that are needed in the strategy. They are:

Part of speech;

Immediate context;

Wider context;

Word parts.

In recognizing part of speech there can be done "What does what?" exercise.

All the guessing procedures described so far focus on linguistic information that is present within a text. There are other important sources of information. These include knowledge that learners already have about particular words through having met them before knowledge of the subject that they are reading about (this may be knowledge that is gained through the learners' first language), and knowledge of conceptual structure of the topic.

When learners meet an unknown word and discover its meaning, they may wish to make an extra effort to remember word.

Mnemonic strategies are systematic procedure for enhancing memory. The word mnemonic comes from Mnemosyne, the name of Greek goddess of memory. The keyword method, a mnemonic strategy, has been shown to be effective with students who have learning difficulties and those who are at risk for educational failure. According to the National Reading Panel (2000) the keyword method may lead to significant improvement in students' recall of new vocabulary words.

In this technique the learners create an unusual association between the word form and its meaning. For example, an Indonesian learner of English wants to remember the meaning of the English word "parrot".

First, the learner thinks of an Indonesian word that sounds like parrot or like a part of "parrot" - for example, the Indonesian word "parit", which means "a ditch". This is a keyword.

Second, imagine parrot lying in a ditch. The more striking and unusual the image, the more effective it is.

The keyword technique, while being very effective for learning foreign vocabulary, is best considered as only one of several learning techniques that can be

used to master foreign vocabulary. Other possible techniques which try to develop both form and meaning associations are the use of analysis into affixes and roots, and mnemonics like "A pintu (door) is used for going *into* something. Craike and Lockhart mentioned that the general principle of the "levels of processing " theory is that the more the words are analyzed and are enriched by associates or images, the longer they will stay in the memory.

Although the keyword technique seems rather unusual at first sight, its effectiveness lies in its association of both formal and meaning elements of the new word by the use of aural and imagery cues.

Dalany, Paivio and Desrocher analyzed fifty studies of keyword technique. They reached the following conclusions:

The keyword technique helps the learning of foreign vocabulary and is superior to other techniques, such as rote repetition, placing vocabulary in a meaningful sentence, and using or synonyms.

The use of the keyword technique is not restricted to concrete nouns, but can be used with verbs, abstract nouns, and adjectives.

The use of the keyword technique is not restricted to adults. It can be used with children as young as three years, if they are helped a lot in using the technique. It is not still clear if it is best for the teacher to provide the keywords or for learners to make their own. Where learners need help, it will be best if teacher provides it. It seems to be the best for the teacher to provide the linking picture if possible. There are difficulties in doing this, however, if learners think their own key words.

The keyword technique does not slow down recall of the meaning of foreign words. Very little experimentation has been done on the effect of the keyword technique on pronunciation and spelling . No negative effects have yet been found. They point out that there is no reason to expect the keyword technique does not have any in-built mnemonic tricks to help spelling or pronunciation.

Most experiments with the keyword technique have looked at receptive vocabulary

learning. It means being able to recall the meaning when the foreign word is provided. The form of keyword must have a close connection with the form of the foreign word. If care is taken with this then the keyword technique is good for productive vocabulary learning.

One difficulty with the keyword technique is that it is often difficult to think of keywords that sound like the foreign word. The more imagination you have, the more useful the technique.

The keyword technique is not the only method which can be used in vocabulary teaching. There is another way which can be very useful in learning vocabulary. This is through roots and affixes.

A knowledge of Latin affixes and roots has two values for learner of English.

It can be used to help the learning of unfamiliar words by relating these words to known words, or to known prefixes, suffixes.

And it can be used as a way of checking whether an unfamiliar has been correctly guessed from the context.

By learning master words and the meaning of their parts, learners will know the most useful prefixes and roots.

In making use of prefixes and roots, learners need three skills: they need to be able to break new words onto parts so that the affixes and roots are revealed.

- they need to know the meanings of the parts;
- they need to be able to see a connection between the meaning of the parts and the dictionary meaning of the new word.

So vocabulary knowledge involves not only the definitional meaning of a word but also the knowledge to use words in an appropriate context. If they have this knowledge they will be able to guess the meaning of a word from the context.

In this procedure several methods can be our assistants: mnemonic technique, context clues and so on.

When teachers want to succeed in teaching vocabulary they should choose

appropriate text to teach. Choosing the text is one of the problems of vocabulary teaching.

3.2. Teaching methods of English shortened words in the context.

Like many languages, English has many forms of written communication. English uses abbreviations and acronyms to shorten words. Actually, even with today's instant messaging and texting, English and American writers used to use far more shortened forms of writing than today.

Today's mechanics lesson is on when and when not to use periods in abbreviations and acronyms. Remember to use periods after abbreviated words and after beginning and ending titles of proper nouns, such as "Mr." and "Sr." Display Instructional Power Point Slides.

Now let's read the mechanics lesson and study the examples.

Use periods following the first letter of each key word in an abbreviated title or expression, and pronounce each of these letters when saying the abbreviation. **Examples:** U.S.A., a.m., p.m.

But, don't use periods or pronounce the letters in an acronym. Acronyms are special abbreviated titles or expressions that are pronounced as words. Most all acronyms are capitalized. **Example:** NATO

Now circle or highlight what is right and revise what is wrong according to mechanics lesson.

Practice: David has worked outside of the U.S. in many foreign countries, but he now works for N.A.S.A.

Let's check the Practice Answers.

Mechanics Practice Answers: David has worked outside of the U.S. in many

foreign countries, but he now works for NASA.

If a student is unfamiliar with the specialized vocabulary of any discipline, he is at a distinct disadvantage when it comes to understanding and communicating with others of the discipline. He is like an immigrant from another country, unable to understand what (to him) is a foreign language.

When learning any new language, it helps to start with the key terms. This principle also applies to learning the jargon for each new field of study.

First, ask your student to pick the top 100 most frequently used terms in his textbook or course handouts. This alone is a significant step up in learning the vocabulary of a discipline.

Second, create a flashcard system with one card per term. The student writes the name of the term on one side of the flashcard and its definition on the back side of the card. The student can then look at the term and give its definition, or look at the definition and label it correctly with its precise term.

Third, encourage your students to carry the flashcards with them so that they can do mini practice sessions throughout the day. While traveling to other events, waiting for an appointment or sitting quietly waiting for some errand to be completed, the student can usually manage to get several short practice periods per day on the specific cards.

Learning Abbreviations

Each area of study has abbreviations which stand for words. When studying geography, for example, you find that states of the USA and provinces of Canada have two-character abbreviations of their full names. Since people speak the entire state or province name over the phone, but the two-digit abbreviation is required in

order to address a purchase or envelope, part of every student's education should include learning these postal abbreviations.

Placing the abbreviation on one side of a card and the complete name on the other side provides a quick and easy way to learn these abbreviations.

Practicing With a List

With a small amount of practice, the student may soon reach the point at which he cannot flip the cards sufficiently quickly to get a score of 50 or more terms per minute. An alternative is to simply list the abbreviations in two columns in a list. The first column lists the state or province; the second column provides the two-character abbreviation. The student can choose to provide the name, having seen the abbreviation, or to provide the abbreviation, having seen the name. The list eliminates the need for cards, but restricts the student to a specific order in which the names and abbreviations appear in the list.

A combination of the two systems is probably the easiest way to solve the problem each method presents.

Abbreviations to Learn

As I mentioned earlier, abbreviations are used for state names (e.g. AK = Alaska, AL = Alabama, AR = Arkansas, AZ = Arizona, CA = California, ON = Ontario, DC = District of Columbia).

Abbreviations are also commonly used on street maps. Ct = court, BL or Blvd = boulevard, St = Street, Pkwy = Parkway, Hwy = Highway, Ln= Lane, etc.

They could include different kinds of measures. H = height, W = width, L = length, cm = centimeter, in = inch, ft = foot, yd = yard, m = meter, mm = millimeter, F =

Fahrenheit, C = Celsius, Fth = fathom, fur = furlong, a = acre, h = hectare, km = kilometers, an = anno, AD = Anno Domini, BC = Before Christ, ca = circa, alt = altitude, etc.

The lists of geographic abbreviations could even include landforms. MTN = mountain, BUTE = butte, BDY = boundary, BCH = beach, CHNM = marine channel, CNFL = confluence, CRKT = tidal creek, CRTR = crater, HDLD = headland, HLL = hill, INLT = inlet, ISL = island, ISTH = isthmus, etc.

Finding More Geographic Abbreviations

To obtain a list of literally thousands of geographic abbreviations, a student simply has to google "geographic abbreviations," select the ones relevant to his course of study, create a deck of flashcards, and commit the terms and/or definitions to memory.

When you start living in an English speaking country you realize that abbreviations are very common, at the beginning it seems a bit weird as in other languages they are not that common, but then you see their potential because they save a fairly amount of time.

Next is shown a list with the most used abbreviations in English. These abbreviations are sorted alphabetically and presented in a table with three columns: the actual abbreviation, its meaning in English and an example to see the context where it's used.

Abrev.	Meaning	Example of use
AFAIK	As Far As I Know	AFAIK there is no problem at all
AKA	Also Known As	She's Victoria Beckham, also known as Posh

ASAP	As Soon As Possible	This needs to be done asap
BBL	Be Back Later	Now you have to wait, he'll BBL
BRB	Be Right Back	One sec, I'll BRB
BTW	By The Way	That's really good news. BTW, she also finishes her studies
COB	Close Of Business	We need to finish this requirement by COB
DIY	Do It Yourself	If you want anything to happen you have to DIY!
FYI	For Your Information	Commonly used in the emails and when you forward a message to another person. FYI, original message
IDK	I Don't Know	I'm sorry, IDK
IMO	In My Opinion	IMO, you're wrong
LOL	Lots Of Laughs	Lol, that was really funny
NIM	Not In the Mood	I'm NIM to go out tonight
NP	No Problem	No problem at all, it was my pleasure
OMG	Oh My God	OMG! Isn't that Cristiano Ronaldo?
TBA	To Be Announced	Prize for the winner is TBA!
TBC	To Be Confirmed	That is still TBC
TBD	To Be Defined	The room is yet TBD
UFO	Unidentified Flying Object	He believes he saw an UFO last night
VIP	Very Important Person	That's the VIP area for the club

WTF	What the f**k?	WTF are you talking about man?
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As conclusion, vocabulary used to be offered to learners in the form of lists and vocabulary instruction has focused on having students look up word meanings and memorize them. This teaching approach provides only the surface and short term learning of words. The Texas Reading Initiative found that students who simply memorize word meanings frequently have troubles applying the information in definitions and often make mistakes about the meaning.

A word used in different contexts may have different meanings: thus simply learning definitions of a word without examples of where and when the word occur» will not help learners to fully understand its meaning. Learning an isolated list of words without reference to the context is a memorization exercise that makes it difficult for learners to use the words in spoken and written language.

So vocabulary knowledge involves not only the definitional meaning of a word but also the knowledge to use words in an appropriate context. If they have this knowledge they will be able to guess the meaning of a word from the context. Like many languages, English has many forms of written communication. English uses abbreviations and acronyms to shorten words. Actually, even with today's instant messaging and texting, English and American writers used to use far more shortened forms of writing than today.

Conclusion

A shortened word is in some way different from its prototype in usage. The shortened word and its full form have the same lexical meaning but differ only in stylistic reference. Shortened words are structurally simple words and in most cases have the same lexical meaning as the longer words from

which they are derived. Shortening is not a derivational process because there are no structural patterns after which new shortened words could be built therefore we can't say that shortening is a derivational word formation. We must distinguish lexical abbreviations and clippings.

Abbreviations consist of the first letters of a word group or a compound word (CPSU, YCL, USA, BBC, NATO) or the component of a two member word group H (hydrogen) bomb, V – day – Victory Day is shortened. The last one is not changed. Clipping consists in the cutting off of one or several syllables of a word. In many cases the stressed syllables are preserved. Ex : Sis (sister), Jap (Japanese), doc (doctor).

Clippings and abbreviations have same peculiarities as simple words. They take the plural endings and that of the possessive case. They take grammatical inflexions. Ex : exams, docs, cars, doc's the are used with articles. the USA, a lab etc.

They may take derivational affixes: YCL – er, MP ess hanky (from handkerchief), unkie (from uncle). Clippings do not always coincide in meaning with the original word. Ex : doc and doctor have the meaning one who practices medicine, but doctor is also the highest degree given by a university to a scholar or scientist and a person who has received such a degree whereas doc is not used with these meanings.

Having analyzed the problem of shortening of words in Modern English we could do the following conclusions:

- a) The problem of shortened words in Modern English is very actual nowadays.
- b) There are several kinds of shortening: shortening proper, blending, abbreviations.
- c) A number of famous linguists dealt with the problem of shortening of words in Modern English. In particular, Profs. Ullmann and Broal emphasized the social reasons for shortening, L. Lipka pointed out non-binary contrast or many-member

lexical sets and gave the type which he called directional opposition, V.N. Comissarov and Walter Skeat proved the link of homonymy influence with the appearing of shortened words, etc.

d) The problem of shortening is still waits for its detail investigation.

Having said about the perspectives of the work we hope that this work will find its worthy way of applying at schools, lyceums and colleges of high education by both teachers and students of English. We also express our hopes to take this work its worthy place among the lexicological works dedicated to the types of shortening.

e) Abbreviations studied in Lexicology, in the part of word formation.

Lexicology (from Greek Lexis “word” and logos “learning”) is the part of the linguistics dealing with the vocabulary of the language and the properties of words as the main Units of the language. The term of vocabulary is used to denote the system formed by the totality all words that the language processes.

The term word denote the basic unit of a given language resulting from the association of a particular meaning with the particular group of sounds, capable of a particular grammatical employment. A word therefore is simultaneously a semantic, grammatical and phonological unit.

Our conclusion would be incomplete without mentioning the units of that are an inseparable part of word-stock its word building elements. So English word-formation process includes the ways of word building by affixation, hybrids, compounding, shortening, abbreviations, acronyms and etc. Word building process involve not only the qualitative but the quantitative changes. Thus derivation, compounding represent addition as affixes and free stems, respectively are added to the underlying form.

Abbreviations on the other hand, may be represented as significant subtraction, in which part of the original words is taken away.

The spoken and a written forms of the English language have each their own patterns

of the Abbreviations. But there is a constant exchange between the both sphere. It is sometimes difficult to tell where the given shortened words really originated.

In Modern English shortenings becoming wide spread. It has its homonymic pair and also main peculiarities. All these innovations manifest varying many degrees of stability or rather varying degrees of acceptance as independent lexical unit. Some abbreviations and acronyms have already been included in Dictionaries. We have gathered a lot of examples from “New English – Russian Dictionary” by Galperin. I. R and made contextual analysis of them. Abbreviations pertain to the public political, cultural, economic and industrial life of English speaking people.

To study the problem of shortenings are of theoretical value as it becomes obvious if we realize that it forms the study of on three main aspect of language, i.e its vocabulary, the other two being its grammar and sound system.

Having said about the perspectives of the work we hope that this work will find its worthy way of applying at schools, lyceums and colleges of high education by both teachers and students of English. We also express our hopes to take this work its worthy place among the lexicological works dedicated to the shortening.

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