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ENGLISH SECOND FACULTY GROUP 402

QUALIFICATION PAPER

Variations of the functions of abbreviation depending on language style

5120100 – Philology and teaching languages (The English language) for granting the bachelor's degree

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**"THE QUALIFICATION
IS ADMITTED TO DEFENCE"**
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Tashkent – 2016

ЎЗБЕКИСТОН РЕСПУБЛИКАСИ ОЛИЙ ВА ЎРТА МАХСУС ТАЪЛИМ ВАЗИРЛИГИ
ЎЗБЕКИСТОН ДАВЛАТ ЖАҲОН ТИЛЛАРИ УНИВЕРСИТЕТИ
ИНГЛИЗ ТИЛИ ЛЕКСИКОЛОГИСИ КАФЕДРАСИ

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БИТИРУВ МАЛАКАВИЙ ИШИ

"ҲИМОЯГА ТАВСИЯ ЭТИЛАДИ" **ИЛМИЙ РАҲБАР:**
"Инглиз тили лексикологияси "
кафедраси мудири

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ф.ф.н. Ж.И.Матякубов
"_____" _____aprel_____ 2016 Ўлмасов Ш.А.

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Contents

Introduction

Conditions of reforming of all education system the question of the world assistance to improvement of quality **of** scientific **theoretical** aspect of educational process is especially actually put. 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 destines 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]

Our intention in this Graduation Paper is to provide the detailed explanation for the Abbreviations. The emphasis will be on the definitions given by different lexicologists, on the origin, structure and style usage of them.

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.

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[1] И. А. Каримов. Гармонично развитое поколение – основа прогресса Узбекистана. Сит.1998 стр. 156-168.

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 form 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.

Topicality of the given Graduation Paper is caused by the dynamics of the development of modern English.

The aim of this paper is to present a broad overview of the phenomenon of shortening and stress the peculiarities of shortening in computer language in Modern English.

The tasks are as following:
- to analyze the different approaches to definition of shortenings;
- to show their types and peculiarities as presented in lexicological theory;
- to describe the computer language as a particular functional style;
- to analyse and present the peculiarities of shortenings in computer language and communication;
- to show detailed characteristics of structures of shortenings;

- to analyse problems of translation of shortenings in computer language;

The study degree of the research was based on the well-known works by prominent linguists Koonin A.V., Smirnitsky A.I., Vinogradov V.V., Arhangelsky V.L., Shansky N.M., Ahunzyanov G.H., Gvozdarev U.A., Deribas V.M. and others.The language materialpresented in the Glossary was selected from the English-Russian phraseological dictionary by Koonin A.V., further verified by English-English dictionaries.[2]In some cases the English equivalents of the expressions were suggested by our own.

The novelty of the Graduation Paper of the work is that shortening is becoming a very productive type of word formation due to growing variety of its types and applicability to various functional styles and different languages. One of the proofs of this statement lies in the fact, that in the Uzbek language which has not been known for its use of shortening until recently, we can find quite a number of neologisms-shortenings.

The object: the given Graduation Paper gives us a notion for the Abbreviations, their classification and stylistic functions in modern linguistics. Abbreviations, **the subject of our analysis,** make our life easier. However, when using them, we shouldn't overdo it. The abbreviations are the most intensively developing units of English. Consequently, there is the distinctive interest to abbreviations in modern linguistics.

The method that has been adopted to explore the topic and carry out the analysis combines *descriptive, historical and comparative approaches.*

The theoretical part (The First Chapter) embraces seven units according to the main characteristics of abbreviations and their appliance in modern English. It concerns the classification groups of abbreviations and the main differences between them, which are divided into several groups:

- Graphical abbreviations;
- Types of initials, peculiarities of their pronunciation;

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[2]Арнольд И.В. Основы научных исследований в лингвистике: Москва, 1991, -p.78

- Lexical shortenings of words, their reference to styles;
- Blends;
- Back formation;
- The peculiarities of appliance of abbreviations in modern English**.**

The practical value*:* 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.

The structure of the work is as follows. It comprises the three chapters, the conclusion, appendix and bibliography.

The first chapter gives us a notion of the major characteristics of the abbreviations and of the main ways of their formation in modern English. This chapter is also devoted to delivering of classification   of the abbreviations and the main differences between them. Our study helps to follow the stylistic peculiarities and functions of the abbreviations in modern English.

The analytical part of the present work (**The second Chapter**) investigates the stylistic functions of the abbreviations in modern English. According to the texts belonging to various functional styles of official speech, namely the publicist (newspaper) style and the scientific style were defined the following groups of abbreviations:

- Common abbreviations;
- Abbreviations as scientific words;
- Abbreviations of American origin;
- Innovations in American English;
- Abbreviations as lexical units of business English;
- The most common acronyms in the areas of networks.

The third chapter shows publicistic style and the most common acronyms in the areas of networks rests on the analysis of newspaper article entitled "The Evolution of Third-generation Cellular Standards". The analysis of the rest abbreviation groups in scientific texts is based on the analysis of the dictionaries: Bloomsbury Dictionary of New Words; The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English; The Longman Register of New Words; Longman Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs; Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English; Webster's New World Dictionary of American English; Trofimova Z. Dictionary of New Words and New Meanings.[3]

Our investigation also identifies and formulates the basic characteristics and tendencies of English shortenings. The method that has been adopted to explore the topic and carry out the analysis combines ***descriptive, historical and comparative approaches.***

In ***the conclusion*** the major results of the investigation will be assessed and summarized.

The present graduation paper provides the list of references and literature.

In Appendix we present the Glossary of shortenings in computer language studied in our paper.

CHAPTER I LINGUISTIC ESSENCE OF CURTAILMENT

1.1. **Criteria for differentiation between different types of abbreviation**

Abbreviations have been used as long as phonetic scripts have existed, in some sense

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[3] Bloomsbury Dictionary of New Words. M., 1996; The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English. Oxford. 1964; The Longman Register of New Words. M., 1990; Longman Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs. M., 1986; Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English. Longman Group UK   Ltd., 1992; Webster's New World Dictionary of American English. N.Y., 1978; Trofimova Z. Dictionary of New Words and New Meanings. M.: Изд. «Павлин», 1993.

actually being more common in early literacy, where spelling out a whole word was often avoided, initial letters commonly being used to represent words in specific application. By classical Greece and Rome, the reduction of words to single letters was still normal, but no longer a default. An increase in literacy has, historically, sometimes spawned a trend toward abbreviation.

During the growth of philological linguistic theory in academic Britain, abbreviating became very fashionable. The use of abbreviation for the names of J. R. R. Tolkien and his friend C. S. Lewis, and other members of the Oxford literary group known as the Inklings, are sometimes cited as symptomatic of this. Likewise, a century earlier in Boston, a fad of abbreviation started that swept the United States, with the globally popular term **OK** generally credited as a remnant of its influence. After World War II, the British greatly reduced the use of the full stop and other punctuation points after abbreviations in at least semi-formal writing, while the Americans more readily kept such use until more recently, and still maintain it more than Britons. The classic example, considered by their American counterparts quite curious, was the maintenance of the internal comma in a British organization of secret agents called the "Special Operations, Executive" — "S.O.,E" — which is not found in histories written after about 1960. Every day more and more abbreviations appear, and old ones die. No sooner had we learned to refer to the Common Market as the EC rather than the EEC, than it became the EU.

Actually, it is acceptable to write abbreviations either with or without full stops, but the trend is towards leaving them out, as in BBC or Prof S. Potter.[4] Punchy writing such as that found in advertisements tends to leave out full stops, whereas formal non-technical writing is more traditional, and full stops are often used.

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.

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[4] Potter S. Modern Linguistics. Lnd., 1957. P. 89.

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 omitting 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 eh tee oh]. 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 are *UNESCO*, *Amstrad*, *GATT*, *ACORN*, *dinky*, *Aids*, *laser*, *ERNIE*, and *CLEAR*. A few abbreviations are pronounced both ways, *VAT* being the prime example. Acronyms are often new words. [5]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

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[5] Bloomsbury Dictionary of New Words. M. 1996.

helps to disguise it. This is the type 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.[6] 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

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[6] Webster's New World Dictionary of American English. N.Y. 1978.

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. [7]

1.2. Graphical abbreviations

Distinction should be made between shorten-" ing which results in new l e x i c a l items and a specific type of shortening proper only to written speech resulting in numerous g r a p h i c a l abbreviations which are only signs representing words and word-groups of high frequency of occurrence in various spheres of human activity as for instance, **RD** for **Road** and **St** for **Street** in addresses on envelopes and in letters; **tu** for **tube, aer** 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.: i.e. (L. id est) — 'that is'; **R.S.V.P.** *(Fr.* — Repondez s'il vous plait) — 'reply please', etc.

Graphical abbreviations are restricted in use to written speech, occurring only in various kinds of texts, articles, books, advertisements, letters, etc. 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 are usually read as their English equivalents. It follows that graphical abbreviations cannot be considered new lexical vocabulary units.

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 self-contained lexical units used both in oral and written speech. That is the case, for instance, with a.m. ['ei'em] — 'in the morning, before noon'; p.m. ['pi:'em] — 'in the afternoon'; **S.O.S.** ['es 'ou 'es] (=Save Our Souls) — 'urgent call for help', etc.

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[7] Adams V. Introduction into English Word formation. Lnd., 1983 . P. 68.

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 example 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 :[8]

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.

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[8] Akhmanova O.S. Lexicology: Theory and Method. M. 1972. P. 89.

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.

1.3. Initialisms and their properties

Initialisms are the bordering case between graphical and lexical abbreviations.[9] 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:[10]

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 (Computor-based Laboratory for Automated School System).

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

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[9] Ginzburg R.S. et al. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. M., 1979. P.134.
[10] Арнольд И.В. Лексикология современного английского языка. M. 1959. P. 90.

Some initialisms can form new words in which they act as root morphemes by different ways of word-building:

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.[11]

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.

1.4. Lexical shortenings and their typical features

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

Abbreviation does not change the part-of-speech meaning, as we have it in the case of conversion or affixation, it produces words belonging to the same part of speech as the primary word, e.g. prof is a noun and professor is also a noun. Mostly nouns undergo abbreviation, but we can also meet abbreviation of verbs, such as to rev from to revolve, to tab from to tabulate etc. But mostly abbreviated forms of verbs are formed by means of conversion from abbreviated nouns, e.g. to taxi, to vac etc. Adjectives can be abbreviated but they are mostly used in school slang and are combined with suffixation, e.g. comfy, dilly, mizzy etc. As a rule pronoun, numerals, interjections, conjunctions are not abbreviated. The exceptions are: fif (fifteen), teen-ager, in one's teens (aphaeresis from numerals from 13 to 19).

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[11] Akhmanova O.S. Lexicology: Theory and Method. M. 1972. P. 92.

Lexical abbreviations are classified according to the part of the word which is clipped. A c r o n y m s and l e t t e r a b b r e v i a t i o n s are lexical abbreviations of a phrase. There are different types of such abbreviations and there is no unanimity of opinion among scholars whether all of them can be regarded as regular vocabulary units. It seems logical to make distinction between acronyms and letter abbreviations. Letter abbreviations are mere replacements of longer phrases including names of well-known organisations of undeniable currency, names of agencies and institutions, political parties, famous people, names of official offices, etc. They are not spoken or treated as words but pronounced letter by letter and as a rule possess no other linguistic forms proper to words. The following may serve as examples of such abbreviations: **CBW** = chemical and biological warfare, **DOD** = Department of Defence (of the USA), **1TV** = Independent Television, Instructional Television, **SST** = supersonic transport, etc. It should be remembered that the border-line between letter abbreviations and true acronyms is fluid and many letter abbreviations in the course of time may turn into regular vocabulary units. Occasionally letter abbreviations are given 'pronunciation spelling' as for instance **dejay** (= D.J. = disc jokey), **emce** (= M.C. = master of ceremonies) in which case they tend to pass over into true acronyms.

A c r o n y m s are regular vocabulary units spoken as words. They are formed in various ways:

2) 1) from the initial letters or syllables of a phrase, which may be pronounced differently a) as a succession of sounds denoted by the constituent letters forming a syllabic pattern, i.e. as regular words, e.g. **UNO** ['ju:nou] = United Nations Organisations; **NATO** ['neitou] = North Atlantic Treaty Organisation, **UNESCO** [ju:'neskou]; **laser** ['leisa] = = light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation; **radar** ['reidə] = =radio detection and ranging; **BMEWS** ['bi:mju:z] = Ballistic Missile Early Warning System; b) as a succession of the alphabetical readings of the constituent letters as in, e.g., **YCL** ['wai'si:'el] = Young Communist League; **BBC** ['bi:'bi:'si:] = British Broadcasting Corporation; **MP** ['em'pi:] = Member of

Parliament; **SOS** ['es'ou'es] = Save Our Souls.   Acronyms may be formed from the initial syllables of each **word** of the phrase, e.g. **Interpol** = inter/national pol/ice; **tacsatcom** = Tactical Satellite Communications: **Capcom** = Capsule Communicator (the person at a space flight centre who communicates with the astronauts during a space flight).

3) Acronyms may be formed by a combination of the abbreviation of the first or the first two members of the phrase with the last member undergoing no change at all, e.g. **V-day** = Victory Day; **H-bomb** = = hydrogen bomb; **g-force** = gravity force, etc.

All acronyms unlike letter abbreviations perform the syntactical functions of ordinary words taking on grammatical inflexions, e.g. **MPs** (will attack huge arms bill), **M.P's** (concern at . . .). They also serve as derivational bases for derived words and easily collocate with derivational suffixes as, e.g. **YCLer** (= member of the YCL); **MPess** (= woman-member of Parliament); **radarman,** etc.

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 usage:[12]

aggro /aggression/

Algol / algorythmic language/

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

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[12] From: The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English. Oxford 1964.

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/

Bar-B-Q, barb /barbecue/

to baby-sit / baby-sitter/

A-level /advanced level/

BC /birth certificate/

Burger /hamberger/   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/

Etc   Euratom   fax /facsimile/

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

1.5. Telescoping words manufactured according to telescopy

Blends are words formed from a word-group or two synonyms.[13] In blends two ways
of word-building are combined: abbreviation and composition. To form a blend we
clip the end of the first component (apocope) and the beginning of the second

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[13]Maurer D.W., High F.C. New Words - Where do they come from and where do they go.   American Speech., 1982. P. 45.

component (aphaeresis). As a result we have a compound- shortened word. One of the first blends in English was the word «smog» from two synonyms: smoke and fog which means smoke mixed with fog. From the first component the beginning is taken, from the second one the end, «o» is common for both of them. **B l e n d i n g s** are the result of conscious creation of words by merging irregular fragments of several words which are aptly called "splinters." [1] Splinters assume different shapes — they may be severed from the source word at a morpheme boundary as in **transceiver** (=transmitter and receiver), transistor (= transfer and resistor) or at a syllable boundary like cute (from *execute)* **in electrocute, medicare** (from *medical care),* **polutician** (from *pollute* and *politician)* or boundaries of both kinds may be disregarded as in **brunch** (from *breakfast* and *lunch),* **smog** (from **smoke** and *fog),* **ballute** (from *baloon* and *parachute),* etc. Many blends show some degree of overlapping of vowels, consonants and syllables or echo the word or word fragment it replaces. This device is often used to attain punning effect, as in **foolosopher** echoing **philosopher; icecapade** (= spectacular shows on ice) echoing **escapade; baloonatic** (= baloon and lunatic).

Blends are coined not infrequently in scientific and **technical language** as a means of naming new things, as trade names in advertisements. Since blends break the rules of morphology they result in original combinations which catch quickly. Most of the blends have a colloquial flavour. Blends formed from two synonyms are: slanguange, to hustle, gasohol etc. Mostly blends are formed from a word-group, such as: acromania (acronym mania), cinemadict (cinema adict), chunnel (channel, canal), dramedy (drama comedy), detectifiction (detective fiction), faction (fact fiction) (fiction based on real facts), informecial (information commercial), Medicare (medical care), magalog (magazine catalogue) slimnastics (slimming gymnastics), sociolite (social elite), slanguist (slang linguist) etc.

1.6. Back formation

It is the way of word-building when a word is formed by dropping the final morpheme to form a new word. It is opposite to suffixation that is why it is called

back formation. At first it appeared in the language as a result of misunderstanding the structure of a borrowed word. Prof. Silis explains this mistake by the influence of the whole system of the language on separate words.[14] E.g. it is typical of English to form nouns denoting the agent of the action by adding the suffix -er to a verb stem (speak- speaker). So when the French word «beggar» was borrowed into English the final syllable «ar» was pronounced in the same way as the English -er and Englishmen formed the verb «to beg» by dropping the end of the noun. Other examples of back formation are: to accreditate (from accreditation), to bach (from bachelor), to collocate (from collocation), to enthuse (from enthusiasm), to compute (from computer), to emote (from emotion) to reminisce (from reminiscence), to televise (from television) etc.

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

1.7. The peculiarities of appliance of abbreviations in modern English

Newspaper style has the specific peculiarities, which influence the process of translation. The purpose of materials of this style is in going certain information from the certain point of view and reaching the desired influence on the reader. Newspaper carry information which differs from the one about science and technique, in particular, they speak about the phenomena, understandable to a layer of non-specialists, directly or indirectly connected with their lives and interests. As the main purpose of the style is in giving the certain facts, it demands the usage of exact notions and phenomena. Hence we have an important role of terms and names, pointing directly to the object of an idea.

Political terminology, which is especially characteristic for newspaper style, has the same main features, peculiar to the terminology of science and technique. At the same time there are some differences between them, connected with a less strictness and regulation of systems of terms in social and political sphere, and also with the dependence of notions of some terms on corresponding ideological concepts.

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[14] Силис Я.Я. Лингвистическое и социальное в неологии британского варианта современного английского обращения. Неологизмы в лексике, грамматике и фонетике. Рига , 1985. С. 85.

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. In 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:

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.

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.

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 certains, 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,

E.g. GOP = Grand Old (Republican) Party,

E.g. DD = Defense Department.

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

a) Surnames and names of famous political figures:

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

b) Geographical names:[15]

AFEW - AIDS Foundation East-West

AIDS - Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome

ARV - Antiretroviral

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

GIDO - Group of International Donor Organizations

HIV - Human Immunodeficiency Virus

HR - Harm Reduction

IDU - Injecting Drug User(s)

INTRAC - International NGO Training and Research Centre

KAPB - Knowledge, attitude, practices and behavior surveys

KNCV - Royal Netherlands Tuberculosis Association

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[15] Апресян Ю.Д. Новый большой англо-русский словарь М. 1993.

MATRA - Maatschappelijke Transitie (Dutch Ministry of Foreign Affairs)

MSF-H - Medecins Sans Frontires – Holland

MTCT - Mother-to-child transmission of HIV

NGO - Non-governmental organization

NIS - Newly Independent States (of the former Soviet Union)

NOVIB - Oxfam, The Netherlands

OSCE - Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe

OSI - Open Society Institute

PLWHA - Person(s) living with HIV/AIDS

POBB - Project Ondersteuning Buitenlandse Zaken (Dutch Ministry of Foreign Affairs)

RF - Russian Federation

SIDA - Swedish International Development Agency

STI - Sexually transmitted infection(s)

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

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

TB - Tuberculosis

UN - United Nations

UNAIDS - Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS

UNGASS - United Nations General Assembly Special Session

USAID - United States Agency for International Development

WHO - World Health Organization.

c) **Titles before names:**[16]

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

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[16]Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English. Longman Group UK   Ltd., 1992.

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 consistent with Mr. and Mrs.

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"). Incidentally, we cannot say "We invited the reverend to dinner" and only a cad would invite "the rev."

d)   Titles after names:[17]

Sr., Jr., Ph.D., M.D., B.A., M.A., D.D.S.

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."

The Chicago Manual of Style recommends <u>not</u> using a comma to separate the Jr./Sr./III from the last name, but you should follow the preferences of the individual

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[17] Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English.   Longman Group UK   Ltd., 1992.

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.

e) 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.).

f) 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.

g) Long, common phrases, [18]

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.

h) Words used with numbers: He left at 2:00 a.m. She was born in 1520 B.C.

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[18] Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English. Longman Group UK   Ltd., 1992.

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."

i) Common Latin terms: [19]

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.

The *Chicago Manual of Style* recommends using a comma after i.e. or e.g. in order to set off those abbreviations as introductory modifiers. Other resources say not to bother with the comma, but the comma makes good sense.

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[19] Canon G. Historical Changes and English Word formation: New Vocabulary items. N.Y., 1986. P. 201.

j) Names of states and territories[20]

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 envelopes.

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:[21] (In 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.

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

[21] According to: Quirk R. Style and Communication in the English Language. Lnd., 1980.

- 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 poli sci (for political science).

k) Spacing and Periods[22]

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: 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.

People's initials are usually followed by a period and a space — W. E. B. DuBois — but you need to be careful that a line-break doesn't come in the middle of someone's initials. (You can impose what is called a "forced space" or "non-breaking space" by holding down the option key while you hit the space bar.) You will find exceptions to this rule in the way that some companies write their name: JCPenney (no spaces or periods), L.L. Bean (no space in the initials), etc. In normal text, writers can safely ignore corporate aberrations in spacing and capitalization. (Some editors write Harry S Truman without a period after the "S," because the initial didn't really stand for anything, but the Truman Presidential Museum and Library contends that

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

that practice is silly. Still, you will often find Truman's name written sans period in highly regarded places.) When a person's initials stand alone — either as a nickname, "Come here, JT!" — or as a common shortcut — JFK (for John Fitzgerald Kennedy) or LBJ (for Lyndon Baines Johnson) — type them without spaces or periods. Professional designations such as CPA (Certified Public Accountant) or CLU (Certified Life Underwriter) are separated from the last name with a comma and are written without spaces or periods, as in Bertha Bigknot, CPA, unless the designation is accompanied by an academic degree, as in Foxy Reynard, Ph.D., and C.L.U. Except in the business of formally citing material you've used in research, it's a good idea not to use et al. when you mean "and others." And don't use etc. as a lazy person's way of getting out of work. Spell out the word *versus* unless you're reporting game scores, when you would use vs.; when you're citing legal documents, use the abbreviation v.

Using articles with abbreviations and acronyms:[23]

One of the most often asked questions about grammar has to do with the choice of articles - *a, an, the* - to precede an abbreviation or acronym. Do we say *an* FBI agent or *a* FBI agent? Although "F" is obviously a consonant and we would precede any word that begins with "F" with "a," we precede FBI with "an" because the first sound we make when we say FBI is not an "f-sound," it is an "eff-sound." Thus we say we're going to *a* PTO meeting where *an* NCO will address us. We say we saw *a* UFO because, although the abbreviation begins with a 'U," we pronounce the "U" as if it were spelled "yoo." Whether we say *an* URL or *a* URL, it depends on whether we pronounce it as "earl" or as "u*r*l."

Summary to the first Chapter:

Some organizations deliberately choose terms for products, projects, or equipment so that the initials will make an existing name. Campaigning

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[23] Potter S. Modern Linguistics. Lnd., 1957. P. 48.

organizations, in particular, choose names to yield an acronym that is suggestive of their aims. The form in which acronyms are written varies.

One problem with abbreviations that are pronounceable as words is that when you meet a new one in print, you may not know which way to say it. This is more of a problem now that all abbreviations, not just acronyms, tend to be written without full stops. A full stop after each letter usually means that the abbreviation is pronounced as a string of letters.

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.

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. The oldest group of graphical abbreviations in English is of Latin origin. In Russian this type of abbreviation is not typical. The second one helps to follow the stylistic peculiarities and functions of the abbreviations in modern English.

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. There are three types of initialisms in English: initialisms with alphabetical reading; initialisms which are read as if they are words; initialisms which coincide with English words in their sound form, such initialisms are called acronyms.

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. Mostly nouns undergo abbreviation, but we can also meet abbreviation of verbs. But mostly abbreviated forms of verbs are formed by means of conversion from abbreviated nouns. Adjectives can be abbreviated but they are mostly used in school slang and are combined with suffixation. As a rule, pronouns, numerals, interjections conjunctions are not abbreviated.

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.

CHAPTER II VARIATIONS OF THE USE OF ABBREVIATION DEPENDING ON LANGUAGE STYLE

Here is a guide to the most important abbreviations and on how to use them. We should begin with examples of usage in official speech.

2.1. Common abbreviations[24]

Here are a few examples of abbreviations that are common in the English language.

FO Foreign Office

HO Home Office

BBC British Broadcasting Corporation

RAF Royal Air Force

i.e. id est (that is)

m.p.h. miles per hour

I.Q. Intelligence Quota

B&B Bed and Breakfast

DIY Do it Yourself

2.2. Abbreviations as scientific words[25]

CCAFS	Cape Canaveral Air Force Station
CCSDS	Consultative Committee for Space Data Systems
C&DH	command and data handling
CDU	command detector unit
DB/K	decibel per Kelvin
dBm	decibel referred to 1 milliwatt
deg	degree
DSN	Deep Space Network
DSS	Deep Space Station
EIRP	effective isotropic radiated power
ELS	eastern launch site

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[24] Апресян Ю.Д. Новый большой англо-русский словарь. М. 1993.
[25] Webster's New World Dictionary of American English. N.Y. 1978.

EMC	electromagnetic compatibility
EMI	electromagnetic interference
ENG	engineering-only telemetry data stream
ER	electron reflect meter
ERR	eastern range regulation
ESMC	Eastern Space and Missile Center
ET	ephemeris time
FED-STD	federal standard
FOV	field of view
GFP	government-furnished property
GSE	ground support equipment
G/T	gain/temperature
Hz	hertz
IAU	International Astronomical Unit
ICD	interface control document
ID	identification
IFOV	instrument field of view
JPL	Jet Propulsion Laboratory
KABLE	Ka-band link experiment
Kb/S	kilobits per second
keV	thousand electron volts
kHz	kilohertz
KSC	Kennedy Space Center
ks/s	kilo symbols per second
L	launch
m	meter
MAG	magnetometer
MBR	Mars balloon relay
MEF	maximum expected flight

MDA	McDonnell Douglas Aerospace
MIL-STD	military standard
MGS	Mars Global Surveyor
MOC	Mars orbiter camera
MOI	Mars orbit insertion
MOLA	Mars orbiter laser altimeter
MOS	mission operations system
MR	Mars relay
mrad	mill radian
mW	mill watt
N/A	not applicable
NASA	National Aeronautics and Space Administration
NHB	NASA Handbook
nT	nanotesla
OTM	orbit trim maneuver
PDS	payload data subsystem
POR	power-on reset
RF	radio frequency
RFP	request for proposal
RS	radio science
RSS	root sum square
RTC	real-time commands
SBRC	Santa Barbara Research Center
SDS	spacecraft data storage
S/C	spacecraft
S&E-1	science and engineering data stream 1
S&E-2	science and engineering data stream 2
SEE	single-event effects

SEL	single-event latchups
SEU	single-event upset
SFOC	Space Flight Operations Center
SPE	static phase error
sr	steradian
SRFOV	stray radiation field of view
SSC	stored sequence commands
TCM	trajectory correction maneuver
TES	thermal emission spectrometer
USO	ultrastable oscillator
VDIR	view direction

2.3. Internet abbreviation

Internet slang (Internet language, Internet Short hand, let, net speak or chat speak or chats speak) is a type of slang that Internet users have popularized and in many cases, have coined. Such terms often originate with the purpose of saving keystrokes. Many people use the same abbreviations in texting and instant messaging and social networking websites. Acronyms, keyboard symbols and shortened words are often used as methods of abbreviation in Internet slang. New dialect of slang, such as let or Lolspeak, develop as in group memes rather than time savers. In let speak, letters may be replaced by characters of similar appearance, let is often written as 133 or 1337 origins.

In 1975, Raphael Finkel of Stanford University complied a collection of hacker slang, the Jargon File, from technical cultures, such as the MITAI Lab, the Stanford AILAB, the Stanford AI Lab (SAIL) and others, of the old ARPANET / AI /LISPPPP- 10 communities. Two items on this list in current use as Internet slang are " flame " and " loser ". By 1990, the Jargon File had been enriched with examples of shortened used in talk mode between two terminals, (for example, " BTW ", " FYI " and

" TNX") as well some slang expressions in use Usenet and new commercial networks like Compo Serve (for example, " LOL ", " FOTF " and " AFK ") A Computer world article, discussing to origin of several current web slang terms, cites a still – online Fido Net article from 1989, which displays emoticons in addition to all – caps shortcuts like " LOL ".

" BRB " and " TYT ".[26]

Use beyond computer – mediated communication this article contains IPA phonic symbols. Without proper rendering support, you may see question marks, boxes, or other symbols instead of Unicode characters.

Many items of Internet jargon cross from computer – mediated communication to face – to – face communication. For example, The New York Times " Buzzwords of 2008 " article includes: " FAIL ", long photo,

(a term coined by Flicker for videos less than 90 seconds long), " DWT "

(Driving While Texting) and various terms shorting with " tw – ", inspired by the web service Twitter.

Teenagers now sometimes use Internet acronyms in spoken communication as in written, for example: ROFL (pronounced / ro ^ fel / or / ^ r ^fel /) and LOL (pronounced / ^o ^l /, ^ l ^ l /or /^ lo ^^^ l /). David Crystal says that the crossover from written slang to speech is " a brand new variety of language evolving, invented really by young people, within five years ".

Other commentators disagree, saying that these new words, being abbreviations for existing, long – used, phrases, don not " enrich " anything: they just shorten it. Furthermore, linguist Geoffrey K.Pullum of the University of Edinburgh states that even if interjections such b as LOL and ROFL were to become very common in spoken English, their " total effect on language " would be " utterly trivial ".

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[26] Смирницкий А.И " Лексикология английского языка " М,1956 p.163

Laccettie, a professor of humanities at Stevens Institute of Technology and Molsk, in their essay entitled The Lost Art of Writing are critical of the acronyms, predicting reduced chances of employment for students worn use such acronyms stating that, " Unfortunately for these students, their bosses will not be " LOL " when they read a report that lacks proper punctuation and grammar, has numerous misspellings, various made – up words and silly acronyms. " Fondiller and Nerone ", in their style manual, assert that " professional or business communication should never be careless or poorly constructed " whether one is writing an electronic mail message or an article for publication and warn against the use of smiley and these abbreviations, stating that they are no " no more than e – mail slang and have no place in business communication ". Younker and Barry, in a studyof online courses and how they can be improved through pod casting, have found that these acronyms, as well as emoticons, are " often misunderstood " by students and " difficult to decipher " unless their meanings are explained in advance. They single out shorten it. Further more, linguist Geoffrey K.Pullum of the University of Edinburgh states that even if interjections such as LOL and ROFL were to become very common in spoken English their " total effect on language " would be " utterly trivial ".

Laccetti, a professor of humanities at Stevens Institute of Technology and Molsk, in their essay entitled The Lost Art of Writing are critical of the acronyms, predicting reduced chances of employment for students wrong use such acronyms stating that, " Unfortunately for these students, their bosses will not be " lol " when they read a report that lacks proper punctuation and grammar, has numerous misspellings, various made – up words, and silly acronyms. " Fondiller and Nerone, in their style   manual, assert that " professional or business communication should   never be careless or poorly constructed " whether one is writing an electronic mail message or an article for publication and warn against the use of smiley and these abbreviations,

stating that they are " no more than e – mail slang and have no place in business communication ", Yunker and Barry, in a study of online courses and how they can be improved through podcasting, have found that these acronyms, as well as emoticons, are " often misunderstood " by students and are " difficult to decipher " unless their meanings are explained in advance. They single out the example of " ROFL " as not obviously being the abbreviation of " rolling on the floor laughing " (emphasis added). Haig singles out LOL as one of there most popular initializes in Internet slang, alongside BFN ("bye for now ") and IMHO (" in my humble opinion "). In general, he describes these acronyms and the various initializes of Internet slang as convenient, but warns that " as ever more obscure acronyms emerge they can also be rather confusing ". Likewise, Bidgoli states that these initializes " save key strokes for the sender but […] might make comprehension of the message more difficult for the reviewer " and that " [s] Lang may hold different meanings and lead to misunderstandings especially in international settings " ; he advises that they be used " only when you are sure that the other person knows the meaning ".

A 2003 study of college students by Naomi Baron found that use of initialize, even in computer – mediated communication (CMC) and specifically in instant messaging, was actually lower than she had expected. The students " used few abbreviations, acronyms and emoticons". The spelling was " reasonably good " and contractions were " not ubiquitous ". Out of 2,185 transmissions, there were 90 initializes in total, only 31 CMC style abbreviations, and 49 emoticons. Out of the 90 initialize, 76 were occurrence of " lol " . This passage lists some of the most common acronyms that you will find in the areas of networks, distributed object development.[27]The standard presented here includes rules for solving British and European culture and languages related information technology problems in the process of software and hardware products

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[27] Bloomsbury Dictionary of New Words. M. 1996.

development, especially considering the needs of information exchange between different systems.

3GL	third generation language
4GL	fourth generation language
ACI	atomicity, consistency, isolation, durability

D

ACL	access control list
ADT	abstract datatype
AFC	application foundation classes [Microsoft]
ANS	American National Standards Institute

I

API	application program interface
AQ	advanced queuing [Oracle8]
ASC	American standard code for information interchange

II

AW	abstract windowing toolkit [Java]

T

BDK	beans developer kit [Java]
BLO	binary large object

B

BOA	basic object adapter [CORBA]

	BSD	Berkeley system distribution [UNIX]
	C/S	client/server
	CGI	common gateway interface
	CIC	customer information control system [IBM]
S		
	CLI	call level interface [SAG]
	CLO	character large object
B		
	CO	common object model [Microsoft]
M		
	COR	common object request broker architecture [OMG]
BA		
	DB	database
	DBA	database administrator, database administration
	DB	database management system
MS		
	DCE	distributed computing environment [OSF]
	DCO	distributed common object model [Microsoft]
M		
	DDC	distributed document component facility
F		
	DDE	dynamic data exchange [Microsoft]

DDL   data definition language [SQL]

DLL   dynamic link library [Microsoft]

DL   distributed lock manager [Oracle8]

M

DM   data manipulation language [SQL]

L

DOS   disk operating system

DSO   distributed system object model [IBM]

M

DSS   decision support system

DTP   distributed transaction processing

EBC   extended binary-coded decimal interchange code [IBM]

DIC

EJB   Enterprise JavaBean

ERP   enterprise resource planning

ESI   environment-specific inter-orb protocol

OP

FTP   file transfer protocol

GB   gigabyte

GIF   graphics interchange format

GIO   general inter-orb protocol

P

GUI   graphical user interface

GUI   globally-unique identifier

D

HT   hypertext markup language

ML

HTT   hypertext transfer protocol

P

IDE   integrated development environment, interactive   development

         environment

IDL   interface definition language

IEEE   Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers

IIOP   internet inter-ORB protocol

IP   internet protocol

IPC   interprocess communication

IS   information services

ISA   indexed sequential access method

M

ISO   international standards organization (translation)

ISP   internet service provider

ISQ   interactive SQL [Interbase]

L

43

	ISV	independent software vendor
	IT	information technology
	JAR	Java archive (on analogy with tar, q.v.)
	JCK	Java compatibility kit [Sun]
	JDB	"Java database connectivity"
C		
	JDK	Java developer kit
	JFC	Java foundation classes
	JIT	just in time
	JNDI	Java naming and directory interface
	JNI	Java native interface
	JOB	Java Objects for Business [Sun]
	JPE	joint photographic experts group
G		
	JSP	Java server pages [Sun]
	JTA	Java transaction API
	JTS	Java transaction service
	KB	kilobyte
	LAN	local area network
	LDA	lightweight directory access protocol

P

LDI LDPA data interchange format

F

LOB large object

MB megabyte

MIS management information services

MO message-oriented middleware

M

MPE motion picture experts group

G

NCL national character large object

OB

NIC network information center [internet]

NNT net news transfer protocol

P

NSP network service provider

NT New Technology [Microsoft]

OCI Oracle call interface

OCX OLE common control [Microsoft]

ODB open database connectivity [Microsoft]

C

ODB MS	object database management system	
ODL	object definition language [Microsoft]	
OD MG	Object Database Management Group	
OE M	original equipment manufacturer	
OID	object identifier	
OLE	object linking and embedding	
OLT P	on line transaction processing	
OM A	object management architecture [OMG]	
OM G	Object Management Group	
OO	object-oriented, object orientation	
OOD BMS	object-oriented database management system	
OQL	object query language	
ORB	object request broker	
ORD BMS	object relational database management system	

	OS	operating system
	OSF	Open System Foundation
	OSI	open systems interconnect
	OSQ	object SQL
L		
	OT	object transaction monitor
M		
	OTS	object transaction service
	OW	Oracle Web Server
S		
	PB	petabyte
	PDF	portable document format [Adobe]
	PGP	pretty good privacy
	PL/S	procedural language/SQL [Oracle]
QL		
	POA	portable object adapter [CORBA]
	RA	random access memory
M		
	RAS	remote access service [Microsoft NT]
	RCS	revision control system

	RDB	relational database management system
MS		
	RFC	request for comments
	RFP	request for proposal
	RMI	remote method invocation [Sun]
	RO	read only memory
M		
	RPC	remote procedure call
	RTF	rich text file
	SAG	SQL Access Group
	SCSI	small computer system interface
	SDK	software developer kit
	SET	secure electronic transaction
	SGM	standard generalized markup language
L		
	SID	system identifier [Oracle]
	SLA	standalone LDAP daemon
PD		

	SMP	symmetric multiprocessing
	SMT	simple mail transfer protocol
P		
	SPI	service provider interface
	SQL	structured query language
	SQL	SQL for Java
J		
	SRA	static (or synchronous) random access memory
M		
	SSL	secure socket layer
	TB	terabyte
	TCP	TCP for SSL
S		
	TCP/	transmission control protocol/internet protocol
IP		
	TP	transaction processing
	TPC	Transaction Processing Council
	TPC	TPC Web benchmark
W		
	TPF	transaction processing facility
	TPM	transaction processing monitor

UCS   universal character set [ISO 10646]

UDP   user Titograd protocol

UI   user interface

UM   unified modeling language [Rational]

L

URL   universal resource locator

VAR   value-added reseller

VR   virtual reality modeling language

ML

WA   wide area network

N

WIP   web interactions per second [TPCW]

S

WW   world wide web

W

XA   extended architecture [X/Open]

XM   extended markup language

L

jdb   Java debugger [Sun]

tar   tape archive, tape archiver [UNIX]

tps   transactions per second

2.4. Abbreviation-Innovations in American English

It's necessary to follow any innovations in *American English* for avoiding

false interpretation.[28]

For instance, splash headline (instead of British- big headline);

яркое рекламное объявление (на суперобложке) blurb (instead of British - bright ad); *поместить статью на незаметном месте* to bury a story (instead of British - to place an item on the back);

окончательный срок (представления материалов) deadline (instead of British - final date);

пресса (представители печати) the Fourth estate (possibly — the representatives of the press).

American English abbreviations

Table1

| A.C. alternating current

A.D. (Latin) anno Domini "in the year of the Lord"

a.k.a. also known as (referring to a second, well-known name)

a.m. (Latin) ante meridian (time period; midnight to noon)

apt. apartment | M.D. Medicineane Doctor (Doctor of Medicine)

med. medium (size)

M.F.A. Master of Fine Arts (academic degree)

mdse. merchandise

Mgr. manager

MHZ megahertz

M.I.A. missing in action (military) |

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[28] Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English. Longman Group UK Ltd.. 1992.

ASAP as soon as possible

AV audio-visual

Ave. Avenue

AWOL absent without leave (military)

B.A. Bachelor of Arts (academic degree)

BBQ,

Bar-BQ barbeque

Bldg. building

BMOC "Big Man on Campus" (unofficial college title)

Boul. Boulevard

Bros. brothers

B.S. Bachelor of Science (academic degree)

B.T.U. British Thermal Unit

bx. box

misc. miscellaneous

mph. miles per hour

M.S. Masters of Science (academic degree)

ms(s) manuscript

msg. message

MSG monosodium glutamate (food seasoning)

Madison Square Garden (stadium in New York City)

M.S.W. Masters of Social Work (academic degree)

Mt (s). mountain(s)

Natl. national

n.b. (Latin) nota bene "take note"

no. number

nt. wt. net weight

O.E.D. Oxford English Dictionary

BYOB bring your own bottle/booze (type of informal party)

C. Centigrade scale

c., ca. circa (about); c. also for cup (cooking measurement)

C.E.O. chief executive officer (business)

C.O.D. cash on delivery

C.P.A. Certified Public Accountant

cop., c. copyright

Corp. corporation

C & W country and western music

D.C. District of Columbia (Washington, D.C.); direct current

D-Day the Allies' Normandy Invasion of Europe, June 6, 1944

o.j. orange juice

oz. ounce

PA public address (system)

pd. paid

P.E. physical education

pg. page

p.m. (Latin) post meridiem (time period; noon to midnight)

P.O.

(box) post office (box)

P.O.E. port of entry

P.O.W. prisoner of war (military)

PDQ "pretty darn quick" – fast

p.s. (Latin) post scriptum "post script" (note at end of letter)

D.D.S. Doctor of Dental Surgery (dentist)

DNA deoxyribonucleic acid

DOA dead on arrival

dz. dozen (l2)

ed. edition, editor

e.g. (Latin) exempli gratia "for example"

EKG electrocardiogram

encl. enclosed

esp. especially

ESP extrasensory perception

et. al. (Latin) et ali "and others"

ESA estimated time of arrival

etc. (Latin) et cetera "and so forth"

"p's and q's" manners, etiquette

pt. pint

"3 R's" "reading, (w)riting, and (a)rithmetic": basic education

R & B rhythm and blues music

R & D research and development

Rev. Reverend (religious)

RFD rural free delivery (postal)

R.I.P. "rest in peace" (gravestone marker)

REM rapid eye movement

R.N. registered nurse

rpm (s) revolution per minute

F. Fahrenheit scale

fl. oz. fluid ounce

FYI for your information

G.O.P. Grand Old Party (Republican Party)

GNP gross national product

gyn gynecology

hp horsepower

H.Q.,

hdqts. headquarters

hrs. hours

H.R.H. Her Royal Highness (Britain)

ht. height

I.D. identification (papers, card)

i.e. (Latin) id est "that is"

Inc. incorporated

RR railroad

RSVP (French) respondez s'il vous plait "please respond"

S.A.S.E. self-addressed stamped envelope

sm. small (size)

Sr. senior (father whose son is given the same name; see Jr.)

SRO standing room only (public event)

St. saint (St. Louis, MO); street

SWAK sealed with a kiss (on envelope of romantic letter)

TB tuberculosis

Tbsp. tablespoon

tsp. teaspoon (cooking measurements)

TGIF "thank God (goodness) it's Friday" (office

incl. included

Intl. international

I.Q. intelligence quotient

Is. island

ISBN International Standard Book Number

IRS Internal Revenue Service (U.S. taxes)

ital. italic (script)

IV intravenous

J.D. Juries Doctor (Doctor of Law), lawyer

J.P. Justice of the Peace

Jr. junior (named after his father)

JV junior varsity (sports)

K.P. "kitchen police" (military kitchen duty)

K.O. knockout (boxing)

lb. (Latin) libra "pound"

worker's slogan)

TLC tender loving care

UFO unidentified flying object

UHF ultra high frequency

VCR video cassette recorder/player

V-E Day Allies declared "Victory in Europe", May 8, 1945

VIP "Very Important Person"

V-J Day Allies declared "Victory in Japan", august 15, 1945

vs. versus (against)

x signature of an illiterate person; an unknown or unnamed quantity, factor, person or thing; by, in a measurement (2" x 4")

x'd to delete or cancel

lg., lge large (size) **M.A.** Master of Arts (academic degree) **M.B.A.** Master of Business Administration (academic degree)	with a series of x's **X-mas** Christmas ***zzzzz,*** **z's** sound of someone sleeping or snoring

2.5. Abbreviations as lexical units of business English

Abbreviations are very essential for business lexical units. We have composed semi-official letter. Examining of letter will demonstrate the functions of shortenings in business English.

MATTHEWS & WILSON

Ladies' Clothing

421 Michigan Avenue

Chicago, III.60602

Messrs GRANT & CLARKSON

148 Mortimer Street

London WIC 37D

England   October 21, 1993

Gentlemen:

We saw your women's dresses and suits at the London Fashion Show held in New York on October 17. The lines you showed for teenagers, the "Swinger" dresses and trouser suits would be most suitable for our market.

Would you kindly send us your quotation for spring and summer clothing that you could supply to us by the end of January next? We would require 2,000 dresses and suits in each of the sizes 10-14, and 500 in sizes 8 and 16. Please quote c.i.f. Chicago prices. Payment is normally made by letter of credit.

Thank you for an early reply.

Very truly yours,

P.Wilson.Jr

Buyer.

This is undoubtedly an import inquiry letter. In the first part of a letter there is a kind of introduction as a prospective customer approaches supplier for the first time ,and it is from this part that we found out that the correspondents are engaged in textile industry.

The second part expresses request for detailed information about the goods in question, their prices and terms of possible transaction.

In this example we come across the ***abbreviation concerning the terms of delivery*** that is commonly accepted in the business world. This kind of abbreviations means:

c.i.f. - cost, insurance, freight.

If consignment is to be delivered according to c.i.f., then the supplier insures the goods and pays for the whole delivery.

f.o.b. - free on board*.*

If consignment is to be delivered according to f.o.b., then the supplier pays for transportation to port, steamer or air shipment and dispatch; and the customer pays for onward transportation and insurance.

f.o.r. - free on rail*.*

It is the same as ***f.o.b.,*** but for railway transportation.

c & f - cost and freight*.*

If consignment is to be delivered according to ***c & f***, then the supplier pays for the whole delivery and the customer - for insurance.

It is worth mentioning here that the whole letter is written in a highly polite way, nevertheless it is quite precise and sticks to the point.

Summary to the second chapter

The abundance of abbreviations is the characteristic feature of newspaper style of modern English language. Besides, nowadays the computer systems hardware and especially the software are more and more often adjusted to the cultural and language peculiarities of a specific country and nation. In different countries, different alphabets and rules for coding currency units, date, time, numbers, etc. are in use. Sorting algorithms for verbal texts present a special kind of problem. English and culture have developed in close contacts with several languages and cultures, so we do not possess unique rules and algorithms to represent the above-mentioned data. Agreements developed in practical life need to be presented in the form of a standard. In most cases, it is possible to lean on international standards, yet they have to be somewhat extended and specified according to the peculiarities of the European languages and culture.

CHAPTER III LEXICO-SEMANTIC AND STRUCTURAL CHARACTERISTICS OF SHORTENING   IN COMPUTER SUB-LANGUAGE (CL)

Before we go to the discussion of the computer language, we would like to reflect about computers and acquaint the readers with the history of computers.

The modern world of high technology could not have come about without the invention of the computer. Computers are used throughout society for the storage and handling of data—from secret governmental files to banking transactions to private household accounts. Computers have opened up a new era in manufacturing through the techniques of automation, and they have enhanced modern communication, systems. They are essential tools in almost every field of research and applied technology, from the construction of models of the universe to the production of tomorrow's weather reports, and their use has in itself opened up new areas of conjecture. Database services and computer networks make available a great variety of information sources.

Computers come in a wide range of sizes. Supercomputers analyze massive, complexly interrelated sets of data. For example, they solve problems in aerodynamic design of supersonic aircraft, predict the weather, and come up with new designs for disease-specific drugs. Mainframe computers and their smaller cousins, minicomputers, are the workhorses of commerce and industry. These centralized machines maintain records, calculate payrolls, and analyze statistics, among many other jobs.

The familiar PERSONAL COMPUTER, also known as a PC, desktop computer, or microcomputer, is used for word processing, accounting, and record keeping in businesses and homes. In business and industry, employees use PCs for their everyday work and to access other computers, larger or more specialized, for work of greater complexity. Increasingly, PCs are also an instrument of communication and

information gathering through the *Internet*, and the *World Wide Web (WWW).*

As of December 30, 2007, 1.319 billion people use the Internet according to Internet World Stats. Writing in the Harvard International Review, philosopher N.J. Slabbert, a writer on policy issues for the Washington, D.C.–based Urban Land Institute, has asserted that the Internet is fast becoming a basic feature of global civilization, so that what has traditionally been called "civil society" is now becoming identical with information technology society as defined by Internet use.

History of the develpment of computers goes back to many centures ago.

The word "computer" means "calculate", i.e. mechanism for calculating. There were used count sticks, stones etc. for counting many years ago. The first mechanical adding machine, a precursor of the digital computer, was devised in 1642 by the French philosopher and mathematician Blaise Pascal. Also in the 19th century, the British mathematician and inventor Charles Babbage worked out the principles of the modern digital computer. He conceived a number of machines, such as the Difference Engine, that were designed to handle complicated mathematical problems.

The building of analogue computers began at the start of the 20th century. During both world wars, mechanical and, later, electrical analogue computing systems were used as torpedo course predictors in submarines and as bombsight controllers in aircraft. The first electronic computers appeared in the middle of 40th, the element bases of them were electronic lamps.[29]

The use of the transistor, in computers in the late 1950s marked the advent of smaller, faster, and more versatile logical elements than were possible with vacuum-tube machines. The first commercial computer to use transistors was developed in 1957 by Seymour R. Cray, a pioneer in the design of supercomputers. Because transistors use much less power and have a much longer life, this development alone was responsible for

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[29] www.history.com
* See Appendix I: Glossary of abbreviations of computer language

the improved machines called second-generation computers. Components became smaller, as did intercomponent spacings, and the system became much less expensive to build. In the late 1950s, the Integrated Circuit, or IC*, was introduced, making it possible for many transistors to be fabricated on one silicon substrate, or "chip," with interconnecting wires plated in place. The IC resulted in a further reduction in price, size, and failure rate. The microprocessor, became a reality in the mid-1970s with the introduction of the large scale IC (LSI) and, later, the very large scale IC (VLSI), with many thousands of interconnected transistors etched into a single silicon chip. Today, a single microprocessor chip may contain millions of transistors.

A computer must be given instructions in a "language" that it understands—that is, a particular pattern of binary digital information. Unfortunately, the computer's own binary-based language, or machine language, is difficult for humans to use. High-level languages often use words that are more like the English language—for example, *List, Print, Open,* and so on—as commands that might stand for a sequence of tens or hundreds of machine-language instructions. The commands are entered from the keyboard or from a program in memory or in a storage device, and they are intercepted by a program that translates them into machine-language instructions.

The first commercial programmer was probably computer scientist Grace Hopper, an American. After programming the Mark I, the experimental computer created by Aiken at Harvard, she worked on the UNIVAC I and II computers and developed a commercially usable high-level programming language called FLOW-MATIC. To facilitate computer use in scientific applications, IBM then developed a language that would simplify work involving complicated mathematical formulas. Begun in 1954 and completed in 1957, FORTRAN*, (q.v.; FORmula TRANslation) was the first comprehensive high-level programming language that was widely used. In 1957, the

Association for Computing Machinery set out to develop a universal language that would correct some of FORTRAN's perceived faults. A year later it released ALGOL (ALGOrithmic Language), COBOL (q.v.; COmmon Business Oriented Language), a commercial and business programming language, concentrated on data organization and file handling and was widely used at one time in business. BASIC (Beginner's All-purpose Symbolic Instruction Code) was developed at Dartmouth College in the early 1960s for use by non-professional computer users.

These examples are of computer language, programming computer languages to be exact. But we analyze computer language form lexical point of view. Computer language is one of particular functional styles. Let's look at "the picture of the world" on the example of computer technology.

A picture of the world is what a person draws to himself in his imagination – a phenomenon more complex, than a language picture of the world, i.e. that part of the conceptual world of the person which has a binding to language and refraction through language forms. Transformation of a picture of the world can have different forms of fixing on a linguistic map. For example, there can be new "states"». So, a new sector in the picture of the world – the computer technique – is fixed on a language map in the form of a separate new semantic field of computer terms: CNC (computer numerical control) the control over calculation of production by means of a computer; computer monitoring the computer system supervising work of employees, working in the various organizations; electronic mail (*e-mail*) the letter typed on a computer and transferred to accepting computer; spread sheet computer programs.

The pragmatic need to conduct various kinds of activity by means of computers has caused new names in language of 80th years some kind of word-formation explosion with semi-affixes *tele-*: telepost a place in the house where there

is a computer. Examples resulted earlier: telecommute, telecommuter, telecommuting (telework), etc.[30]

The professional differentiation of the language, being one of extremely pragmatical factors operating in active nominative processes, has led to creation of an original slang of workers of computer sphere. Computer "art" – an art using computers, appeared in the 80th years.

The professional differentiation of the language, being one of extremely pragmatic factors operating in active nominative processes, has led to creation of an original slang of workers of computer sphere. So, the new units similar brain-box a computer, glitch unexpected infringement in the program, are limited in the use by frameworks of informal dialogue between "programmers", for example, as it was mentioned above the word *computer art* is an art using computers.

All speech genres are widely used on the Web-sites. The choice of a style and a genre for sites is defined by the age, professional and other interests of their owners and the public site is meant, e.g.: *softy, sys-frog, system jock* (programmist); *netter, tourist* (user of Internet). A majority of sites for education are developed in scientific and publicist genres.

There is another specific Internet feature – free democratic environment promotes free communication between people. Frequently, communication has an informal character and this fact influences the language. It is clearly seen that written speech of communication participants is close to spoken language due to a number of jargons appeared in the language.

According to the latest research, more than 50% of male students and 33% of female students use jargon in their speech. The jargon used by the young people has an emotional character. It's clearly seen in the Internet. Besides youth jargon, Internet users have a special professional jargon – computer and telecommunication jargons. Speaking about jargons, term **slang** is often used.

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[30] Заботкина В.И. "Новая лексика современного английского языка", М., 1989.- p.41

Comparing, for example, computer jargons in the English language with computer jargons in the Russian language, we can see that English language is the dominant in this sphere. There are

The important thing is that the pragmatics (the science about the use of language or ***pragmatics*** is the study of how context affects meaning, such as how sentences are interpreted in certain situations) has laid the foundation of a new linguistic paradigm – is functional-pragmatic. In the centre of attention of functional linguistics there is an interrelation of language and environment of its functioning, language structures, on the one hand, and activity with another. To define restrictions on the use of language units, it is necessary to consider factors of two orders: substantial and functional.

Obviously, the choice and the use of vocabulary is dictated by specificity of value of language units and specificity of social interaction communicators in various situations of dialogue, i.e. key parameter of a pragmatic situation. According to Aznaurova E.S., we carry conditions and a place of the communicative certificate, a subject and the purpose of the communications, social, ethical, individual characteristics of participants of speech dialogue, role attitudes between communicators[31] .

The professional parameter is extremely active factor, constituting the pragmatic of a word last few years. The increased professional differentiation of language is reflected in occurrence of new suffix element *–speak* with value language, characteristic for the certain professional group, "a slang". For example, computer techniques: dp-speak – a slang of users of a computer (machinespeak – computer language); video equipment video-speak.

So, denotative specificity of words of type bio-computer, multy-user, co-processor limits their use by frameworks of the situations connected with use of computers.

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[31] Азнаурова Э.С. Прагматика художественного слова. Т., 1988, стр. 38-39

According to all that was mentioned above in this paragraph we can say that computer language, from functional and pragmatic point of view, is one of the principal languages in modern international communication and this is another reason for its relevance for research.

The above-discussed issues of the first chapter allows us to conclude that there are a lot of abbreviations, clippings and acronyms of different types that are frequently used in the computer language and Internet, and their study can represent an interesting and useful contribution to the theory and practice of word-formation.

This chapter we dedicate to analyses of structural and semantic features of shortenings and their types. First we will show structural characteristics of shortened words in computer language, lexico-semantic and stylistic characteristics, what part play neologisms and homonyms in computer language and translation problems.

Structural characteristics of abbreviations can be represented by ***one-member word, two-member word, three-member word, multi-member word*** and sometimes ***a sentence-abbreviation.***

In our language material these types are represented by the following examples:

The first group includes one-member word of noun:

1.	BAK – Backup
2.	CLK – Clock
3.	ORG – Origin
4.	TSK – Task
5.	TST – Test
6.	TXT – Text
7.	WKS – Workstation
8.	CTRL – Control
9.	JMP – Jump
10.	KBD – Keyboard

The second group consists of two-member words of nouns:

1.	AM - Amplitude modulation

2.   CR – Carriage return

3.   DC - Devise control

4.   FC - Font-change character

5.   GS - Group separator

6.   I/O - Input-output

7.   LF - Line feed

8.   PF - Page footing

9.   PH - Page heading

10.   UA - User area

11.   US - Unit separator

12.   WP - Word processing

The third group includes three-member words of nouns:

1.   CLT - Communication line terminal

2.   JCL - Job Control Language

3.   LCB - Lint control block

4.   MMU - Memory management unit

5.   PDS - Program development system

6.   PSU - Power supply unit

7.   RPG - Report program generator

8.   SNA - Systems Network architecture

9.   TCAM - Telecommunication access method

10.   TCB - Task control block

11.   TDM - Time-division multiplexing

12.   TSN - Terminal support network

In the computer language the abbreviations are comprised of not only nouns, but of all parts of speech. For example:

N+Adj.+N:

1.   CDC - Call-directing code

2.   CCD - Charge coupled device

3.   CFT - Charge-flow transistor

4.   WWW - The World Wide Web

5.   CNC - Computer Numerical Control

Adj.+N:

1.   AC – Alternating current; automatic computer; analog computer

2.   AP - Attached processor

3.   CP - Central processor; command processor; control program

4.   IC - Integrated circuit

5.   LP - Linear programming

6.   OS - Operating system

7.   WS - Working storage

8.   MS – MicroSoft

Adj.+ N+N:

1.   ACU - Automatic calling unit

2.   ADP - Automatic data processing

3.   AED - Automatic error detection

4.   AGC - Automatic gain control

5.   ALD - Analog line driver

6.   APL - Automatic programming language

7.   ARQ – Automatic request for repeat

8.   APT - Automatic programming tool

9.   ARU - Audio-response unit

10.   ASR - Automatic send-receive set

11.   CIU - Computer interface unit

12.   EDP - Electronic data processing

13.   LAN - Local area network

14.   OCR - Optical character recognition

15.   SMS - Short Message Service

16.   SST - Synchronous system trap

17.   VDU - Visual display unit

Here is another type of abbreviations which consists of four members:

Adj.+N+N+N:

1.   ACIA - Asynchronous communications interface adapter

2.   ADPS - Automatic data processing system

3.   BTAM - Basic telecommunications access method

4.   DASD - Direct-access storage device

5.   FDOS - Floppy Disk Operating System

6.   HDLC - High-level data link control

7.   HTML - HyperText Markup Language

8.   QTAM - Queued telecommunication access method

9.   SMTP – Simple Mail Transfer Protocol

Adj.+Adj.+N+N:

1.   BSAM - Basic sequential access method

2.   ISAM - Indexed sequential access method

3.   KSAM - Keyed sequential access method

4.   UART - Universal asynchronous receiver transmitter

Two-member words which consists of adjectives:

1.   LE - Less or equal

2.   SD - Single-density disk

3.   SS - Single-sided disk

In the three-member words of this group we can find Adj.+Adj+ N:

1.   ASP - Attached support processor

2.   BPS - Basic programming support

3.   BSC - Binary synchronous communications

4.   LCD - Liquid crystal display

5.   PLA - Programmable logic array

Here is another group which includes three-member words and has Adj.+Adj.+Adj.:

1.   BCD - Binary coded decimal
2.   BCO - Binary coded octal

Among one-member, two-member words we found maximum which are mixed. This abbreviation has Adv.+Adj.+V.+Adv.+N:

EEROM - Electrically erasable read only memory

Here is a multi-member word which has the structure Adj.+Adj.+Adj.+Adj.+N+N:

EBCDIC – Extended binary-coded decimal interchange code

Abbreviations may include not only nouns, adjectives, verbs but also prepositions. These two types of abbreviations have the structure

N+ prep.+Adj.+N:

1.   Adc - Analog-to-digital converter
2.   DAC - Digital-to-analog converter

In this type of abbreviation prepositions are shortened too (N+ prep.+N):

1. EOF - End of file
2. EOT - End of transmission
3. QBE - Query by example

And many others mixed forms like:

N+N+ prep.+N: VTOC - Volume table of contents

N+ phrasal verb: TLU - Table look-up

Adj.+Abb.+N: ARC - Advanced RISC Computing

Adj.+N+Abb.: CCTV - Closed-circuit TV

Ordinal Num.+V+Ordinal Num.+V: FCFS - First-come-first-served

Abb.+N: E-mail – electronic mail

lvalue – leftside value

rvalue – right value

Adv.+Adj.+N+N: YACC – Yet Another Compiler-Compiler

The next group of abbreviations we named as abbreviations of measurements:

1. Kb - Kbit; Kbytes – Kilo bytes

2. BPI - Bits per inch

3. Bps - Bits per second

4. cps - Characters per second

5. lpi - Lines per inch

6. lpm - Lines per minute

7. Mbyte - megabyte

8. RPM - Rotations per minute

9. TPI - Tracks per inch

10. WPM - Words per minute

Besides abbreviations, we can find also **clippings,** and their structural characteristics are represented by the following models.

The first group one-member word consists of nouns:

1. Acc – accumulator

2. ACK – acknowledgment

3. ENQ - Enquiry

One-member word of verb:

1. CAN – cancel

2. EXEC – execute

This type of one-member word includes adjective:

1. EQ – equal

2. EXEC - executive system

3. Syn – synchronous

Among abbreviations and clippings there are the other structural characteristic of **acronyms.** Here is four-member words of nouns:

CLAT - Communication line adapter

The group of three- member words:

N + Adj. +N: CAD - Computer-aided design

CAM - Content addressed memory

DAM - Data-addressed memory

N+ Adj. + Adj.: PAD - Packet assembly and disassembly

N+Adj.+N+N: HASP - Houston automatic spooling program

As we mentioned, acronyms also have in their structure prepositions:

N + prep. + N + prep.: GIGO - Garbage in, garbage out

N+ prep.+N+N: BIM - Beginning-of-information marker

Or numerals: Ordinal Num.+prep.+Ordinal Num.+prep.:

FIFO - First-in, first-out

Others have structures Adj.+N:

1. COGO – coordinated geometry

2. SYSGEN – system generation

3. ALGOL – ALGOrithmic Language

4. NAK - Negative acknowledgment

Adj.+Adj.+N:

1. ALU - Arithmetic and logic unit.

2. BOS - Basic operating system

3. CAL - Conversational algebraic language

4. CIM - Computer-integrated manufacturing

5. CIM - Common information model

6. CIM - Computer Input Microfilm

7. COMAL – Common Algorithmic Language

8. DOS - Disk operating system

9. MIS - Management information system

10. PAM - Partitioned access method

11. PIP - Peripheral interchange program

12. RAM - Random-access memory

13. ROM - Read-only memory

Adj.+N+N+N:

1. BIOS - Basic Input Output System

2. RISC - Reduced Instruction Set Computer

There are longer words like the following examples:

Adj.+N+Adj.+Adj.+N: EDVAC - Electronic Discrete Variable Automatic Calculator

N's + Pron. + N + Adj. +N+N: BASIC – Beginner's All Purpose Symbolic Instruction Code

Blending as a type of shortening is used rarely. In our material we found only two of them:

N+N: FORTRAN – formula translator

Adj.+N: Bit – binary digit

The other structural type is of *complex abbreviations (sentence).* This type is also met very seldom.

Inter. Pron. + aux.v.+ pers.pron.?: WRY - Who Are You?

Inter.conj. + pers.pron. + v.+aux.v.+ inter.conj.+pers.pron.+v.:

WYSIWYG - What You See Is What You Get

Thus, the structural characteristics of shortenings can be represented by different combinations from one- to multi-member formations, and these structures include words belonging to different parts of speech.

3.1. Structural characteristics of shortening

By definition Lexicology deals with words, word-forming morphemes (derivational affixes) and word-groups or phrases. All these linguistic units may be said to have meaning of some kind: they are all significant and therefore must be investigated in relation both to their form and meaning. The branch of lexicology that is devoted to the study of meaning is known as **S e m a s i o l o g y**.[32]

It should be pointed out that semasiology is coming to the fore as the central problem of linguistic investigation of all levels of language structure. It is suggested that semasiology has for its subject-matter not only the study of lexicon, but also of morphology, syntax and sentential semantics. Words, however, play such a crucial part in the structure of language that when we speak of semasiology without any qualification, we usually refer to the study of word-meaning proper.

As Shmelev D.N. puts it, the main task of semasiology is to study the process of representation of the extra-linguistic reality in the language units.[33]

So, *lexical semantics* is concerned with the meanings of words and the meaning of relationships among words, while phrasal semantics is concerned with the meaning of syntactic units larger than the word. The semantic development of words already available in the language is the main source of the qualitative growth of the vocabulary but does not essentially change the vocabulary quantitatively.

Semantic properties are the components of meanings of words. For example, the semantic component "human" can be found in many words such as *parent, doctor, baby, professor, widow*, etc. Other semantic components may or may not

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[32] R.S.Ginzburg "A Course in Modern English Lexicology", M., 1979. – p. 18
[33] Шмелев Д.Н. Проблемы семантического анализа лексики. М., 2006. - стр. 18

include *male, female*, etc. Following Arnold I.V.'s definition, we call such components of meaning "semes".[34]

An important issue that needs to be discussed is semantic and pragmatic relationship in the creation of new words. Changing semantic structure of the lexeme we change its paradigm. We should also mention that lexico-semantic variants may apply to definite lexico-semantic group, for instance, group of things, animals, etc.

According to lexico-semantic group, we can classify computer terminology and Internet as follows: programmers, as a specialist; users, who uses computers as means of communication; parts of computer; names of products, commands, files, programs, operations in computer; computer languages; and Internet.

The first group of programmers includes notions of computer specialists in many fields. Programmers, for example, are named as: *sys-op, sys-frog.* Users are named as: *ROU* (Read-Only User); *Netter* (Internet user)

The group that includes operations or commands done be user, names of files in computer has a lot of examples of shortened words: *SST* (Synchronous System Trap); *ADP* (Automatic Data Processing); *FIFO* (First-in First-out); *GIGO* (Garbage in Garbage out); *TST* (test); *XOFF* (Transmitter off); *XON* (Transmitter on); *EXEC* (Execute system); *ESC* (Escape); *BAK* (Backup); – operations and commands; *HTTP* (Hyper Text Transfer Protocol) – file, etc.

Name of this group includes computer parts from which computer consist of: *Modem* (modulator/demodulator); *KBD* (Keyboard); *CLAT* (Communication Line Adapter); *VDU* (Visual Display Unit); *UPS* (Unit Power Supply); *SCN* (Scaner); *PRN* (Printer); *CD-R* (Compact Disk Readable); *CD-RW* (Compact Disk Re-Writable); *FDOS* (Floppy Disk Operating System); *DVD* (Digital Video Disk), etc.

Computer machine also has its own language, i.e. language : *BASIC* (Beginner's All Purpose Symbolic Instruction Code); *COMAL* (Common Algorithmic Language); *ALGOL* (ALCOrithmic Language); CAL (Conversational Algebraic Language); *FORTRAN* (FORmula Translator) and others.

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[34] Арнольд И.В. Основы научных исследований в лингвистике. М., 1991.-стр.50;

There is another thematic group of shortenings and connected with Internet. As Internet is a new phenomenon, it includes recently formed lexicon. In some cases they are not only new but unique in its kind and have no signs in terminology, for example, the word *IRC* means Internet Relay Chart; *ICQ* meabs I seek you; *net* – Internet; *WWW* - World Wide Web; *HTTP* - Hyper Text Transfer Protocol; *SMS* – Send Massage System; *E-mail* – Electronic Mail, etc.

According to our research, we have found homonyms in abbreviated words. So, we should at first define what homonyms mean. Two or more words identical in sound and spelling but different in meaning, distribution and (in many cases) origin are called **homonyms**. Modern English is exceptionally rich in homonymous words and word-forms. It is held that languages where short words abound have more homonyms than those where longer words are prevalent. Therefore it is sometimes suggested that abundance of homonyms in Modern English is to be accounted for by the monosyllabic structure of the commonly used English words.

In general, homonymy is intentionally sought to provoke positive, negative or awkward connotations. Concerning the selection of initials, homonymy with shortened words serves the purpose of manipulation. The demotivated process of a shortened word hereby leads to re-motivation. The form is homonymously identical with an already lexicalized linguistic unit, which makes it easier to pronounce or recall, thus standing out from the majority of acronyms. This homonymous unit has a secondary semantic relation to the linguistic unit.

There are a lot of different sources of homonyms in English language such as: phonetic changes, which words undergo in the coarse of their historical development, for example, *Night* and *knight;* borrowings, e.g.: *rite, n* - to write, *v right, adj* the second and the third words are of native origin whereas *rite* is a Latin borrowing; conversion, for example, such pairs of words as *comb*, *n – to comb*, *v.*;
and finally, *shortening* is a further type of word building, which increases the number of homonyms. *Fan*, *n* in the sense of "enthusiastic admirer of some kind of an actor, singer, etc." is a shortening produced from *fanatic*. Its homonym is   a Latin

borrowing *fan, n* which denotes an implement for waving lightly to homonyms made by shortening: *rep, n* (< *repertory*), *rep, n* (< *reputation*) and so on.

The above-described sources of homonyms have one important feature common. In all the mentioned cases the homonyms developed from two or more different words, and their similarity is purely accidental.

Now, as we know what homonyms are, we'd like to show some examples of homonyms in computer and Internet.

HTTP: Hypertext Transfer Protocol Internet

HyperText Transfer Protocol Computing (Networking)

HyperText Transfer Protocol Computing (Software)

Head To This Page Miscellaneous (Funnies)

Hyper Terminal Tracing Program Internet

Handy Trendy Totable Pockets Miscellaneous (Funnies)

Home Tested And Tried Pages Miscellaneous (Funnies)

An abbreviation *AED* has several meanings:

- Automatic Error Detection
- Air Equipment Department

AGS:

- Air-to-Ground Code;
- Automatic Gain Control

Same is true about some acronyms, for instance:

DOS:

- Disk operating System;
- Department of State;
- Director of Ordance Services.

In a few case some abbreviations can have even more meanings. For example, *CP* has more than 30 meanings.[35]

One of the most popular acronyms is *GASP* is used in several groups, struggling against pollution: Group Against Smoke and Pollution, Greater Washington Alliance to stop Pollution. Other examples of acronyms-homonyms are CAN, COAST, FAT, SMART, TAP, and many others.[36]

From what has been said above about shortenings-homonyms we can see that shortening, on the one hand, is a very productive type of word building and is closely connected and sometimes is interrelated with other types. On the other hand, there appear specific problems in translation of shortenings, and here we should take into consideration various aspects of semantics, pragmatics and communication.

3.2. Lexico-semantic and stylistic characteristics of shortening in CL

At the present moment English is developing very swiftly and there is so called "neology blowup". R. Berchfield, who worked at compiling a four-volume supplement to NED, says that averagely 800 neologisms appear every year in Moderm English. It has also become a language-giver recently, especially with the development of computerization.

According to Serebrennikov B.A., "in the position to communicative fitness", language always rebuilds and develops. Not all the words made by speaker fix in the language. If a word lexicalized in the language for the first time it is called **neologism** (became new) which either could enter to the lexical system completely or stop its existence.

New words, as a rule, appear in speech of the individual person who wants to express his idea in some original way. This person is called "originator". New lexical units are primarily used by university teachers, newspaper reporters, by those who are connected with mass media.

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[35] Александров А.Г. Словарь Английских и Американских Сокращений. М., 1958. – стр.199
[36] www.abb.com

The student of mass phenomena is naturally interested in appraising the number of units he has to deal with. It has proved no easy task. The difficulties confronting one in undertaking a word count are manifold. The first difficulty lies in the fact that the vocabulary does not remain the same but changes constantly. New notions come into being, requiring new words to name them. On the other hand, some notions and things become outdated and the words that denote them drop out of the language. Sometimes a new name is introduced for a thing or notion that continues to exist, and the older name ceases to be used. The number of words in a language is therefore not constant; the increase, as a rule, more than makes up for the leak-out.

New words and expressions or neologisms are created for new things irrespective of their scale of importance.

Thus, a **neologism** is any word or word equivalent, formed according to the productive structural patterns or borrowed from another language and felt by the speakers as something new.[37]

As others types of word formation, neology has some major tasks: 1)identifying of new words and their meanings; 2) analyzing factors of their appearance in correlation with pragmatic needs of society; 3) studying models of their formation and limitation of using, etc.[38]

The intense development of science and industry has called forth the invention and introduction of an immense number of new words and changed the meanings of old ones: *allergic, computer, iso-tope, feedback, nuclear fission, penicillin, tape-recorder, supermarket* and many more.

Neologisms can develop in three main ways: a lexical unit existing in the language can change its meaning to denote a new object or phenomenon. In such cases we have semantic neologisms, e.g.: the word "*umbrella*" developed the meaning "aviation cover", "political cover". A new lexical unit can develop in the language to denote an object or phenomenon which already has some lexical unit to denote it. In such cases we have transnomination, e.g.: the word "*slum*" was first

[37] Arnold I.V. "The English word", M. 1966
[38] Заботкина В.И. "Новая лексика современного английского языка", М., 1989

substituted by the word "ghetto" then by the word-group "inner town". And the last one is "a proper neologism" where many of them are cases of new terminology.

Here we can point out several semantic groups when we analyze the group of neologisms connected with computerization: a) to denote different types of computers, e.g.: *PC, super-computer, multy-computer, neurocomputer* (analogue of a human brain); b) to denote different parts of computers, e.g.: *hardware, software, monitor, screen, data, vaporware* (experimental samples of computers for exhibition, not for production); c) to denote computer languages, e.g.: *BASIC, Algol, FORTRAN*, etc.; d) to denote notions connected with the work on computers, e.g.: *computerman, computerization, computerize, to troubleshoot, to blitz out* (to ruin data in a computer's mamory).

There are also different types of activities performed with the help of computers, for example, with the morpheme "*tele-*", e.g.: *to telework, to telecommute* (to work at home having a computer which is connected with the enterprise for which one works); *telebanking, telemarketing, teleshopping* (when you can perform different operations with the help of your computer without leaving your home, all operations are registered by the computer at your bank), *videobank* (computerized telephone which registers all information received in your absence).

In the sphere of linguistics we have such neologisms as: *machine translation, interlingual* (an artificial language for machine translation into several languages), and others. In the sphere of biometrics we have computerized machines which can recognize characteristic features of people seeking entrance: *finger-print scanner* (finger prints) and many others.

Neologisms can be new either in form or in content or in form and content according which we must differentiate: 1) neologisms (new form and new content) – bio-computer, telecommuter, audiotyper; 2) renames (new form – known content) – sudser (soap opera), bigC (cancer); 3) rereasoning (available form- new content) -

acid (narcotics), bread (money), box (TV-set, computer). Language vocabulary continue to replenish. [39]

As a general rule neologisms are at first clearly motivated. An exception is shown by those based on borrowings or learned coinages which, though motivated at an early stage, very soon begin to function as indivisible signs. A good example is the much used term *cybernetics* 'study of systems of control and communication in living beings and man-made devices', coined by Norbert Wiener from the Greek word *kubernetes* 'steersman' + suffix *-ics*.

In the course of time the new word is accepted into the word-stock of the language and being often used ceases to be considered new, or else it may not be accepted for some reason or other and vanish from the language. The fate of neologisms is hardly predictable, some of them are short-lived, others, on the contrary, become durable if they are liked and accepted. Once accepted, they may serve as a basis for further word-formation.

The latest additions or modifications to the terms of abbreviations where found in the Internet source and are listed below.

HDTV - High-Definition Television

High definition TV uses the highest number of scan lines. It usually comes in two sizes: 720p, 1080i, or 1080p at the high end of the market. All television in the United States is supposed to be digital by mid-February 2009 however this goal has been a somewhat sliding target and, with a set-top box, you can still watch digital TV on an analog set.

IRC - Internet Relay Chat – A system whereby individuals can band together in real time and conduct discussions via the Internet. The chat network is a client-server network with interconnected servers that accept client connections.

IPTV - Internet Protocol Television

PKP - Port Knocking Pinging a combination of ports before entry is allowed

TIFF - Tagged Image File Format

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[39] Елисеева В.В. – Лексикология английского языка, СП, 2003., p. 57

FAHQT - Fully Automatic High-Quality Translation[40]

To conclude all that was discussed in this and previous paragraph we can say that every type of word-building is connected with each other and plays an important rule in forming new words or develop new meanings in the old ones. We are not able to separate them and put an accent on one more than the other.

In our paper we will try to show that shortening is becoming one of the productive and functionally significant type of word-formation in Modern English.

3.3. Translation difficulties of the computer lexicon

Due to the semantic features of language the meanings of words, their usage, ability to combine with other words, associations awakened by them, the "place" they hold in the lexical system of a language do not concur for the most part. All the same ideas expressed by words coincide in most cases, though the means of expression differ.

As it is impossible to embrace all the cases of semantic differences between two languages, we shall restrict this course to the most typical features. The principle types of lexical correspondences between languages are as follows: complete correspondence; partial correspondence and the absence of correspondence.[41]

In order to attain equivalence, despite the difference in formal and semantic systems of two languages, the translator is obliged to do various linguistic transformations. Their aims are: to ensure that the text imparts all the knowledge inferred in the original text, without violating the rules of the language it is translated into.

The following three elementary types are deemed most suitable for describing all kinds of lexical transformations: lexical substitutions, supplementations, omissions (dropping). To do this we took a text and tried to translate it into Russian language and analyze the process and the results of translation.

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[40] www.neologisms.com
[41]

Basics of XML

XML, or Extensible Markup Language, is not new. In fact, it's a subset of SGML, the Standardized General Markup Language, modified for use on the Web. SGML was originally developed by Goldfarb, Mosher, and Lorie at IBM in 1969, as a way to structure legal documents; it has evolved over time into an international standard for representing textual data in system-independent format. Since SGML is overly complex for the requirements of the Web, XML has evolved as a modified (read: simpler) version of SGML, adapted specifically for use on the Web.

You might be thinking to yourself: isn't there already a universal language for the Web called HTML? And you'd be right to wonder…

While HTML if great for putting together Web pages, it doesn't offer any way to describe the data contained within those pages. As a formatting language, it doesn't offer any mechanism to define data structures within the document, thereby limiting its usefulness. The fact that it understands a limited set of tags – and even that frequently depends on which browser you're using – reduces its flexibility and makes it difficult to extend its usefulness to other applications.

XML was designed to avoid these disadvantages by creating a markup language which would be simple yet flexible, easy to use yet powerful enough to offer a variety of different applications. Briefly, the original design goals for XML (as stated in the W3C's XML 1.0 Recommendation) were: XML should be simple and easy to use. XML should support a variety of different applications, by allowing users to develop their own markup.

XML documents should precisely follow certain formally-defined rules and principles. XML documents should be human-legible and reasonably clear.

Here is Russian variant of this text:

Основы языка XML

XML, или Extensible Markup Language не является новым. Скорее подгруппой языка SXML (Standardized General Markup Language),

модифицированный для использования в Сети. Изначально язык SXML был разработан Голдфарбом, Мошером и Лори в компании IBM в 1969 году, как способ создания легальных документов. Со временем он развился до международных стандартов, чтобы предоставлять данные в системно-независимом формате. Так как SXML чрезмерно сложен по своим сетевым требованиям, то XML был разработан как видоизмененная (легко считываемая) версия языка SXML и адаптирован специально для пользования в Сети.

Вероятно, вы думаете: разве уже не существует универсальный язык для Сети под названием HTML? И вы вправе удивляться…

Несмотря на то, что HTML замечательно объединяет страницы Сети, он не предлагает способов объединения содержащихся данных в этих страницах. Являясь форматным языком, он не предлагает механизмов обнаружения структур данных внутри документа, тем самым ограничивая свою полезность. Дело в том, что этот язык распознает ограниченный набор ярлыков и даже зависит от браузера (программы), который вы используете, что уменьшает его гибкость и полезу по отношению к другим программам.

Язык XML был создан, чтобы избежать этих недостатков, который будет простым и в тоже время гибким, легок в использовании и в тоже время достаточно мощный, чтобы предложить различные варианты программ. Вкратце, первоначальное достижение в разработке XML, как было указано в рекомендации 1.0 W3C' XML, простое использование языка XML.

XML должен: поддерживать различные программы, давая возможность пользователю развивать свой «markup»; документы XML должны точно следовать определенным правилам и принципам, а также быть понятным для человека и достаточно ясным.

On the basis of the given text we can say that the text includes abbreviations which sometimes are not translated into Russian but remain as English variant of abbreviation and are pronounced in English. Apart from abbreviations we found such

words as: markup, browser, formally-defined, system-independent, human-legible which are made by different types of word-formation and represent neologisms.

In the twentieth century shortenings became one of the most productive ways of updating of dictionary structure of many languages, including English. Occurrence in the modern languages of a plenty of the reduced lexical units is, undoubtedly, one of the consequences and scientific and technical revolution which have generated set of new social concepts it is necessary for them to give the name to fix them in language.

CONCLUSION

In our paper we discussed shortening as a type of word formation in the English language in the functional style of the computer language. For the needs of our analysis we included into this type examples of abbreviations, clippings, acronyms and blendings. We analyzed their structural peculiarities, semantic characteristics and functional features. The issues of productivity of these processes, their use in colloquial and written speech were also discussed. The amount of shortenings shows their popularity in the computer lexicon. We consider the reasons for such a frequent use of this type of word-formation to be the economy of time and expression. Undoubtedly, this is one of the vivid features of today's English. The vocabulary of the English language sizably increased because of the shortenings.

Nowadays, as we established, shortening is used in the names of organizations and posts (F.S. – Foreign Office, PM – Prime Minister); agents and telecommunication companies (American Broadcasting Corporation, USIA – United Corporation); in computer and Internet: network, commands, programs, languages, names of files and others (CD-ROM, OTT, PC, WWW, HTTP, e-mail, etc.).

Many of them represent slang, technical terms, jargons as they are used by programmers and teens. Shortenings may have homonyms (CAT, COAST, FAT); there are many neologisms among them (IRC, HDTV, etc.).

On the bases of the analyses of lexicon of computer language and Internet it is possible to approve, that the given language of a science contains wide range of shortenings. The total number of shortenings of the fixed reductions makes about 160, according to our glossary. Number of the abbreviations filling various sublanguages, unequally. The most dense presence of abbreviations is observed in sublanguages as operating systems, hardware, software, programming languages and others. Hardware abounds with names of different parts of the computer, peripheral arrangements and their characteristics. Names of arrangements and specifications are often presented by complex multi-component word-combinations which with a view of savings of time are transformed; many reductions appear very tolerant: CD-ROM

(compact disk read only memory), DVD (digital video disk), CPU (central processing unit). The shortenings filling operating systems and programming languages are generally commands.

The variety of forms and techniques of shortening in the computer language as described in this paper allows us to consider this type of word formation in Modern English as very productive.

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Glossary of selected abbreviations in computer language ABBREVIATIONS

The following table will help you navigate through the multiple acronyms in this paper.

Term	Description
2G	Second-generation
3G	Third-generation
3GPP	Third-generation Partnership Project
3GPP2	Third-generation Partnership Project 2
AMPS/D-AMPS	Advanced Mobile Phone System
ARIB	Association of Radio Industries and Broadcasting
EDGE	Enhanced Data Rates for GSM Evolution and TDMA-136
ETSI	European Telecommunications Standards Institute
FDD	Frequency Division Duplex
GPRS	General Packet Radio Services
GSM	Global System for Mobile communication
HSCSD	High-speed Circuit-switched Data
IMT-2000	International Mobile Telecommunication-2000
ITU-R	International Telecommunication Union- Radio Communications
NMT	Nordic Mobile Telephone
PDC	Personal Digital Communication
TACS	Total Access Communications System
TDD	Time Division Duplex
TDMA	Time Division Multiple Access
TIA	Telecommunications Industry Association
SDO	Standards Development Organization
WCDMA	Wideband Code Division Multiple Access
UMTS	Universal Mobile Telecommunications System
UWC-136	Universal Wireless Communications