

linguaggio e l'educazione plurilingue, obiectivo **irrinunciabile** per la nostra scuola e per la nostra societ .

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WE STUDY MINOR WAYS OF WORD FORMATION

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Rezumat

Literatura de specialitate, de obicei, abordeaz  pe larg formele principale de formare a cuvintelor, l s nd  n umbr  pe cele secundare. Prezentul articol „We Study Minor Ways of Word Formation” este dedicat formelor secundare de formare a cuvintelor, precum: abrevierea, acronimia, formarea invers , reduplicarea, imitarea sunetelor, interschimbarea sunetelor, interschimbarea accentului, etc. O aten ie deosebit  este acordat  elucid rii factorilor majori, care au dus la formarea lor  i eviden ierii aspectelor semantice ale acestor forme. Articolul se eviden iaz  prin caracterul s u aplicativ, oferind studen ilor o multitudine de exemple oportune.

Cuvinte-cheie: abreviere, formare invers , reduplicare, imitarea sunetelor, interschimbarea sunetelor, interschimbarea accentului.

Word-formation 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.

The most important and the most productive types of word-formation in Modern English are: word derivation (affixation), word composition, conversion (on the synchronic plane regarded as a type of derivative correlation between two words making up a conversion pair).

Within the main types further distinction is made between the minor ways and means of word-formation such as: **abbreviation (shortening, blending, clipping, acronymy), back-formation, reduplication, sound imitation, sound-interchange, stress-interchange.**

An abbreviation (from Latin *brevis* ‘short’) is a shortened form of a word or phrase. It usually consists of a letter or group of letters taken from the word or phrase. For example, the word *abbreviation* can itself be represented by the abbreviation *abbr.* or *abbrev* [1, p. 44].

Abbreviation is observed in communication, especially written. It represents the process or the result of representing a word or group of words by a shorter form of the word or phrase. Abbreviations take many forms and can be found in ancient Greek inscriptions, in medieval manuscripts, e.g., *DN* for (Dominus Noster), and in the Qur’an, Cicero’s secretary, Marcus Tullius Tiro, who devised many abbreviations that have survived to modern times, such as the

character ampersand, & for *et* from Latin and means ‘and’. But it was the so-called information explosion of the 20th century that made abbreviation a common practice in communication.

The causes of shortening can be extra-linguistic and linguistic.

Extra-linguistic causes can be outlined in the changes of people’s life. In Modern English many new abbreviations, acronyms, initials, blends are formed because the tempo of life is increasing and it becomes necessary to give more and more information in the shortest possible time.

A major factor in the trend toward abbreviation is that of economy. In telegraphy <http://www.britannica.com/eb/topic?idxStructId=585850&typeld=13>, for example, as well as in computerized communications, the extra time, space and materials required for rendering long words and phrases is an important concern. Fortunately, redundancy of information exists in all speech and this redundancy increases dramatically if the context is not known or if the message is long. Scientific studies indicate that up to 75% of all information in relatively long communications is redundant and this knowledge makes abbreviation not only possible but convenient [3, p. 16].

Another factor in the development of abbreviations is the proliferation of new products and organizations that need to be named. Long descriptive terms can be shortened into mnemonic units.

The need for speed in shorthand and the desire to avoid redundancy in codes makes abbreviation an important element in stenography and cryptography as well.

There are several important forms of abbreviation. One form entails representing a single word either by its first letter or first few letters, e.g. *n.* for (noun) or *Co.* for (Company); by its most important letters, e.g. *Ltd.* for (Limited) or by its first and last letters, e.g. *Rd.* for (Road). These abbreviations are usually spoken as the whole word they represent, e.g. though *Ltd.* is sometimes spoken as “el-tee-dee”.

The symbolic notations used in mathematics and other sciences may also be regarded as forms of abbreviation.

Truncation is especially common in popular speech, e.g. *Mets* for (Metropolitans).

The combination of the first syllables or letters of component words within phrases or within names having more than one word is common and often produces <http://www.britannica.com/eb/topic?idxStructId=4186&typeld=13> acronyms, which are pronounced as words and which often cease to be considered abbreviations. Such popular acronyms are the well-known *radar* for (radio detecting and ranging) and *snafu* for (situation normal, all fouled up).

Acronyms are to be distinguished from <http://www.britannica.com/eb/topic?idxStructId=288299&typeld=13> initialisms such as *U.S.A.* and *NCAA*, which are spoken by reciting their letters.

There are also linguistic causes of abbreviating words and word-groups, such as the demand of rhythm, which is satisfied in English by monosyllabic words. When borrowings from other languages are assimilated in English they are shortened. The modification of form is done on the basis of analogy, e.g. the Latin borrowing *fanaticus* is shortened to *fan* on the analogy with native words: *man*, *pan*, *tan*, etc.

There are two main types of shortenings: graphical and lexical abbreviations.

Graphical abbreviations are the result of shortening of words and word-groups only in written speech while orally the corresponding full forms are used. They are used for the economy of space and effort in writing.

The oldest group of graphical abbreviations in English is of Latin origin. In these abbreviations Latin words are shortened in the spelling, while orally the corresponding English equivalents are pronounced in the full form, e.g. *a.m.* – (ante meridiem), *for example* – (exempli gratia), *No* – (numero), *p.a.* – (per annum), *d* – (denarius) that means ‘penny’, *lb* – (libra) that means ‘pound’, *i.e.* – (id est) that means ‘that is’.

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

There are also graphical abbreviations of native origin, where in the spelling we have abbreviations of words and word-groups of the corresponding English equivalents in the full form. There are several semantic groups:

- days of the week, e.g. *Mon* – Monday, *Tue* – Tuesday;
- names of months, e.g. *Apr* – April, *Aug* – August;
- names of counties in the UK, e.g. *Yorks* – Yorkshire, *Berks* – Berkshire;
- names of states in the USA, e.g. *Ala* – Alabama, *Alas* – Alaska;
- names of address, e.g. *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, *Ms.*, *Dr.*;
- military ranks, e.g. *cap.* – captain, *col.* – colonel, *sgt.* – sergeant;
- scientific degrees, e.g. *B.A.* – Bachelor of Arts, *D.M.* – Doctor of Medicine, (sometimes in scientific degrees we have abbreviations of Latin origin, e.g. *M.B.* – *Medicinae Baccalaurus*);
- units of time, length, weight, e.g. *f.* / *ft* – foot / feet, *sec.* – second, *in.* – inch, *mg.* – milligram.

The reading of some graphical abbreviations depends on the context, e.g. *m* can be read as: “male, married, masculine, metre, mile, million, minute”; *l.p.* can be read as “long-playing, low pressure”.

Graphical abbreviations include initial abbreviations or initialisms, acronyms, backronyms, anacronyms and retronyms.

Initialisms are the bordering case between graphical and lexical abbreviations. When they appear in the language they are closer to graphical abbreviations because orally full forms are used, e.g. *J.V.* – (joint venture). When they are used for a period of time they acquire the shortened form of pronouncing and become closer to lexical abbreviations, e.g. *BBC* is as a rule pronounced in the shortened form. Initialisms are denoted in different ways. Very often they are expressed in the way they are pronounced in the language of their origin, e.g. *ANZUS* (Australia, New Zealand, United States); *SALT* (Strategic Arms Limitation Talks).

There are three types of initialisms in English:

- initialisms with alphabetical reading, e.g. *UK*, *BUP*, *CND*;
- initialisms which are read as if they are words, e.g. *UNESCO*, *UNO*, *NATO*;
- initialisms which coincide with English words in their sound form, e.g. *CLASS*, *laser*, *Scuba*, *SARS*.

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

- affixation, e.g. *AWALism*, *ex-rafer*, *ex-POW*, *AIDSophobia*;
- conversion, e.g. *to raff*, *to fly IFR* (*Instrument Flight Rules*);

- composition, e.g. *STOLport*, *USAFman*. There are also compound-shortened words where the first component is an initial abbreviation with the alphabetical reading and the second one is a complete word, e.g. *A-bomb*, *U-pronunciation*, *V-day*. In some cases the first component is a complete word and the second component is an initial abbreviation with the alphabetical pronunciation, e.g. *Three-Ds* (Three dimensions).

Some scientists unite the types of initialisms which are read as if they are words and those which coincide with English words in their sound form into one group, that of acronyms.

A number of commentators believe that acronyms can be differentiated from other abbreviations in being pronounced as words. Dictionaries, however, do not make this distinction.

Marchand H. divides acronyms into “initialisms”, which consists of initial letters pronounced with the letter names and “word acronyms”, which are pronounced as words [4, p. 57]. Initialism, an older word than acronym, seems to be too little known to the general public to serve as the customary term standing in contrast with acronym in a narrow sense. *The Oxford English Dictionary* records the first printed use of the word initialism as occurring in 1899 and that of the word acronym – in 1943.

The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English (1991) presents the acronym as a word usually pronounced as such, formed from the initial letters of other words (as *laser*, *Nato*).

Crystal David remarked in *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language* (1995) that some linguists do not recognize a sharp distinction between acronyms and initialisms but use the former term for both.

Barnes and Noble outline in *Webster’s New Universal Unabridged Dictionary* (2003) acronyms as a set of initials representing a name, organization or the like with each letter pronounced separately (as *FBI* for *Federal Bureau of Investigation*).

Acronyms are abbreviations, such as *NATO*, *laser* and *IBM* that are formed using the initial letters of words or word parts in a phrase or name. Acronyms are usually pronounced in a way that is distinct from that of the full forms for which they stand – as the names of the individual letters (as in *IBM*), as a word (as in *NATO*).

The word *acronym* comes from Greek [ἄκρος, akros, “topmost, extreme” + ὄνομα, onoma “name”]. Early examples in English are: *a.m.* (Latin *ante meridiem*, “before noon”) and *p.m.* (Latin *post meridiem*, “after noon”); *B.C.* (*Before Christ*) and *A.D.* (*Anno Domini*); *O.K.*, a term of disputed origin, dating back at least to the early 19th century, now used around the world.

In the English language, the widespread use of acronyms and initialisms is a relatively new linguistic phenomenon, becoming increasingly evident from the mid-20th century onwards. As literacy rates rose and as science and technologies advanced, bringing with them more complicated terms and concepts, the practice of abbreviating terms became increasingly convenient.

The following examples are considered acronyms: the word *radar* is an acronym for (Radio Detection and Ranging); the name of the large computer company *IBM* comes from the words (International Business Machines); the name of the part of the United States government that sends rockets into outer space is *NASA*, from the words (National Aeronautics and Space Administration); *CLASS* (Computer-based Laboratory for Automated School System); *laser* (Light Amplified through Stimulated Emission of Radiation); *Scuba* (Self-Contained Underwater Breathing Apparatus); *SARS* (Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome).

A backronym is a portmanteau of backward and acronym coined in 1983. It usually refers to a phrase that is constructed backwards from the phrase’s abbreviation, the abbreviation being

an initialism or acronym. Sometimes backronym refers to the initialism or acronym itself, but usually in those cases, it is a “replacement” backronym, the abbreviation already having an associated phrase. When the backronym phrase becomes more popular than the original, the word becomes an acronym. An example of a backronym from the word *acronym* is as follows: *Acronyms Condense Representations of Neologisms You Memorize*. In this example, because the word *acronym* itself is not an acronym, the phrase above is a pure backronym, not a replacement backronym. Since the phrase indirectly refers to the word itself, it is also acronymic. Also, because the word *acronym* itself appears in its backronym, the phrase is also a recursive-backronym. If this backronym helps you remember the word *acronym* or backronym, then it is also a mnemonic.

Backronyms can be classified into: pure backronym, mnemonic backronym, recursive backronym.

All these types are not exclusive of each other, that is, a backronym can be mnemonic, pure and recursive. However, a backronym cannot be both pure and replacement.

A pure backronym occurs when the root word was not previously or commonly known as an acronym or abbreviation.

Examples: The word *wiki*, from the Hawaiian word means ‘quick’. Since its application to consumer generated media, some have suggested that *wiki* means ‘what I know is’. *Adidas* has been written about in “All Day I Dream about Sports: The story of the Adidas Brand”. *Adidas* is actually a portmanteau of the shoe company’s founder, Adolf Dassler, whose nickname was Adi (Dassler).

Sometimes the backronym is so commonly heard that it is generally but incorrectly believed to have been used in the formation of the word, e.g. *SOS*, the international distress signal is chosen solely for its easy recognition in Morse code. The International Wireless Telegraph Convention makes no mention that it stands for “save our ship”, “save our souls” or “send out succour”.

Some backronyms are back-formed from an initialism or acronym that is an abbreviation with another meaning. For example, *IBM* is the official abbreviation for (International Business Machines), but is sometimes jokingly referred to as “I’ve been moved”, used among many IBM employees because of the frequent position changes within the company.

Many backronyms are apronyms, that is, the word itself is relevant to its associated phrase. The relevance may be either serious or ironic. Many jocular (and often also derogatory) apronyms are created as a form of wordplay, e.g. *TLA* (Three-Letter Acronym). Not actually an acronym since it is not pronounced as such. However a suitable replacement backronym is *Three-Letter Abbreviation*.

Mnemonic backronyms are typically constructed for educational purposes, to form mnemonics so that the word or initialism is easier to remember. For instance, when learning to read sheet music, students often learn “*Every Good Boy Does Fine* (US) or *Every Good Boy Deserves* (*Favour*| *Fruit*| *Fudge*| *Football*) (UK)” to help remember that these notes (E, G, B, D and F) are on the lines. Another example, also applied in music, is *FACE*, referring to the “space” notes F, A, C, E. Another example is the Apgar score used to assess the health of newborn children. The rating system is named after Virginia Apgar. Ten years after the initial publication, the acronym *APGAR* for (*Appearance* (skin color), *Pulse* (heart rate), *Grimace* (reflex irritability), *Activity* (muscle tone) and *Respiration*) was coined in the US as a mnemonic

learning aid. *DVD* is an example of an anacronymed backronym. What started as *Digital Video Disc* was later changed to *Digital Versatile Disc*.

Recursive backronyms are backronyms formed recursively, e.g. *PINE* – PINE Is Nearly Elm or PINE Is Not Elm, referring to the e-mail program Elm, an acronym for “ELECTronic Mail”. However, *PINE* now officially stands for *Program for Internet News and E-mail*.

Other types are: acronym and retronym.

Anacronyms are replacements of other phrases that have become obsolete, either for technological, political or marketing reasons. For example, *ESV*, originally (in 1970) meant *Experimental Safety Vehicle* but since 1991 it means *Enhanced Safety of Vehicles*; *RAID*, originally meant *Redundant Array of Inexpensive Disks* and now usually *Redundant Array of Independent Disks*. *RAID* was originally a way to expand the linear capacity of unreliable commodity hard disk devices while providing extra reliability. Now that the hard disk is standard, “independent” is more appropriate; *SAT* originally meant *Scholastic Achievement Test*. In 1941, the College Board changed its name to *Scholastic Aptitude Test* (whereas “achievement” suggests what a student has accomplished, “aptitude” suggests a student’s potential). In 1990, the name was changed to *Scholastic Assessment Test* and finally in 1994, the initials were officially declared to stand for nothing at all, reflecting the College Board’s reluctance to specify anything definite that the test actually measures; DVDs http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Backronym_-_note-sat#_note-sat were originally designed as media for audio-visual data and as such the abbreviation *DVD* originally stood for *Digital Video Disc*, regardless of the fact that the medium could carry any data. As the format inevitably came into common use for other data storage, a different semi-official expansion was created, namely *Digital Versatile Disc*.

A retronym is a type of neologism coined for an old object or concept whose original name has come to be used for something else and it is no longer unique or is otherwise inappropriate or misleading. The term was coined by Frank Mankiewicz. Many of these are created by advances in technology. However, a retronym itself is a neologism coinage consisting of the original noun with a different adjective added, which emphasizes the distinction to be made from the original form. In 2000, *the American Heritage Dictionary*, 4th edition was the first major dictionary to include the word “retronym”. Examples of retronyms are: *acoustic guitar* (coined when electric guitars appeared); the advent of *satellite radio* has prompted the term *terrestrial radio*.

In entertainment media a retronym can be applied to a property that becomes a franchise and requires the source property to be differentiated from others in the franchise. An example is the original “Star Trek television series”, which in modern times is referred to as *Star Trek: The Original Series* (abbreviated as *ST:TOS*) to identify it among the many film and television sequels that *Star Trek* has spawned. Another example is the first “Star Wars movie” to be filmed and released, originally titled simply *Star Wars*; after the film (and its sequels) became a smash success and prequels were assured, the film was sub-titled “Episode IV: A New Hope” for all subsequent releases.

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

Abbreviation does not change the part-of-speech meaning, as we have it in the case of conversion or affixation. It produces words belonging to the same part of speech as the primary

word, e.g. *prof* is a noun and *professor* is also a noun. Mostly nouns undergo abbreviation but we can also meet abbreviation of verbs, e.g. *to rev* from *to revolve*, *to tab* from *to tabulate*, etc. Mostly abbreviated forms of verbs are formed by means of conversion from abbreviated nouns, e.g. *to taxi*, *to vac*. Adjectives can be abbreviated but they are mostly used in school slang and are combined with suffixation, e.g. *comfy*, *dilly*, *mizzy*. As a rule, pronouns, numerals, interjections, conjunctions are not abbreviated. The exceptions are: *fif* (fifteen), *teen-ager*, *in one's teens*.

Lexical abbreviations are classified according to the part of the word which is clipped.

In linguistics, clipping is the word formation process which consists in the reduction of a word to one of its parts [4, p. 32]. Clipping consists of the following types: back clipping; fore-clipping; middle clipping; complex clipping.

Mostly the end of the word is clipped because the beginning of the word in most cases is the root and expresses the lexical meaning of the word. This type of abbreviation is called apocope.

Back clipping or apocopation is the most common type, in which the beginning is retained. The unclipped original may be either a simple or a composite, e.g. *ad* (advertisement), *cable* (cablegram), *doc* (doctor), *exam* (examination), *gas* (gasoline), *math* (mathematics), *memo* (memorandum), *gym* (gymnastics, gymnasium), *mutt* (muttonhead), *pub* (public house), *pop* (popular concert), *fax* (facsimile), *Jap* (Japanese), *prep* (preparatory), *to demob* (demobilization), *lab* (laboratory).

There is also a group of words in English ending in *o*, such as *disco* (discothèque), *expo* (exposition), *intro* (introduction) and many others. On the analogy with these words there developed a number of words where *o* is added as a kind of a suffix to the shortened form of the word, e.g. *combo* (combination), *Afro* (African).

In other cases, the beginning of the word is clipped. This type of abbreviation is called aphaeresis.

Fore-clipping or aphaeresis retains the final part, e.g. *phone* (telephone), *varsity* (university), *chute* (parachute), *gator* (alligator), *pike* (turnpike), *copter* (helicopter), *car* (motor-car), *bus* (omnibus), *plot* (complot), *story* (history), *change* (exchange), *pen* (fountain pen).

Sometimes the middle of the word is clipped. Such abbreviations are called syncope.

In middle clipping or syncope, the middle of the word is retained, e.g. *flu* (influenza), *tec* (detective), *jams* (pyjamas), *shrink* (head-shrinker), *mart* (market), *fanzine* (fan magazine), *maths* (mathematics).

Sometimes we have a combination of apocope with aphaeresis, when the beginning and the end of the word are clipped, e.g. *tec* (detective), *van* (avanguard).

Clipped forms are also used in compounds. One part of the original compound most often remains intact, e.g. *cablegram* (cable telegram), *op art* (optical art), *org-man* (organization man), *linocut* (linoleum cut).

Sometimes both halves of a compound are clipped as in *navicert* (navigation certificate). In these cases it is difficult to know whether the resultant formation should be treated as a clipping or as a blend, for the border between the two types is not always clear. According to L. Bauer, 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*, *sci-fi* and *sitcom* are all compounds made of clippings [2].

According to H. Marchand, clippings are not coined as words belonging to the standard vocabulary of a language. They originate as terms of a special group like schools, army, police, the medical profession, etc., in the intimacy of a milieu where a hint is sufficient to indicate the whole. For example, in school slang originated *exam*, *math*, *lab*; in stock-exchange slang – *spec* (speculation), *tick* (ticket = credit), whereas *vet* (veteran), *cap* (captain) are 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 [4, p. 67].

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

Sometimes the clipping is complex. There is a combination of apocope with apheresis, when the beginning and the end of the word are clipped. Such words are called blends.

The term “portmanteau” is also used. “Portmanteau word” was the original phrase used to describe such words (as listed in dictionaries published as late as the early 1990s), but this is now usually abbreviated to simply “portmanteau”.

Blends are words formed from two synonyms or a word-group. In blends two ways of word-building are combined – abbreviation and composition. To form a blend we clip the end of the first component (apocope) and the beginning of the second component (apheresis). As a result we have a compound-shortened word.

Some blends are formed from two synonyms. One of the first blends in English was the word *smog* from two synonyms: *smoke* and *fog* which means ‘smoke mixed with fog’. From the first component the beginning is taken, from the second one the end, the middle element *o* is common for both of them. Examples of blends formed from two synonyms: *slanguange*, *to hustle*, *gasohol*, *chunnel*, etc.

Mostly, blends are formed from a word-group, e.g. *acromania* (acronym mania), *cinemadict* (cinema addict), *dramedy* (drama and comedy), *detectifiction* (detective fiction), *faction* (fact fiction, which means ‘fiction based on real facts’), *informercial* (information commercial), *medicare* (medical care), *magalog* (magazine catalogue), *slimnastics* (slimming gymnastics), *sociolite* (social elite), *slanguist* (slang linguist), *spork* (spoon and fork), *animatronics* (animation and electronics), *blaxploitation* (black and exploitation).

Most blends are formed by one of the following methods:

- The beginning of one word is added to the end of the other, e.g. *brunch* is a blend of *breakfast* and *lunch*; *drunch* (*drinks* + *lunch*); *skort* (*skirt* + *short*). This is the most common method of blending.
- The beginnings of two words are combined, e.g. *cyborg* is a blend of *cybernetic* and *organism*.
- One complete word is combined with part of another one, e.g. *Wikipedia* is a blend of *wiki* and *encyclopedia* or *Manglish* (*man* + *English*); *bascart* (*basket* + *cart*); *mobus* (*motor* + *bus*).
- Two words are blended around a common sequence of sounds, e.g. *Californication* is a blend of *California* and *fornication*.

Multiple sounds from two component words are blended, while mostly preserving the sounds' order. Poet Lewis Carroll was well known for this kind of blends. An example of this is the word *slithy*, a blend of *lith*e and *slimy*. This method is difficult to achieve and is considered a sign of Carroll's verbal wit. When two words are combined in their entirety, the result is considered a compound word rather than a blend. For example, *bagpipe* is a compound, not a blend of *bag* and *pipe*.

Typically, blends or portmanteau words are neologisms. One of the most well-known examples is *cyborg*, a term which is commonly used to refer to a cybernetic organism.

See also the following blends: *avgas* (aviation and gasoline), *backronym* (back and acronym), *Bionicle* (biological and chronicle), *bioterrorism* (biological and terrorism), *boxercise* (boxing and exercise), *crunk* (crazy and drunk), *cryptex* (cryptology and codex), *dancercise* (dance and exercise), *deliquid* (delicious and liquid), *dramastic* (dramatic and drastic), *ginormous* (gigantic and enormous), *grasscycle* (grass and recycle), *grue* (green and blue), *guesstimate* (guess and estimate), *McJob* (McDonalds and job), *McLife* (McDonalds and life), *telecast* (television and broadcast), *telematics* (telecommunications and informatics), *texel* (texture and element), *thermistor* (thermal and resistor), *transistor* (transfer and resistor), *voxel* (volumetric and pixel), *webcam* (World Wide Web and camera), *Wikiquette* (Wikipedia and etiquette).

Another way of word-formation is **back-formation**. The process of back-formation is the creation of a neologism by reinterpreting an earlier word as a derivation and removing apparent affixes, or more generally, by reconstructing an "original" form from any kind of derived form, including abbreviations or inflected forms. The resulting new word is called a back-formation. It is opposite to suffixation, i.e. why it is called back formation.

At first it appeared in the language as a result of misunderstanding the structure of a borrowed word. Prof. Yartseva explains this mistake by the influence of the whole system of the language on separate words. It is typical of English to form nouns denoting the agent of the action by adding the suffix *-er* to a verb stem, e.g. *to speak* - *speaker*. So, when the French word *beggar* was borrowed into English the final syllable *-ar* was pronounced in the same way as the English *-er* and Englishmen formed the verb *to beg* by dropping the end of the noun.

The simplest case is when a longer form of a word pair predates what would usually be the basic form. For example, the noun *resurrection* was borrowed from Latin and the verb *resurrect* was then derived from it. We expect the suffix *-ion* to be added to a verb to create a noun. In this case the suffix is removed from the noun to create the verb. This is a back-formation.

Back formation becomes a kind of folk etymology when it rests on an erroneous understanding of the morphology of the longer word. For example, the singular noun *asset* is a back-formation from the plural *assets*. However, *assets* is originally not a plural; it is a loanword from Anglo-Norman *asetz* (modern French *assez*). The *-s* was erroneously taken to be a plural inflection.

Many words came into English by the means of back-formation. The word *Pease* was once a mass noun but it was reinterpreted as a plural, leading to the back-formation *pea*. The noun *statistic* was likewise a back-formation from the field of study statistics. In Britain *burgle* came into use in the 19th century as a back-formation from *burglar*.

Even though many English words are formed this way, new coinages may sound strange and are often used for humorous effect. For example, *gruntled* or *pervious* (from *disgruntled* and *impervious*) would be considered mistakes today and used only in humorous contexts. The

comedian George Gobel regularly used original back-formations in his humorous monologues. Bill Bryson mused that the English language would be richer if we could call a tidy-haired person *shevelled*, as an opposite to *dishevelled*.

Frequently back-formations begin in colloquial use and only gradually become accepted. For example, *burger* (and *beefburger*, *cheeseburger*, etc., from *hamburger*) is in common use today though it would have been considered awkward or colloquial as late as the 1940s; *enthuse* (from *enthusiasm*) is gaining popularity, though it is still considered substandard by some today.

Back-formation of borrowed terms generally does not follow the rules of the original language, for example the Latin *Homo sapiens* (for *thinking man*). As with all Linnaean species names, this is singular in Latin (plural would be *homines sapientes*) but it is sometimes mistakenly treated as plural in English with the corresponding singular back-formation *Homo sapien*.

See other examples of back formation: *accreditate* from *accreditation*, *bach* from *bachelor*, *collocate* from *collocation*, *enthuse* from *enthusiasm*, *compute* from *computer*, *emote* from *emotion*, *reminisce* from *reminiscence*, *televise* from *television*, *biograph* from *biography*, *adulate* from *adulation*, *arm* (weapon) from *arms*, *automate* from *automation*, *babysit* from *babysitter*, *back-form* from *back-formation*, *commentate* from *commentator*, *creep* (as a noun for a person) from *creepy*, *custom-make* from *custom-made*, *diagnose* from *diagnosis*, *diplomat* from *diplomatic*, *donate* from *donation*, *dry-clean* from *dry-cleaning*, *edit* from *editor*, *handwrite* from *handwriting*, *opine* from *opinion*, *vinify* from *vinification*, etc.

As we can notice in cases of back formation the part-of-speech meaning of the primary word is changed.

Sound interchange is the way of word-building when some sounds are changed to form a new word. It is non-productive in Modern English. It was productive in Old English and can be met in other Indo-European languages.

The causes of sound interchange can be different. It can be the result of *Ancient Ablaut* which cannot be explained by the phonetic laws during the period of the language development known to scientists, e.g. *to strike* - *stroke*, *to sing* - *song* etc. It can be also the result of *Ancient Umlaut* or vowel mutation which is the result of palatalizing the root vowel because of the front vowel in the syllable coming after the root (regressive assimilation), e.g. *hot* - *to heat* (hotian), *blood* - *to bleed* (blodian), etc.

In many cases we have vowel and consonant interchange. In nouns we have voiceless consonants and in verbs we have corresponding voiced consonants because in Old English these consonants in nouns were at the end of the word and in verbs in the intervocalic position, e.g. *bath* - *to bathe*, *life* - *to live*, *breath* - *to breathe*, etc.

Stress interchange can be mostly met in verbs and nouns of Romanic origin: nouns have the stress on the first syllable and verbs on the last syllable, e.g. *`accent* - *to ac`cent*. This phenomenon is explained in the following way: French verbs and nouns had different structure when they were borrowed into English. Verbs had one syllable more than the corresponding nouns. When these borrowings were assimilated in English the stress in them was shifted to the previous syllable (the second from the end). Later on the last unstressed syllable in verbs borrowed from French was dropped (the same as in native verbs) and after that the stress in verbs was on the last syllable while in nouns it was on the first syllable. As a result of it we have such pairs in English as: *to af`fix* - *`affix*, *to con`flict* - *`conflict*, *to ex`port* - *`export*, *to ex`tract* -

extract, etc. As a result of stress interchange we have also vowel interchange in such words because vowels are pronounced differently in stressed and unstressed positions.

Sound-imitation is the way of word-building when a word is formed by imitating different sounds. There are some semantic groups of words formed by means of sound imitation:

- sounds produced by human beings, e.g. *to whisper, to giggle, to mumble, to sneeze, to whistle*;
- sounds produced by animals, birds, insects, e.g. *to hiss, to buzz, to bark, to moo, to twitter*;
- sounds produced by nature and objects, e.g. *to splash, to rustle, to clatter, to bubble, to ding-dong, to tinkle*.

The corresponding nouns are formed by means of conversion, e.g. *clang* (of a bell), *chatter* (of children) etc.

In linguistics **reduplication** is a morphological process by which the root or stem of a word or only part of it is repeated. Reduplication is based on phonetic patterns implying euphony and rhythm in language. In this sense, reduplication is closer to onomatopoeic words than to compounds.

English uses some kinds of reduplication, mostly for informal expressive vocabulary. There are three types:

- **Internal vowel alternation (ablaut reduplication)** e.g. *chit-chat* (gossip), *clink-clank* (jingle of words), *dilly-dally* (loiter, waste time), *knick-knock* (small article of ornament), *mishmash* (confused mixture), *tick tack* (sound of the clock), *zig zag* (series of sharp turns or angles);

See also: *bric-a-brac, chit-chat, criss-cross, dilly-dally, ding-dong, fiddle-faddle, flimflam, flip-flop, hippety-hoppety, kitcat, kitty-cat, knick-knack, mish-mash, ping-pong, pitter-patter, riff-raff, rickrack, riprap, see-saw, shilly-shally, sing-song, splish-splash, teeny-tiny, teeter-totter, tic-tac-toe, tick-tock, ticky-tacky, tip-top, tittle-tattle, wish-wash, wishy-washy*.

- **Rhyme-based coining**, e.g. *boogie-woogie* (a certain style of playing blues), *hocus-pocus* (jugglery), *humdrum* (boring), *mumbo-jumbo* (deliberate mystification), *tweeny-weeny* (very small);

See also: *bow-wow, chock-a-block, claptrap, easy-peasy, eency-weency, fuddy-duddy, fuzzy-wuzzy, gang-bang, hanky-panky, harum-scarum, heebie-jeebies, helter-skelter, herky-jerky, hi-fi, higgledy-piggledy, hobnob, Hobson-Jobson, hocus-pocus, hodge-podge, hoity-toity, hokey-pokey, honey-bunny, hot-pot, hotch-potch, hubble-bubble, hugger-mugger, Humpty-Dumpty, hurdy-gurdy, hurly-burly, hurry-scurry, itsy-bitsy, itty-bitty, loosey-goosey, lovey-dovey, mumbo-jumbo, namby-pamby, nimbly-bimbly, nitty-gritty, nitwit, okey-dokey, pall-mall, palsy-walsy, pee-wee, pell-mell, picnic, razzle-dazzle, righty-tighty, roly-poly, rumpy-pumpy, sci-fi, super-duper, teenie-weenie, teeny-weeny, tidbit, walkie-talkie, willy-nilly, wingding*.

- **Exact reduplication** (baby-talk-like), e.g. *bonbon, bye-bye, chop-chop, chow-chow, dum-dum, fifty-fifty, gee-gee, go-go, goody-goody, knock-knock, night-night, no-no, pee-pee, pooh-pooh, rah-rah, so-so, tsk-tsk, tuk-tuk, tut-tut, wee-wee*.

Reduplication is often described phonologically in one of two different ways: either (1) as **reduplicated segments** (sequences of consonants/vowels) or (2) as **reduplicated prosodic units** (syllables or moras).

In addition to phonological description, reduplication often needs to be described morphologically as a reduplication of linguistic constituents, i.e. words, stems, roots. As a result,

reduplication is interesting theoretically as it involves the interface between phonology and morphology.

The base is the word (or part of the word) that is to be copied. The reduplicated element is called the reduplicant, often abbreviated as *RED* or sometimes just *R*. In reduplication, the reduplicant is most often repeated only once. However, in some languages reduplication can occur more than once, resulting in a tripled form and not a duple as in most reduplication. The term '**dupleme**' has been used (after morpheme) to refer to different types of reduplication that have the same meaning.

Reduplication is used both in inflections to convey a grammatical function, such as plurality, intensification, etc. and in lexical derivation to create new words. It is often used when a speaker adopts a tone more "expressive" or figurative than ordinary speech and is also often, but not exclusively, iconic in meaning. Reduplication is found in a wide range of languages and language groups, though its level of linguistic productivity varies.

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THE STUDY OF PROVERBS AND SAYINGS FROM THE POINT OF VIEW OF TRANSLATION

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Rezumat

Traducerea este o operație esențială care permite oamenilor din întreaga lume să împărtășească informații, știri, cultură, literatură și științe. Este un proces de redare a textului inițial și a tuturor caracteristicilor sau aspectelor sale în mod semantic, cultural și pragmatic, într-o altă limbă. Traducerea proverbelor necesită cunoaștere în ambele limbi, culturi și cunoștințe în strategii care sunt adecvate pentru redarea sensului dorit. Strategiile sunt necesare deoarece, de obicei, permit traducătorilor să depășească dificultățile pe care le-ar putea întâmpina în procesul de traducere.

Cuvinte-cheie: proverbe și zicători, traducere, limbă țintă, limbă sursă, strategii.

Translation is an essential operation that enables people all over the world to share information, news, culture, literature, and sciences among others. It is a process of rendering the original text and all of its features or aspects semantically, culturally, and pragmatically, into