

DISTRIBUTIONAL MORPHOLOGICAL APPROACH TO CLIPPING IN ENGLISH AND URDU LANGUAGES

Mufakhira Shahzad

MPhil Applied Linguistics (scholar)

Department of Linguistics and Communications, UMT, Lahore

Email ID: F2024084010@umt.edu.pk

Ms. Shumaila Ahmad

(PhD Linguistics)

Department of Linguistics and Communications, UMT, Lahore

Email ID: Shumaila.ahmad@umt.edu.pk

Hadeeqa Rehman

M. Phil Applied Linguistics (scholar)

Department of Linguistics and Communications, UMT, Lahore

Email ID: F2024084005@umt.edu.pk

Abstract

Language is a repository of words which are actually the building blocks of a language. Words are basically the smallest dealers-both verbal and written-of communication. Clipping is defined as the process whereby a lexeme, simplex or complex, is shortened while still retaining the same meaning and still being a member of the same class form. As to distributional morphology (DM), which is a linguistic theoretical framework that was introduced by Morris Halle and Alec Marantz in 1993 and proposes that the relationship between syntax and morphology is not a well-defined boundary (Bobaljik, 2017). More relevantly, Distributed Morphology posits that a single syntactic process underlies both multiplex words and phrases, which questions the traditional view that the lexicon is a separate entity to handle word formation and meaning. Although this idea continues to be widely used for the English language but similar efforts, in language like Urdu, are still to be done. This study is an analysis of clipping as a word formation process in English and Urdu languages according to the principles of distributional morphology. The data set of 30 items from dictionaries i.e. Oxford and Feroz-ul-Lughat were studied qualitatively using DM itself as theoretical framework to identify the major differences between the two languages. Unlike in English, Urdu does not have cognates of clipped forms which retain the original syntactic structure and lexical category and therefore cannot be used interchangeably. These results suggest that more studies are necessary in order to apply existing morphological theories in the study of the large scope unexplored morphological activity of both languages and provide a deeper understanding of how these processes function differently in different languages, shedding light on universal vs. languages-specific rules in morphology.

Keywords: *Distributional Morphology, Syntax, Syntactic Computation, Linearization, Phonological form.*

1. Introduction

The languages proceed on advancement, not as what most people would consider static. Enriched in this sense is a language by a plethora of words within its fold. Morphological process/word formation is named the phenomenon through which this repertory of words is enhanced. Mechanism of word formation is the study of the processes whereby new words come into being in a language. Word formation is a process of creating new words in language. During the process, existing words are modified complete innovation in a language enhances the repository of words (Khan, 2021). Clipping is a linguistic process that creates a shorter form of a word by dropping one or two syllables (e.g., teletype and over the counter). It is often used to shorten long words, to create new words, and possibly also to make language more convenient and efficient. This, a common enough occurrence in both Urdu and English, shows the flow of language, usage and, yes, change. For example, "microphone" is sometimes reduced to "mic,," "Helicopter" becomes "copter," while "Mathematics" becomes "Math." In a similar vein, lengthy terms are commonly shortened for ease in Urdu. "انتظام" (intzaam) is shortened to "نظام" (Nizaam), for instance. Both English and Urdu frequently use clipping, which reflects the dynamics of language usage and change.

There are four categories for clipping:

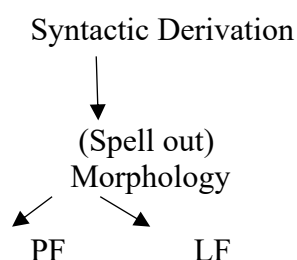
- Back-clipping is the method of short a word's end (for example, "examination" → "exam").
- The procedure for eliminating a word's beginning (for example, "telephone" → "phone") is known as "fore-clipping."
- The process of keeping only the middle portion of a word (for example, "influenza" → "flu") is known as middle-clipping.
- Shortening multi-word phrases (such as "science fiction" to "sci-fi") is known as complex trimming.

Since 1970, "morphology" has emerged as a key area of debate in generative grammar, and as of right now, there are two established schools of thought within the generative framework: lexical-ism and non-lexical. Unlike syntax, the former perspectives "lexicon" as a separate generative compound of word production. Thus, "lexicon" and "syntax" are the two generating elements in this method. However, the later kind rejected the notion of a classical lexicon and the assumption that word production is a single, cohesive component. Instead, they saw "syntax" as the sole legitimate generative engine of computing. In this case, the non-lexical method is Distributed Morphology. It was started and refined by Harley & Noyer (2003).

One of the most crucial concepts in the study of human language is "grammar." Grammar, according to Ndimele (2019), is "a body of innate linguistic rules concerning a language which are passed by a normal speaker of that language." Grammar is a key concept in linguistics that encompasses a wide range of phenomena, most likely due to its broad definition (Crystal, 1994). According to Ursini (2014), grammar is a computational system that consists of units and links such structures to meaning and sounds. Thus, we have three fundamental elements of language analysis:

- (a) A system of computation that combines basic units into more complex ones (Syntax).
- (b) A phonological system that connects those units to tangible signals.
- (c) A framework connecting those components to meanings (Semantics).

However, the input of syntactic structures is defined by phonology and semantics but "syntax" is considered a fundamental and important part of grammar in Distributed Morphology (Embick & Noyer, 2007). As a result, the following simple "Y Model" was used in Distributed Morphology:



(Embick & Noyer, 2007)

Y Model Grammar Structure

The grammar must have

- A set of primitives
- A derivation system for combining these primitives into (a discrete infinity of) complex objects
- An interface with the conceptual/intentional system (Lexical form)
- An interface with the articulatory/perceptual system (phonological form), according to Noyer (2007), who explained this figure from a programmatic minimalist perspective.

According to the following explanation, “a set of primitives” often consists of either finished words or complicated lexical objects with phonological, syntactical, and semantic qualities. This is obviously against the ideas and methods of distributed morphology. Therefore, the syntactic derivation that was displayed at the top of the grammatical chart only includes “abstract morphemes” that lack any phonological characteristics; this is known as “narrow lexicon.” In order to create smaller and bigger linguistic phases, numerated abstract morphemes must also be moved to “spell-out” for the phonetic form interpretation and the logical form interpretation.

Halle and Marantz (1993) created the theoretical framework known as Distributed Morphology (DM), which reinterprets the connection between syntax and morphology. It asserts that words' underlying hierarchical structure is mostly syntactic and that syntactic processes are the source of complex words (Belder & Don, 2022). One of the fundamental principles of DM is that morphological and phonological processes may be separated since syntax works with abstract morphemes that are determined by morpho-syntactic properties and are realized post-syntactically. This theory contends that morphological actions are intricately linked to syntactic structures, challenging conventional wisdom that treats morphology as a separate aspect of grammar (Bobaljik, 2017). Recent research in distributed morphology provides a robust theoretical framework for understanding the clipping process in English and its contrast in Urdu language reflects the linguistic and cultural divergence between the two languages. However, while both languages use clipping to abbreviate the words, the actual morphological processes behind the meaning are completely different. Urdu has its own differences, it does use many bound morphemes compared to English which uses fewer inflectional morphemes. Urdu, by contrast, is morphologically rich, featuring a greater array of suffixes/inflections that are licensed in the structure and contribute to the meaning (Muhammad, 2019). There is a significant research gap in our understanding of how this framework functions differently in these two languages. There isn't much comparative study that focuses on the clipping phenomenon in the context of DM. Such a wide gap reveals the requirement of complex application of the distributional model of clipping at a lexical level inside the grammatical system of each language in a way that re-iterates the meaning and the lexical category (e.g., noun, verb, adjective) of the word in English but erased it in Urdu. These results not only improve our understanding of the diversity of clipping, but also fuel broader discussions on efficiency and language development by challenging established notions about morphological phenomena, and encouraging further investigation into unexplored linguistic regions, most notably Urdu.

1.2. Research Questions

1. Which specific Distributional Morphological principles govern clipping in English and Urdu language,
2. How do these rules reflect the morphological patterns of each language?
3. What are the similarities and differences between English and Urdu clipped forms?

2. Literature Review

Hilpert et al. (2023) proposes clipping as indicating the speaker's intention to reduce cognitive load or enhance communicative efficiency, particularly in situations where encoding information quickly is required. And at the level of clippings of Urdu and English examined, this distributional perspective also gives insight on the linguistic behavior of the two languages. Analyses of corpus data and distributional semantics approaches enable researchers to compare clipping across languages and capture trends in their contextual behavior (Campbell, 2020). Hyper-diminutives are commonly employed in order to display intimacy or fondness with loved ones or close friends. In addition to lexical differences, disparity analysis might highlight cultural idiosyncrasies that inform the use of language in both languages

(Dembe, 2024). This provides a comparative study of how clipping practices are indicative of cultural and communicative conventions.

Clipping studies in English have received much attention. In order to investigate the frequency of clipping and what registers and domains it occurs in the most, Durkin (2014) studies how productive it is in English to find out. Although he cautions that clipping is particularly prevalent in informal contexts and of young speakers. Indeed, these studies offer insights pertinent to the characteristic features and behaviors of cutting in English. In addition, Pyles and Algeo (2010) categorized clipping into initial, final, medial and complex clipping. While research into Urdu clippings is not very extensive as in English, some studies exist nonetheless. He seems to provoke the same thought with English loanwords and Urdu as a borrowing language; how do clipping operates when already borrowed words are borrowed into Urdu. The study shows how the processes of Urdu clipping patterns are influenced by language contact.

Jamet (2019) guided corpus linguistics in the analysis of language through an approach which gives priority to the consideration of words in the context of usage. Grices (2009) trailblazing efforts laid the groundwork for later research on modes of word production including compounding, derivation, and affixation using corpus-based empirical methodologies.

Biber et al. (2002) explores the possibility that linguistic corpus provides empirical evidence about language processes. Because they study such large corpora, researchers aren't just looking at frequency patterns; they're looking at context of usage, and both are critical to a well-rounded understanding of language.

Haspelmath (2010) provides a detailed description of cross-linguistic variation in word formation, focusing on typological components and language contacts. Therefore, these studies can be perceived as significant contributive tools in transferring the knowledge of comparative analytical tools required to understand basic concepts, individual differences in performance, and alternative cognitive models in the study of word-formation strategies within and across languages. Irshad et. al. (2018) comparative analysis presented the differences and similarities of word formation processes i.e. derivation and compounding in Pashto and English based on the study of Haspelmath. Taking a contrastive analytic approach, both languages were examined here for morphological and semantic patterns in the data.

Some studies in various languages based on corpora have been proposed for clipping. Lucy (2004) works with a considerable, representative sample of English literature to investigate the pragmatic and semantic functions of clipped words. Studying frequencies, patterns and distributional properties of clipped words based on existing corpora. Corpus linguistics allows for both qualitative and quantitative research, giving deep insights into how language works. But, working with big data would not have been possible without advanced statistic tools that allowed to show the normal patterns of the languages that could disappear as soon we do not follow traditional qualitative methods (Biber et al., 2002). Thomason (2006) look at the impact of mutually intelligible language on especially linguistic organization, such as the possibility of loan translation, loanword influence and code-switching.

Herring (2004), in her discussion of language use in online settings, points out that because these are informal and fluid contexts, they facilitate the emergence of various forms of new language. Social media services like Twitter, Instagram and TikTok enjoy using hearty abbreviations and swifter phrases as "vid" (as in video), "DM" (as in direct message) and "bio" (as in biography), because they are about brevity and immediacy in communication. The character limits introduction with this new technology (to our written language) and a demand for prompt, efficient communication have been cited as reasons for the emerging prominence of clipped forms (see, e.g. Crystal, 2011).

3. Methodology

This study utilizes constructivist perspective to the distributional morphological analysis of clipping in Urdu and English which implies that words have multiple meanings, but that different learning contexts each required us to construct their own meaningful solution. This relates to the environments in which we encounter experiences and the conversations we have with others leading us to build and strengthen knowledge (Lin, 2015) makes this approach an essential one to be used in this study exploring the nature of these abbreviated forms and the way people interpret and use them in particular linguistic contexts. The inductive approach works quite well with this research as it take the specific-to-general route and aims at letting the raw data speak for itself, unencumbered by theoretical models that guides the researchers to the phenomenology of specialists, leading to the identification of the subtler mechanisms like clipping in both languages.

This study approached the evolutionary morphological approach to clipping in a qualitative research paradigm. It can help to identify types of clippings (back, fore, middle and complex) vary based on speakers' utilization. This helps to set the types of these forms and indicate their utilization in various domains that facilitates a better perception of morphological procedures. An exploratory descriptive research design called attention to the derivative of understanding language functions naturally in works of author and speakers, illuminating the practice of forming words. Being data-driven research, it uses real life lexical items from English and Urdu languages. Having an exploratory nature, it does not attempt to text any hypothesis but explains the word formation process i.e. clipping in both languages. The exploratory nature of this study design is vital to extract new perspectives on the clipping phenomena. The current study utilizes the purposeful sampling. Non- probability sampling strategy is being used in this research focusing on those word forms that specifically describe the clipping as word formation process in both languages. The constraints of time, resources, and rich morphology of both languages has limited this research randomly selecting 30 items from the dictionaries of both languages i.e. online Oxford English Dictionary (Oxford University Press, n.d.) and Merriam-Webster Dictionary (Merriam-Webster, n.d.) for English original and clipped forms and Feroz-ul-Lughat (Din, 2010) for Urdu forms that describe the process i.e. clipping in both languages differently.

By presenting the English and Urdu language data sets of clipped forms to specialists who speaks English as a second language and Urdu as a first language and obtaining their approval, the descriptive component entails a thorough analysis of the data gathered. For linguistic analysis to be reliable, the validity of the included items with their clipped versions in Urdu and English is essential. After this expert review, the items are fit for distributional morphological framework analysis.

3.1. Theoretical Framework

Distributed Morphology (DM) was a theoretical model developed by Halle & Marantz (1993) which re-conceptualizes the relationship between syntax and morphology. It argues that the hierarchical organization of words is predominantly syntactic, and that complex words emerge from syntactic operations. This leads us to one of the core assumptions of DM, which is that morphological and phonological processes are dissociable (Bobaljik 2017) since syntax manipulates abstract morphemes defined in terms of morpho-syntactic features which are spelled out post-syntactically. Clipping, a non-concatenative process in English can easily find an explanation under distributed morphology framework. DM dispenses with the binary class of syntax and morphology in such a way that illustrates how structurally compact forms emerge from the same (or similar) patterns we observe when language is mirroring complex and motley forms of communication. Hence this move or understanding not only allows us to

cultivate our comprehension of Share but it also fuels conversations about the growth and effectiveness of the Share growing.

3.2. Technique of Data Analysis

The data set from each language is being analyzed through the distributed morphology (DM) as a framework and methodology (Bobaljik, 2017) that frames clipping as a morphological process reflecting phonological and syntactic structures in both Urdu and English languages. The lexical analysis of items from each language to study clipping through DM involves following steps:

STEP 1: The hierarchical structure of the word is being built during the syntactic computation stage.

STEP 2: There are many steps involved in the, second, post-syntactic morphological operations:

- a. The word undergoes the process of clipping at this stage.
- b. The linearization step arranges the hierarchical structure into a linear sequence of morphemes after clipping.
- c. During the vocabulary insertion phase, morphemes in the linearized structure are replaced by their phonological exponents.

STEP 3: If required, phonological modifications are being performed to ensure that the clipped form is well-formed for speech at the phonological Form level (PF).

STEP 4: Finally, semantic interpretation (LF) guarantees that the essential meaning of the clipped form is preserved in both languages.

4. Data Analysis

In both English and Urdu languages, clipping is situated among other morphological phenomena, where syntax constrains possible structures and morphological realizations happen post-syntactically. In English, clippings such as “rec” (recreation) and “myth” (mythology) reflect a streamlined morphological system aimed at brevity and efficiency. These clipped forms maintain their grammatical category (e.g., nouns remain nouns) and are heavily influenced by contextual usage, particularly in informal settings. English language demonstrates several types of clipping:

4.1. Back-Clipping: Involves truncation of word’s end, e.g., “laboratory” → “lab”

4.2. Fore-Clipping: Truncation of word’s beginning, e.g., “plane” → “airplane”.

4.3. Middle-Clipping: Truncation of word’s middle and retaining front and back portions, e.g., “Jo’burg” from “Johannesburg” (Veisbergs, 1999).

4.4. Complex Clipping: Shortening multi-word phrases, e.g., “sci-fi” from “science fiction”. Complex clipping goes beyond simple truncation and may involve blending, multiple transformation, or creative reformation (Jamet, 2009). It involves multiple stage clipping (e.g. fridge from Refrigerator), compound clipping involving clipping and blending simultaneously (e.g. Brexit from British exit), slang transformation (e.g. Obvi from obviously in informal settings), clipping combined with suffixes (e.g. Veggie is shortened by adding suffix “-ie” from Vegetable), phonetic clipping (e.g. plex from complex shortened to sleek form).

Conversely, Urdu exhibits a more complex interplay of morphology and syntax. Clipped forms like “علم” (Ilam) derived from “معلم” (Muallem) involve intricate morphological adjustments. Unlike English, Urdu’s clippings may involve shifts in grammatical category or nuanced inflectional changes, reflecting its rich system of bound morphemes and phonological inflections. The types of clipping are also similar in Urdu language:

- Back clipping: “آبادا” [ʔɑ:’bɑ:d/] from “آبادی” [ʔɑ:’bɑ:di/]
- Fore-Clipping: “نسب” [/’nasab/] from “نسبت” [/’nisbət/]

Whereas middle and complex clipping are more typical of Urdu, clipped forms usually have cultural or semantic dimensions, intra-sentential links, and even tones of affect, which are conditioned by social relationships.

4.1. Back Clipping

4.1.1. Word Schema for Back Clipping in English and Urdu Languages

English Language	Urdu Language
Schema a. Word: Renovation b. Lexical entry of word: [/,renə'veɪʃən/ N] c. Word scheme: [/X/ N] [/X/ N] Noun of X Clipped form of X [/,renə'veɪʃən/] → [/'renou/] The word “Reno”, a clipped form of “renovation”, is an instance of the back-clipping, a type of clipping, in English language involving the removal of final syllables. STEP 1: At the first step, syntactic computation, the syntactic level, the base word “renovation” is generated as a fully hierarchical syntactic structure as: • Root: The verb “renov-” (from Latin renovare, meaning “to renew”). • Suffix: “-tion” (a nominalizing morpheme that turns the verb into a noun) The syntactic structure is shown below. At this stage, the morphemes are treated as bundles of abstract features and the syntax ensures that the structure reflects the grammatical and semantic relationships between the root (renov-) and the suffix (-tion) STEP 2: Post-Syntactic Morphological Operations involve multiple processes and this is where back clipping occurs as a morphological process. Key operations include: a. Clipping (truncation) Truncation is a post-syntactic morphological operation that shortens the phonological material of a word. For renovation → Reno, the back portion of the word (-vation) is removed, leaving only the initial syllables as:	Schema a. Word: ہمدردی (hamdardī) b. Lexical entry of word: [/həmdrədi:/ N] c. Word scheme [/X/ N] [/X/ ADJ] Noun of X ADJ of X -Clipped form ہمدردی ہمدرد [/həmdrədi:/] → [/həm.dərd/] In the word formation “ہمدرد” from “ہمدردی” the final syllable (ی) is removed to create a shorter form with different lexical category i.e. adjective. STEP 1: At the first step, syntactic computation, the syntactic level, the base word “ہمدردی” is generated as a fully hierarchical syntactic structure as: • Root: The base ہمدرد (hamdard, meaning “sympathetic” or “compassionate”). • Suffix: The suffix- ی (-ī), which nominalizes the base, turning it into an abstract noun indicating the state or quality of “sympathy” or “compassion.” At this stage, the structure reflects the abstract syntactic and semantic relation of root (ہمدرد) with suffix (-ی). The syntactic structure is shown below. STEP 2: The step Post-Syntactic Morphological Operations involves operations that modify the structure before it undergoes phonological realization. Back clipping happens here. a. Truncation The suffix - ی (-ī) is removed, leaving only the base ہمدرد (hamdard). This is a post-syntactic morphological operation that alters the word form as:

Renovate + -tion → Reno

b. Linearization

After truncation, the hierarchical syntactic structure is converted into a linear sequence of morphemes as [Reno]

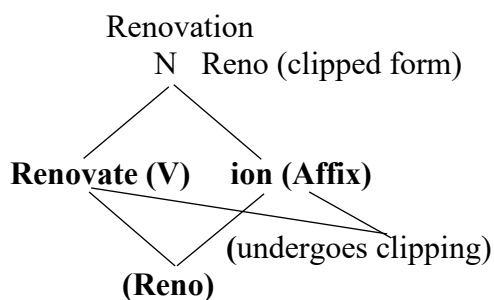
c. Vocabulary Insertion

Abstract morphemes in the linearized structure are replaced with their phonological exponents as:

[+ROOT: renovate (truncated)] → [ˈrenou/]

STEP 3: It involves phonological adjustments to ensure that the clipped form is well-formed for pronunciation. During the **phonological form (PF)** step, the clipped form is further processed phonologically. The clipping removes phonological segments while preserving prosodic integrity. The result is a truncated form that remains pronounceable and conforms to English syllable structure rules. The clipped form “reno” [ˈrenou/] is mapped onto its prosodic structure retaining the stress pattern from the original word (,reno- in renovation) as [ˈrenouˈ].

STEP 4: The **semantic interpretation (LF)** remains tied to the full form. The clipped form “reno” retains the meaning of renovation along with the word’s lexical category i.e. noun.



[همدرد + -ی] → همدرد

[həm.dərd/] → [həm.dərd/ + /i:/]

b. Linearization

The hierarchical syntactic structure is converted into a linear sequence after truncation as:

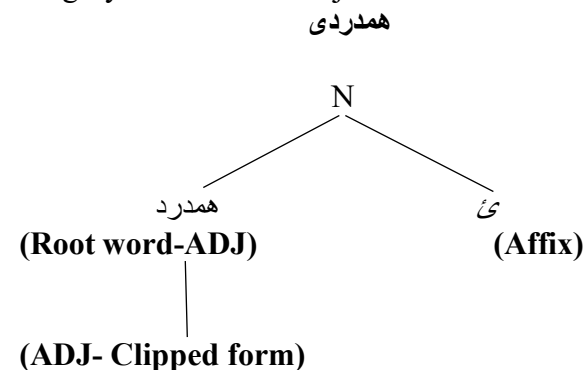
[همدرد] → [həm.dərd/]

c. Vocabulary Insertion

- The abstract morphemes are replaced with their phonological form as:
[+ROOT: همدرد] → [həm.dərd/]
- The clipped structure no longer contains the phonological exponent of -ی (/i:/).

STEP 3: During **PF processing**, the clipped form همدرد (hamdard) undergoes phonological adjustments to ensure it conforms to Urdu's prosodic and phonotactic rules. In this case, همدرد is already a valid word in Urdu and requires no additional adjustments. The stress pattern of همدرد remains intact, as it matches the stress placement in the original word before the clipping.

STEP 4: In **semantic interpretation (LF)**, the clipped form همدرد retains the primary meaning of “sympathetic” found as it is also the root but loses the nuance of abstraction or nominalization introduced by removing the suffix the suffix -ی (/i:/) changing lexical category from noun to adjective.

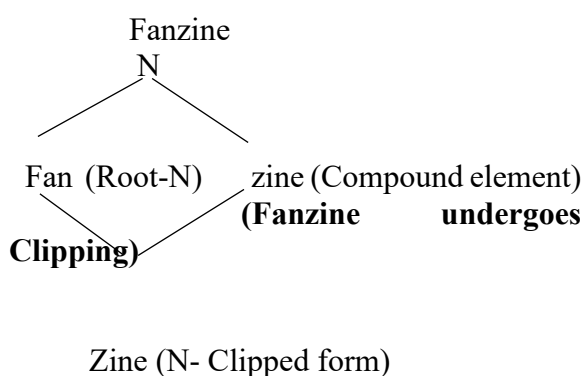


4.2. Fore-Clipping

448

STEP 3: During **PF processing**, the clipped form i.e. zine (/zain/) is processed for phonological adjustments to ensure it conforms to English phonotactic rules. In this case, zine is a well-formed syllable, so no further adjustments are needed.

STEP 4: In the **semantic Interpretation (LF)** step, the clipped form “zine” retains the meaning associated with the compound element derived from “magazine” retaining its stress pattern as well but its interpretation often depends on the broader context. In contexts where **zine** is used, it is understood as shorthand for fanzine, preserving the core meaning and the lexical category i.e. noun but losing explicit reference to “fan”.



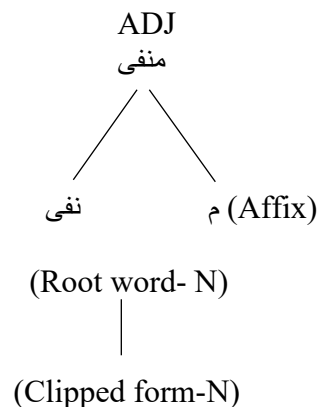
[Nafi]

c. Vocabulary Insertion

The abstract morphemes are mapped to their phonological forms. So, the root نفی(Nafi) corresponds to its phonological form i.e. /nəfi/.

STEP 3: In the next step, **Phonological Form (PF) Operation**, the clipped form نفی(Nafi) is now phonologically processed to ensure it adheres to Urdu’s prosodic and phonotactic rules. In this case, نفی(Nafi) is a valid, well-formed word that does not require any further phonological adjustments. The clipped form نفی(Nafi) retains its core semantic meaning of “negation” (as the root)

STEP 4: In the last **Semantic Interpretation (LF)**. However, the adjective form is lost since منفی(Manfi) was originally used to describe something as “negative.” In نفی(Nafi), the semantic focus is purely on “negation”, a noun, rather than the broader concept of “negative” or “related to negation.”



4.3. Middle Clipping

4.3.1. Word Schema for Middle Clipping in English and Urdu Languages

English Language	Urdu Language
Schema a. Word: Spectacles b. Lexical entry of word: [/'spek.tə.kəlz/ N] c. Word scheme: [X/ N] [X/ N] Noun of X Clipped form of X [/'spek.tə.kəlz/] → [/speks/] STEP 1: At the first step, the syntactic computation , the word “spectacles” is built	Schema a. Word: حسین (Haseen) b. Lexical entry of word: : [/hə'si:n/ ADJ] c. Word scheme [X/ ADJ] [X/ N] ADJ of X N of X -Clipped form حسین حسن [/hə'si:n/] → [/hosn/]

syntactically as a hierarchical structure, including all its morphemes and features. The syntactic structure involves:

- Spec- (root morpheme representing "look" or "see").
- -Tacle (a nominal suffix denoting "instrument").
- -s (plural morpheme indicating the plural form).

This syntactic structure encodes all necessary semantic and syntactic information but remains abstract.

STEP 2: At the stage of **Post-Syntactic Morphological Operations**, middle clipping happens as part of it within the Morphological Component and involves other processes as:

a. Truncation:

The morphological structure undergoes clipping, where only part of the root morpheme is retained. In the case of spectacles → specs:

- The root SPEC- is kept in its entirety.
- The suffix -TACLE is entirely removed retaining its plural marker "-s".

b. Reanalysis of Features

After truncation, the resulting "specs" retains its semantic and syntactic features:

- It is interpreted as a plural noun (short for spectacles).
- It still refers to the same concept of eyeglasses, preserving the original meaning in a condensed form.

c. Linearization

The truncated structure is linearized:

[Specs]

The output is now a simplified morphological structure.

d. Vocabulary Insertion

Once truncation is complete, the abstract morpheme [spec] undergoes **Vocabulary Insertion**, where it is mapped to its phonological representation:

- [+ROOT: SPEC (truncated)] → /speks/
- The plural meaning is preserved.

STEP 1: At the first step, the **syntactic computation**, حسین(Haseen), an adjective, is morphologically derived from the root ح-س-ن(h-s-n), a noun, carries the meaning of "beauty" includes the syntactic terms:

- The root حسن(Hussn), meaning "beauty" or "goodness".
- The suffix -ین(-in), a grammatical marker in languages like Arabic, Persian, and Urdu, often used for adjectives or names (e.g., "Haseen" as "beautiful" or a name). حسین(Haseen) is a derived form of حسن(Hussn), indicating a quality of beauty or excellence, often used as an adjective.

STEP 2: At the stage of **Post-Syntactic Morphological Operations**, the word form is modified at the morphological level after syntax has generated the structure. It involves:

a. Truncation

Middle clipping involves the removal of the middle portion of the word in **post-syntactic operation**. In this case, from the suffix -ین(-in) which often indicates a form of modification such as an adjective or a diminutive form, "ی" is removed that independently makes a word an adjective. The operation results in حسن(Hussn), which is now just the root حسن, a more basic form meaning "beauty" or "goodness." This step simplifies the phonological form while retaining the core meaning of the word. This clipping often reflects a cultural or linguistic convention, where the clipped form is either a stylistic or affectionate variation.

حسین → حسن

[Haseen] → [Hussn]

b. Linearization

After truncation, the hierarchical structure is converted into a linear sequence

[حسن]

[Hussn]

c. Vocabulary Insertion

The clipped form حسن is replaced with their phonological form and realized as [/husn/].

• The root “detect”: Derived from Latin <i>dētegere</i>, meaning “to uncover” or “to discover.” • The suffix “-ive”: An adjectival or nominal suffix indicating an agent or property. Together, these form a noun referring to a person engaged in uncovering or investigating (a detective). • At this stage, the structure encodes both the semantics and the syntactic relationships between the root and the suffix. STEP 2: At the stage of post-syntactic morphological operations, the morphological component introduces changes to the structure, including the clipping process. a. Truncation Complex clipping applies at this stage retaining the middle part of the word while affecting the edges to retain recognition. In the case of “Tec”, the operation removes: • The prefix <i>de-</i> (initial part of the word). • The suffix <i>-ive</i> (final part of the word). This results in “-tec”, derived directly from the root <i>detect</i> but retaining only the essential phonological material /tɛk/. [[detect] -ive] → [tec] b. Linearization The hierarchical syntactic structure is converted into a linear sequence of morphemes as [tec] c. Vocabulary Insertion The abstract morphemes are replaced with their corresponding phonological exponent(s) and the truncated morpheme <i>tec</i> is realized as /tɛk/. STEP 3: The clipped form “tec” (/tɛk/) is adjusted in Phonological Form (PF) Operations, if necessary, to conform to English phonotactic and prosodic rules. In this case, <i>tec</i> is already a valid monosyllabic word in English and does not require further modification.	derived word منصبي (Mansabī), additional syntactic structures are built: • Prefix: م (m-), often indicating “related to” or “position.” • Root: نصب (Nasb). • Suffix: - ئ (-ī), which nominalizes or adds quality (as an adjective) to the root. The Hierarchical Structure is shown below. At this stage, the syntactic structure represents the full semantic composition of the word, where منصبي (Mansabī) refers to “relating to a position or office.” STEP 2: At the stage of Post-Syntactic Morphological Operations, the word form is modified at the morphological level after syntax has generated the structure including: a. Complex Clipping Complex clipping occurs as a post-syntactic morphological operation that truncates internal segments of the base نصب (Nasb). The resulting clipped form retains only the portions of the base needed for phonological and semantic coherence: نصب → منصبي [Mansabī] → [Nasab] In this case, the prefix م and the suffix - ئ are clipped and the base form left behind as clipped form. b. Linearization The hierarchical structure is converted into a linear sequence of morphemes: [نصب] [Nasab] c. Vocabulary Insertion The abstract morphemes are mapped to their phonological forms. So, the root نصب (Nasab) corresponds to its phonological form i.e. [nəsəb/]. STEP 3: After clipping, the remaining word نصب (Nasab) undergoes phonological processing in Phonological Form (PF)
--	--

In this step, the word retains its full syntactic and semantic structure. The Hierarchical Structure is shown below.

At this stage, there is no indication of truncation or suffixation, as these are handled later in the derivation.

STEP 2: At the stage of **Post-Syntactic Morphological Operations**, the morphological component introduces changes to the structure, including the clipping process and suffixation.

a. Truncation (Clipping)

The process begins with clipping, which removes the latter part of the base word as:

Biscuit → Bikk-

The clipped form “Bikk-” retains the phonological and semantic identity of the root but shortens it.

b. Suffixation

After clipping, the diminutive suffix *-ie* is added to the truncated base “bikk-“

Bikk- + *-ie* → Bikkie

The suffix “*-ie*” often carries a diminutive or affectionate connotation, creating a colloquial or informal version of the original word.

c. Linearization

The resulting structure is linearized into a sequence as [bikkie]

d. Vocabulary Insertion

The abstract morphemes in the linearized structure are replaced with their corresponding phonological forms:

- Truncated base *bikk-* → [bɪk/]
- Suffix *-ie* → [i:/]

STEP 3: The suffix “*-ie*” (/i:/) aligns smoothly with the clipped base to retain the vowel harmony in **Phonological Form (PF)** Operations and does not require further modification. The stress pattern adjusts to accommodate the diminutive suffix, often with stress on the first syllable i.e. [ˈbɪk.i/].

STEP 4: The clipped form “bikie” retains its semantic core in **Semantic Interpretation**

function as an **adjective**, meaning "real" or "true." The syntactic structure includes:

- **Root:** حقیقت (Haqiqat)
- **Suffix:** -ی (-i), which forms the word an adjective

The hierarchical structure is shown below. At this stage, the syntactic computation encodes the core meaning and grammatical role (noun → adjective).

STEP 2: The next step involves the **Post-Syntactic Morphological Operations** where the morphological component introduces changes, including clipping and suffixation.

a. Truncation (Clipping)

The base word حقیقت undergoes **clipping**, where the final segment (-ت/-t/) is removed:

حقیقت → حقیقی

The truncated form حقیقی retains the root's core meaning ("truth") but is shortened for further processing.

b. Suffixation

The suffix -ی having quality of turning a noun into adjective added to the clipped form حقیقی:

حقیقی + -ی → حقیقی

The suffix -ی modifies base's grammatical category turning it into an adjective.

c. Linearization

The hierarchical structure is converted into a linear sequence of morphemes:

[حقیقی]

d. Vocabulary Insertion

In vocabulary insertion step, the abstract morphemes are replaced with their phonological exponents as:

- Root حقیقی → /hə'qi:q/
- Suffix -ی → /i:/

STEP 3: The suffix “*-ie*” (/i:/) aligns smoothly with the clipped base حقیقی to retain the core meaning of “truth” in Phonological Form (PF) Operations and does not require further modification. Urdu's phonotactic rules determine the stress pattern, typically on the penultimate syllable.

(LF) operation, referring to a “biscuit,” without changing the lexical category i.e. noun.

Biscuit → bikkie [/'bɪk.i/]

(1) Biscuit

N



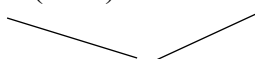
Biscuit (Root word)

(2) Biscuit

N

Bikk (Root)

-ie (Affix)



Bikkie
(Clipped form)

STEP 4: The clipped form “حقیقی” retains its semantic core in Semantic Interpretation (LF) operation, referring to the “truth,” but itself changed into an adjective meaning “real” or “true” using both words in different context according to their usage i.e. noun and adjective. The final output is the well-formed clipped and suffixed word:

حقیقی → حقیقت [hə.qi:.qi:/]

حقیقت(1)

N



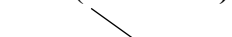
حقیقت (Root word)

حقیقت (2)

N

حقیق (Root word)

ی (Affix)



حقیقی (ADJ- Clipped form)

5. DISCUSSION

This study investigates the process of clipping in English and Urdu languages through the lens of distributional morphological approach (Bobaljik, 2017), focusing on how morphological structures adapt to syntactic, morphological and semantic shifts in both languages. Clipping is a prevalent morphological process essential in both languages, reflecting the dynamic nature of language evolution and usage (Veisberg, 1999). It serves not only as a means of linguistic economy but also as a reflection of cultural and social contexts within languages (Abdullayev, 2023). English emphasizes brevity and efficiency in its clipping processes. For instance, “graduation” becoming “grad” and “vibration” shortening to “vibe” illustrate how the initial segments of words are retained while the latter parts are discarded (Klassen & Schwieter, 2015) maintaining their function as a noun while becoming more accessible for casual discourse. English demonstrates a variety of clipping types, each showcasing the language’s adaptability (Bauer, 2003). English clipping often adapt to specific contexts and domains. For example, Mic (from Microphone) is widely used in technical and informal settings. In contrast, Urdu shows deep interaction effects between morphology and syntax in its process of clipping. In Urdu language, clipping usually involves the truncation of inflectional morphemes or phonological segments retaining the core meanings (Khan, 2021). During this process, they sometimes undergo morpho-syntactic shifts, converting them into words of another grammatical category and new contexts of use. For example “محمدی” [mʊ'hæm.mə.di/] is clipped to محمد [mʊ'hæm.məd/], clipping the attributive suffix “ی”, which generally denotes association and/or location lending the word an adjectival quality. Similarly, the full form

"همدری" conversion into its clipped form 'همدر', which not only requires the change of the word's grammatical category (adjective to noun) but also needs their usage in different contexts depending upon the demand of both the forms. The number of suffixes and inflections are more in Urdu compared to English due to the loss of inflectional morphemes in the course of historical development (Batoool & Saleem, 2023). This difference indicates that while both languages utilize clipping, the underlying morphological structures differ significantly. However, there are some similarities between the two. Phonologically, both languages maintain certain stress patterns during the clipping process. For instance, the clipped form "reno" retains stress from "renovation," ensuring phonotactic compatibility within English language (Irshad et al., 2018). In Urdu, the stress pattern in "همدر" remains consistent with its full form "همدری," indicating that phonological adjustments are similarly applied across both languages. Semantically, clipped forms in both languages retain their original meanings, which is crucial for effective communication. In English-speaking communities, clipped forms often carry informal connotations, while in Urdu-speaking contexts, they maintain a more formal significance pivot on usage of full and derived forms (clipped forms) that are context dependent. This approach of clipped forms and their usage in Urdu language differs from the approach that claims that clipped forms often emerge in informal settings as a way for speakers to express solidarity or belonging within a specific group. Furthermore, the claim that clipping can also reflect the speaker's intention to reduce cognitive load or increase communicative efficiency, particularly in contexts of rapid information exchange (Hilpert, 2019) is being negated in Urdu language analyzing the clipping process through DM as the clipped forms that are the derived versions of the original forms need complete representation of both forms in contexts they are being used. The previous research on the distributional approach to studying clippings in both Urdu and English provides valuable insights into linguistic behavior across these two languages (Campbell, 2020). The instances of fore clipping reveals that the syntactic structures in English often combines independent morphemes into compounds (Booij, 2005) preserving their meaning and grammatical category, while Urdu typically relies on prefixes that modify roots to make changes not only in the grammatical category but their usage in different contexts. This distinction reflects broader morphological strategies employed by each language. In English, clipping often maintains or even enhances meaning within informal contexts (e.g., zine retains its association with magazines). In contrast, Urdu clipping can lead to a loss of specific grammatical category associated with prefixes (e.g., removing م alters the lexical category from adjective منفی to noun i.e. نفی) analyzing how word's semantics is altered through morphological processes (khan, 2021). The process of middle clipping (Qriabi, 2016) also functions differently at different steps of lexical analysis through DM. In both English and Urdu languages, the middle section of the full form is clipped to make a clipped form in English while a derived and related word in Urdu language. Such as "specs" from "spectacles" is used alternatively in the same context while حسن from حسین retaining their core meaning "beauty" but using in different contexts due to their different grammatical categories in different contexts. The full and clipped forms from the instances of complex clipping in both English and Urdu undergo similar steps when analyzed through a distributional morphological approach (DM) maintain grammatical categories in English language and altering word's category in Urdu language. This analysis highlights the morphological structures and patterns present in both languages, allowing for a comparative understanding of how clipping operates across linguistic contexts (Haspelmath & Sims, 2010). This research reveals that while analyzing the process of clipping through distributional morphological approach, the change occurs at the Post-Syntactic Morphological Operations where after clipping, the phonological change occur between the full and clipped form in English language as the phonological form [/'speks/] is different from [/'spek.tə.kəlz/] and the phonological form [həsn] is different from

[/hə'si:n/] in Urdu language but changing word's category at the same time in Urdu language. However, this study investigates two cases involved in complex clipping among multiple processes (Jamet, 2009) of it leaving the direction for future research on this specific process of word formation through a distributional morphological approach and suggesting a more appropriate framework that can outlines the similarities and differences between both languages at a deeper level. Clipping is a complicated process as there is no clear pattern for how much of a word will be clipped or which part will be removed (Bauer, 2003; Durkin 2014). Such variability challenges DM's contribution and efficiency to the analysis of clippings across languages, rendering the results less coherent. In addition, there might be language specific features in clipping in Urdu language as compared to English language like how in Urdu, in the process of clipping, certain morphological markers or suffixes are retained making the clipped forms to be appeared in the different contexts. Such language-specific phenomena may question the universal applicability of Distributional Morphology's principles (Petrulyté, 2015). English clippings may result in forms that are unrecognizable from their base words to be used in the contexts alternatively, whereas in Urdu the clippings may preserve more morphological integrity. The basis of distributional morphology presents a basis of reflecting morphological structures in light of the clipping process of word formation and stressing upon structural, phonological and semantic similarities and differences which ultimately helps comprehending within English and Urdu languages' morphological processes. DM has the concept of under-specification particularly useful for understanding clippings. According to this perspective, clippings are examples of phonological forms being chosen according to the context instead of strict morphological patterns (Marinaccio, 2020). This analysis of clipping through the DM perspective helps to further shape morphological theories. The fact that clipping process functions to morphologically complex words that allows researchers to critically assess existing models or theories of word formation and, if necessary, to put forth new ones that can better handle the word formation processes at a broader level (Petrulyté, 2015). This step, on the whole, is important for the development of linguistic theory. DM is used for language teaching contexts as the insights gained from clipping analysis could be useful for teachers. Educators cannot only do to teach vocabulary but also how they should actually teach vocabulary. For example, the identification of multiple clipped forms in English would help learners to better understand informal language use and improve their language proficiency (Mettiello 2013). Summary by analogy with other algorithms in NLP tasks, such as text summarization, speech recognition, machine translation, etc. can be improved by the use of DM principles. NLP systems can take more informal language processing techniques if they are trained on morphological structures, which include knowledge of clipping morphology (Booij, 2010). Such compatibility is powerful especially in multilingual contexts where English and Urdu languages may be simultaneously used.

6. CONCLUSION

The analysis of clipping as the word formation process through distributional morphological approach signifies original words and their corresponding clipped words in both English and Urdu languages comparatively on morphological, phonological, and syntactic patterns creating the contrast at their usage patterns depends upon their interplay within the languages both in written and verbal discourse. Both languages process clipping in different ways. In English language, the clipped form retain its grammatical category enabling it used alternatively in the same context. English language includes simplicity and effectiveness in its clipped forms. While Urdu language introduces a derived clipped form retaining the meaning related to the source word but having different grammatical category. It uses a broader variety of suffixes and inflections compared to English, which has seen a reduction in its inflectional morphemes over time. This evaluation discusses the morphological structures and sequences present in

both languages that enables a comparative understanding of how the process of clipping occurs in different linguistic contexts. The analysis driven on both languages in the study of clippings has yielded fruitful results. The ability of under-specification is known as the DM feature allowing to choose the specific phonological representation depending on the context instead of complex morphological organization. They also permit the formulation of other external, ongoing theories. DM framework is developed to describe the cross-linguistic variation, thus, it is recommended to analyze both the languages, English as well as Urdu. This theoretical framework enables the researchers to examine process of clipping in different languages but using an identical theoretical perspective. In addition, it contains operations such as morphological merger and impoverishment which can show how clipping functions through morpheme interaction. This is critical phase for splitting up complex wordings into brief forms without losing the necessary semantic content of the words. Overall, these findings demonstrate the power of clipping as a linguistic strategy that allows speakers to express ideas concisely revealing some of the different grammatical and cultural structures present in both English and Urdu languages. This work offers an in-depth perspective on the clipping process through the lens of Distributed Morphology. By paving a path through the stages of syntactic formation to phonological realization, DM shows how the morphological simplicity work alongside a retention of specification everywhere else that matters.

References

- Abdullayev, A. A. (2023). The role of clipping in English language. *International Scientific Conference "Innovative Trends in Science, Practice and education"*, 2 (2), 145-149.
- Bauer, L. (2003). *Introducing linguistic morphology* (2nd ed.) Washington, D.C. : Georgetown University Press (Chapter 2)
- Belder, M. D. & Don, J. (2022). 'a' "Distributed Morphology: An oratio pro domo." *Nederlandse Taalkunde*, 27(1), 75–104.
- Biber, D., Conrad, S., & Leech, G (2002). *Longman Student Grammar of Spoken and Written English*. (1st ed.). England: Pearson education Limited (Chapter 3)
- Bobaljik, J. D. (2017). Distributed morphology. In M. Aronoff (Ed.), *Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Linguistics*. Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/acrefore/9780199384655.013.131>
- Booij, G. (2005). Inflection. In Booij, G (Ed), *The grammar of words: An introduction to linguistic morphology* (101-128). Oxford University Press.
- Booij, G. E. (2010). What is construction morphology. In Lieber, R (Ed.), *Construction Morphology*. Oxford University Press.
- Batool, R., & Saleem, T. (2023). Comparative construction morphology of diminutive forms in English and Urdu. *Cogent Arts & Humanities*, 10 (1), 1-25
- Belder, M. D. & Don, J. (2022). "Distributed Morphology: An oratio pro domo." *Nederlandse Taalkunde*, 27(1), 75–104.
- Campbell, L. (2020). *Historical linguistics: An introduction*. (4th ed.). Edinburgh University Press, (Chapter 11).
- Crystal, D. (1994). List of symbols. In Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data (Ed), *A dictionary of linguistics and phonetics* (pp. 22-50). Blackwell Publishing Ltd
- Dembe, T. (2024). The impact of social media on language evolution. *European Journal of Linguistics*, 3(3), 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.47941/ejl.2049>
- Din, M. u. (2010). *Feroz ul Lughat Jamey*. Lahore, Punjab, Pakistan.
- Durkin, P. (2014). *Borrowed words: A history of loanwords in English*. (1st ed.) Oxford University Press, (Part IV)
- Embick, D., & Noyer, R. (2007). Distributed Morphology and the syntax–morphology interface. In G. Ramchand & C. Reiss (Eds.), *The Oxford Handbook of Linguistic Interfaces* (pp. 289–324). Oxford University Press.
- Gries, S. T. (2009). What is Corpus Linguistics? *Language and Linguistics Compass*, 1-17. 10.1111/j.1749-818X.2009.00149.x
- Haspelmath, M., & Sims, A. D. (2010). *Understanding morphology* (2nd ed.). London, UK: Hodder Education.
- Herring, S. C. (2004). Language and the Internet. In W. Donsbach (Ed.), *International Encyclopedia of Communication*. Wiley. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781405186407.wbiecl005>
- Hilpert, M. (2019). A multivariate approach to English clippings. *Glossa: A Journal of General Linguistics*, 4(1), 1-27.

- Hilpert, M., Correia Saavedra, D., & Rains, J. M. (2023). Meaning differences between English clippings and their source words: A corpus-based study. *ICAME Journal*, 47(1), 19–37. <https://doi.org/10.2478/icame-2023-0002>
- Irshad, A., Rashid, H. u., & Mangrio, R. A. (2018). A contrastive analysis of Urdu and English vocabulary. *Kashmir Journal of Language Research*, 21(1), 61–74. <https://kjlir.pk/index.php/kjlir/article/view/195>
- Jamet, D. (2009). A morphophonological approach to clipping in English: Can the study of clipping be formalized? *Lexis: Journal in English Lexicology, HS I, Lexicology & Phonology*, 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.4000/lexis.884>
- Khan, H. N. (2021). A study of word building and morphological processes (Derivational and Inflectional) in English and Urdu. *Indiana Journal of Arts & Literature*, 2(5), 17–23.
- Khan, T. A. (2020). Morphological integration of Urdu loan words in Pakistani English. *English Language Teaching*, 13(5), 49–63. <https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v13n5p49>
- Klassen, G., & Schwieter, J. W. (2013). The morphosyntactic interface of determiner phrases. *Open Journal of Modern Linguistics*, 3(4), 360–366. <https://doi.org/10.4236/ojml.2013.34047>
- Lin, Y. (2015). The acquisition of words' meaning based on constructivism. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 5(3), 639–643. <https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0503.26>
- Lucy, J.A. (2004). Language, culture, and mind in comparative perspective. In Achard, M., & Kemmer, S. (Eds.), *Language, culture, and mind* (pp. 1-622). Stanford, CA: Center for the Study of Language and Information / University of Chicago Press.
- Marinaccio, M. (2020). A Distributed Morphology analysis of null morphology in feminine plurals (Honors thesis, Department of Linguistics, New York University). Retrieved from <https://as.nyu.edu/content/dam/nyu-as/linguistics/documents/Michael%20Marinaccio%20Honors%20Thesis%2020201.pdf>
- Mattiello, E. (2013). Clipping: A morphological perspective. In A. Hippisley & G. Stump (Eds.), *The Cambridge Handbook of Morphology* (pp. 328–348). Cambridge University Press.
- Merriam-Webster. (n.d.). *Merriam-Webster Dictionary*. In Merriam-Webster online. Retrieved January 23, 2025, from <https://www.merriam-webster.com>
- Muhammad, I. A. (2019). What is Distributed Morphology? *Macrolinguistics*, 7(10), 45–56. <https://doi.org/10.26478/ja2019.7.10.3>
- Ndimele, O.M. (ed.). (2019). *Four decades in the study of Nigerian languages & linguistics: A festschrift for Kay Williamson*. Port Harcourt, Nigeria: M & J Grand Orbit Communications.
- Oriabi, H. H. (2016). A contrastive study of clipping in English and Arabic. *Journal of the College of Education for Girls for Humanities*, 6(10). <https://doi.org/10.36327/ewjh.vi10.9151>
- Oxford University Press, (n.d.). *Oxford English Dictionary*. In Oxford English Dictionary online. Retrieved January 23, 2025, from <https://www.oed.com>
- Petrulytė, A. (2015). Clipping as morphology: Evidence from Japanese (Master's thesis, University of Calgary). Retrieved from <https://prism.ucalgary.ca/items/8fcb5571-2404-4398-9153-35e093509aeb/content>
- Pyles, T., & Algeo J. (2010). *The origins and development of the English language* (6th ed.). Boston, MA: Wadsworth.
- Thomas, D. R. (2006). A general inductive approach for analyzing qualitative evaluation data. *American Journal of Evaluation*, 27(2), 237–246. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1098214005283748>
- Ursini, F.A. (2014). Review of *Morphology: From Data to Theories*, by A. Fábregas & S. Scalise (Edinburgh University Press, 2012). *Canadian Journal of Linguistics / La revue canadienne de linguistique*, 59(2), 284–287. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0008413100000311>
- Veisbergs, A. (1999). Clippings in English and Latvian. *Poznań Studies in Contemporary Linguistics*, 35, 153–163. Retrieved from <http://wa.amu.edu.pl/psicl/files/35/11/Veisbergs.pdf>

Appendices

A

Urdu Language

Sr. No.	Source Word	IPA Transportation	Clipped Forms	IPA Transcription
1	ہمدردی	/həm'dərdi:/	ہمدرد	/həm.dərd/
2	آشنائی	/a:ʃna:'i:/	آشنا	/a:ʃna:/
3	مالی	/ma:'li:/	مال	/ma:l/
4	رنگریزا	/rʌŋgə'ri:za:/	رنگریز	/rʌŋgiz/
5	نوکری	/no:kə'ri:/	نوکر	/no:kər/
6	چاندنی	/tʃa:nd 'ni:/	چاند	/tʃa:nd/
7	آبادی	/a:ba:'di:/	آباد	/a:ba:d/
8	محمدی	/muhə'mədi:/	محمد	/muhə'məd/
9	بہتری	/bɛh.t̪ə.ri:/	بہتر	/bɛh.t̪ər/
10	احمدی	/aɦ.mədi:/	احمد	/aɦ.məd/
11	چنگیزی	/tʃəŋgi:zi:/	چنگیز	/tʃəŋgiz/
12	عالم	/a:lə.m/	علم	/il.m/
13	عالمی	/a:lə.mi:/	عالم	/a:lə.m/
14	حسین	/hʊseɪn/	حسن	/həsən/
15	موسمی	/mʊsə.mi:/	موسم	/mʊsəm/
16	عادل	/a:dil/	عدل	/ədl/
17	حساب	/ɦɪsa:b/	حسب	/həsb/
18	شادی	/ʃa:di:/	شاد	/ʃa:d/
19	شیشہ	/ʃi:ʃa:/	شیش	/ʃi:ʃ/
20	پہلو	/pɛhlu:/	پہل	/pɛhl/
21	عاشق	/a:ʃiq/	عشق	/ɪʃq/
22	مطالبہ	/mʊ.t̪a:.li.ba:/	طلب	/t̪ə'ləb/
23	گفتن	/gʊf't̪ən/	گفت	/gʊft/
24	تعلیم	/t̪a:'li:m/	علم	/iləm/
25	نسبت	/nɪs'bət/	نسب	/nəsəb/
26	منفی	/mʊn'fi:/	نفی	/nəfi:/
27	انتظام	/ɪn't̪e:zam/	نظام	/nɪzam/
28	ہمیشہ	/hə'me:ʃa/	ہمیش	/hə'meɪʃ/
29	حقیقت	/hə'qɪqat/	حقیقی	/həqɪqɪ/
30	منصبی	/mən'sɪbi/	نصب	/nəsəb/

Appendix B
English Language

Sr. No.	Source Words	IPA Transcription	Clipped Words	IPA Transcription
1	Fanzine	/ˈfæn.zi:n/	Zine	/zi:n/
2	Graduation	/ˌgrædʒ.uˈeɪ.ʃən/	Grad	/græd/
3	Obviously	/ˈɒb.vi.əs.li/	Obvi	/ˈɒb.vi/
4	British Exit	/ˈbrɪt.ɪʃ ˈɛk.sɪt/	Brexit	/ˈbrek.sɪt/
5	Facsimile	/fækˈsɪm.ɪ.li/	Fax	/fæks/
6	Detective	/dɪˈtɛk.tɪv/	Tec	/tek/
7	Dormitory	/ˈdɔːr.mi.tɔːr.i/	Dormie	/ˈdɔːr.mi/
8	Vibration	/vaɪˈbreɪ.ʃən/	Vibe	/vaɪb/
9	Renovation	/ˌrɛn.əˈveɪ.ʃən/	Reno	/ˈreɪ.nou/
10	Hyperbole	/haɪˈpɜːr.bə.li/	Hype	/haɪp/
11	Business	/ˈbɪz.nəs/	Biz	/bɪz/
12	Squadron	/ˈskwɒd.rən/	Squad	/skwɒd/
13	Veterinarian	/ˌvɛt.ər.ɪˈnɛr.i.ən/	Vet	/vɛt/
14	Vegetable	/ˈvɛdʒ.tə.bəl/	Veggie	/ˈvɛdʒ.i/
15	Necktie	/ˈnɛk.taɪ/	Tie	/taɪ/
16	Earthquake	/ˈɜːθ.kweɪk/	Quake	/kweɪk/
17	Periwig	/ˈpɛr.i.wɪɡ/	Wig	/wɪɡ/
18	Trigonometry	/ˌtrɪɡ.əˈnɒ.mə.tri/	Trig	/trɪɡ/
19	Spectacles	/ˈspɛk.tə.kəlz/	Specs	/spɛks/
20	Biscuit	/ˈbɪs.kɪt/	Bikkie	/ˈbɪk.i/
21	Market	/ˈmɑːk.ɪt/	Mart	/mɑːt/
22	Co-operative	/koʊ-ˈɒp.ər.ə.tɪv/	Co-op	/koʊ-ɒp/
23	Calculus	/ˈkæl.kjə.ləs/	Calc	/kælk/
24	Limousine	/ˌlɪməˈziːn/	Limo	/ˈlɛm.ou/
25	Memorandum	/ˌmɛm.ouˈræn.dəm/	Memo	/ˈmɛm.ou/
26	Edit out	/ˈɛdɪt aʊt/	Edit	/ˈɛd.ɪt/
27	Acute	/əˈkjuːt/	Cute	/kjuːt/
28	Science Fiction	/ˈsaɪ.əns ˈfɪk.ʃən/	Sci-fi	/ˈsaɪ.fai/
29	Fantasy	/ˈfæn.tə.zi/	Fancy	/ˈfæn.si/
30	Festival	/ˈfɛs.tə.vəl/	Fest	/fɛst/