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Types of clipping

Plan:

Introduction

Main part.

I Basic peculiarities of word formation in English language .

II Clipping as a type of word-building.

III Types of clipping

a)final clipping

b)initial clipping

c)medial clipping

Methodological recommendation

Conclusion

INTRODUCTION

Great changes have taken place in our life Radical transformations have altered the *ap*pearance of the modern world. The people's age old aspirations for freedom, independence an happiness, and their resolute determination to shape their own future, serve as the driving force of these dynamic developments. We note with pride in our native land that Uzbekistan was one of the first Republics in the former Union to proclaim its objective to achieve genuine independence, was the first to introduce a presidential form of government, proceed with large-scale reforms and radical transformations for the betterment of society.

The inalienable right of the Uzbek people to self-determination was realized on August 31.1991 with the proclamation of independence of the Republic of Uzbekistan. An ancient dream has come true: Uzbekistan has peacefully through parliamentary means, acquired genuine statehood. This is the most significant event in the centuries-long history of the nation. The will of the multi-national population of the Republic has been ensured by the constitutional law "On the Fundamentals of State Independence of the Republic of Uzbekistan" and found its unequivocal confirmation in a nation-wide referendum. This historical landmark will be inscribed in letters-of-gold in the annals of our state.

Life itself has convincingly and vividly shown the correctness of the objectives outlined and the guidelines chosen. Much of what we have failed to achieve for centuries has been attained during the first year of our Republic's independence. *The people of Uzbekistan have become the true masters of the tremendous wealth of their native land:* the Republic's

mines, refineries, gold reserves, natural resources, and the land itself. Economic, scientific, technical and intellectual potential — created by the labor of many generations — all this is national property as well and serves to guarantee the well-being of the people, providing a basis for social progress, prosperity   and the might of the state.

The state's responsibility to safeguard the indivisibility of the territory of the Republic, its economic potential and the inviolability of its frontiers has become an established principle.

The rule of law, which guides democratic societies, is actively implemented in the Republic. The vices of the former totalitarian regime are gradually being eliminated. A multiparty system and the tolerance of diverse ideas and viewpoints are now perceived as a matter-of-course. The dictate of a single ideology has been eliminated. Human values, universally recognized norms of genuine democracy, freedom and human rights are gaining preeminence.

The division of legislative, executive and judicial authority is recognized as a guiding principle. The people of Uzbekistan make up a genuine source of state power, participating in government both directly and through their elected representatives, the people's deputies.

The Parliament of the Republic uses its legislative authority to secure a legal foundation for the newly independent state. An updated and more efficient system of administration, focussing on the presidential form of government, has been introduced in the country. Local administration at the provincial, district and municipal levels has been reorganized under the jurisdiction of *hokims* (governors and mayors). The judicial system has been reformed to ensure the supremacy of the rule of law and the equality of all citizens before the law. All these components assure citizens of a civilization characterized by establishment of law and order, strict enforcement, self-discipline and personal responsibility.

The process of shaping the organizational structures which constitute and effect the state sovereignty of Uzbekistan is in progress. Ministries of Defence, External Economic Relations, National Security and State Customs have been created. The very first Committees of the Management of State Property and Privatization, Precious Metals, Science and Technology, Academic Accreditation have been established in the Republic. The *functions of the central economic agencies have been radically altered.*

Reorganization of the banking system has taken the Central Bank out of governmental control and brought about the establishment of the National Bank for External Economic Activities. Numerous branch ministries and departments have been dissolved. The National Air Company "Uzbekistan Havo Yollari", Information Agency, Film Company and other state services now operate independently.[2.52.]

The Uzbek people's aspiration for independence has found support and understanding in the world community and with the international public. One hundred and twenty-five countries of the world have recognized our sovereignty and more than forty foreign countries have established diplomatic relations with Uzbekistan. The Republic of Turkey, the United States of America, the Republic of India, France, Germany are among those countries which have opened their embassies in Tashkent. Negotiations are in progress with a number of foreign , countries on the exchange of diplomatic missions.

On March 2, 1992 Uzbekistan was admitted to the United Nations as a full-fledged member. The Republic joined the Helsinki process by signing the Final Act of the Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe. All this marks a qualitative advance in the development of the Republic and opens up new and dynamic opportunities for international economic, scientific and cultural cooperation.

Today Uzbekistan is a member of a number of leading international economic and fiscal associations, among them Organizations for Economic Cooperation (OEC), the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development. Applications for membership have been submitted to the International Monetary Fund, the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, the International Labor Organization, the World Health Organization and other Associations. Uzbekistan has also joined the Non-Aligned Movement and forwarded applications to the United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) and other international organizations.

The state independence of Uzbekistan and its international recognition means that, from now on, the Republic will pursue an independent domestic and foreign policy, establishing direct relations for the mutual benefit of the parties involved. It has now become truly possible to achieve substantial progress which takes into consideration the national interests of the people — their outlook, traditions and customs — as well as their vast potential and resources.

Our society today has reached an historic crossroads: it is imperative to lay the groundwork for the national, administrative, social, economic, spiritual and moral transformation of the Republic. This difficult moment in our history requires a responsible approach. Not only does our future depend on this, but that of our children, grandchildren and generations to come. This is the period which will determine how soon the Republic will be able to get over the current crisis, eliminate the deficiencies of the past totalitarian system and join the ranks of advanced, civilized nations. There is long way to go.

Only a strong, democratic, law-governed secular society with a stable free-market economy and open foreign policy will guarantee sustained growth in the living standard of the people of Uzbekistan. Only such a society can protect their rights and freedoms, reinvigorate their national

traditions and culture, and advance the spiritual and moral development of humanity.

World experience proves that statehood, national and social liberation, have never been won anywhere in a simple or easy fashion.« Immediately after gaining independence every state searched for its own model of building a new society. This approach was predetermined by the socio-economic and political situation, by the relationships among people, by their world outlook and religious convictions, by their psychology and norms of behavior. There are various models of social advancement in the world. We may cite many examples: Turkey, South Korea, Sweden and the experiences of a number of Muslim and newly industrialized countries. The reconstruction of national economies in Europe and Japan after the World War II also offer insight.

Uzbekistan will make every possible use of the best and most dynamic experiences of other countries which are applicable to the conditions in our Republic. But there can be no talk about blindly imitating another nation's example, even if it has yielded positive results. The effect of concrete prescriptions and methods are attainable solely under those conditions specific to the country for which they were designed.

While not rejecting that which has proven effective for other nations, the Republic embraces the principle of choosing its own path of social, economic, political and legal development. This results from an understanding of the mistakes and errors of the past and currently emerging views on various forms of government. This is a realistic assessment of present-day social conditions and the Uzbek people's desire for social progress and a decent life for all.

It must be emphasized that the main reason for choosing a distinct road is to ensure a normal and civilized evolutionary transition of society without any pseudo-revolutionary leaps, tragic consequences or devastating social shocks. The impact of decades-long indoctrination

which forced alien concepts into mind-set of the populace can hardly be erased in one stroke. The people must first be convinced of the need for reform and transformation, shifting priorities and motivating the labor force, thus preventing destabilization and social conflict.

The unique nature of our social and economic problems require a specialized approach to their resolution, one that takes into account our national way of life and the oriental origin of our civilization.

Uzbekistan's road to genuine independence depends on a thorough comprehension of the following conditions which influence the development of the Republic.

First of all, we must consider the national traits of the people, their mentality, customs, and traditions. Historically, a collective identity is inherent to the people of Uzbekistan and is rooted in the traditionally communal way of life. Human relations are characterized by esteem for elders, concern for family and children, openness in dealing with others, friendliness with people irrespective of their ethnic origin, compassion for those less fortunate and a readiness to assist and cooperate. Love for the native Uzbek land, an eagerness to work, a respect for knowledge, and esteem for enlighteners typify the people of Uzbekistan. Of major significance in the realization of domestic and foreign policy is the role played by "Islamic factor". This element reveals itself in the lifestyle and psychology of the people, in the emergence of spiritual values and in striving for rapprochement with nations professing this religion.

Ancient history and culture, characterized by profound contributions to world civilization made by native thinkers and philosophers of the East, have a decisive impact on all aspects of the life of people in this region. This invaluable heritage has shaped spiritual and moral self-awareness and will influence future generations.[1.45.]

The demographic situation in the Republic is characterized by a high rate of birth, resulting in a significant annual increase of the population

and labor force. More than half of the total population resides in rural areas and is primarily employed in agricultural production. Sixty per cent of the population is under the age of 25.

Traditionally the native residents of Uzbekistan are disposed to be bound to their forefathers' domicile and disinclined to migrate elsewhere.

A feature distinctive of Uzbekistan is its original ethnic structure. Although representatives of more than a hundred nations and ethnic groups — all with their own culture and traditions — live on the territory of the Republic, the majority of its inhabitants are Uzbeks. The ethnic and cultural diversity of Uzbekistan, combined with a growing feeling of corporate identity and spiritual rejuvenation, serve as a powerful impetus for reining-oration, for creating the open society prerequisite for the Republic's integration into the world community.

The Republic has a strategic geographic location. Historically, the territory of present-day Uzbekistan was the crossroads of ancient trade-routes, including the Great Silk Road, with *sustained exchange of contacts* and mutual enrichment of various cultures. Today, too, Uzbekistan lies in the heart of former Soviet Central Asia and, with its independent power network and water supply systems, serves as a bridge between the surrounding republics. Uzbekistan is actively engaged in the development of relations with foreign countries.

Nature and climate decisively influence the options for implementing reforms in Uzbekistan. The rural economy, based largely on artificial irrigation, is strictly limited to available water resources. Cotton growing plays a leading role in agriculture and the national economy as a whole. Among the sovereign Central Asian Republics, Uzbekistan is a major producer and supplier of this important strategic crop, with a huge potential for exporting cotton and its by-products. Climatic conditions are favorable for farm products such as fruit, vegetables, silk-worm cocoons

and other valuable agricultural produce in quantities sufficient to meet demands in both foreign and domestic markets.

Uzbekistan's potential is strong enough to secure the Republic's political and economic independence. Our land is rich in valuable minerals and natural resources. This provides a basis for deep structural transformations, developing those sectors of the economy in Uzbekistan which will secure access to world markets. Of crucial importance in this respect is the opportunity to depart from the past economic policy which concentrated on the production and export of raw materials. This approach stunted the growth of our national economy and led to dependency on other republics for technology and resources — the result of the one-sided policy conducted by the former central government.

It is impossible to ignore the distinct mindset and values of the people inculcated during the past decades. On the one hand, this mentality is characterized by the adherence to the principles of social equality, secured employment, free education and medical services. On the other hand, there is a sense of alienation from the concept of private ownership along with a psychological dependency on the state — the legacy of a totalitarian, centralized bureaucratic system.[2.74.]

All of the above conditions, both individually and in their aggregate, determine the distinctive traits which influence the current domestic and foreign policy of Uzbekistan.

Our path of reform and social progress is a complex process encompassing all spheres of life in the Republic — economic, political, social, spiritual, and cultural factors which determine the domestic and foreign policy of Uzbekistan.

The aims and purposes of the work. Main goal of the work is to analyze and find examples which show types of clipping and examples of different scholars approaches to the theme.

The actuality of the theme. In the technological century when everyone run and rush, clippings are used widely in people's speech.70 % of our life time is spent in various forms of communication activities-oral or written, so it is self evident now important for philologists.

The tasks of the graduation paper are :

1) To study the basic peculiarities of word formation in English language
2) To investigate clipping as a type of word-building
3) To reveal the types of clipping

The subject matter of the research paper is the clipping as a type of word formation.

The object of analyses of the graduation paper are the types of clipping in English language.

The scientific novelty of the work. In my qualification paper I tried to analyse clipping as a type of word formation of modern English, because shortening of words in this language become popular and ordinary.

The practical value. The practical value of the research is that the material and the results of the given qualification work can serve the material for theoretical courses of lexicology, and as well as can be used for practical lessons in translations, home reading, conversational practice, communicative vocabulary.

The methods of investigation.

The material of the qualification paper. Basic information's of the qualification work are given from the manuals of great scholars such as: Exercises by L.I. Grinberg , A course in Modern English Lexicology by R. A. Ginzburg, A practical course in English lexicology by J.Buranov, The English

word by I.V. Arnold. Besides above mentioned manuals I took information from Internet and World Book Encyclopedia.

The structure of the work. The qualifications work consists of Introduction, three chapters and conclusion , which are followed by the list of the literature used in the research.

Methodological recommendation of the work. This qualification paper is devoted to the definition of word formation, and one of the type of word formation-clipping and its types. It's methodological essence is that the study of word formation is to study is to study the patterns on which the English language builds words. Building words is studied at schools, lyceums and colleges but there is no special attention to the clippings and would be good if teachers sometimes explain this types of words to the learners.

Main part.

I Basic peculiarities of word formation in English language

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

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

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

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

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

Another classification of the types of word-formation worked out by H. Marchand is also of interest. Proceeding from the distinction between full linguistic signs and pseudo signs he considers two major groups: 1) words formed as grammatical syntagmas, i.e. combinations of full linguistic signs which are characterised by morphological motivation such as **do-er, un-do, rain-bow;** and 2) words which are not grammatical syntagmas, i.e. which are not made up of full linguistic signs. To the ' first group belong Compounding, Suffixation, Prefixation, Derivation by a Zero Morpheme and Back-Derivation, to the second — Expressive Symbolism, Blending, Clipping, Rime and Ablaut Gemination, Word-Manufacturing. It is characteristic of both groups that a new coining is based on a synchronic relationship between morphemes.

In the present work we proceed from the understanding of Word-Formation and the classification of word-formation types as found in A. I. Smirnitsky's book on English Lexicology.

W o r d - F o r m a t i o n is the system of derivative types of words and the process of creating new words from the material available in the language after certain structural and semantic formulas and patterns. For instance, the noun **driver** is formed after the pattern *v+-er,* i.e. a verbal stem +-the noun-forming suffix -er. The meaning of the derived noun **driver** is related to the meaning of the stem **drive- '**to direct the course of a vehicle' and the suffix **-er** meaning 'an active agent': a **driver** is 'one who drives' (a carriage, motorcar, railway engine, etc.). Likewise compounds resulting from two or more stems joined together to form a new word are also built on quite definite structural and semantic patterns and formulas, for instance adjectives of the **snow-white** type are built according to the formula *n+a,* etc. It can easily be observed that the meaning of the whole compound is also related to the meanings of the component parts. The structural patterns with the semantic relations they signal give rise to regular new creations of derivatives, e.g. **sleeper, giver, smiler or soat-black, tax-free,** etc.

In conformity with structural types of words described above[1] the following two types of word-formation may be distinguished, word-derivation and word-composition (or compounding). Words created by word-derivation have in terms of word-formation analysis only one derivational base and one derivational affix, e.g. cleanness (from **clean), to overestimate** (from **to estimate), chairmanship** (from **chairman), openhandedness** (from **openhanded),** etc. Some derived words have no derivational affixes, because derivation is achieved through conversion , e.g. **to paper** (from **paper),** a **fall** (from **to fall),** etc. Words created by word-composition have at least two bases, e.g. **lamp-shade, ice-cold, looking-glass," daydream, hotbed, speedometer,** etc.

Within the types, further distinction may be made between the ways of forming words. The basic ways of forming words i n w o r d - d e r i v a t i o n , for instance, are a f f i x a t i o n and c o n v e r s i o n . It should be noted that the understanding of word-formation as expounded here excludes semantic word-building as well as shortening, sound- and stress-interchange which traditionally are referred, as has been mentioned above, to minor ways of word-formation. By semantic word-building some linguists understand any change in word-meaning, e.g. **stock** — 'the lower part of the trunk of a tree'; 'something lifeless or stupid'; 'the part of an instrument that serves as a base', etc.; **bench** — **'**a long seat of wood or stone'; 'a carpenter's table', etc. The majority of linguists,

however, understand this process only as a change in the meaning of a word that may result in the appearance of homonyms, as is the case with **flower** — 'a blossom' and **flour** — 'the fine meal', 'powder made from wheat and used for making bread'; magazine — 'a publication' and **magazine** — 'the chamber for cartridges in a gun or rifle', etc. The application of the term w o r d - f o r m a t i o n to the process of semantic change and to the appearance of homonyms due to the development of polysemy seems to be debatable for the following reasons:

As semantic change does not, as a rule, lead to the introduction of a new word into the vocabulary, it can scarcely be regarded as a word building means. Neither can we consider the process a word-building means even when an actual enlargement of the vocabulary does come about through the appearance of a pair of homonyms. Actually, the appearance of homonyms is not a means of creating new words, but it is the final result of a long and laborious process of sense-development. Furthermore, there are no patterns after which homonyms can be made in the language. Finally, diverging sense-development results in a semantic isolation of two or more meanings of a word, whereas the process of word-formation proper is characterised by a certain semantic connection between the new word and the source lexical unit. For these reasons diverging sense-development leading to the appearance of two or more homonyms should be regarded as a specific channel through which the vocabulary of a language is replenished with new words and should not be treated on a par with the processes of word-formation, such as affixation, conversion and composition.

The shortening of words also stands apart from the above two-fold division of word-formation. It cannot be regarded as part of either word-derivation or word-composition for the simple reason that neither the derivational base nor the derivational affix can be singled out from the shortened word (e. g. **lab, exam, Euratom, V-day,** etc.).

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

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

What is said above is especially true of sound- and stress-interchange (also referred to as distinctive stress). Both sound- and stress-interchange may be regarded as ways of forming words only diachronically, because in Modern English not a single word can be coined by changing the root-vowel of a word or by shifting the place of the stress. Sound-interchange as well as stress-interchange in fact has turned into a means of distinguishing primarily between words of different parts of speech and as such is rather wide-spread in Modern English, e.g. **to sing — song, to live — life, strong — strength,** etc. It also distinguishes between different word-forms, e.g. **man — men, wife — wives, to know — knew, to leave — left,** etc.

Sound-interchange falls into two groups: vowel-interchange and consonant-interchange.By means of vowel-interchange we distinguish different parts of speech, e.g. **full — to fill, food — to feed, blood — to bleed,** etc. **In** some cases vowel-interchange is combined with affixation, e.g. **long — length, strong — strength, broad — breadth,** etc. Intransitive verbs and the corresponding transitive ones with a causative meaning also display vowel-interchange, e. g. **to rise — to raise, to sit — to set, to lie — to lay, to fall — to fell.**

The type of consonant-interchange typical of Modern English is the interchange of a voiceless fricative consonant in a noun and the corresponding voiced consonant in the corresponding verb, e.g. **use — to use, mouth — to mouth, house — to house, advice — to advise,** etc.

There are some particular cases of consonant-interchange: [k] — **[tʃ]: to speak — speech, to break — breach;** [s] — [d]: **defence — to defend; offence — to offend;** [s] — [t]: **evidence — evident, importance — important,** etc. Consonant-interchange may be combined with vowel-interchange, e.g. **bath — to bathe, breath — to breathe, life — to live,** etc.

Many English verbs of Latin-French origin are distinguished from the corresponding nouns by the position of stress. Here are some well-known examples of such pairs of words: ´export *n* — to ex´port *v;* ´import *n* — to im´port *v;* ´conduct *n* — to con'duct *v;* ´present *n* — to pre'sent *v;* ´contrast *n* — to con´trast *v;* ´increase *n* — to in´crease *v,* etc.

Stress-interchange is not restricted to pairs of words consisting of a noun and a verb. It may also occur between other parts of speech, for instance, between adjective and verb, e.g. ´**frequent** *a* **— to fre´quent** *v;* ´**absent a — to ab´sent** *v,* etc.

W o r d - f o r m a t i o n is that branch of Lexicology which studies the derivative structure of existing words and the patterns on which a language, 'in this case the English language, builds new words. It is self-evident that word-formation proper can deal only with words which are analysable both structurally and semantically, i.e. with all types of Complexes. The study of the simple word as such has no place in it. Simple words however are very closely connected with word-formation because they serve as the foundation, the basic source of the parent units motivating all types of derived and compound words. Therefore, words like **writer, displease, atom-free,** etc. make the subject matter of study in word-formation, but words like **to write, to please, atom, free** are not irrelevant to it.

Like any other linguistic phenomenon word-formation may be studied from two angles — synchronically and diachronically. It is necessary to distinguish between these two approaches, for synchronically the linguist investigates the existing system of the types of word-formation while diachronically he is concerned with the history of word-building. To illustrate the difference of approach we shall consider affixation. Diachronically it is the chronological order of formation of one word from some other word that is relevant. On the synchronic plane a derived word is regarded as having a more complex structure than its correlated word regardless of the fact whether it was derived from a simpler base or **a** more complex base. There are cases in the history of the English language when a word structurally more complex served as the original element from which a simpler word was derived. Those are cases of the process called back-formation (or back-derivation) , cf. **beggar — to beg; editor — to edit; chauffeur — to chauff** and some others. The fact that historically the verbs **to beg, to edit,** etc. were derived from the corresponding agent-nouns is of no synchronous relevance.

While analysing and describing word-formation synchronically it is not enough to extract the relevant structural elements from a word, describe its structure in terms of derivational bases, derivational affixes and the type of derivative patterns, it is absolutely necessary to determine the position of these patterns and their constituents within the structural-semantic system of the language as a whole. Productivity of a derivative type therefore cannot be overlooked in this description.

Some of the ways of forming words in present-day English can be resorted to for the creation of new words whenever the occasion demands — these are called p r o d u c t i v e ways of formi n g w o r d s, other ways of forming words

cannot now produce new words, and these are commonly termed n o n - p r o d u c t i v e or unp r o d u c t i v e . For instance, affixation has been a productive way of forming words ever since the Old English period; on the other hand, sound-interchange must have been at one time a word-building means but in Modern English, as has been mentioned above, its function is actually only to distinguish between different classes and forms of words.

It follows that productivity of word-building ways, individual derivational patterns and derivational affixes is understood as their ability of making new words which all who speak English find no difficulty in understanding, in particular their ability to create what are called o c c a s i o n a l   w o r d s or nonce-words. The term suggests that a speaker coins such words when he needs them; if on another occasion the same word is needed again, he coins it afresh. Nonce-words are built from familiar language material after familiar patterns.[3] Needless to say dictionaries do not as a rule record occasional words. The following words may serve as illustration: (his) **collarless** (appearance), a **lungful** (of smoke), a **Dickensish** (office), **to unlearn** (the rules), etc.

The delimitation between productive and non-productive ways and means of word-formation as stated above is not, however, accepted by all linguists without reserve. Some linguists consider it necessary to define the term productivity of a word-building means more accurately. They hold the view that productive ways and means of word-formation are only those that can be used for the formation of an unlimited number of new words in the modern language, i.e. such means that "know no bounds" and easily form occasional words. This divergence of opinion is responsible for the difference in the lists of derivational affixes considered productive in various books on English Lexicology.

Recent investigations seem to prove however that productivity of derivational means is relative in many respects. Moreover there are no absolutely productive means; derivational patterns and derivational affixes possess different degrees of productivity. Therefore it is important that conditions favouring productivity and the degree of productivity of **a** particular pattern or affix should be established. All derivational patterns experience both structural and semantic constraints. The fewer are the constraints the higher is the degree of productivity, the greater is the number of new words built on it. The two general constraints imposed on all derivational patterns are — the part of speech in which the pattern functions and the meaning attached to it which conveys the regular semantic correlation between the two classes of words. It follows that each part of speech is characterised by a set of productive derivational patterns peculiar to it. Three

degrees of productivity are distinguished for derivational patterns and individual derivational affixes: 1) h i g h l y - p r o d u c t i v e , 2) p r o d u c t i v e or s e m i - p r o d u c t i v e and 3) n o n - p r o d u c t i v e .

Productivity of derivational patterns and affixes should not be identified with frequency of occurrence in speech, although there may be some interrelation between them. Frequency of occurrence is characterised by the fact that a great number of words containing a given derivational affix are often used in speech, in particular in various texts. Productivity is characterised by the ability of a given suffix to make new words.

In linguistic literature there is another interpretation of derivational productivity based on a quantitative approach. A derivational pattern or a derivational affix are qualified as productive provided there are in the word-stock dozens and hundreds of derived words built on the pattern or with the help of the suffix in question. Thus interpreted, derivational productivity is distinguished from word-formation activity by which is meant the ability of an affix to produce new words, in particular occasional words or nonce-words. To give a few illustrations. The agent suffix **-er** is to be qualified both as a productive and as an active suffix: on the one hand, the English word-stock possesses hundreds of nouns containing this suffix (e.g. **driver, reaper, teacher, speaker,** etc.), on the other hand, the suffix **-er** in the pattern *v+-er -> N* is freely used to coin an unlimited number of nonce-words denoting active agents (e.g., **interrupter, respecter, laugher, breakfaster,** etc.).

The adjective suffix **-ful** is described as a productive but not as an active one, for there are hundreds of adjectives with this suffix (e.g. **beautiful, hopeful, useful,** etc.), but no new words seem to be built with its help.

For obvious reasons, the noun-suffix **-th** in terms of this approach is to be regarded both as a non-productive and a non-active one.

To sum up information about basic peculiarities of word formation we can say the following:

1. Word-formation is the process of creating words from the material available in the language after certain structural and semantic formulas and patterns.

2. As a subject of study English word-formation is that branch of English Lexicology which studies the derivative structure of words and the patterns on

which the English language builds new words. Like any other linguistic phenomenon, word-formation may be studied synchronically and diachronically.

3. There are two types of word-formation in Modern English: word-derivation and word-composition. Within the types further distinction is made between the various ways and means of word-formation.

4. There is every reason to exclude the shortening of words, lexicalisation, blending, acronymy from the system of word-formation and regard them and other word-forming processes as specific means of vocabulary replenishment.

5. Sound- and stress-interchange in Modern English are a means of distinguishing between different words, primarily between words of different parts of speech.

6. The degree of productivity and factors favouring it make an important aspect of synchronic description of every derivational pattern within the two types of word-formation.

Three degrees of productivity are distinguished for derivational patterns and individual derivational affixes: 1) h i g h l y - p r o d u c t i v e ,   2) p r o d u c t i v e or s e m i - p r o d u c t i v e and 3) n o n - p r o d u c t i v e .

Chapter II

Clipping as a type of word formation

Word-building processes involve not only qualitative but also quantitative changes. Thus, derivation and compounding represent addition, as affixes and free stems, respectively, are added to the underlying form. Shortening, on the other hand, may be represented as significant subtraction, in which part of the original word or word group is taken away. Moreover, every kind of shortening differs from derivation, composition and

conversion in being not a new arrangement of existing morphemes, but often a source of new ones.

The spoken and the written forms of the English language have each their own patterns of shortening, but as there is a constant exchange between both spheres, it is sometimes difficult to tell where a given shortening really originated.

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

Newly shortened words appear continuously; this is testified by numerous neologisms, such as *demo* n from *demonstration; frig* or *fridge* n from *refrigerator; mike* n from *microphone; telly* or *TV* n from *television set; trank* n from *tranquillizer; trannie* n from *transistor; vac* n from *vacuum cleaner,* etc.

Many authors are inclined to overemphasize the role of "the strain of modern life" as the mainspring of this development. This is, obviously, only one of the reasons, and the purely linguistic factors should not be overlooked. Among the major forces are the demands of rhythm, which are more readily satisfied when the words are monosyllabic.

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

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

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

The change is not only quantitative: a curtailed word is not merely a word that has lost its initial, middle or final part. Nor is it possible to treat shortening as just using a part for the whole as Ch. Hockett suggests, because a shortened word is always in some way different from its prototype in meaning and usage.

Shortening may be regarded as a type of root creation because the resulting new morphemes are capable of being used as free forms and combine with bound forms. They ran take functional suffixes: *"Ref's Warning Works Magic"* (the title of a newspaper article about a football match where the referee called both teams together and lectured them on rough play). Cf. sing. — *bike,* bod, pl. — *bikes, bods,* Inf. — *to vac,* Part. I — *vacking,* Past Indefinite tense and Part. II — *vacked.* Most of these by conversion produce verbs: *to phone, to vac, to vet,* etc., in which the semantic relationship with the prototype remains quite clear. They also serve as basis for further word-formation by derivation or composition: *fancy* n (from *fantasy), fancy* v, *fancier* n, *fanciful* a, *fancifully* adv, *fancifulness* n, *fancy-ball* n, *fancy-dress* n, *fancy-work* n, etc.; or *fantasmo* 'supremely fantastic' from *fantastic+-mo* on the analogy with *supremo* 'a chief.

It is interesting in this connection to compare the morphemes *tele-*in *television* and *telecast.* They are homonymous but not identical. *Tele-* in *television* is derived from Gr *tele* 'far', it is a combining form used to coin many special terms denoting instruments and processes which produce or record results at a distance, such as *telecommunication, telemechanics, telepathy, telephone, telescope and television* itself. *Tele-* in *telecast* does not mean 'far', it is a new development — the shortened variant of *television* rendering a special new concept. This becomes obvious from the following simple transformations: *television -» vision at a distance, tele(broad)cast = a broadcast at a distance,[1] tele(broad)cast —» a television broadcast.* In this new capacity *tele-* enters combinations: *telefilm, telemedicine, teleprompter* (an electronic device that slowly unrolls the speaker's text, in large print out of sight of the audience), *teletext, televiewer* 'one who uses a television set', *Tel-star* (Anglo-American satellite system used as television relay station). E.g. *It was broadcast via Telstar.* Note the capital letter and the absence of article. Similarly *para-* from *parachute* (Fr *para-* ' protecting' + *chute* 'a fall') gives *paraflare, paradrop, paradropper, paratroops, paratrooper.*

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

1. The curtailed form may be regarded as a variant or a synonym differing

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

2. In the opposite extreme case the connection can be established only etymologically. The denotative or lexico-grammatical meaning or both may have changed so much that the clipping becomes a separate word. Consequently a pair of etymological doublets (see p. 259) comes into being. Cf. *chap : : chapman* 'a pedlar'; *fan* 'an enthusiastic devotee' : : *fanatic; fancy : : fantasy; miss : : mistress.* A speaker who calls himself a football fan would probably be offended at being called a fanatic. A fanatic is understood to have unreasonable and exaggerated beliefs and opinions that make him socially dangerous, whereas a fan is only a devotee of a specified amusement. The relationship between curtailed forms and prototypes in this second group is irrelevant to the present-day vocabulary system, and is a matter of historic, i.e. diachronic study.

In both types the clipped forms (doc, *exam, chap, fan, etc.)* exist in the language alongside their respective prototypes. The difference, how- ever, is that whereas words belonging to the first group can be replaced by their prototypes and show in this way a certain degree of inter-changeability, the doublets are never equivalent lexically as there are no contexts where the prototype can replace the shortened word without a change of meaning.

The possibility of substitution in case of variants may be shown by the following example of a brief newspaper note about the prescription of eyeglasses for racing horses in Chicago. It runs as follows: *"Racehorses Are Fitted with Specs".* The substitution of *spectacles* for *specs* would make the headline a little less lively but not unacceptable.

This substitution, as a rule, can go only one way. It would be, for instance, impossible to use *mag* for *magazine* in a passage of literary criticism. The specific stylistic character of the clipped form greatly limits the possibilities of usage.

The semantic status of the group of variants (or synonyms) and that of the group of doublets is also different. Curtailed words of the first group (variants) render one of the possible meanings of the prototype creating by this very novelty a greater expressiveness, a colloquial or slangy shade and often emotional colouring as well. The following extract will illustrate this colouring: *"Still, I suppose you want to find your room. I wonder where they've put you. Half a mo — I'll come down and look on the board. You go and make the coff, Con," she called back as she came downstairs, "I shan't be a jiff." Everything with her was an abbreviation. Striking a match by the notice board, she*

searched for the number of my room. "Presuming the Ass Mat's remembered." "The who?" "Assistant Matron, old Fanny Harriman..." (M. Dickens)

It is typical of the curtailed words to render only one of the secondary meanings of a polysemantic word. For instance the verb *double* may mean 'to multiply by two', 'to increase two-fold', 'to amount to twice as much'; when used by musicians it means 'to add the same note in a higher or a lower octave'. In a military context the meaning is 'to move in double time or run'. As a nautical term it is synonymous to the expression 'to get round headland', etc. *Dub,* on the contrary, renders only one of the specific meanings — 'to make another sound recording in a cinema film in a different language'.

The curtailed words belonging to this type are mostly monosemantic as, for example, *lab, exam, fan.* Also they are often homonymous: compare *van* and *vac* as treated above, also *gym* for *gymnastics* and *gym* for *gymnasium,* or *vet* for *veteran* and *veterinary.*

Between the two groups of well-defined extreme cases, namely variants or synonyms and doublets, there exist numerous intermediate cases, where the classification is difficult. The appearance of a more complex semantic structure in a word is a step towards its acquiring greater independence and thus becoming not a variant but a doublet of the prototype.

The second extreme group, the etymological doublets, may develop semantic structures of their own. Very complex semantic cases like *fancy* with its many meanings and high valency are nevertheless rare.

It has been specified in the definition of the process that the clipped part is not always a complete morpheme, so that the division is only occasionally correlated with the division into immediate constituents. For instance, in *phone* for *telephone* and *photo* for *photograph* the remaining parts are complete morphemes occurring in other words. On the other hand in *ec* or *eco* (from *economics)* or *trannie (transistor)* the morphological structure of the prototype is disregarded. All linguists agree that most often it is either the first or the stressed part of the word that remains to represent the whole. An interesting and convincing explanation for this is offered by M.M. Segal, who quotes the results of several experimental investigations dealing with informativeness of parts of words. These experiments carried out by psychologists have proved very definitely that the initial components of words are imprinted in the mind and memory more readily than the final parts. The signalling value of the first stressed syllable, especially when it is at the same time the root syllable, is naturally much higher than that of the unstressed final syllables with their reduced vowel sounds.

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

Unlike conversion, shortening produces new words in the same part of speech. The bulk of curtailed words is constituted by nouns. Verbs are hardly ever shortened in present-day English. *Rev* from *revolve* and *tab* from *tabulate* may be considered exceptions. Such clipped verbs as do occur are in fact converted nouns. Consequently the verbs *to perm, to phone, to taxi, to vac, to vet* and many others are not curtailed words diachronically but may be regarded as such by right of structure, from the synchronic point of view. As to the verbs *to pend, to mend, to tend* and a few others, they were actually coined as curtailed words but not at the present stage of language development.

Shortened adjectives are very few and mostly reveal a combined effect of shortening and suffixation, e.g. *comfy : : comfortable, dilly : : delightful, imposs : : impossible, mizzy :: miserable,* which occur in schoolgirl slang.

As an example of a shortened interjection *Shun! : : attention,* the word of command may be mentioned.

Chapter III

Types of clipping

Various classifications of shortened words have been or may be offered. The generally accepted one is that based on the position of the clipped part. According to whether it is the final, initial or middle part of the word that is cut off we distinguish: 1) f i n a 1 clipping (or apocope), from Greek *apokoptein* 'cut off, 2) initial clipping (or a p h e s i s, i.e. a p h e r e s i s), from Greek *aphairesis* 'a taking away' and 3) medial clipping (or syncope), from Greek *syncope* 'a cutting up'.

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

2. Initial-clipped words retaining the final part of the prototype are less numerous but much more firmly established as separate lexical units with a meaning very different from that of the prototype and stylistically neutral doublets, e.g. *cute* a, n (Am) : : *acute; fend* v : : *defend; mend* v : : *amend; story* n : : *history; sport* n : : *disport; tend* v : : *attend.* Cases like *cello : : violoncello and phone : : telephone* where the curtailed words are stylistic synonyms or even variants of their respective pro totypes are very rare. Neologisms are few, e.g. *chute : : parachute.* It is in this group that the process of assimilation of loan words is especially frequent.

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

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

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

The few exceptions are exemplified by *tarmac,* a technical term for *tar-macadam* (a road surface of crushed stone and tar originally named after the inventor J.L. McAdam); also *cabbie* for *cabman.* But then *-man* in such cases is most often a semi-affix, not a free form, and, besides, the process of shortening is here combined with derivation as in *nightie* for *nightdress* or *teeny* for *teenager.*

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

Ellipsis is defined as the omission of a word or words considered essential for grammatical completeness but not for the conveyance of the intended lexical meaning, as in the following example: *the* related two types of blends can be distinguished. One may be termed additive, the second restrictive. Both involve the sliding together not only of sound but of meaning as well. Yet the semantic relations which are at work are different. The first, i.e. additive type, is transformable into a phrase consisting of the respective complete stems combined by the conjunction *and,* e.g. *smog<smoke* and fog 'a mixture of smoke and fog'. The elements may be synonymous, belong to the same semantic field or at least be members of the same lexico-grammatical class of words: *French+English>Frenglish;* compare also the coinage *smaze <smoke+haze.* The word *Pakistan* was made up of elements taken from the names of the five western provinces: the initials of the words *Punjab, Afghania, Kashmir* and *Singh,* and the final part of *Baluchistan.* Other examples are: *brunch<breakfast* and *lunch; transceiver< transmitter* and *receiver; Niffles < Niagara Falls.*

The restrictive type is transformable into an attributive phrase where the first element serves as modifier of the second: *cine(matographic pano) rama>cinerama.* Other examples are: *medicare<medical care; posi-tron<positive electron; telecast<television broadcast.* An interesting variation of the same type is presented by cases of superposition, formed by pairs of words having similar clusters of sounds which seem to provoke blending, e.g. *motel<motorists' hotel:* the element *-ot-* is present in both parts of the prototype. Further examples are: *shamboo<sham bamboo* (imitation bamboo); *atomaniac<atom maniac; slanguage<slang + language; spam<spiced ham.* Blends, although not very numerous altogether, seem to be on the rise, especially in terminology and also in trade advertisements.

In this qualification paper we try investigate and show other investigation about clipping and its types, it means we investigate clippings of world languages.

This paper deals with the issues connected with clipping in two rather unrelated and different languages of the Indo-European group of languages - Latvian and English.

The ability to coin as well as understand new words rather easily derives in part from the fact that there is a lot of regularity in word-formation processes: word- formation types, paradigms which the word has to fit, and analogies with similar words. On die other hand, word-formation patterns are not always used in a neat and tidy manner, nor are they in general so regular. They are often combined creating a multitude of variants.

Even today in studies of English there is still much disagreement about which patterns are to be included within word-formation scope and which not. Usually affixation, composition, clipping and conversion are included. Yet, clipping is often viewed as differing from the traditional word-formation types and referred to the sphere of speech, not language (Marchand 1968). As pointed out by Bauer (1983: 89), some word-formation patterns display parallelism and there exist links between different patterns, so, for example, clipping is formally very similar to back-formation, because in both cases the base is shortened.

Latvian word-formation studies (being very traditional, not to say antiquated) prefer to devote most attention to composition and affixation (which are the predominant word-formation types). Much less attention is paid to conversion and abbreviation, and clipping is generally ignored (Grabis 1959, Kalme and Smiltniece 1989, Freimane 1993). Other word-formation types, if touched upon, are generally viewed outside the sphere of word-formation. As suggested by Endzetlns (1951), Latvian word- formation studies are very historically centred. New tendencies are at best ignored, at worst fought as distorting the traditional Latvian patterns. Thus even the name for the process of clipping *{strupindsana)* is a relatively new one - usually clippings were viewed under the common name of shortening *(smsindsana).* There is also a much greater gap between the written and spoken language in Latvian than in English and clipping is more characteristic of the colloquial language. Another difference is that English word-formation has been very much left to develop on its own, (of course analogy and common sense affect it) while Latvian word-building has, to a great extent, been worked out and monitored by linguists.

Despite the fact that English and Latvian belong to the same language family, their morphological typology differs considerably. This, first and foremost, concerns the morphological structure of the words. While the basic wordstock of English consists of one-morpheme words where the root morpheme is both the independent word and the stem for word-formation, Latvian words consist mainly of two and even three morphemes - the root and the affix or the root and two affixes, e.g. a comparison of two semantically identical sentences consisting of equivalent words:

This difference is determined by the distinctly inflectional nature of Latvian. In its turn it is connected with the word-formation patterns (Arakin 1979: 221-222): languages in which one-morpheme units predominate tend to prefer non-affixational word-formation patterns (English, Chinese), while a two-morpheme pattern leads to the dominance of affixation (Latvian, Russian, German). Consequently, it is only natural that clipping takes a more prominent place in English than in Latvian, where the multimorphemic words are often the result of several affixes which cannot be deleted for grammatical reasons. Also the new clipped form in Latvian is much more complex - while an English word, after losing its elements is "ready" for use, Latvian clipping is still to be supplied with a derivational suffix and inflectional ending, e.g. *mineraludens* 'mineral water' < *min - it -* w [clipped form + diminutive suffix + masculine inflectional ending]; *sizofreniJfis* 'schizophrenic' < *siz - in - s* [clipped form + diminutive suffix + masculine inflectional ending].

Clipping is shortening of a word by cutting off its elements. Clipping is sometimes also called unabbreviated shortening.

This type of economy is a frequent occurrence in many languages. Clipping is not so much a method of new word formation, rather altering old ones with a slight change of their meaning (mainly connotational). The new form normally retains the semantic and syntactic function of the original. As the economy principle in language would not allow having two forms with one meaning simultaneously, so clipping generally retain more of a colloquial or slangy tinge, they indicate an attitude of familiarity on the part of the user, either towards the object denoted, or towards the audience. One can differentiate between historical clipping and modem clipping. As the latter is of more importance for contrastive studies, we will look at it first.

Here we will write about modern clipping.

Clipping is very common in English. It was pointed out decades ago that English prefers monosyllabism. Clipping as a word-formation type among neologisms constitutes 4.6% and actually outnumbers abbreviations.[Cannon. 152].

Clipping is a predominant feature of school and college slang, e.g. *grad < graduate*, *exam < examination, physed < physical education*, *lab < laboratory, digs < diggings, math < mathematics, econ < economics*, *dorms < dormitories*, etc. which does not mean that such use is limited to schools or universities only.

As a direct parallel the great spread of clipping in school and college slang in Latvian could be pointed out, e.g. *latene < latviesu valoda* 'Latvian', *dirkskis < direktors* 'director', *alkdns < alkoholilps* 'alcoholic', *eksis < eksamens ⁱexa.m\ fakis <fakultate* 'faculty', *litene < literatura* 'literature', *matene < matematika* 'mathematics'. As a slang phenomenon it has at least been around in this century.

As a slang phenomenon it has at least been around in this century.Apart from this, other specific language spheres contribute to the production of clippings, e.g. *vet < veteran, cap < captain, copter < helicopter*, *chute < parachute* take their origin in army slang, while *bra < brassiere, nighty < nightdress, undies < underclothes, pants!panties < pantaloons* seem to have come from shop slang. Afterwards, similar to other slang words, they pass into the standard language.

Afterwards, similar to other slang words, they pass into the standard language. One can also distinguish some spheres in Latvian where clipping is rather rife, e. g. sports: *futene/fukis* 'football', *basis/baskets* 'basketball'; technical gadgets *dipins* 'slide', *magis* 'recorder', *telluks* 'TV *set',focuks* 'camera', *plafcenes* 'pliers'), and others.

Clipping is less common in Latvian than in English and the statement that "the tendency to abbreviate is minimal in Standard Latvian" (Ru^e-Draviija 1977: 100) can be considered quite true of the earlier period of development. However, the situation has, to a certain extent, changed. There have been attempts in the past by outstanding linguists and writers to improve the language by creating shorter forms. The greatest Latvian poet, Rainis, promoted shorter forms both in theory and in practice. There have always been rather many clippings in colloquial language and slang, as well as in the spoken language (e.g. one could mention the tendency to reduce the definite adjectival endings), but in the past linguists did not take it seriously since the gap between the standard written language and the spoken language was significant.

Yet today, there are many literary words created by means of backclipping, to mention but a few: *mlla < mllestlba* 'love', *ilgas < ilgosands* 'longing'. These can be viewed as clipping of the rather clumsy suffixes *Sana, -Tba*, but might as well be viewed as resuffixation - substitution of these suffixes by another denotationally equivalent, shorter suffix: *-e: atveidosana > atveide* 'reproduction', *ritesana > rite*

'circulation', *slldesana > slide* 'sliding', *piesaistisana > piesaiste* 'attraction'. The suffix *~e* has become rather productive in terminology and general word-formation and carries a slight modernistic or terminological tinge.

There is a gradually growing tendency for clippings (including new occasional ones) to appear in written language and, therefore, to lose their solely colloquial status. For example: Svaigs ir tikai ta krasojums, kas rota tramu , so pilsetas vilcienu. ...tramam pat izdomaja krustmati... (*Diena,* 25.11.1994) (*trams < tramvajs* 'tram')

Clipping predominantly affects nouns. In English there are a few verbs that are used in their clipped forms, e.g. *rev < revolve*, *prep < prepare*, *phone < telephone,* and a few adjectives: *comfy < comfortable, mizzy < miserable.*

Clipping in English is not restricted by any rules of what the final elements of the clipped form should be (e.g., *limo,pro, cap)*. The cut does not even have to coincide with the morpheme boundary or the syllable structure: *exam < e.xa.mi.naMon*, *grad <gradu.ate.* Unlike in English, in Russian clippings generally end on a consonant.

In Latvian the addition of the ending (derivational suffix + inflectional ending) is inevitable and the cut is normally after the first syllable. This means that clipping in Latvian is predominantly rule-driven: normally the first syllable of a multisyllabic word remains and a suffix from a relatively restricted set (see below) is added. The rare polysyllabic clipping form (not counting the suffix) can normally be accounted for by some other linguistic reason, e.g. *datorsciks < datorspecidlists* 'computer specialist' has been affected by Russian and the earlier existence of a Russian barbarism (though widely used) in Latvian *datciks* 'sensory element' which could cause misunderstanding.

Generally, the clippings are predictable, typical of short Latvian names and the-oretically clipping could easily spread to wide layers of vocabulary, however, it does not.

There are three main types of clipping: backclipping, foreclipping, and middle clipping.

In the case of backclipping (aposcrapy) the final part of the word is cut off. Backclipping is the most common way of clipping in English, e.g.

Advertisement	doctor

Laboratory	fabulous
Professor	miniskirt
Professional	chimpanzee
Demonstration	fanatic
Captain	referee
Clitoris	gentleman
William	cigarette

Backclipping can go together with ellipsis in compound phrases: *zoo < zoological gardens, proms < promenade concerts, perm < permanent wave, pub < public*

house, prefab < prefabricated house. This model is widespread in Latvian (see the Latvian examples below).

Similarily to English, in Latvian backclipping also takes the dominant role. There is a great similarity between traditional English backclippings and the Latvian ones. These clippings are most characteristic of school or college slang, but many of them are used in general slang and colloquial language. In many cases clippings stand for a notion expressed by a phrase (clipping and ellipsis), in which case the attributive word is retained and clipped. Clippings in Latvian are often accompanied by a change in the root of the word. The phonological change in the remaining part of the source word is often the result of Latvian phonological rules, e.g. palatalization because of the introduction of a narrow vowel *ekonomiskais veikals* 'economical supermarket' > *ekitis, plakanknaibles* 'pliers' > *plakenes, fakultate* 'faculty' > *fakis, magnetafons* 'recorder' > *magis, veikals* 'shop' > *veicis,* influence of loans *videofilma* 'video' > Russian *vig'ik* > Latvian *vigiks,* as well as optimization of pronunciation and perception *diapozitlvs* 'slide' > *dipins, televizors* 'TV set' > *te}}uks.*

As pointed out before clippings are always supplied with an extended (suffix + inflectional ending) ending from a relatively restricted set (mainly diminutives).

1 *-ene*

disene < diskoteka 'disco'

biblene < *biblioteka* 'library'

litene < *literature* 'literature'

latene < *latviesu valoda* 'Latvian language'

dzimene < *dzimsanas diena* 'birthday'

multene < *multiplikdcijas filma* 'cartoon film'

ucene < Rus. *uchitelnitsa* 'teacher-f.'

futene < *futbols* 'football'

plakenes < *plakanknaibles* 'pliers'

krosenes krosa < *kurpes* 'sports shoes'-*is*

fafyis < *fakultate* 'faculty'

 flomis < *flomasters* 'felt tip pen'

 magis < *magnetafons* 'recorder'

veicis < *veikals* 'shop'

eksis < *eksdmens* 'exam'

megis < *megindjums* 'rehearsal'

 tTnis < *tineidzers* 'teenager'

fufps < futbol 'football's

fcinis < *kino* 'cinema

mocis < *motocikls* 'motorcycle'

kompis < *kompjuters* 'computer'

-uzis

kafuzis < *kafejhfca* 'cafe'

restuzis < restordns 'restaurant'

eduzis < ednica 'canteen'

vannuzis < vannas istaba 'bathroom'

-itis

unitis < universdlveikals 'supermarket'

 eiptis < ekonomiskais veikals 'economical supermarket'

 dipitis < deporteta persona 'deported person'

 minitis < minerdludens 'mineral water'

-ins

dipigs < diapozitivs 'slide'

letigs < latvietis 'Latvian'

zapins < zaporozecs 'zaporozhets car'

sizigs < sizofrenikis 'schizophrenic'

autins < automasfna 'car'

id ins < idiots 'idiot'

-uks

telluks < televizors 'tv set'

 ucuks < Rus. *uchitel* 'teacher-m.'

 focuks < fotoapardts 'camera'

 ricuks < (div)ritenis 'bike'

 specuks < specialists 'expert' various:

stipa < stipendija 'grant'

auto < automasTna 'car'

baskets < basketbols 'basketball'

vigiks < videofilma 'video'

datorsciks < datoroperators 'computer operator'

It is interesting to note that there is a change of gender in some of the clippings. As practically all nouns in Latvian must acquire gender it would be reasonable to expect clippings to retain the gender of the original noun. Yet, sometimes the masculine suffix seems to be more attractive and dominates the feminine gender of the source word (though there exist parallel masculine and feminine suffix forms). The masculine seems to dominate in most of the cases: *automasfna > auto*, *videofilma > vigiks*, *deporteta persona > dipitis*, *ednica > eduzis*$_y$ *kafejnica > kafuzis*. The opposite process has only one example: *futbols < futene*. This falls in line with the general tendency of "masculinization" in Latvian.

These clippings are most characteristic of school or college slang, but many of them are used in general slang and colloquial language. In many cases clippings stand for a notion expressed by a phrase (clipping and ellipsis), in which case the attributive word is retained and clipped.

In the case of foreclipping (frontclipping, apheresis) the front part of the word is deleted, e.g.

Airplane	*Hamburger*
Omnibus	*Telephone*
Helicopter	*varsity < university*

Telegram	*Becky < Rebecca*
Periwig	*Parachute*
Violincello	*brolly < umbrella*
Microfiche	*Hydrofoil*

In comparison to backclipping, foreclipping is not so widespread - which might be explained by several reasons. It is easier to identify backclipping (the beginning of the word is enough) than frontclipping and this may affect die spread of the new form. Jespersen (1934) has interesting data that children actually prefer the front- clippings, while adults give preference to backclippings.

In the case of middle clipping (syncope), something is cut out in the middle of the word. These clippings are often graphically visible (use of apostrophies), sometimes they reflect pronunciation. Occasionally they are used for space economy reasons (titles, noticeboards), some cases can be viewed as backclippings with the addition of an 's', e.g.

ma'am < madam specs < spectacles Jo¹burg < Johannesburg maths < mathematics didn't < did not vibes < vibrations prade < parade pants < pantaloons B'ham < Birmingham.

In English there are quite frequent combinations of the two of the above mentioned types, i.e. foreclipping and backclipping affecting one word (often personal names) simultaneously. For example, *detective, prescription, influenza, head shirker, refrigerator, distillery, Elizabeth.*

Clipping can also go together with compounding. Clippings often become the first constituents in the compound, e.g. *con man < confidence man*, *paratroops < parachute troops.* If this model turns out to be productive for one form the clipping can turn into a semi-affix, as in: *Eurocup < European cup*, *Eurofighter*, *Eurasia, minibus < miniature bus*, *minibudget, minicab, minipill.*

This type of clipping plus compounding is quite widespread in Standard Latvian and neutral in style, often connected with the scientific style of the newspaper language. It is backclipping together with compounding bordering on semi affixation, e.g. *speckurss < specidlais kurss* 'special course', *specskola < specidld skola* 'special school', *politinformacija < politiska informdcija* 'political information', *fizkul- tura < fiziskd kultura* 'physical information', *santehnika < sanitard tehnika* 'sanitation technology', *geofizika < geografiskd fizika* 'geo-physics', *Eiroparlaments < Eiropas parlaments* 'Europarliament'.

Clippings can also be second constituents in the compounds: *skylab < sky laboratory*, *showbiz < show business.*

No compounds with a second element clipped have been noted in Latvian.

Two backclippings. There can also be compounds consisting of two backclippings: *sit-com < situation comedy*, *telex < teleprinter exchange*, *hi-fi < high fidelity*, *sci-fi < science fiction Interpol < international police*, *napalm < naphthenate palmitate*, *phys-ed < physical education*, *comintem < communist international*, or even 3 elements *Benelux < Belgium*, *Netherlands*, *Luxembourg*.

Also in Latvian one meets compounds consisting of two backclippings: *partorgs* 'party organizers', *Latvenergo* 'Latvian Energy', *Donbass* 'Don Bassin', *kolhozs* 'collective farm', *sovhozs* 'soviet farm', *agitprops* 'agitation and propaganda'. There is usually a strong influence of Russian behind these clipped compounds (loan translations) and they are generally either borrowed or built from international elements by use of analogy. Yet some of the new units seem to be created solely in Latvian, e,g. *zemsaviesi* 'members of the Farmers' Union', *humpala* 'humanitarian assistance', etc.:Ekonomikas ministrs bu§ot pazlstamais labdaris Joahims ZTgerists - vipam liela pieredze humpalu gadasana.(*humpala < humanitara palldzTba* 'humanitarian assistance').

Cippings can also be second constituents in the compounds: *skylab < sky labo- ratory*, *showbiz < show business.*

There can also be compounds consisting of two backclippings: *sit-com < situation comedy*, *telex < teleprinter exchange*, *hi-fi < high fidelity*, *sci-fi < science fiction Interpol < international police*, *napalm < naphthenate palmitate*, *physed < physical education*, or even 3 elements *Benelux < Belgium, Netherlands, Luxembourg.*

Though most of the clippings in English are shortened forms of the initial word without any other change, some clippings undergo a graphical change in the process (mainly in order to maintain the pronunciation of the source form). Hypocoristic ending *-y* is sometimes applied: *comfy, undies.*

Hbe < library lib < liberation mike < microphone nightie < nightdress nuke < nuclear weapons hanky < handkerchief sample < example
dub < double ammo < ammunition ciggie/y < cigarette biz < business libbie < liberationist tute < tutor teeny < teenager telly < television vegie < vegetarian varsity < university pram < perambulator Victoria < Vic/Vicky

It is interesting that some of these formally modified clippings obtain a diminutive ending, which in general is not widespread in English.

Diachronically, it can happen that one of the two forms can disappear or change semantically. The full forms rarely fall out of use altogether, yet there are a few such cases, e.g. *chap < chapman, brandy < brandewine, mob < mobile.* Sometimes there is a differentiation of meaning and the semantic link between the full word and the clipping is lost, e.g. *vamp < vampire_y gin < Geneva.*

Diachronically, there may be a considerable change of meaning, when the clipped words acquire new meaning, e.g, *miss < mistress, cab < cabriolet, van < caravan*, *navvy < navigator*, *van < vanguard, wig < periwig*.

In Latvian random historical clipping is rather rare. Yet, there are parts of speech where clipping has occurred even rather regularly, generally connected with a change of its part of speech (often a phrase undergoes ellipsis and clipping) or diachronic reductive processes, or sound change, etc. This is more suggestive of the "word creation" type of clippings

Clipping or abbreviation, as a morphological process, is very productive; not only in the English language but also in many African languages. It involves some element of reduction in the length of a word. According to Adeniyi (1997), clipping is a pseudo-lexical unit which results from the grapho-phonemic reduction of a word, which still shares the semantic and paradigmatic relationship with the full form of the word. It can also be seen extracting a shortened form of a word from its longer morphological from. In English, for instance, 'telephone' becomes phone; brassiere is bra; in some cases, the clipped version has more or less completely replaced the original longer word, e. g. flu. Note that a clipped form is a complete lexical unit which should not be confused as abbreviation of its full form. Crystal (1999) defines 'clipping as a type of word formation in which new words are derived by shortening another word'. Some of the examples he gave include, exam from examination, and ad for advertisement. However, Aronoff (1997) defines clipping as a process that shortens a polysyllabic word by deleting one or more syllables. He gave examples such as Liz, Ron, Rob, Sue, and so on. In all the definitions above, it is clear that both the clipped form which it originates share both semantic and syntactic features. However, the two words are distinct lexical units with separate morphological identities.

We have to note that the various types of clipped form are restricted to everyday casual and informal discourse among family members, friends and acquaintances. However, the full length of these names are usually reserved and employed for formal interactions and official records. We can identify two types of clipping in the English language. These are back clipping and fore-clipping. In fore-clipping, an element or elements are taken from the beginning of a word. Some of the examples in this category include (ham) burger, (omni) bus, (alli) gator, (tele) phone, (heli) copter and many more. This type of clipping also occurs with personal names in the English language. Some of these

examples include, Becky for Rebecca, Drew, for Andrew, Grinny for Virginia. In the case of fore clipping, an element or elements are taken from the end of a name. What we then have is an abridged version, which can still stand in

its place. In English for instance, the following have undergone various back-clippings as can be seen from the following examples; chimp (panzee), deli (catessen), hippo (potamus), lab(ratory); gas (oline), Pro(fessor) and many more. Many names in the language have been clipped to the extent that some native speakers cannot relate the full version of the name with the clipped version.

In Anna Enarrson's work "New Blends in the English Language" clippings were described too. The investigation suggested that most of the blends were made by clipping and the second most common form was clipping and overlapping. Blends with only overlapping was unusual and accounted for only three percent. The investigation also suggested that the most common way to create blends by clipping was to use the first part of the first word and the last part of the second word.

Blends with clipping have no overlapping. Instead one part or more is omitted.

There are different patterns that are used when creating these kinds of blends.

One is to keep the whole part of the first word and the last part of the second word.

Foodoholic = food + alcoholic

Fanzine = fan + magazine

Another alternative is to keep the whole second word and only use the first part of the first word.

Eurasia = Europe + Asia

When both words are clipped it is common to use the first part of the first word and the last part of the second part. Two widely used blends are examples of this combination:

Brunch = breakfast + lunch

Smog = smoke + fog

Some blends are created by using both clipping and overlapping. There are many variations of patterns to this word-formation. The words that follow are some examples.

Californication = California + ornicate

Suspose = suspect + suppose

Hungarican = Hungarian + American

Motel = Motor + hotel (Algeo 1977:52)

Blends can be described in terms of distinguishing features as was done above, but there is also another way to distinguish them: they can be classified according to whether they are syntagmatic or associative.

Syntagmatic blends are blends that represent combinations of words that occur next to one another in the speech chain. Although normally regarded as blends, they could equally be seen as contractions. In most of these cases the first word ends with the same sound or sequence of sounds as the second word begins with.

Chicagorilla = Chicago + gorilla

Radarange = radar + range

However, syntagmatic blends do not need to be haplologistic(contraction of a word by omission of one or more similar sounds or syllables) . Some reflect both clipping of one or both forms, some overlapping, and some both processes.

The following two blends are examples of syntagmatic blends:

Amerind = American + Indian

Hashbury = Haight + Ashbury

Associative blends, by contrast, are created from words that are linked in the word-maker's mind. The words can share a common base morpheme or affix, or they might be similar in sound. They can also have a semantic link,

which is most common. The clearest examples of associative blends are those which are made by combining synonyms:

Bonk = bump + conk

Swellegant = swell + elegant

Needcessity = need + necessity

Shill = shiver + chill

When words that belong to the same paradigmatic class, but are not synonyms, are combined into a blend the result is sometimes called a dvandva blend (a term from Sanskrit grammar). Smog from the words smoke and fog is an example of a dvandva blend. Synonymic and dvandva blends are similar because the words can replace each other. It is possible to use bumped, conked and bonked in the same place in a sentence and with the same meaning. These blends are called paradigmatic blends. A blend whose source words are associated with each other but are not interchangeable is called a jumble. Foodoholic from food and alcoholic is one example of a jumble (Algeo 1977:55-58).

A fourth alternative is to combine the first parts of both or all elements.

Agitprop = agitation + propaganda
Aldehyde = alcohol + dehydrogenatum

Algeo believes that acronyms belong to this class of blends rather than being a seperate type of word-formation (Algeo 1977:50). However Anna does not agree with Algeo on this. She treats acronyms as a separate type of word-formation.

Blends that have been created by simple clipping are often shortened at morpheme boundaries.

Oxbridge, which is a blend of the words Oxford and Cambridge, is an example of this. In cases like Oxbridge it can be difficult to decide if the word results from blending or from compounding if one does not know its background. Blends that are clipped at morpheme boundaries are therefore a less obvious

example of the blending process than blends that are shortened in a less straightforward manner.

Blending can turn into compounding as in the example that follows. Landscape is a word that was borrowed from Dutch, and it was used to create new blends: cityscape, inscape, offscape and more. Even the single word scape was

created from the word landscape. Because of this, any new word that is formed using the morpheme scape can no longer be seen as a blend but a compound. Blending can also give new meaning to morphemes. The blends radiocast, telecast, sportscast and newscast have given the word cast the meaning of broadcast (Algeo 1977:51-52).

Blends with clipping were the most common type of blend. As many as 33 words were created using this method. There were a number of different patterns with this type of blends as illustrated below:

a) Blends created by using the first part of the first word and the last part of the second word:

Malware = malicious + software

Telematics = telecommunications + informatics

Thermistor = thermal + resistor

Tigon = tiger + lion

Cineplex = cinema + complex

Permaculture=permanent+agricultu

Voxel = volume + pixel

Triticale = triticum + secale

Geep = goat + sheep

Fembot=female+ robot

Smaze = smoke + haze

Pluot = plum + apricot

Carboloy=carbon+allo

Japlish=Japanese+English

Spork =spoon+fork

McMansion =McDonalds + mansion

Feminazi = feminist + nazi

McJob = McDonalds + job

Juneteenth = June + nineteenth

b) Blends created by using the whole first word and the last part of the second word:

Folksonomy=folk +taxonomy

Webzine = web + magazine

Herstory = her + history

Jazzercise = jazz + exercise

Reaganomics = Reagan + economics

c) Blends created by using the first part of the first word and the whole second word:

Qubit = quantum + bit

d) Blends created by using the last parts of two words:

Podcasting = ipod + broadcasting

e) Blends created by using the first parts of both the words:

Pokémon = pocket + monster

Sysop = system + operator

Famicom = family + computer

Mutagen = mutation + genesis

Cockapoo = cocker spaniel + poodle

f) Uncategorized blends of the blends with clipping were difficult to place in any of the categories mentioned above. Those blends were moxibustion from mogusa and combustion, and frumious from fuming and furious.

As can be seen from the above, the most common way to create blends with clipping is to use the first part of the first word and the last part of the second word.

Blends with clipping and overlapping. Twenty-two blends were created by using both clipping and overlapping. In many of these only one phoneme overlapped while in others larger units were involved. Those that overlapped only one letter represented almost half of all the blends in this category, more precisely 12 out of 25 words:

Bollywood = Bombay + Hollywood

Fugly = fucking + ugly

Carborundum = carbon + corundum

Silastic = silicone + plastic

Dramedy=dramatic+comedy

Brouter = bridge + router

Tofurkey = tofu + turkey

Dancercise = dance + exercise

Tangelo = tangerine + pomelo

Liger = lion + tiger

Arcology = architecture + ecology

Codec = coder + decoder

One interesting conclusion that can be drawn by looking at the blends with one overlapping phoneme is that in all cases the blends are made by using the first part of the first word and the last part of the second word. This means that these words follow the most common pattern for blends with clipping. Other blends had larger overlaps than those mentioned above:

Skort = skirt + short

Chunnel = channel + tunnel

Mockumentary = mock + documentary

Rockumentary = rock + documentary

Cremains = cremated + remains

Screenager = screen + teenager

Anacronym = anachronism + acronym

Ebonics = ebony + phonics

Yinglish = Yiddish + English

Blaxploitation = black + exploitation

Toonie = two + loonie

Fantabulous = fantastic + fabulous

Affluenza = affluence + influenza

The blends with an overlap that covered more than one phoneme follow almost the same patterns as those with a one phoneme-overlap. All blends are

created by using the first part of the first word, and most also use the last part of the second word.

Methodological recommendation

As we say above lexicology is branch of linguistic, and its ways of forming words are studied not only by text-books on lexicology, but by other interesting text-books. Here I want to show and explain some activities we may do studying shortenings, especially clippings.

Activity 1. Pick out the words with aphaeresis, syncope, or apocope, and comment on the formation of each word.

Becky, Bella, Bess, brig, buss, cab, captain, cause, curtsy, cycle, demob, exam, fancy, Fred, guy, Kate, mend, Mrs, Mr, mob, Nick, peal, phiz, photo, photo-intelligence, paratroops,prep, props, sprite, sport, taxi, teck, through, Tony, tram, USA, wig, zoo.

Activity 2. a) Write out in full the following shortened words.

b) Define the type of shortening

teck, N.C.O., pub, ad, fancy, H-bomb, U- boat.

Activity 3. a)Pick out all the shortenings from the sentences given below.

b) Analyse the type of shortening

Conclusion

In conclusion we can say that the shortening of words means substituting a part for a whole, part of the word is taken away and used for the whole.

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

Clippings are not coined as words belonging to the standard vocabulary of a language. They originate as terms of a special group like schools, army, police, the medical profession, etc., in the intimacy of a milieu where a hint is sufficient to indicate the whole. For example, *exam* (ination), *math* (ematics), and *lab*(oratory) originated in school <u>slang</u>; *spec* (ulation) and *tick*(et = credit) in stock-exchange slang; and *vet* (eran) and *cap* (tain) in army slang. While clipping terms of some influential groups can pass into common usage, becoming part of Standard English, clippings of a socially unimportant class or group will remain group slang.

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

Clipping mainly consists of the following types:

1. Back clipping
2. Fore-clipping

3. Middle clipping

4. Complex clipping

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

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

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

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

For example. demo (demonstration), dub (double), vac (vacuum cleaner), doc (doctor), fig (figure), Mrs (missis).

A shortened word is in some way different from its prototype in usage. The shortened word and its full form have the same lexical meaning but differ only in stylistic reference.

For example. exam (colloq) examination (neutral), chapman (neutral), chap (colloq).

Shortened words are structurally simple words and in most cases have the same lexical meaning as the longer words from which they are derived. Shortening is not a derivational process because there are no structural patterns after which new shortened words could be built therefore we can't say that shortening is a derivational word formation.

As it is mentioned above clipping is the productive way of word formation

Clipping consists in the cutting off of one or several syllables of a word. In many cases the stressed syllables are preserved. *For example.* Sis. (sister), Jap (Japanese), doc (doctor), phone (telephone), lab (laboratory). Clipping is classified into the following types depending on which part of the word is clipped: 1) Words that have been shortened at the end: *For example.* ad (advertisement), lab (laboratory), Jap (Japanese), doc (doctor), sis (sister), vac (vacuum cleaner) ;2) Words that have been shortened at the beginning: ear, car (motor-car), phone (telephone), van (caravan), cast (broadcast); 3) Words in which syllables have been omitted from the middle the so called syncope, *For example.* maths (mathematics), specs (spectacles); 4) Words that have been shortened at the beginning and at the end: *For example.* flu (influenza), tec (detective), frig (refrigerator).

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

They may take derivational affixes: M. P-ess hanky (from handkerchief), unkie (from uncle).

Clippings do not always coincide in meaning with the original word. *For example.* "doc" and "doctor" have the meaning one who practises medicine, but doctor is also the highest degree given by a university to a scholar or scientist and a person who has received such a degree whereas doc is not used with these meanings.

Among abbrivations there are homonyms. One and the same sound and graphical complex may be different words. *For example.* vac-vacation; vac-vacuum cleaner; prep-preparation; prep-preparatory school. In abbriviations we stress each letter. *For example.* TUC ['ti:'ju:'si:]—Trade Union Congress.

If they are pronounced in accordance with the rules of phonetics we stress the first syllable.

For example. NATO t'neitou], UNO ['ju:nou] BBC — British Broadcasting Corporation, Cent—Centigrade. AP—Associated Press, GPO—General Post Office, USA—United States of America, UNESCO—United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization, USAF—United States Air Force, WFDY—World Federation of Democratic Youth, WFTU—World Federation of Trade Unions, SEATO—South-East Asia Treaty Organization, UK—United Kingdom, NAS—National Academy of Sciences, NY—New York, NZ—New Zealand, MD—Doctor of Medicine, FAP—First Aid Post.

sub (submarine), surg (surgeon), Sept (September), Serg (sergeant), esp (especially), capt (captain), lat (latitude), Wash (Washington), Wed (Wednesday), usu (usually), pref (preface), prof (professor), prox (proximo), mos (months), quot (quotation), revs (revolutions), Russ (Russian), sat (Saturday), vol (volume), rep (representative), suppl (supplement).

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