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# **COURSE PAPER**

**Theme: Clippings and abbreviations.**

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# **Theme: Clippings and abbreviations.**

## **Plan:**

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**2. Clippings and its types.**

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## Introduction.

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

To Class I belongs the means of building words having one motivating base. To give an English example, the noun **catcher** is composed of the base **catch-** and the suffix **-er**, through the combination of which it is morphologically and semantically motivated.<sup>1</sup>

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

Most linguists in special chapters and manuals devoted to English word-formation consider as the chief processes of English word-formation affixation, conversion and compounding.

Apart from these a number of minor ways of forming words such as back-formation, sound interchange, distinctive stress, sound imitation, blending, clipping and acronymy are traditionally referred to Word-Formation.

Another classification of the types of word-formation worked out by H. Marchand is also of interest. Proceeding from the distinction between full linguistic signs and pseudo signs he considers two major groups:

1) words formed as grammatical syntagmas, i.e. combinations of full linguistic signs which are characterised by morphological motivation such as **do-er**, **un-do**, **rain-bow**;

2) words which are not grammatical syntagmas, i.e. which are not made up of

full linguistic signs.

To the first group belong Compounding, Suffixation, Prefixation, Derivation by a Zero Morpheme and Back-Derivation, to the second — Expressive Symbolism, Blending, Clipping, Rime and Ablaut Geminatio, Word-Manufacturing. It is characteristic of both groups that a new coining is based on a synchronic relationship between morphemes.

## **Word formation.**

In linguistics, word formation is the creation of a new word. Word formation is sometimes contrasted with semantic change, which is a change in a single word's meaning. The boundary between word formation and semantic change can be difficult to define: a new use of an old word can be seen as a new word derived from an old one and identical to it in form (see conversion). Word formation can also be contrasted with the formation of idiomatic expressions, although words can be formed from multi-word phrases (see compound and incorporation).

There are two subcategories; words created by derivation and words created by conversion.

Derivation is the process of forming new words from existing ones by adding affixes to them, like shame + less + ness → shamelessness. In cases in which there is a one-to-one correspondence between affixes and syntactical categories, this is known as agglutination, as seen in agglutinative languages.

Also known as zero-affixation, conversion involves forming a new word from an existing identical one, like forming the verb green from the existing adjective.

A blend is a word formed by joining parts of two or more older words. An example is smog, which comes from smoke and fog, or brunch, which comes from 'breakfast' and 'lunch'.

Sub-categories of blending are:

Acronym: A word formed from initial letters of the words in a phrase, like English laser from light amplified by stimulated emission of radiation

Clipping: Also known as "truncation" or "shortening", clipping is the word formation process which consists in the reduction of a word to one of its parts, e.g. fax (facsimile), flu (influenza) and bot (robot). Clipped words may not retain their original meaning. For example, "playing a video game against a bot" is not the same as "playing a video game against a robot".

A calque is a word or phrase borrowed from another language by literal, word-for-word or root-for-root translation. For example, the English phrase to lose face (丟臉/丟臉) is a calque from Chinese. A sub-category of calquing is the semantic loan, that is, the extension of the meaning of a word to include new, foreign meanings.

There are four main kinds of word formation: prefixes, suffixes, conversion and compounds.

We add prefixes before the base or stem of a word.

e.g.

monorail, monolingual

mono- means 'one'

multipurpose, multicultural

multi- means 'many'

post-war, postgraduate

post- means 'after'

unusual, undemocratic

un- means 'not' or 'opposite to'

We add suffixes after the base or stem of a word. The main purpose of a suffix is to show what class of word it is (e.g. noun or adjective).

Examples :

terrorism, sexism

-ism and -dom are used to form nouns

employer, actor

-er and -or are used to form nouns to describe people who do things

widen, simplify

-en and -ify are used to form verbs

reasonable, unprofitable

-able is used to form adjectives

unhappily, naturally

-ly is a common suffix used to form adverbs

Conversion involves the change of a word from one word class to another. For example, the verbs to email and to microwave are formed from the nouns email and microwave:

Can you text her? (verb from noun text, meaning to send a text-message)

They are always jetting somewhere. (verb from noun jet)

If you're not careful, some downloads can damage your computer. (noun from verb download)

OK, so the meeting's on Tuesday. That's a definite. (noun from adjective)

It's a very big if and I'm not at all sure we can afford it. (noun from conjunction, meaning 'it's not at all certain')

All companies have their ups and downs. (nouns from prepositions)

We also use conversion when we change a proper noun into a common noun:

When we use compounding, we link together two or more bases to create a new word. Normally, the first item identifies a key feature of the second word. For example, the two bases back and ache can combine to form the compound noun backache, and the two bases post and card combine to form the compound noun postcard.

Compounds are found in all word classes. The most common types of compounds are: Nouns: car park, rock band

Adjectives: heartbreaking, sugar-free, airsick

Verbs: oven-bake, baby-sit, chain-smoke

Adverbs: good-naturedly, nevertheless

It is sometimes difficult to know where to put hyphens in words that are compounded. It is also difficult to know whether to separate words (e.g. post box) or to join the words (e.g. postbox). In such cases, it is best to check in a good learner's dictionary.

We form words with back-formation when we remove part of a word, usually something which we think is a suffix (or occasionally a prefix). We do this commonly when we form verbs from nouns.

For example: to liaise (back-formed from the noun liaison); to intuit (back-formed from the noun intuition), to enthuse (back-formed from the noun enthusiasm):

Can you liaise with Tim and agree a time for the meeting, please?

She's always enthusing about her new teacher.

Loan words are words that are borrowed from other languages. Some recent loan words for food taken from other languages include: sushi, tapas, chapatti, pizza.

When we use loan words, we do not normally change them, though we do sometimes inflect them if they are singular countable nouns (pizzas, chapattis). We also sometimes pronounce them more like English words, instead of using their original pronunciation.

Some prefixes are commonly used to create new words. In modern English the prefix e- is used to create new words that are connected with the Internet and the use of the Internet:

e-bank, e-cards, e-commerce, e-learning

Almost any noun may potentially combine with any other noun to form new noun compounds (e.g. computer virus, carbon footprint, quality time).

## Clippings and its types.

The shortening of words also 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 derivational base nor the derivational affix can be singled out from the shortened word.

Nor are there any derivational patterns new shortened words could be formed on by the speaker. Consequently, the shortening of words should not be regarded as a way of word-formation on a par with derivation and compounding.

For the same reasons, such ways of coining words as acronymy, blending, lexicalisation and some others should not be treated as means of word-formation. Strictly speaking they are all, together with word-shortening, specific means of replenishing the vocabulary different in principle from affixation, conversion and compounding.

What is said above is especially true of sound- and stress-interchange (also referred to as distinctive stress). 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 in fact has turned into a means of distinguishing primarily between words of different parts of speech and as such is rather wide-spread in Modern English.

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

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), initial clipping (or apharesis, i. e. apharesis<sup>a</sup>) and medial clipping (or syncope<sup>3</sup>).

1. Final clipping in which the beginning of the prototype is retained, is practically the rule, and forms the bulk of the class: e.g. *ad*, *advert* : *advertisement*, *coke*: *coca-cola*, *ed* : *editor*, *fab* :: *fabulous*, *gym* : *gymnastics* or *gymnasium*, *lab* : *laboratory*, *mac* : *mackintosh*, *ref* : *referee*, *veg* : *vegetables*, and many others.

2. Initial-clipped words retaining the final part of the prototype are less numerous but much more firmly established as separate lexical units with a meaning very different from that of the prototype and stylistically neutral doublets, *cute* adj, n (Am) : *acute*, *fend* v : *defend*, *mend* v : *amend*, *story* n : *history*, *sport* n :: *disport*, *tend* v :: *attend*. Cases like *cello* : *violoncello* and *phone* : *telephone* where the curtailed words are stylistical synonyms or even variants of their respective prototypes are very rare.

Neologisms are few: *chute*: *parachute*. It is in this group that the process of assimilation of loan words takes place.

Final and initial clipping may be combined and result in curtailed words with the middle part of the prototype retained. These are few and definitely colloquial: *flu* : *influenza*, *frig* or *fridge* : *refrigerator*, *tec* : *detective*. It is worthy of note that what is retained is the stressed syllable of the prototype.

1. Curtailed words with the middle part of the word left out are equally few. They may be further subdivided into two groups: (a) words with a final-clipped stem retaining the functional morpheme: *maths*: *mathematics*, *specs* : *spectacles*-, (b) contractions due to a gradual process of elision under the influence of rhythm and context. Thus *fancy*: *fantasy*, *ma'am* : *madam* may be regarded as accelerated forms.

It is also possible to approach shortened words on the-basis of the structure characterizing the prototype. Then the two mutually exclusive groups are cases correlated with words and those correlated with phrases. The length of the word giving rise to a shortening might result from its being a derivative, a compound or a borrowing. The observation of language material, however, can furnish hardly any examples of the second type (compounds), all the word prototypes being derivatives, either native or borrowed, as is shown by all the examples quoted in the above paragraphs.

The few exceptions are exemplified by *tarmac*, a technical term for *tarmacadam*, a road surface of crushed stone and tar, originally named after the inventor; also *cabbie* for *cabman*. But then *-man* in such cases is most often a semi-affix,

not a free form, and, besides, the process of shortening here is combined with derivation as in *nightie* for *nightdress*.

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

Ellipsis is defined as the omission of a word or words considered essential for grammatical completeness but not for the conveyance of the intended lexical meaning, as in the following example: *Police summonses are being served in an effort to stop the big sitdown planned for September 17*, where *sitdown* stands for *sitdown demonstration*.

Professional and other communities with a specialized sphere of common interests are the ideal setting for ellipsis. *Open on* for *open fire on*, and *put to sea* for *put ship to sea* are of war time and navy origin, and *bill* for *bill of exchange* comes from business circles; in a newspaper office *daily paper* and *weekly paper* were quite naturally shortened to *daily* and *weekly*.

It is clear from the above examples that unlike other types of shortening, ellipsis always results in a change of lexico-grammatical meaning, and therefore the new word belongs to a different part of speech. Various other processes are often interwoven with ellipsis. For instance: *finals* for *final examinations* is a case of ellipsis combined with substantiation of the first element, whereas *prelims* for *preliminary examinations* results from ellipsis, substantiation and clipping. Cf. also *mods* (from *Modern jazz*).

Other examples of the same complex type are *perm* :: *permanent wave*, *pop* :: *popular music*, *prom* :: *promenade concert*, a 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*. Inside 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* 'co-operative store or society', *prefab* 'a prefabricated house or structure'; *to prefabricate* means 'to manufacture component parts of buildings 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 *sumbarine chaser*. A curious derivational compound with a clipping for one of its stems 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* 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: *blends*, *blendings*, *fusions* or *portmanteau words*. The last term is due to Lewis Carroll, the 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 as *chortle* v *chuckle* --*short*, *mimsy* adj *miserable-flims*, *galumph*, *gallop*, *triumph*, *slilhy* a *stimy*, *litle*.

Humpty Dumpty explaining these words to Alice says: 'You see it's like a portmanteau — there are two meanings packed up into one word.' The process of formation is also called *telescoping* because the words seem to slide into one another like sections of a telescope.

Compare also *snob* which 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 short for *binary digit*. Other examples are: the already mentioned *paratroops* and the words *bloodalyzer* and *breathalyzer* for apparatuses making blood and breath tests.

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 represented by a stem whose final part may be missing, and the second 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 terms as *nylon*, *rayon*, *silon*, formed from the final element of *cotton*.

Depending upon the prototype phrases with which they can be correlated 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 at work are different. The first, i. e. additive type is transformable into a phrase consisting of the respective complete stems combined by the conjunction *and*: *smog*, *smoke* and *fog* 'a mixture of smoke and fog'. The elements may be synonymous, belong to the same semantic field or at least be members of the same lexico-grammatical class of words: *sm(oke)+(f)og smog*; cf. also a new coinage *smaze*, *Smog*, *haze*: *A Weather Bureau official described the condition as a kind of smog-like haze. "Call it smaze", he said.*

Other examples are: *brunch* < *breakfast and lunch* \ *transceiver* -< *transmitter* and *receiver*, *Niffles*. *Niagara Falls*.

The restrictive type is transformable into an attributive phrase, where the first element serves as modifier of the second: *cine(matograph-ic pano)rama*, *cinerama*. Other examples are: *positron*, *positive electron-*, *telecast*, *television broadcast*.

An interesting variation of the same type is presented by cases of superposition, formed by pairs of words having similar clusters of sounds, which seem to provoke blending, e.g. a *motel* < *motorists' hotel*: the element *-ot-* is present in both parts of the pro-otype. Further examples are: *shambo*, *sham Shamboo* (imitation bamboo); *atomaniac*, *atom maniac-*, *slanguage slang + language*, *spam*. *spiced ham*. Blends, although not very numerous altogether, seem to be on the rise, especially in terminology and also in trade advertisements.

Curtailed words arise in various types of colloquial speech, and have for the most part a pronounced stylistic colouring as long as their connection with the prototype is alive, so that they remain synonyms. *They present the tops in pops*. When the connection with the prototype is lost, the curtailed word may become stylistically neutral: e. g. *brig*, *cab*, *cello*, *pram*. Stylistically coloured shortened words may belong to any variety of colloquial style.

They are especially numerous in various branches of slang: school slang, service slang, sport slang, newspaper slang, etc. Familiar colloquial style gives such examples as *bobby*, *cabbei*, *mac*, *max* from *maximum*, *movies*. Nursery words are

often clipped: *gran*, *granny*, *hanky* from *handkerchief*, *nightie* from *nightdress*, *pin-nie* from *pinafore*. Stylistic peculiarity often goes hand in hand with emotional colouring as is revealed in the above diminutives. School and college slang, on the other hand, reveal some sort of reckless if not ironical attitude to the things named: *caf* from *cafeteria* 'self-service restaurant', *digs* from *diggings* 'lodgings', *ec*, *eco* from *economics*, *home ecs*, *lab*, *maths*, *prelims*, *prep*, *prof*, *trig*, *undergrad*, *vac*, *varsity*. Service slang is very rich in clipped words, some of them penetrate the familiar colloquial style. A few examples are: *demob* v from *demobilize*, *civvy* n from *civilian*, *op* n from *operator*, *non-com* n from *non-combatant*, *corp* n from *corporal*, *sarge* n from *sergeant*.

The only type of clippings that belong to bookish style are the poetical contractions, such as *e'en*, *e'er*, *ne'er*, *o'er*.

This article defines the basics of Clipper Circuit, classifications according to the devices used, biasing, configuration, level used and so on.

Clipping circuit is a wave-shaping circuit, and is used to either remove or clip a portion of the applied wave in order to control the shape of the output waveform. One of the most basic clipping circuit is the half-wave rectifier. A half-wave rectifier clips either the negative half cycle or the positive half cycle of an alternating waveform, and allows to pass only one half cycle. Such a circuit has great applications in radars, digital computers and other electronic systems for removing unwanted portions of the input signal voltages above or below a specified level. Another application is in radio-receivers for communication circuits where noise pulses that rise well above the signal amplitude are clipped down to the desired level. Clipping circuits are also referred to as voltage limiters, amplitude selectors, or slicers.

Clipping circuit consists of non-linear and linear devices. The non-linear devices generally used for clipping are diodes and transistors. According to non-linear devices used, clippers may be classified as Diode clippers and Transistor clippers.

According to biasing, the clippers may be classified as Unbiased clippers and

Biased clippers.

According to configuration used the clippers may be Series diode clippers Parallel or shunt diode clippers

A series combination of diode, resistor and reference supply Multi-diode clippers consisting of several diodes, resistors and reference voltages two emitter-coupled transistors operating as an over-driven difference amplifier.

According to level of clipping the clippers may be Positive clippers, Negative clippers

Biased clippers and Combination clippers classifications are well organized, but if detailed informations about the configurations of clippers are included it will be useful.....

### ***Compounding***

Compounding forms a word out of two or more root morphemes. The words are called compounds or compound words.

In Linguistics, compounds can be either native or borrowed.

Native English roots are typically free morphemes, so that means native compounds are made out of independent words that can occur by themselves. Examples:

mailman (composed of free root mail and free root man)

mail carrier

dog house

fireplace

fireplug (a regional word for 'fire hydrant')

fire hydrant

dry run

pick-up truck

talking-to

In Greek and Latin, in contrast to English, roots do not typically stand alone. So compounds are composed of bound roots. Compounds formed in English from borrowed Latin and Greek morphemes preserve this characteristic. Examples include photograph, iatrogenic, and many thousands of other classical words.

Note that compounds are written in various ways in English: with a space between the elements; with a hyphen between the elements; or simply with the two roots run together with no separation. The way the word is written does not affect its status as a compound. Over time, the convention for writing compounds can change, usually in the direction from separate words (e.g. clock work), to hyphenated words (clock-work), to one word with no break (clockwork). If you read older literature you might see some compound words that are now written as one word appearing with unfamiliar spaces or hyphens between the components.

Another thing to note about compounds is that they can combine words of different parts of speech. The list above shows mostly noun-noun compounds, which is probably the most common part of speech combination, but there are others, such as adjective-noun (dry run, blackbird, hard drive), verb-noun (pick-pocket, cut-purse, lick-spittle) and even verb-particle (where 'particle' means a word basically designating spatial expression that functions to complete a literal or metaphorical path), as in run-through, hold-over. Sometimes these compounds are different in the part of speech of the whole compound vs. the part of speech of its components. Note that the last two are actually nouns, despite their components.

Some compounds have more than two component words. These are formed by successively combining words into compounds, e.g. pick-up truck, formed from pick-up and truck, where the first component, pick-up is itself a compound formed from pick and up. Other examples are ice-cream cone, no-fault insurance and even more complex compounds like top-rack dishwasher safe.

There are a number of subtypes of compounds that do not have to do with part of speech, but rather the sound characteristics of the words. These subtypes are not mutually exclusive.

These words are compounded from two rhyming words. Examples:

love-dovey

chiller-killer

There are words that are formally very similar to rhyming compounds, but are not quite compounds in English because the second element is not really a word--it is just a nonsense item added to a root word to form a rhyme. Examples:

higgledy-piggledy

tootsie-wootsie

This formation process is associated in English with child talk (and talk addressed to children), technically called hypochoristic language. Examples:

bunnie-wunnie

Henny Penny

snuggly-wuggly

Georgie Porgie

Piggie-Wiggie

Another word type that looks a bit like rhyming compounds comprises words that are formed of two elements that almost match, but differ in their vowels. Again, the second element is typically a nonsense form:

pitter-patter

zig-zag

tick-tock

riff-raff

flip-flop

Derivation Derivation is the creation of words by modification of a root without the addition of other roots. Often the effect is a change in part of speech.

The most common type of derivation is the addition of one or more affixes to a root, as in the word derivation itself. This process is called affixation, a term which covers both prefixation and suffixation.

### ***Blending***

Blending is one of the most beloved of word formation processes in English. It is especially creative in that speakers take two words and merge them based not on morpheme structure but on sound structure. The resulting words are called blends.

Usually in word formation we combine roots or affixes along their edges: one morpheme comes to an end before the next one starts. For example, we form derivation out of the sequence of morphemes de+riv+at(e)+ion. One morpheme follows the next and each one has identifiable boundaries. The morphemes do not overlap.

But in blending, part of one word is stitched onto another word, without any regard for where one morpheme ends and another begins. For example, the word swooshtika 'Nike swoosh as a logo symbolizing corporate power and hegemony' was formed from swoosh and swastika. The swoosh part remains whole and recognizable in the blend, but the tika part is not a morpheme, either in the word swastika or in the blend. The blend is a perfect merger of form, and also of content. The meaning contains an implicit analogy between the swastika and the swoosh, and thus conceptually blends them into one new kind of thing having properties of both, but also combined properties of neither source. Other examples include glitterati (blending glitter and literati) 'Hollywood social set', mockumentary (mock and documentary) 'spoof documentary'.

The earliest blends in English only go back to the 19th century, with wordplay coinages by Lewis Carroll in *Jabberwocky*. For example, he introduced to the language *slithy*, (formed from *lithe* and *slimy*) and *galumph*, (from *gallop* and *triumph*). Interestingly *galumph* has survived as a word in English, but it now seems to mean 'walk in a stomping, ungainly way'.

Some blends that have been around for quite a while include *brunch* (breakfast and lunch), *motel* (motor hotel), *electrocute* (electric and execute), *smog* (smoke and fog) and *cheeseburger* (cheese and hamburger). These go back to the first half of the twentieth century. Others, such as *stagflation* (stagnation and inflation), *spork* (spoon and fork), and *carjacking* (car and hijacking) arose since the 1970s.

Here are some more recent blends I have run across:

*mocktail* (mock and cocktail) 'cocktail with no alcohol'

*splog* (spam and blog) 'fake blog designed to attract hits and raise Google-ranking'

*Britpoperati* (Britpop and literati) 'those knowledgeable about current British pop music'

### ***Clipping***

Clipping is a type of abbreviation of a word in which one part is 'clipped' off the rest, and the remaining word now means essentially the same thing as what the whole word means or meant. For example, the word *rifle* is a fairly modern clipping of an earlier compound *rifle gun*, meaning a gun with a rifled barrel. (Rifled means having a spiral groove causing the bullet to spin, and thus making it more accurate.) Another clipping is *burger*, formed by clipping off the beginning of the word *hamburger*. (This clipping could only come about once *hamburg+er* was reanalyzed as *ham+burger*.)

### ***Acronyms***

Acronyms are formed by taking the initial letters of a phrase and making a

word out of it. The classical acronym is also pronounced as a word. Scuba was formed from self-contained underwater breathing apparatus.

Occasionally, not just letters but a whole or part syllable can be used in the formation of an acronym. Examples:

radar - RAdio Detection And Ranging

gestapo - GEheime STAatsPOLizei, German for 'Secret National Police'.

These can be thought of as a special case of acronyms.

Another special case is one in which the initial letters form the acronym, but they are still pronounced as letters rather than according to the rules of English spelling. Many organization names of of this type. Examples:

NAACP

UN

IMF

Memos, email, and text messaging are modes of communication that give rise to both clippings and acronyms, since these word formation methods are designed to abbreviate. Some acronyms:

NB - Nota bene, literally 'note well'. Used by scholars making notes on texts. (A large number of other scholarly acronyms from Latin are used, probably most invented in the medieval period or Renaissance, not originally in Latin)

BRB - be right back (from 1980s, 90s)

FYI - for your information (from mid 20th century)

LOL - laughing out loud (early 21st century) - now pronounced either /lo/ or /el o el/; has spawned compounds like Lolcats).

ROFL - rolling on the floor laughing

ROFLMAO - rolling on the floor laughing my ass off novel creation

In novel creation, a speaker or writer forms a word without starting from other morphemes. It is as if the word is formed out of 'whole cloth', without reusing any parts.

Some examples of now-conventionalized words that were novel creations include blimp, googol (the mathematical term), bling, and possibly slang, which emerged in the last 200 years with no obvious etymology. Some novel creations seem to display 'sound symbolism', in which a word's phonological form suggests its meaning in some way. For example, the sound of the word bling seems to evoke heavy jewelry making noise. Another novel creation whose sound seems to relate to its meaning is badonkadonk, 'female rear end', a reduplicated word which can remind English speakers of the repetitive movement of the rear end while walking.

### Creative respelling

Sometimes words are formed by simply changing the spelling of a word that the speaker wants to relate to the new word. Product names often involve creative respelling, such as Mr. Kleen.

### Clipping (morphology)

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In linguistics, clipping is the word formation process which consists in the reduction of a word to one of its parts. Clipping is also known as "truncation" or "shortening."

According to Marchand, clippings are not coined as words belonging to the standard vocabulary of a language. They originate as terms of a special group like schools, army, police, the medical profession, etc., in the intimacy of a milieu where a hint is sufficient to indicate the whole. For example, exam(ination),

math(ematics), and lab(oratory) originated in school slang; spec(ulation) and tick(et = credit) in stock-exchange slang; and vet(eran) and cap(tain) in army slang. While clipping terms of some influential groups can pass into common usage, becoming part of Standard English, clippings of a socially unimportant class or group will remain group slang.

Clipping is different from back-formation – back-formation may change the part of speech or the word's meaning, whereas clipping creates shortened words from longer words, but does not change the part of speech or the meaning of the word.

Clipping mainly consists of the following types:

Back clipping

Fore-clipping

Middle clipping

Complex clipping

***Back clipping.***

Back clipping is the most common type, in which the beginning is retained. The unclipped original may be either a simple or a composite. Examples are: ad (advertisement), cable (cablegram), doc (doctor), exam (examination), fax (facsimile), gas (gasoline), gym (gymnastics, gymnasium), memo (memorandum), mutt (muttonhead), pub (public house), pop (popular music).

***Fore-clipping.***

Fore-clipping retains the final part. Examples: bot (robot), chute (parachute), roach (cockroach), coon (raccoon), gator (alligator), phone (telephone), pike (turnpike), varsity (university), net (Internet).

***Middle clipping.***

In middle clipping, the middle of the word is retained. Examples are: flu (influenza), fridge (refrigerator), jams or jammies (pajamas/pyjamas), polly (apollinaris), shrink (head-shrinker), tec (detective).

### *Complex clipping.*

Clipped forms are also used in compounds. One part of the original compound most often remains intact. Examples are: cablegram (cable telegram), op art (optical art), org-man (organization man), linocut (linoleum cut). Sometimes both halves of a compound are clipped as in navicert (navigation certificate). In these cases it is difficult to know whether the resultant formation should be treated as a clipping or as a blend, for the border between the two types is not always clear. According to Bauer (1983),<sup>[3]</sup> the easiest way to draw the distinction is to say that those forms which retain compound stress are clipped compounds, whereas those that take simple word stress are not. By this criterion bodbiz, Chicom, Comsymp, Intelsat, midcult, pro-am, photo op, sci-fi, and sitcom are all compounds made of clippings.

## Abbreviations.

Abbreviation involves shortening a word. We do this in three main ways: clipping, acronyms and blends.

We use clipping when we shorten or ‘clip’ one or more syllables from a word. We also commonly clip proper names for people:

ad: advertisement, advert

lab: laboratory

Matt: Matthew

Acronyms are a type of abbreviation formed when the initial letters of two or more words are combined in a way that produces consonant and vowel sequences found in words. Acronyms are normally pronounced as words:

RAM: random access memory (RAM is a term used to describe a computer’s memory.)

Initials are similar to acronyms but are pronounced as sets of letters, not as words:

WHO: World Health Organisation, pronounced W–H–O

CD: compact disc, pronounced C–D

We form blends when we combine parts of existing words to form a new word:

blog: blend of web and log

motel: blend of motor and hotel

smog: blend of smoke and fog

Because of the ever closer connection between the oral and the written forms of the language it is sometimes difficult to differentiate clippings formed in oral speech from graphical abbreviations. The more so as the latter often pass into oral speech and become widely used in conversation.

During World War I and after it the custom became very popular not only in English-speaking countries, but in other parts of the world as well, to call countries, governmental, social, military, industrial and trade organisations and officials not

only by their full titles but by initial abbreviations derived from writing. Later the trend became even more pronounced,

for example: *the USSR, the U.N., the U.N.O., MP.*

The tendency today is to omit fullstops between the letters: **GPO** (*General Post Office*). Some abbreviations nevertheless appear in both forms: *EPA* and *E.P.A.* (*Environment Protection Agency*). Such words formed from the initial letter or letters of each of the successive parts of a phrasal term have two possible types of orthoepic correlation between written and spoken forms.

1. If the abbreviated written form lends itself to be read as though it were an ordinary English word and sounds like an English word, it will be read like one. The words thus formed are called **a c r o n y m s** (from Gr *acros-* ‘end’ + *onym* ‘name’).

This way of forming new words is becoming more and more popular in almost all fields of human activity, and especially in political and technical vocabulary: *U.N.O.*, also *UNO* [ˈju:nou] — *United Nations Organisation*, *NATO* — *the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation*, *SALT*—*Strategic Arms Limitation Talks*.

The last example shows that acronyms are often homonymous to ordinary words; sometimes intentionally chosen so as to create certain associations. Thus, for example, *the National Organisation for Women* is called *NOW*. Typical of acronymic coinages in technical terminology are *JATO*, *laser*, *maser* and *radar*. *JATO* or *jato* means *jet-assisted take-off*; *laser* stands for *light amplification by stimulated emission radiation*; *maser* — for *micro-wave amplification and stimulated emission radiation*; *radar* — for *radio detection and ranging*, it denotes a system for ascertaining direction and ranging of aircraft, ships, coasts and other objects by means of electro-magnetic waves which they reflect.

Acronyms became so popular that their number justified the publication of special dictionaries, such as D.D. Spencer’s “Computer Acronym Handbook” (1974). We shall mention only one example from computer terminology — the rather ironic *GIGO* for *garbage in, garbage out* in reference to unreliable data fed into the computer that produces worthless output.

Acronyms present a special interest because they exemplify the working of the

lexical adaptive system. In meeting the needs of communication and fulfilling the laws of information theory requiring a maximum signal in the minimum time the lexical system undergoes modification in its basic structure: namely it forms new elements not by combining existing morphemes and proceeding from sound forms to their graphic representation but the other way round — coining new words from the initial letters of phrasal terms originating in texts.

2. The other subgroup consists of initial abbreviation with the alphabetical reading retained, i.e. pronounced as a series of letters. They also retain correlation with prototypes. The examples are well-known: *B.B.C.* ['bi:'bi:'si:] — *the British Broadcasting Corporation*; *G.I.* ['dʒi: 'ai] — for *Government Issue*, a widely spread metonymical name for American soldiers on the items of whose uniforms these letters are stamped. The last abbreviation was originally an Americanism but has been firmly established in British English as well. *M.P.* ['em'pi:] is mostly used as an initial abbreviation for *Member of Parliament*, also *military police*, whereas *P.M.* stands for *Prime Minister*.

Abbreviations are freely used in colloquial speech as seen from the following extract, in which CP. Snow describes the House of Commons gossip: *They were swapping promises to speak for one another: one was bragging how two senior Ministers were “in the bag” to speak for him. Roger was safe, someone said, he'd give a hand. “What has the P.M. got in mind for Roger when we come back?”* The familiar colloquial quality of the context is very definitely marked by the set expressions: *in the bag, give a hand, get in mind, etc.*

Other examples of initial abbreviations with the alphabetical reading retained are: *S.O.S.* ['es'ou'es]—*Save Our Souls*, a wireless code-signal of extreme distress, also figuratively, any despairing cry for help; *T.V.* or *TV* ['ti:'vi:] — *television*; *Y.C.L.* ['wai' sɪr'el] — *the Young Communist League*.

3. The term **a b b r e v i a t i o n** may be also used for a shortened form of a written word or phrase used in a text in place of the whole for economy of space and effort. Abbreviation is achieved by omission of letters from one or more parts of the whole, as for instance *abbr* for *abbreviation*, *bldg* for *building*, *govt* for *government*, *wd* for *word*, *doz* or *dz* for *dozen*, *ltd* for *limited*, *B.A.* for *Bachelor of Arts*, *N.Y.* for

*New York State*. Sometimes the part or parts retained show some alteration, thus, *oz* denotes *ounce* and *Xmas* denotes *Christmas*. Doubling of initial letters shows plural forms as for instance *pplp.p.* for *pages*, *ll* for *lines* or *cc* for *chapters*. These are in fact not separate words but only graphic signs or symbols representing them. Consequently no orthoepic correlation exists in such cases and the unabbreviated word is pronounced: *ll* [lainz], *pp* ['peɪ8ɪz].

A specific type of abbreviations having no parallel in Russian is represented by Latin abbreviations which sometimes are not read as Latin words but substituted by their English equivalents. A few of the most important cases are listed below: *ad lib* (Lat *ad libitum*) — *at pleasure*, *a.m.* (Lat *ante meridiem*) — *in the morning*, *cf.* (Lat *conferre*)

—*compare*; *cp.* (**Lat *comparare***) — *compare*, *e.g.* (Lat *exempli gratia*)

—*for example*; *ib(id)* (**Lat *ibidem***) — *in the same place*; *i.e.* (Lat *id est*)

—*that is*; *loc.cit.* (**Lat *locus citato***) — *in the passage cited*; *ob.* (Lat *obiit*)

—*he (she) died*; *q.v.* (**Lat *quod vide***) — *which see*; *p.m.* (Lat *post meridiem*) — *in the afternoon*; *viz* (**Lat *videlicet***) — *namely*, sometimes read *viz.*

Actual letters are also read in the following cases:

*a.m.* ['ei'em], *e.g.*, *i.e.*, *q.v.*, *p.m.*

An interesting feature of present-day English is the use of initial abbreviations for famous persons' names and surnames. Thus, George Bernard Shaw is often alluded to as *G.B.S.* ['dʒi:'bi:'es], Herbert George Wells as *H.G.* The usage is clear from the following example: “*Oh, yes ... where was I?*” “*With H.G.'s Martians,*” *I told him* (Wyndham).

Journalistic abbreviations are often occasioned by a desire to economise headline space, as seen from the following example “**CND Calls Lobby to Stop MLF**”. This means that a mass lobby of Parliament against the NATO multilateral nuclear force (*MLF*) is being called by the Campaign for Nuclear Disarmament (*CND*).

These regular developments are in some cases combined with occasional jocular or accidental distortions. The National Economic Development Council is facetiously termed *Neddy*. Elementary education is colloquially referred to as *the three R's* — reading, (w)riting and 'rithmetic. Some kind of witty folk etymology is at

play when the abbreviation *C.B.* for *construction battalions* in the navy is respelt into *sea bees*. The two well-known Americanisms *jeep* and *okay* may be mentioned in this connection. *Jeep* meaning ‘a small military motor vehicle’ comes from *g.p.* [ˈdʒiːˈpiː] (the initials of *general purpose*). *Okay, OK* may be an illiterate misinterpretation of the initials in *all correct*. Various other historic anecdotes have been also offered by way of explanation of the latter.

It must be emphasised that initial abbreviation, no less than other types of shortening, retains the valency, i.e. the combining possibilities of the prototypes. The difference in distribution is conditioned only by a change of meaning (lexical or more rarely lexico-grammatical).

Abbreviations receive the plural and Possessive case inflections: *G.I.’s*, *M.P.’s*, *P.O.W.’s* (from *prisoner of war*), also the verb paradigm: *okays*, *okayed*, *okaying*. E. g. *A hotel’s no life for you... Why don’t you come and P.G. with me?* (A. Wilson) Here *P.G.* is an abbreviation for *paying guest*. Like all nouns they can be used attributively: *BBC television*, *TV program*, *UN vote*.

A specifically English word pattern almost absent in the Russian language must be described in connection with initial abbreviations in which the first element is a letter and the second a complete word. The examples are: *A-bomb* for *atomic bomb*, *V-sign* — a sign made by holding the hand up with the first two fingers spread with the palm facing forward in the shape of a V used for expressing victory or the hope for it. A like sign made with the back of the hand facing forward expressed dislike and is considered very rude. The example is interesting, because it shows the connection between the lexical system and paralinguistic means of communication, that is gestures, mimics and prosodic means (from *para* ‘beyond’).

There is no uniformity in semantic relationships between the elements: *Z-bar* is a metallic bar with a cross section shaped like the letter Z, while *Z-hour* is an abbreviation of *zero-hour* meaning ‘the time set for the beginning of the attack’, *U* is standing for upper classes in such combinations as *U-pronunciation*, *U-language*. Cf.: *U-boat* ‘a submarine’. *Non-U* is its opposite. So *Non-U speakers* are those whose speech habits show that they do not belong to the upper classes.

It will have been noted that all kinds of shortening are very productive in present-day English. They are especially numerous in colloquial speech, both familiar colloquial and professional slang. They display great combining activity and form bases for further word-formation and inflection.

### **Abbreviations.**

**A** words belonging in Ch. Fries's classification to Class III, i. e. adjectives  
and words that can occupy the position of adjectives

**a** adjective

**adv** adverb

**AmE** American English

**COD** The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English

**Engl** English

**Germ** German

**Goth** Gothic

**Gr** Greek

**Fr** French

**IC's** immediate constituents

**It** Italian

**Lat** Latin

**ME** Middle English

**ModE** Modern English

**N** words belonging in Ch. Fries's classification to Class I, i. e. nouns and  
words that can stand in the same position

**N** noun

**NED** New English Dictionary (Oxford)

**OE** Old English

**OED** The Oxford English Dictionary

**OFr** Old French

**ON** Old North

**pl** plural

**prp** preposition

**Russ** Russian

**Scand** Scandinavian

**sing** singular

**V** words belonging in Ch. Fries's classification to Class

II, i. e. verbs, except the auxiliaries v erb

**AE** — American English

**Am.** — American

**AS.** — Anglo-Saxon

**AuE** — Australian English

**BE** — British English

**Br.** — British

**cf.** — compare

**Chin.** — Chinese

**CnE** — Canadian English

**colloq.** — colloquial

**Fr.** — French

**G.** — German

**gen. E.** — general English

**Gr.** — Greek

**It.** — Italian

**L.** — Latin

**ME.** — Middle English

**MnE.** — Modern English

**OE.** — Old English

**OFr.** — Old French

**ON.** — Old Norse

**Russ.** — Russian

**Scand.** — Scandinavian

**Scot.** — Scottish

**sl.** — slang

**U.S.** — American

## Conclusion.

Here I'd like to conclude my qualification paper under the theme "**Clippings and abbreviations.**" The structure of the research work consists of introduction, two chapters, conclusion and bibliography. In the introduction part I gave information about Uzbekistan and language learning, writing research work. Here I put a real task to write qualification graduating paper in future.

**In the first chapter** I wrote about in linguistics, word formation is the creation of a new word and the means of building words containing more than one motivating base. Word formation can also be contrasted with the formation of idiomatic expressions, although words can be formed from multi-word phrases (see compound and incorporation). We form words with back-formation when we remove part of a word, usually something which we think is a suffix (or occasionally a prefix). We do this commonly when we form verbs from nouns.

**In the second chapter** I gave some information about the shortening of words also stands apart from the above two-fold division of word-formation. It is clear from the above examples that unlike other types of shortening, ellipsis always results in a change of lexico-grammatical meaning, and therefore the new word belongs to a different part of speech. Various other processes are often interwoven with ellipsis.

Clipping circuit is a wave-shaping circuit, and is used to either remove or clip a portion of the applied wave in order to control the shape of the output waveform. One of the most basic clipping circuit is the half-wave rectifier. A half-wave rectifier clips either the negative half cycle or the positive half cycle of an alternating waveform, and allows to pass only one half cycle.

Curtailed words arise in various types of colloquial speech, and have for the most part a pronounced stylistic colouring as long as their connection with the prototype is alive, so that they remain synonyms.

**In the third chapter** I explained all clippings formed in oral speech from graphical abbreviations. The more so as the latter often pass into oral speech and

become widely used in conversation. Abbreviation involves shortening a word. We do this in three main ways: clipping, acronyms and blends.

If the abbreviated written form lends itself to be read as though it were an ordinary English word and sounds like an English word, it will be read like one. The words thus formed are called *a c r o n y m s* .

A specific type of abbreviations having no parallel in Russian is represented by Latin abbreviations which sometimes are not read as Latin words but substituted by their English equivalents.

At the end of my work I gave some useful internet materials, methodical recommendation in teaching literature. I conclude my theme's results clearly and briefly. At the end of the work I listed used literature in the research.

### **The list of the used literature.**

1. *И. В. АРНОЛЬД* Лексикология современного английского языка. Москва «Высшая школа» 1986.
2. R.S.Ginzburg S. S. Khidekel, G. Y. Knyazeva, A. A. Sankin A Course In Modern English Lexicology Second Edition Moscow 1979.

3. Ахманова О.С. Принципы и методы лексикологии как социолингвистической дисциплины. 1971
4. J.Buranov, A.Muminov. A practical course in English Lexicology. 1990
5. Ilyish B.A. The structure of Modern English. 1965
6. M.Halliday. Language as social semiotic. The social interpretation of language and meaning. 1994
7. [www.google.com](http://www.google.com)