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BLENDING IN FORMATION OF COVID-19 RELATED ENGLISH NEOLOGISMS
(UK AND US BROADSHEETS)
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PREFACE

The impermanence of language as a system leads to the emergence of new words that reflect social and economic changes in society (Kalinowska 2016). Especially noticeable changes affect the intensity of creating of new vocabulary. For more than two years, the coronavirus pandemic has affected all spheres of people's lives. In the English language, like in any non-static, constantly changing system, there have also been changes expressed in the creation of new words related to Covid-19 (Giesbrecht 2020). The aim of the study is to reveal, based on English and American broadsheets, what the recently appeared words associated with the coronavirus pandemic are, to analyse the types of word-formation of Covid-19 related neologisms, and to determine whether blending is the most frequently applied method in the formation of the new words under consideration.

The present paper is divided into the following parts: the Introduction, Chapter I, Chapter II, and Conclusion. The Introduction provides an overview of previous research on the processes of the formation of new words, reasons influencing word-formation with a particular focus on the impact of the coronavirus pandemic on the emergence of neologisms. Chapter I “Neologisms and Word-formation Processes” considers the definitions of neologisms and their types, as well as the main processes of the formation of new words in the English language. Chapter II “Analysis of Word-formation of Recent Covid-19 Related Neologisms” introduces neologisms that have appeared in the US and UK broadsheets and the results of studying the methods of their formation. Based on the analysis of the results, the Conclusion presents a summary of the correspondence of the stated hypothesis to the analytical data.

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INTRODUCTION

Neologism is a term that originates from Greek and represents a word that was newly introduced into a language but has not been widely accepted yet (Kalinowska 2016). According to Yule (2017) and Lepp-Kaethler (as cited by Giesbrecht 2020), neologisms enter the English language constantly. Moreover, the language tends to enlarge the lexicon. There are several opinions as to how many words appear in the language each year. Thus, Harvard University studies have shown that about 8000 new words enter the English language every year. However, according to The Global Language Monitor, this figure is about 5.5 thousand words a year and accounts for approximately 14 words a day (Rise and Fall... 2021). Bauer (2002) supports the idea of a regular increase in vocabulary and observes that the emergence of new words in the English language has not stop over the centuries, and this is facilitated primarily by the productivity of the word-formation process as well as language speakers' creativity. Lawson (2020), in his turn, remarks that creativity is the main way through which language contributes to the adaptation of people to the new realities of the modern world. The appearance of words that can cause rejection indicates that the language is alive and constantly evolving (Yule 2017).

The Impact of Social Change on Language Development

The language demands more new words during a big social upheaval, as Thorne points out (as cited by Moran 2020). Kalinowska (2016) expounds the same idea, claiming that the appearance of new words is closely related to particular times and phenomena of contemporary society. Lawson (2020) and Nunn (2014) remark that such social disasters as the Second World War contributed to the emergence of a number of neologisms, for example, *radar*, which stands for "radio detection and ranging" and is widely used nowadays. According to Lawson (ibid), the emergence of new words such as *brexiteers*, *regrexit*, *remoaners* is the result of social response to the exit of Great Britain from the European Union, which itself has been named with the neologism *Brexit*. While some neologisms do not stand the test of time and disappear, others are accepted by dictionaries and become a part of the language. Thus, Nunn (2014) observed that the British analogue of the American neologism "radar" named RDF was not widespread, unlike the American one, and was replaced by it. In order for a neologism to take root in the language, it must be relevant and constantly used (Kalinowska 2016).

Due to the great epidemics of the past centuries, opportunities have been opened for the coining of new terms in the English language, which describe facing and combating pandemic, as Paton (2020) claims. According to the author, such terms as a *pandemic*, *epidemic*, *self-quarantined* were already formed during the outbreak of the plagues of the 17th century. Lawson (2020) and Paton (2020) assert that the main impact of Pestilence, Pox, the Black Plague as well as AIDS, Spanish Flu, SARS, etc., was expressed in the fact that the language retained the names of the diseases predominantly, and the neologisms coined have not been used widely in the language.

Dramatic changes occurring in the world during the outbreak of the coronavirus disease have resulted in changes in the language. Lepp-Kaethler (as cited by Giesbrecht 2020: para 5) commented that “That's a fascinating change. Lexicographers and sociolinguists are having a hayday”. The language is constantly in the process of changing; Covid-19 has caused the unprecedented rapid growth of the new vocabulary (ibid). Lawson (2020) adheres to the same idea and adds that the increase in the number of neologisms is characteristic not only for English but also for other languages. This tendency was also noted by Kreuz (2020), who points out that additional reports were issued to represent a large number of words considered for entry into dictionaries during the pandemic.

Since the beginning of the coronavirus pandemic, over a thousand neologisms have been formed in the English language. Thorne (as cited by Moran 2020: para 10-12) noted “I've got around a thousand that I'm quite sure are authentic examples of a new language”. These are both technical and biological terms, as well as words created by people in isolation (ibid). As an example of the above-mentioned terms that have passed into public communication, Thorne (2020) presents the following: *antigen*, *booster dose* (or booster shot), *PPE*, *social distance*, *furlough*, *patient zero*, *super-spreader*, *shelter in place*, etc.

Thorne (ibid) as well as Kreuz (2020) point out that the choice of nowadays popular technical and biological terminology and the frequency of its usage differs by region. For example, the term *self-quarantine* is commonly used in the United States, whereas *self-isolate* is more preferable in the United Kingdom. It is noticed that even the term Covid-19 is presented differently in dictionaries of different countries. The variant of this acronym written with all capitalised letters (COVID-19) is specific to the USA, Canada, and Australia, whilst, in Great Britain, Ireland, South Africa, and New Zealand is written as *Covid-19* (Kreuz 2020).

The Origin of Covid-19 Related Neologisms

It is indicated that the majority of neologisms originate from old words which acquire a new meaning or a shade of meaning (Giesbrecht 2020; Pyles and Algeo 2010). According to Merriam-Webster online dictionary (n.d), Kreuz (2020), and Paton (2020), the term *elbow bump* dated back to 1981 and had a meaning of triumphant gesture to team members. However, during the pandemic, the word acquired the meaning of a greeting in which touching with the hands is avoided. Paton (2020) and Lawson (2020) observe that such already existing terms as *elbow bump*, *lockdown*, *key workers*, *face covering*, *quarantine*, *pandemic*, *self-isolating* have become widespread since the beginning of the Covid-19 pandemic. Some existing words have acquired a new meaning in the language, depicting a modern state of affairs. Kreuz (2020) remarks that among them can be old incomprehensible words and expressions that have become widespread, such as medical terms.

The words related to Covid-19 and reflecting people's stay isolated were created long before. This idea has been also mentioned by Paton (2020), who states that some words were not invented specifically with respect to the Covid-19 pandemic and had a wider application. This also applies to abbreviations. Among the most frequently cited examples of such terms is PPE. PPE or in other words "personal protective equipment" has been known since 1977 and presumably applied in the area of healthcare. The other commonly presented example in the literary sources is WFH, which stands for "working from home" when an employee performs his/her work duties at home rather than in the office, dates back to 1995 (ibid).

During remarkable social changes words not only acquire new meanings but new terms appear as well. However, such words account for nearly 1% of newly coined words (Kalinowska 2016). As stated by Kreuz (2020: para 3) and Lepp-Kaethler (as cited by Giesbrecht 2020: para 14), the term Covid-19 is the only word that has actually been coined. In 2020 alone, the use of the word "coronavirus" exceeded the 2019 figure by tens of thousands of times (Giesbrecht 2020). In lexicography, an intensive increase in the use of a certain word all over the world is rare. At present, this word is Covid-19 (Paton 2020). Pyles and Algeo (2010) also remark that neologisms are associated to a lesser extent with the formation of a new meaningful element such as a root.

Uniformity and Productivity of Word-formation Methods

Comprehension and acceptance of new words are based on a certain uniformity of the process of their creation. (Yule 2017). The uniformity of the process of creating of new words manifests in such processes as borrowing, compounding, clipping, conversion, coinage, and derivation (Yule 2017). Pyles and Algeo (2010) state that based on the variety of studies of neologisms that appeared by the end of the 20th century, it was concluded that compounding and affixation appear to be the most productive methods, while Yule (2017) believes that borrowing belongs to this list as well. On the contrary, the study conducted by Cook (2012) based on mass media sources reveals that blends account for more than half of the studied words. Although based on the data of various studies, there is a large discrepancy in assessing the productivity of the method of blending, which ranges from 5% to 43%, blends are considered to be an ingenious and productive form of words as well as an extended type of neologisms (ibid.). Bauer (2002) also states that blending appears to be very productive in terms of the formation of new words in English.

The popularity and multiplicity of blends lie in the simplicity of their formation. The method allows the creation of new morphemes as well as assigning a new meaning to existing ones (Pyles, Algeo 2010). Blending, regarded as a type of compounding, typically characterised in a combination of the initial part of one word with the end of the other one, could be formed in different ways, too (Cook 2012; Bauer 2002). However, Bauer (ibid.: 232) claims, that blends are “very awkward from the point of view of generative grammar” due to the impossibility sometimes to determine their forms merely on the basis of a certain rule; in this case, the rules of forming words with a number of other factors should be considered. Coinage, creation of new word roots, is an infrequent type of word-formation in the English language while derivation (or affixation) is considered as the most regular one (Yule 2017).

The Sources of Covid-19 Related Neologisms

As stated by Giesbrecht (2020), the enormous number of new words created in the English language in the form of memes, social media posts, and advertisements seems to reflect the development of the language affected by the pandemic of Covid-19. Lawson (2020: para 18) supports the same idea and claims that social media plays an important role in

spreading neologisms through unlimited access of people to social media. A vast number of data for lexicographical research containing new words that are not yet fixed in dictionaries is accessible in online social media daily. It noticeably exceeds the conventional-size corpora for lexicographical study (Cook 2012). The most widespread new words associated with Covid-19 that represent different areas of people's lives are offered in various articles in newspapers and their internet versions. In the present paper, broadsheets as a newspaper format and a source of new vocabulary were chosen to be the object of the current study. Newspapers are considered a crucial media means of spreading new words. Due to the ingenuity of journalism and the various ways of presenting information, it becomes possible to learn about the emergence of new words from the content and headlines of newspapers and examine their acceptance by the readers. As Bauer (2002) affirms, the emergence of new words is also associated with newspaper advertising, as well as letters from readers to the editorial office of newspapers.

The particular focus on broadsheets is explained by their tendency toward a more traditional approach to searching and gathering information and further delivery of news. It implies detailed reports and a “sober writing tone” as well as targeting educated readers as opposed to tabloids which have a less restrained writing style (Rogers 2020: paras 6, 9). In this regard, it is interesting to research the role of broadsheets as a source and means of spreading neologisms.

Recent Studies of Covid-19 Related Neologisms

The spread of the Covid-19 pandemic has increased the number of researches on the formation of new words. Among the recent studies, the study of Covid-19 related neologisms by Samigoullina (2021) can be noted, in which the author describes the morphological structure of blends and classifies them into types. It is also argued that there are differences between blends and clipped compounds which are not considered by several scientists as separate types of word-formation. The study indicates that blending accounts for a significant part of Covid-19 related neologisms. Al-Salman and Haider (2021) investigate the pragmatic aspects and the methods of word-formation of neologisms associated with Covid-19, collected from various sources, including social networks, blogs, newspaper articles, search engines. The authors emphasize the variety of methods of word formation of modern neologisms including the combinations of

methods, for example, compounding and affixation, clipping and compounding, etc. Fitria (2021) explores the methods for creating Covid-19 related neologisms, selected at random from various online sources: social media, mass media. Bharati (2020) Bharati (2020) analyzes the terms that, in his opinion, are neologisms in groups related to different areas of the lexicon. The study is focused on the origin, meaning, and formation of new words created under the influence of the Coronavirus pandemic. Simatupang and Supri (2020) concentrate on researching on the Covid-19 related compounds and types of meanings of such neologisms. Mweri (2020) examines changes in vocabulary during the pandemic, gives examples of recently emerged new words, and pays attention to blends and acronyms collected from different internet sources. A short study of the new vocabulary conducted by Roig–Marín (2020) reveals the evident productivity of neologisms associated with the coronavirus pandemic.

Recent studies show different approaches to the analysis of the formation of neologisms that have appeared during the coronavirus pandemic. However, there is a lack of research on the topic of the formation of Covid-19 related neologisms with the particular emphasis on blending as a productive type of word-formation. Based on a recent study of blending by Samigoullina (2021), Roig-Marín's (2020) assertion that new coronavirus-related vocabulary is mostly created by means of blending, and observation made by Bauer and Cook, have influenced the suggestion that blending is the most frequently used word-formation method for neologisms used in the language of newspapers published during the Covid-19 pandemic. Thereby, the hypothesis of the present paper is as follows: the primary type of word-formation of new words created in the English language under the influence of Covid-19 and actively used in British and American broadsheets is blending.

CHAPTER I NEOLOGISMS AND WORD-FORMATION PROCESSES

1.1. Definitions and Types of Neologisms

New words are constantly entering a language to express new phenomena, an abstract idea, or a material object in the modern world that cannot be described by existing words. Although new words can be completely new ones recently created in the language, others appear to be old, forgotten words that acquire a new meaning (Algeo 1991). Newly coined words express the mood and state of people in new or difficult conditions during economic or social changes in a particular period of history. According to Bodle (2016), approximately a thousand new words that are then widely used in spoken and written English arise in the English language annually. However, Kalinowska (2016) and Pennington (2020) assume that the number of such words is close to 3000. Such words can be accepted and used in everyday speech; they are called neologisms.

Kalinowska (2016) observes that, initially, when a new word is coined, it is used in the language by a limited number of people. At this stage, a word functions as a protologism, a new word or combination of words invented for its possible adoption in the common language (Macmillan Dictionary 2022). Then a new term is spread by users and ultimately becomes widespread and codified in dictionaries. However, the vast majority of newly coined words do not pass the abovementioned stages and has a short lifespan due to the lack of necessity to use them. In addition, while circulating spoken or written in the language, neologism should be also comprehensible for speakers (Pennington 2021). As Bauer (2002) states, comprehension is based on the simplicity of a contextual interpretation of the morphs (constituent parts of words) which constitute a lexeme, or a word. Otherwise, a lexeme is considered opaque, as in *blackmail* or *carriage*, and requires more effort to be interpreted.

1.1.1. Definitions of Neologisms

The term *neologism* is borrowed from the French language. *Néologisme* stands for “a procedure of creation and use of new words or old words with a new meaning”. The word, in turn, is rooted in Greek *neos-* which has a meaning “new, young”, *logos* – “word, speech”, and *-ism* (*-ismos*) – “a practice, system”. The term *neologism* was initially used

in 1772 along with such words as *full-size*, *outkick*, *grandma*, etc. (Online Etymology Dictionary 2022).

There is no definite approach to the understanding of the term neologism. Merriam-Webster online dictionary (n.d.) defines *neologism* as “a new word, usage, or expression”. According to the Cambridge online dictionary (n.d.), the term has a meaning of “a new word or expression, or a new meaning for an existing word”. Neologism is described by Newmark (1988) and Macmillan online dictionary (n.d.) as a new word or expression as well as an existing word or expression with a new meaning. The same definition is presented by the Free online dictionary (n.d.) and Collins online dictionary (n.d.), the meaning of “a new word or phrase or an existing word or a phrase used in a new sense” can be found along with the other meaning of neologism – “the practice of creation, using or introducing neologisms”. In Oxford English online dictionary (n.d.), the meaning of the term is “a new word or a phrase that is widely used but not yet included in mainstream language” which means that a new word is not accepted by the dictionaries. The same idea is maintained by Algeo (1991) which argues that neologism is expressed not only in a single word but also in a compound word and an idiomatic expression.

As Crystal (2019) explains, a newly formed word in common sense tends to be called a coinage, yet technically it is necessary to distinguish *neologisms* and *nonce words*, lexemes, formed or used spontaneously for a single occasion. Nonce words are not intended to be accepted in the mainstream language. Fischer (1998) claims that, on the one hand, the frequency of use of the term *neologisms* indicates that new words are no longer nonce words. On the other hand, they seem to be novel for the speakers and are not included in dictionaries yet. According to Crystal (2019), when a new lexeme is not needed anymore because there is no fashion for it, or when it is used naturally without detailed comprehension of its meaning, it is no longer seen as a neologism.

1.1.2. Types of Neologisms

According to Newmark (1988: 140), the definition of neologisms is “a newly coined lexical units or existing lexical units that acquire a new sense”. Based on the presented interpretation, the following division of neologisms is provided:

- existing words and collocation with new meaning,
- new lexical items.

Old words that acquire a new meaning are less related to the field of technology, which is more typical for entirely new lexical items. Phrases that already exist in the language may acquire the meanings of technical terms, although their original meaning is different. Newmark (ibid.) claims that existing phrases can also be cultural as well as non-cultural and gives an example of an idiomatic expression *tag-of-love* that came into use in the 1970s. It means a British informal term for dispute or litigation over children between separated parents (The Free dictionary n.d.).

Among new lexemes, Newmark (1988) distinguishes new coinages, derived words, abbreviations, collocations, eponyms, phrasal words, transferred words, acronyms, pseudo-neologisms, internationalisms.

The above classification is one of such existing in linguistics. The following classifications represent a relatively similar view of the authors on the typology of neologisms. As Javed (2021) affirms, newly coined words can be divided into formal, functional, semantic, stylistic, technical, and social neologisms. Formal neologisms represent the words created by morphological means, for example, *photojournalism*. Entirely new words as well as foreign words denoting phenomena that cannot be represented by means of the receiving language can be classified as functional neologisms, e.g. *giraffe*, *fireproof*, *waltz*, *tsar*, *frappe*. Semantic type refers to new lexemes formed by transferring of meaning of already existing words, for example, *search engine*. A new meaning of a word is applied to other areas of society. Regarding stylistic neologisms, new terms are aimed at giving expressiveness to the existing term in the language (e.g., *gig*). Social neologisms are applied to the area of social life and ethic, for example, *strike*, *committee*.

According to Castellví (1999), the following types of neologisms should be distinguished from the point of view of their formation: neologisms in form, functional, semantic, and borrowed. Formal ones include compounds, derivations, phrases, and shortenings, whereas functional neologisms are based on inflection and syntactic transformation. Borrowed words include true borrowings and calques. Schmid (2011) believes that neologisms can be named by such methods of their formation as word creation, which implies forming a completely new word, borrowing, semantic transfer, and word-formation.

According to Fischer (1998), the definition of types of neologisms is based on the factors, that motivate the emergence of a word. Linguistically, they are divided into graphic, morphological, phonetic, phonological, semantic, and stylistic. Graphic motivation refers to the use of, hyphens as in some blends (*sit-com*) or capital letters, as in acronym LASER (light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation). After a word becomes a part of the mainstream language, a change in its graphic design may occur, as in *sit-com* -> *sitcom*, LASER -> *laser*. Morphological motivation is expressed in the derivation of novel lexemes. Their meanings are identified according to the components included. Phonological motivation involves the choice of a certain set of sounds for pronunciation. Fischer (ibid: 13) gives an example of an acronym INSET, in-service training of teachers. Phonological motivation influences the choice of the letters represented, and not IST or INST, etc. As stated by Fischer (ibid), there is a definite cause for the connection between the meaning of a word and its form. Onomatopoeia is an example of the influence of phonetic motivation since such words as *bang*, *buzz*, *hiss*, *splash* represent the imitation of the sounds to which they refer. In the case of metaphor and metonymy, a neologism can be semantically motivated if its figurative meaning is interpreted in terms of a central meaning of the used lexeme. Semantic motivation can also involve using the existing word form for creating acronyms. For example, FIST for *Federation of Inter State Truckers*, BASIC for *Beginners' All-purpose Symbolic Instruction Code* (Bauer 2002), or the name of a country used in romantic correspondence, e.g., ITALY mentioned by Crystal (2019: 455) which stands for *I trust and love you*. According to Fischer (1998), stylistic motivation is reflected in the use of such figures of speech as alliteration (back-to-back, back-to-basics), assonance (life-size, high-rise), consonance (chit-chat, ping-pong).

Algeo (1991) approaches the classification of neologisms according to the etymological sources of neologisms. Such sources include blending, borrowing, combining, creating, shifting, and shortening. New words, the origin of which is difficult to determine, are classified as a separate category of neologisms. According to Algeo in etymology, there is a tendency to replace this criterion in the typology of new lexemes. The typology introduced by Algeo (1991) and Newmark (1988) is predominately based on word-formation processes which are examined below.

1.2. Word-formation

Word formation is the process of creating new lexemes when various language means are applied to words that already exist in the language. Morphemes and words already existing in the language serve as the basis for the creation of new lexical units. During the Old English period, such word-formation process was already used. (Jackson, Amvela 2009). It is stated by Pyles and Algeo (2010) that the formation of new words from such a meaningful morpheme as a root appears to be a common practice.

Crystal (2019: 138) affirms that “the importance of word-formation to the development of the lexicon is second to none” due to the emergence of new words in the language primarily through the formation of new forms from existing ones.

According to Bauer (2002), the concept of word formation is based on the fact that there are words in the language, some of which are formed. Word-formation is not considered to be the only opportunity of creating new words in English language; it is applied to words along with syntactic means, transference of meaning, etc.

1.2.1. Approaches to the Division of Methods for the Formation of New Words

In linguistics, different approaches to classification of the methods of forming new words can be observed. Yule (2017) distinguishes borrowing, compounding, clipping, conversion, coinage, derivation, and notes that in the process of creating a specific word, one can observe not only options for the isolated use of a certain type of word formation but also the use of several word-formation processes. Compounding, which refers to the formation of nouns as well as adjectives (bookcase, fingerprint, full-time job), is defined as a combination of two words and includes blending. Derivation involves using affixes to make new words, among which infix as an atypical for the English language affix is mentioned. Clipping includes back-formation and hypocorisms, words shortened to one syllable with *-ie* or *-y* ending, as in *telly*, *toastie*, *hankie*.

Pyles and Algeo (2010) distinguish creating, combining, shortening, blending, and shifting the grammatical uses of old words. Conversion of a word from one part of speech to another is defined as a functional shift which was also mentioned by Jackson and Amvela (2009). A transition of proper names into common words such as *ampere*, *to*

xerox, *to hoover* are also an example of a functional shift, or commonization. Eponym is not rather a relevant term for the mentioned words. On the contrary, Yule (2017) classifies such words as coinage and considers them eponyms. According to Pyles and Algeo (2010), forming entirely new words, onomatopoeia and ejaculations can be distinguished as methods of the process of creating. Combining includes compounding and affixation. Unlike Yule (2017), Pyles and Algeo (2010: 241) affirm that blending is considered a separate word-formation method. It includes folk etymology, a kind of blending defined as “the naive misunderstanding of a more or less esoteric word that makes it into something more familiar and hence seems to give it a new etymology.” As an example the Spanish word *cucaracha* (a wood louse) is presented, which was transformed to *cockroach*.

Jackson and Amvela (2009) distinguish inflection, derivation, compounding, conversion, blends, and shortenings. Similar to Pyles and Algeo (2010), back-formation is considered as a type of shortening along with clipping, initialisms, and aphetic forms. Castellví (1999) considers acronyms, clippings and initialisms as types of shortenings; in turn, Fischer (1998) claims that every word formed from the longer one and associated with its base form can be classified as shortening. Therefore, acronyms, blending and clippings represent shortenings. Mentioning word formation as one of the areas of morphology, Schmid (2011), as well as Bauer (2002), distinguish prefixation, suffixation, back-formation, conversion, compounding, and such less regular non-morphemic word-formation processes as blending, clipping, reduplication, acronyms, and initialisms.

In linguistics, different classifications of word-formation processes can be distinguished. According to the above-presented approaches, on the one hand, clipping, as a way of forming a new word by reducing the base word, can be distinguished as a separate type of word formation; on the other hand, it is distinguished as a subtype of shortening. As far as blending is concerned, this method of word formation is considered by linguists in one case as a subtype of compounding, in another, it refers to shortening, in the third, it is noted as a separate type of word-formation.

1.2.2. Word-formation Processes

Mechanisms of word-formation contribute to the expansion of the vocabulary in the language. According to Crystal (2019), the major processes of coining new words include

affixation, compounding, and conversion; however, as discussed above, it is not limited to the mentioned methods. The present paper considers affixation, composition, conversion, blending, back-formation, shortening, reduplication, and onomatopoeia.

1.2.2.1. Affixation

Affixation is a process of forming words using affixes, expressed in attaching prefixes, suffixes, and infixes to the root or stem of a word. Prefixes are placed before the stem; suffixes are usually located after the root of the word. Words in the English language formed with affixation can have a prefix or a suffix as well as both elements. As stated by Yule (2017: 191), affixation is a prevailing method of coining new words in the language. According to the author, the most frequently applied affixes in this type of word formation are *mis-*, *pre-*, *un-*, *-ful*, *-ish*, *-ism* *-less*, *-ness*.

A variety of affixes originate from Old English. They include such prefixes as *after-* (afternoon), *be-* (beneath), *for-* (forgive), *mis-* (mislead), *out-* (outside), *un-* (undo), *under-* (understand), *up-* (upright), *with-* (withdraw), and the next suffixes: *-dom* (kingdom), *-ed* (displeased), *-en* (wooden), *-er* (writer), *-ful* (beautiful), *-hood* (childhood), *-ing* (reading), *-ish*, *-less* (hopeless), *-ness* (illness), *-ship* (partnership), *-some* (awesome), *-ster* (gangster), *-th* (width), *-ward* (toward), *-y* (speedy). However, affixes of Latin, Greek and French origin are commonly used in the process of forming new words. Among the widely spread borrowed prefixes, *anti-*, *pro-*, *super-*, *dis-*, *ex-*, *inter-*, *multi-*, *neo-*, *non-* *post-*, *pre-*, *pseudo-*, *re-*, *semi-*, *sub-*, *ultra-* can be mentioned. The most common suffix which is used in forming adjectives is *-al*, as in *functional*, *personal*, *traditional* (Pyles, Algeo 2010).

Infix is one of the forms of affixes, a morpheme inserted in the middle of the root of the word. Infixes are not typical for the English language, although they are present in other languages. The examples of the use of infixes can be found in the emotional speech to express the intensity of the utterance. For instance, *Hallebloodylujah! Absogoddamlutely!* (Yule 2017: 183) As cited by Nordquist (2019a), the infix can be incorporated in a word solely before the most stressed syllable; for example: *abso- ...-lutely*, *edu-...-cation*, *fan-...-tastic*, *Singa-...-pore*. The majority of infixed words are pejoratives and commonly appear in slang or colloquial speech. Although, it can be noticed in news coverage as well as in literature, like *fan-flaming-tastic*, good *e-bloody-nough* (ibid.: para 4).

It is affirmed that certain affixes are used more frequently during a certain period of time. For instance, the use of the suffix *-wise* was very rare until the beginning of the XX century. The reason for using new words containing the above-mentioned suffix was to replace such phrase as “in the manner of”, and improve communication efficiency as well as convey maximum information using a minimum set of tools (Pyles, Algeo 2010: 233). At the end of the XX century the affixes *mega-*, *-trendy*, *-brand*, *-city*, etc. acquired popularity to reflect the trends of the time. The suffix *-ism* served as a base for creating such words as *sexism*, *ageism*, *heightism*. The recently happened Brexit has contributed to a new round of use of the suffix *-exit*. (Crystal 2019).

1.2.2.2. Compounding

Compounding, or composition, is a word-formation process that results in the creation of a new word from two separate words (Yule 2017). *Fingerprint*, *greenhouse*, *blackboard*, *dish-washer*, *sunburn* are examples of compounds. Jackson and Amvela (2009) define compounds as stems formed with two or more roots. Furthermore, compounded words can be presented either as one word, for example, *bedside*, *car-wash*, or as two and even more words, as in *waste paper basket*. A vast number of compounds represented words with two roots which can be either nouns (e.g., air, hand, moon, table) or verbs (e.g., go, come, read), adjectives (e.g., black, long, straight), and adverbs (e.g., about, back, out). Compounds with two bound root morphemes can be also found in the language. For example, *astronaut*, *astrology*, *hydrophobia*, *xenophobia*. Bauer (2002), Jackson and Amvela (2009), denote such words as neo-classical compounds. The morphemes such as *astro-*, *biblio-*, *electro-*, *hydro-*, *-naut*, *-phile*, *-phobe*, *xeno-*, etc. originate from Latin and Greek and are considered to be roots.

As Yule (2017) remarks, compounding appears to be a very productive method of coining new words in the English language. Compounding allows forming not only nouns but also other parts of speech. However, compound nouns prevail in the language. The process of compounding nouns can involve the next relations of stems:

1) Noun + noun

Example: hatch + back -> hatchback, boy + friend -> boy-friend, soap + opera -> soap opera, arm + chair -> arm-chair;

It is stated that gerunds functioning as a noun are more likely to form the presented group of compounds (Bauer 2002:203);

2) Verb + noun

Example: kill + joy -> kill-joy, spoil + sport -> spoil-sport, scare + crow -> scarecrow;

Nouns forming compounds can serve as direct objects as well as indirect objects.

3) Noun + verb

Example: sun+ shine -> sunshine, head + ache -> headache, nose + bleed -> nosebleed;

4) Particle + noun

Example: up + stairs -> upstairs, over + seas -> overseas;

Due to the fact that particles can serve as adverbs of place or time, there may be no difference between the above-mentioned and “adverb + noun” constructions (Bauer 2002: 206).

5) Verb + particle

Example: fall + out -> fallout.

According to Bauer (ibid.) such compounds as “verb + verb “, as in *make-believe*, appear to be infrequent and inefficient. In such “adjective + noun” constructions as *deep structure*, a distinction between a noun phrase and a compound which expresses in the place of stress should be made. The first stressed word ‘*deep*’ indicates a compound, whereas the stressed word ‘*structure*’ specifies a noun phrase.

Compound verbs are represented by a “noun-verb” construction, as in *sky-dive*, a “verb-verb” junction, as in *test-drive*, an “adjective-verb” junction, as in *clear cut* or *white wash*, etc. It is noted that the formation of compound adjectives is based on a variety of patterns. Among them, a “noun-adjective” relation, as in *ice-cold*, an “adjective-adjective” junction, as in *green-eyed*, an “adjective-noun” construction, as in *short-time* and others can be found (Bauer 2002).

It is observed that compounds can be distinguished from a word and a phrase according to phonological and syntactic features as well as their meaning which functions as a whole. Crystal (2019: 139) notes that a compound „is pronounced as a unit, with single main stress, and it is used grammatically as a unit”. Grammatically it is expressed in changes characteristic for the part of speech a compound word refers to. For example, in the formation of the plural: “finger-print” cannot be presented in plural as *fingers-prints*, but rather as *finger-prints*. The past form of “downgrade” is *downgraded*, but not *downed*

grade. In terms of semantics, compounds are considered to be close to idioms. (Jackson, Amvela 2009).

1.2.2.3. Conversion

Conversion is defined as a word-formation process that involves a transition of a word from one class to another without changing its form (Cambridge online dictionary n.d.). The feature in which both the spelling and pronunciation of a word are stable makes the conversion very productive in the formation of new words (Jackson, Amvela 2009). This process is commonly applied for the creation of nouns and verbs from different parts of speech. The primary ways of conversion are:

- Words can be converted from nouns to verbs.
Example: email → *to email*, text → *to text* (acquires the meaning of sending a text message), jet → *to jet*, napalm - *to napalm*, network → *to network*;
- Words can also be converted from verbs into nouns.
Example: to download → *a download*, to call → *a call*, to cut → *a cut*, to guess - *> a guess*;
- noun from adjective: definite → *a definite*, empty → *to empty*, wrong → *to wrong*;
- adjectives to verbs: round → *to round*;
- noun from conjunction: if → *a big if* meaning it is not at all certain;
- nouns from prepositions: *ups and downs*;
- a proper noun into a common noun: “*Has anybody seen my Dickens?*” or “*Which Hilary do you mean?*”

The conversion within a one-word class is also applied; for example, intransitive verbs can be converted into transitive as in “How long can a pigeon fly non-stop?” → “Can this little boy fly a kite?”. A word transition from adjective to a noun, for example, *rich* → *a rich*, is infrequent and syntactically limited. (Jackson, Amvela 2009: 86).

It is noted that one word can be converted into different parts of speech. For example, *wrong* can be an adjective (*a wrong answer*), an adverb (*to spell wrong*), a noun (*to do wrong*), a verb (*to wrong somebody*). An entire expression can be subject to conversion and transferred, for example, into a noun as in *has-been*, *forget-me-not*, *free-for-all*. (Jackson, Amvela 2009; Crystal 2019).

1.2.2.4. Blending

According to Algeo (1991), blending is a process of creating new words by joining at least two words when one of them or both are reduced. Blending includes shortening of words as well as combining. Yule (2017) defines blends as a combination of the initial part of one word with the end of another one, as in *brunch* formed from *breakfast* and *lunch*, or *motel* from *motor* and *hotel*. Blends can also be formed by joining the initial parts of the words, as in *telex* formed from *teleprinter* and *exchange*. Other examples of blends include *smog* (smoke + fog), *emoticon* (emotion + icon), *bit* (binary + digit), *Brexit* (Britain + exit), *workaholic* (work + alcoholic), etc.

Based on the pattern applied to words to create new lexemes, blends can be distributed as follows:

- a combination of parts of two words, or splinters:
situation + comedy -> *sitcom*, (two initial parts of words are used),
jeans + leggings -> *jeggings*, stagnation + inflation -> *stagflation* (the initial part of the first word and the ending of the second one);
- a full word followed by a part of another word:
stay + vacation -> *staycation*, fan + magazine -> *fanzine*;
- a combination of a part of the word and a full word:
documentary + drama -> *docudrama*, quarantine + team -> *quaranteam*;
- an overlap or combination of similar phonemes of two lexemes:
slang + language -> *slanguage*; (Lehrer 2003, Nordquist 2020);
- delinquency + lingual -> *delinguancy*, “misusing language”, encyclopedia + shock -> *enshocklopedia*, “knowledge in the field of horror films”. (Lehrer 2007)

Blends are also called portmanteau words, the term which was apparently created by Lewis Carroll. The meaning of the term is "suitcase" or "trunk" with which blends were associated since two meanings were packed into one word like in one suitcase. (Nordquist 2020; Samigoullina 2021). However, blends that occurred earlier, in the old times of language development were rather instinctive. Among the earliest blends in the English language can be mentioned *flurry* coined from *flutter* and *hurry*, *flush* created from *flash* and *gush*, *twirl* from *twist* and *whirl* (Pyles, Algeo 2010). Such terms as *soliloquacity*, coined by a combination of *soliloquy* and *loquacity*, and *smog*, a result of joining *smoke* and *fog* are dated back to the end of the 19th – the beginning of the 20th century (Lehrer 2003).

A distinctive feature of blends is that the elements included in a new form can be identified. At least, one of the parts is easy to recognize (Pyles, Algeo 2010; Crystal 2019; Lehrer 2003). Lehrer (ibid.) claims that the frequency of use of the splinter, the number of letters of a source word presented in the blend, a context within a new lexeme is used are among the factors that contribute to understanding the parts of blends. As Crystal (ibid.) remarks, the vast majority of blends are recognizable according to the second part of the word. For example, it is not difficult to guess that *brunch* has a clear meaning of a kind of lunch, not breakfast. In turn under *toytoon*, one may understand that it is a cartoon made by using toys and it does not refer to a sort of toy. The meaning of a blend can be clear for a listener and especially for a reader due to the periodic appearance of blends in press. Blends appearing in newspapers and advertising as well as in technology are commonly informal (Jackson, Amvela 2009). They are aimed to attract the attention of the readers and appear easy to remember. The popularity and multiplicity of blends are characterized by the simplicity of their formation (Pyles, Algeo 2010).

1.2.2.5. Back-formation

Back-formation is a process of forming a reduced word from the longer one by removing the affix (Crystal 2019). The characteristic feature of this type of word-formation is that verbs are derived from another class of words – commonly nouns. More than 80 percent of back-formations are represented by verbs derived from nouns (Bauer 2002: 232).

It is noticed that the ending of the noun *-er/-or/-ar* makes it possible to form a verb that indicates the action of this noun (Yule 2017). The typical pattern of the process is as follows: *noun - suffix -> verb*. For example, the verb *baby-sit* is generated from the noun *baby-sitter*, *burgle* is formed from *burglar*, *edit* from *editor*, *housekeep* from *housekeeper*. However, the reduction of non-productive suffixes like *-ion* can be noticed in the back-formation process as well. For instance, *emote* from *emotion*, *intuit* from *intuition*, *televise* from *television*. The same pattern is employed for source words with prefixes (Bauer 2002). For example, in *ply* from *reply*, *choate* from *inchoate* or *committal* from *non-committal*.

The formation of new words with different meanings and stress from one source word can also occur. For example, the noun *procession* can be reduced to a *process*, a verb with

the meaning “to prepare food before selling or using” and a *procéss*, a verb which means “to walk in procession” (Back-formations, blends...: n.d.).

Back-formation should be distinguished from shortening in terms of the ability to change the class of words of source lexemes, which is not typical for clipping (Nicholls 2003).

1.2.2.6. Shortening

According to Collins online dictionary (n.d.), shortening is a reduction of a word by dropping one or several syllables from a single word or a phrase. This process results in the creation of a new word with the same meaning and without changing the word class. Clipping, abbreviations, and acronyms refer to the above-mentioned word-formation type (Bodle 2016).

Clipping

Clipping involves omitting the initial part of the ending of the word to coin a new word (Nicholls 2003). The example of the first type of clipping is *ad* derived from *advertisement*, *lab* from *laboratory*, *gas* from *gasoline*. The second type of clipping can be illustrated by the next formations: *omnibus* -> *bus*, *telephone* -> *phone*, *airplane* -> *plane*. However, the middle part of the source word can also be retained to produce a clipped lexeme, as in *refrigerator* -> *fridge*, *influenza* -> *flu*, as well as dropped, as in *mathematics* -> *maths* or *specification* -> *specs* (Jackson, Amvela 2009; Crystal 2019). It is also common for English language speakers to shorten proper names like Al, Ed, Mike, Sam, Sue (Yule 2017).

Hypocorisms mentioned by Yule (2017) as a form of clipping involve reduction of a word when a single syllable is left and the ending -y or -ie is added. For example, *bickie* is coined from *biscuit*, *movie* coined from *moving pictures*, *telly* from *television*.

Stylistically, clipped words appear to be less formal yet regularly replace the original word form, for example, *bus*, *car*, *fries* (Jackson, Amvela 2009; Crystal 2019).

Abbreviation

Abbreviation, defined by Crystal as *initialism* (ibid.) and also as *alphabetism* (Jackson, Amvela 2009: 89; Pyles, Algeo 2010: 236), refers to shortening words to initial letter to produce an item pronounced letter by letter separately. *BBC, DNA, DVD, OK, TV, USA* are examples of abbreviations. Among the abbreviations can be found items formed not only by initial letters but by the first two letters. For instance, the first two letters in Ph.D. are used to denote the word *philosophy*. The letters from the middle part of the word can be taken to form abbreviations as well. The abbreviation *TV* is formed with the letter *v* extracted from the middle part of the word (Crystal 2019).

Acronyms

The term *acronym* refers to the new words formed with the initial letters and pronounced as a separate word (Bauer 2002). *NASA, NATO, SWAT, UNESCO, UNICEF* are examples of acronyms. The terms that refer to the names of organizations are presented in capital letters. However, some acronyms acquire the form of a common word. They do not imply knowledge of the meaning of the words included in its name. For example, the term *radar* is formed from the collocation “radio detecting and ranging”; *laser*, in turn, is coined from “light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation” (Yule 2017:180). It is observed that the elements of acronyms may consist of several initial letters of source words. For instance, in the term GHOST (Global Horizontal Sounding Technique), *ho* denote the word *horizontal* (Bauer 2002: 238).

Crystal (2019) notes that the term acronym in linguistics can also be used for abbreviations since some experts do not find significant differences between these types of shortening.

1.2.2.7. Reduplication

Reduplication refers to the process of forming of new words by repetition of a whole word or a part of the word. The components of the reduplicant appear to be identical or very similar (Nordquist 2019b). Although the presence of words with identical repetitive parts, as in *goody-goody, boo-boo, din-din*, is a rare phenomenon, alliteration expressed in changing an initial single vowel or consonant is the most common occurrence. For

example, *higgledy-piggledy*, *walkie-talkie*, *criss-cross* (Crystal 2019; Bodle 2016). In addition, reduplication may involve a rhyme of words which is expressed either in two combined existing lexemes, like *hurry-scurry*, or less meaningful constituents as in *hoity-toity* (Nordquist 2019b).

Reduplication is not considered to be a principal word-formation process, though one of the most unusual (Crystal 2019). It is essential to distinguish words formed as a result of reduplication from onomatopoeic, or echo words. Despite their apparent similarity, different rules apply to the formation of such words (Nordquist 2019b).

1.2.2.8. Onomatopoeia

Onomatopoeia is a word-formation process expressed in coining words that represent sounds or noises they refer to (Cambridge online dictionary: 2022). Mostly, onomatopoeic words are directly related to objects or creatures as sources of sound. The words *barf*, *bang*, *buzz*, *cuckoo*, *hiss*, *moo*, *tinkle*, *splash*, etc. are considered as onomatopoeic, or echo words. Pyles and Algeo (2010) define onomatopoeia as “the formation of an echoic word”; Crystal (2019) denotes it in turn as sound symbolism. Onomatopoeic words appear to be a reproduction of sounds and differ depending on the language in which they are pronounced. For example, the imitative sound for dogs in English is *bow-wow*, whereas in German it sounds as *wau-wau*, in France - *gnaf-gnaf* (Pyles, Algeo 2010). According to Pyles and Algeo (ibid.), as well as Jackson and Amvela (2009), echoic words should be differentiated from symbolic words which acquire their meaning in conjunction with other rhyming and alliterating sounds and are considered to be less related to the sound. For example, *clump*, *flip*, *clip-clop*, *rat-a-tat*. A repetition of the same sound or sounds with a slight difference is common for onomatopoeic as well as symbolic words. For example, *splish-splash*, *cluck-cluck*, *ding-dong*.

All the above-mentioned word-formation processes imply the use of definite patterns in order to create new words on the basis of already existing forms and morphemes. A number of patterns are considered regular and predictable in form, for example, compounding, others are less universal, as blending or abbreviations, due to their obscure nature and the need to apply more rules compared to other word-formation types to predict their forms (Bauer 2002).

A particular focus on the types of word-formation gives a general picture of the applied patterns, which can be used below in the practical part of the study. The practical value of reviewing the methods for the creation of new words is to determine the type of formation of Covid-19 related neologisms selected for the present study in order to prove that blending is the dominant one.

CHAPTER II ANALYSIS OF WORD FORMATION OF RECENT COVID-19 RELATED NEOLOGISMS

The empirical research is aimed at identifying and analysing Covid-19 related neologisms found in the press in order to support the hypothesis that the primary type of word-formation of new words created in the English language under the influence of Covid-19 and actively used in British and American broadsheets is blending.

The hypothesis of this work is formulated based on contrasting points of view of linguists. On the one hand, Pyles and Algeo (2010) draw conclusions based on studies of the late 20th century about the greater productivity of compounding and affixation in the formation of new words, and Crystal (2019) claims that affixation, compounding, and conversion are the main processes in the formation of new words. On the other hand, Bauer (2002) and Cook (2012) assume that blending accounts for a significant part of word-formation processes. The recent study conducted by Samigoullina (2021), which is focused on blending, as well as the assertion that the new coronavirus-related vocabulary is mostly blended made by Roig-Marín (2020), has influenced the suggestion that blending is the most commonly used word-formation method for neologisms used in the language of newspapers published during the Covid-19 pandemic.

2.1. The Research Methodology

The study is based on both qualitative and quantitative methods, which consist of the analysis of the applied word-formation methods in relation to neologisms associated with coronavirus in selected sources and determining the most common type of word formation. The study was conducted in three stages, the search for neologisms, the analysis of their word-formation models, and determining the most common method of creating new lexical units.

The object of the study is Covid-19 related neologisms that appeared in the British and American broadsheets: *The Telegraph*, *The Guardian*, *The New York Times*, and *The Washington Post*. The electronic versions of the presented newspapers were used as sources of information due to their wide availability, unlike printed versions. *The Telegraph* and *The Guardian* represent the so called “big three” reliable quality periodical

publications in the Great Britain (The Daily... n.d.), whereas *The New York Times* and *The Washington Post* are among the leading American broadsheets (Rogers 2020).

The period under review covers publications made from March to May 2020. The particular focus on this specific period can be explained by the wide spread of the coronavirus all over the world and the announcement of the first lockdowns in the UK and the USA, as well as a surge in the formation and use of new words and phrases associated with Covid-19 as people's responses to restrictions and changes in social life.

The list of analysed neologisms includes words and word combinations presented in such data sources as a website *Language and Innovation* run by Tony Thorne with a list of coronavirus pandemic-related neologisms presented in the #CORONASPEAK series of publications, Cambridge Dictionary Blog *About words*, and updates to the OED. Neologisms detected in online versions of *The Guardian*, *The Telegraph*, *The Washington Post*, and *The New York Times* are included in the list as well.

2.2. Neologisms in the UK and US Broadsheets, Types of Word-Formation

When examining newspapers for neologisms associated with the coronavirus pandemic, 116 new words and word combinations were found. Neologisms appeared in the language through different sources. A diagram presented below reflects the structure of the applied methods for the creation of Covid-19 related neologisms detected in the vocabulary of online newspapers for the period under review.

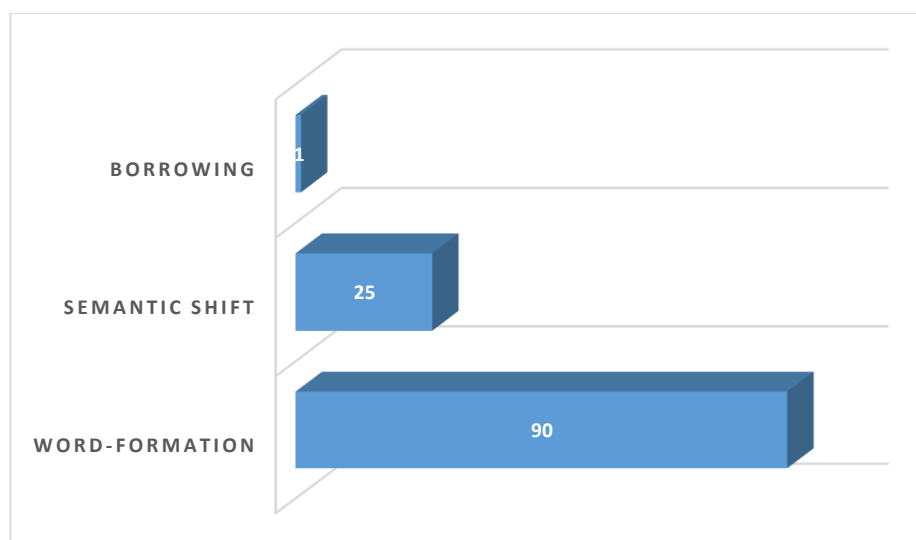


Figure 1. Means of creation of Covid-19 related neologisms found in the newspapers

When compiling the diagram, it was assumed that borrowing is a source of new words appearing in the language, separate from word-formation methods. As can be seen, 25 of the 116 neologisms associated with the pandemic are words and combinations of words that already exist in the language, but have undergone changes in meaning. A semantic shift is observed in such neologisms as *social distancing*, *stay-at-home*, *PPE*, *CFR* (case fatality rate), *shelter-in-place*, *flatten the curve*, *ahead of the curve*, *whack-a-mole*, *bubble*, *pod*, etc. In addition, the use of the word *unlockdown*, borrowed from French and denoting *déconfinement* (Thorne 2020), is detected. Since the purpose of this study is to analyse the ways of forming neologisms, which involve an assessment of the morphological structure of the word, the words with a semantic shift were not included in the study.

During the study, 90 Covid-19 related neologisms were examined and analysed. Neologism represented by a single word as well as a combination of words was chosen as the unit of research. In the process of searching for neologisms and identifying the method of their formation, the following results, which are presented in the table (appendix 1), were obtained. As sources defining neologisms associated with Covid-19, the website *Language and Innovation* (Thorne 2020), the article of Hogan (2020), and the Urban Dictionary can be mentioned.

2.3. Discussion of the Results

As noted above, the word-formation methods of 90 neologisms that appeared under the influence of the coronavirus pandemic were examined. The percentage of neologisms by word-formation methods is shown in Figure 2.

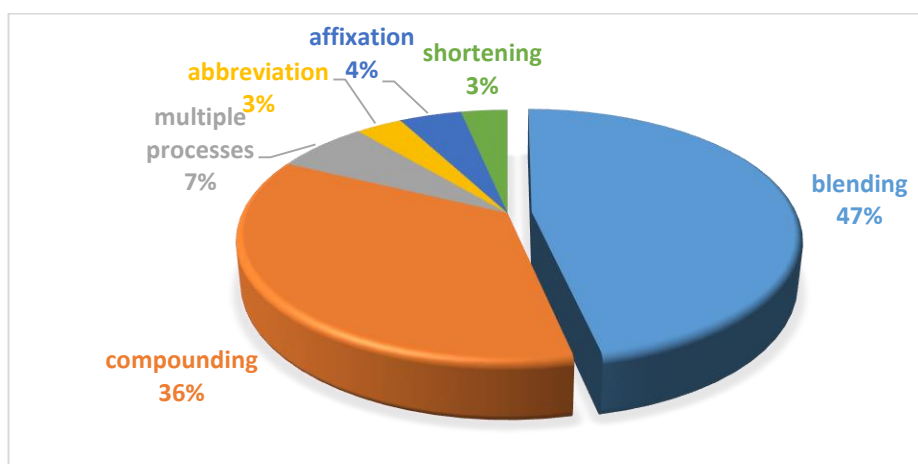


Figure 2. Word-formation methods of Covid-19 related neologisms

As can be seen from the diagram, the methods of formation Covid-19 related neologisms found in the newspaper sources include blending, compounding, affixation, abbreviation, shortening, and multiple processes. Multiple processes are represented by combinations of *compounding + affixation* and *shortening + compounding* and are presented in Table 1 (Appendix 1). It should be noted that the assignment of the method of formation of a definite neologism to the category of multiple processes is conditional; researchers consider the original form of the word from which the new lexeme originated in different ways. For instance, the word-formation model of the neologism *lockdowners* is considered by Al-Salman and Haider (2021) as dual word-formation processes and is presented as *lock + down + er + s*. According to Yamane (2021), Bugrysheva and Skuratov (2021), the lexeme *lockdowners* is formed by means of affixation. In the present study, the second approach is applied.

The majority of the considered neologisms are formed by means of blending. Among them are *covidiot, dinfluencer, quarantini, infodemic, Zumping, goutbreak, coronacation, covidivoces* and other words that are formed by merging parts of two words and reflect the new realities that have emerged during the coronavirus pandemic can be mentioned. They account for 47% of all new lexical units that appeared from March to May 2020 in the sources of information under review. This means that under the conditions described, it can be argued that blending is a method of forming almost every second new word related to the coronavirus pandemic. This is consistent with the findings of Roig-Marín (2020), Samigullina (2021), and earlier research conducted by Cook (2012) that blending is the most commonly used morphological process of creating neologisms. Moreover, it confirms the research hypothesis that blending appears to be the primary type of word-formation of new words created in the English language under the influence of Covid-19.

A minor part of the word-formation processes in the examined new words, 3-4% each, is composed of abbreviation, affixation, and shortening. New words such as *antisocial distancing, coughin' dodger, anti-masker, Miss Rona, co-runner virus, doom 'n' Zoom* were formed as a result of various multiple processes and accounted for 7% of the total number of words.

However, based on the data obtained, it cannot be said that the vast majority of neologisms associated with Covid are blends since more than a third of the words are formed by a combination of two words, or free morphemes, that is, compounding. It

accounts for 36% of the studied new words. Such results can be justified by the fact that combinations of words, that are perceived as a unit and widely used in this form, can also be included in the number of compounds. In the present study, such compounds include *pandemic shaming*, *lockdown party*, *pandemic fatigue*, and *covid bae*.

When studying the word-formation processes of the considered neologisms, an analysis for each of the four declared broadsheets was also conducted. The results are presented in Figure 3.

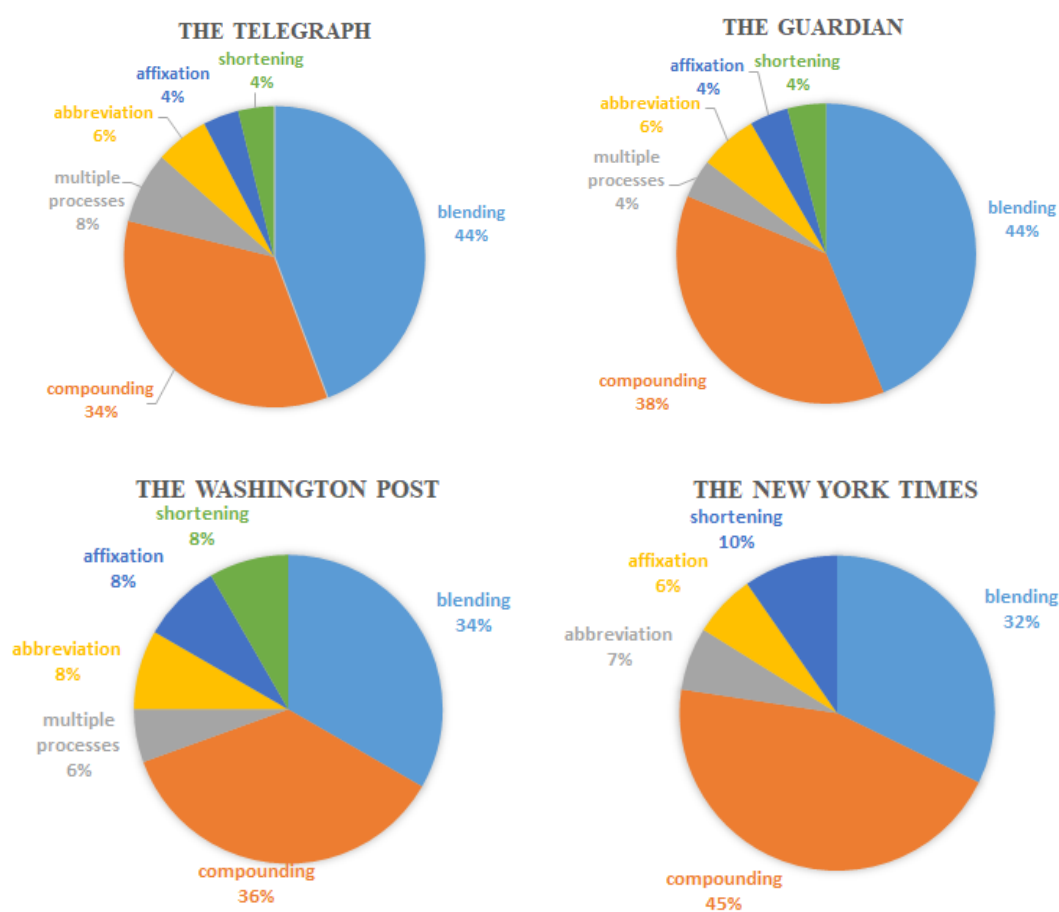


Figure 3. The ratio of word-formation methods for each broadsheet (March-May 2020)

The analysis revealed that in the period under review, *The Washington Post* and *The New York Times* tend to use neologisms formed rather by means of compounding. The figures of 35% and 45% respectively exceed the number of blends found in the publications of these quality newspapers. Based on the results it can be assumed that American newspapers tend to use such combinations of words as compounds since they are more understandable in terms of source words than blends. Moreover, the language of broadsheet publications is more formal than that of tabloids (Journalism... n.d.), and the use of blended neologisms is grammatically “awkward” and seems to be not quite typical

for quality newspapers (Bauer 2002). Finally, the difference may arise due to the content of articles and the level of interest in new words, in this case, neologisms associated with Covid-19 and their coverage in newspaper publications during the period under review.

Concerning the studied neologisms associated with Covid-19, compounding and blending can be considered major mechanisms in the process of forming new words with a predominance of blending in the total number of examined words. From this point of view, the opinion of Pyles and Algeo (2010), Yule (2017), and Crystal (2019) that compounding is one of the most productive word-formation methods can be confirmed as well.

Since, in the present study, online versions of broadsheets acted as sources for searching for Covid-19 related neologisms, it is worth paying attention to which sources revealed the majority of new words. For this purpose, the newspapers *The Telegraph*, *The Guardian*, *The New York Times*, and *The Washington Post* were analysed to determine the source of information that contains neologisms in publications to the greatest extent. As a result, the following data obtained is presented in Figure 4.

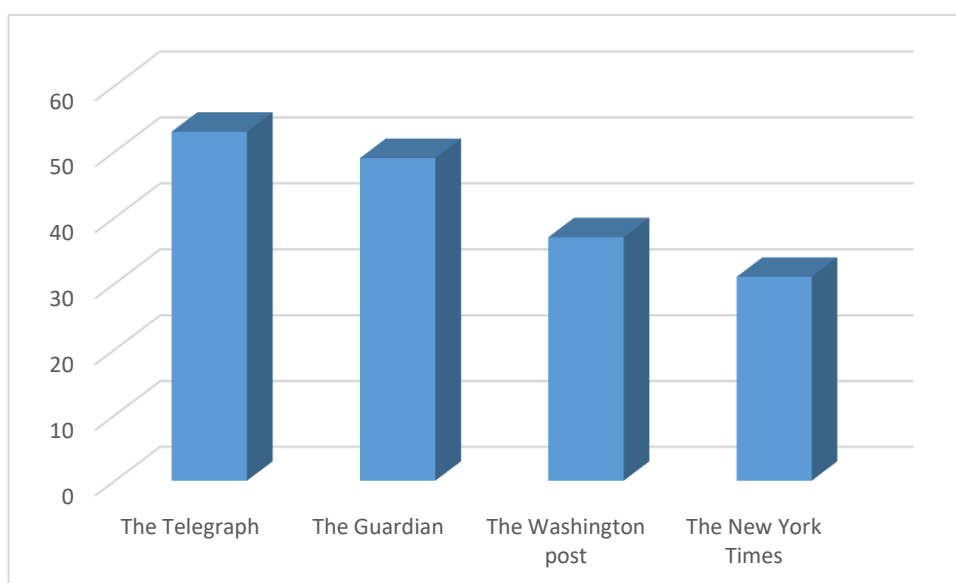


Figure 4. The amount of Covid-19 related neologisms in the US and the UK broadsheets

Based on the diagram presented, it can be concluded that Covid-19 related neologisms are most often found in British newspapers in the period under review. Concerning the period from March to May 2020, it can be observed that approximately half of the 90 analysed neologisms can be found in *The Telegraph* and *The Guardian* publications. In comparison to the previous, the online newspapers *The New York Times* and *The*

Washington Post each account for merely 31 and 37 neologisms found during the study, respectively. However, it is noted that the results obtained cannot be a generalizing characteristic for the entire volume of neologisms used in newspaper publications during the coronavirus pandemic since the period under consideration is limited to three months.

CONCLUSION

The productivity of word-formation processes, as well as the creativity of native speakers, contribute to the emergence of new words in the English language. During periods of social and economic upheaval, a more intensive growth of new vocabulary in the language is observed. It reflects new phenomena that cannot be described by the means already available in the language.

The Covid-19 pandemic has become a powerful impetus for the formation of neologisms affecting all spheres of society. The sources of new words were both the words already available in the language, which acquired a new meaning or shade of meaning, and the methods of word-formation. From the point of view of word-formation methods, the opinions of linguists differ on which of the methods is the most productive. Recent studies, however, show that blending is the most employed method of creating of new words.

The purpose of this work is to find out whether blending is the most used method of forming of new words created under the influence of the coronavirus pandemic. The focus of the analysis is shifted to the neologisms that appeared in the Internet versions of the British and the US quality newspapers as the means of transmission and distribution of information.

Based on the results obtained, it can be argued that in the total volume of Covid-19 related neologisms discovered and analysed in the period under review, blending appears to be the primary word-formation method. It supports the hypothesis of the present study that the primary type of word-formation of new words created in the English language under the influence of Covid-19 and actively used in British and American broadsheets is blending.

However, compounding also appears to be a productive means of coining of new words in the English language. It is confirmed by the results of the analysis of individual newspapers conducted as part of the study. In this case, in the language of publications of American broadsheets, the majority of analysed neologisms are formed by means of compounding, while in the publication of British broadsheets, words formed by blending are used more often. The difference in the results can show the level of journalistic interest

in the emergence of new words in the language and the use of lexemes with semantics that are understandable from the point of view of source words as well.

It should be noted that the results of the study may not be characteristic of the entire volume of Covid-19 related neologisms that have appeared in the English language for more than two years. The considered neologisms were revealed in a short period, limited to three months, the period when the first lockdowns were proclaimed around the world. Moreover, the present research is limited to such sources as broadsheets, which tend to be more formal in conveying information. Although new words also appear in the language and are communicated through tabloid publications, social media posts, memes, advertisements, etc.

SUMMARY IN ESTONIAN

Keele süsteemi püsivus toob kaasa uute sõnade tekkimise, mis peegeldavad ühiskonna sotsiaalseid ja majanduslikke muutusi. Eriti märgatavad muutused mõjutavad uue sõnavara loomise intensiivsust. Koronaviiruse pandeemia on enam kui kaks aastat mõjutanud kõiki inimeste eluvaldkondi. Inglise keeles on muudatusi toimunud ka Covid-19-ga seotud uute sõnade loomises.

Käesoleva töö nimetus on *Blending in formation of Covid-19 related English neologisms (UK and US broadsheets) (Segamine Covid-19-ga seotud inglise neologismide moodustamiseks (Briti ja USA kvaliteetlehed))*. Uuringu eesmärk on Briti ja Ameerika lehtede põhjal välja selgitada, millised on hiljuti ilmunud sõnad, mis on seotud koronaviiruse pandeemiaga, analüüsida Covid-19-ga seotud neologismide sõnamoodustuse tüüpe ja teha kindlaks, kas segamine on vaadeldavate uute sõnade moodustamisel kõige sagedamini kasutatav meetod.

Käesolev töö on jagatud järgmisteks osadeks: sissejuhatus, esimene peatükk, teine peatükk ja kokkuvõte. Sissejuhatuses antakse ülevaade varasematest uurimustest uute sõnade kujunemisprotsesside, sõnamoodustust mõjutavate põhjuste kohta, keskendudes eelkõige koronaviiruse pandeemia mõjule neologismide tekkele. I peatükis "Neologismid ja sõnamoodustusprotsessid" käsitletakse neologismide ja nende tüüpide määratlusi, aga ka põhilisi inglise keele uute sõnade moodustamise protsesse. II peatükk "Viimaste COVID-19-ga seotud neologismide analüüs" tutvustab Ameerika Ühendriikide ja Ühendkuningriigi lehtedel esinevaid neologisme ja nende kujunemismeetodite uurimise tulemusi. Tulemuste analüüsi põhjal on toodud kokkuvõtte püstitatud hüpoteesi vastavusest analüütilistele andmetele.

Saadud tulemuste põhjal võib väita, et vaatlusalusel perioodil avastatud ja analüüsitud Covid-19-ga seotud neologismide kogumahu segamine on esmane sõnamoodustusmeetod. See toetab käesoleva uuringu hüpoteesi. Tuleb märkida, et uuringu tulemused ei ole iseloomulikud kogu Covid-19-ga seotud neologismide mahule, kuna vaatlusalused neologismid ilmnisid lühikese aja jooksul, mis on piiratud kolme kuuga.

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APPENDIX 1. Neologisms: definition and word-formation

	Neologism	Definition	Word-formation method	Newspaper
	1	2	3	4
1.	covidiot	a person who disrespect rules of social distancing during pandemic of coronavirus (covid + idiot)	blending	The Guardian, The New York Times, The Washington Post, The Telegraph
2.	Covid-19	a contagious disease caused by the coronavirus appeared in 2019	abbreviation	The Guardian, The New York Times, The Washington post, The Telegraph
3	nCoV	an abbreviation for the novel coronavirus	abbreviation	The Guardian, The Telegraph, The Washington Post
4	quarantine 15	an extra 15lb weight gained during the coronavirus pandemic	compounding	The Telegraph, The Washington Post
5	lockdowner	a person who lives in the limited conditions of isolation	affixation	The Telegraph
6	pre-quarantine	a time period before a quarantine	affixation	The Guardian, The New York Times, The Washington Post
7	Covid	a clipped form for Covid-19	shortening	The Guardian, The New York Times, The Washington Post, The Telegraph
8	Zoom-bombing	interrupting videoconference held via Zoom platform	compounding	The Guardian, The New York Times, The Washington Post, The Telegraph
9	anthropause	a decrease in human activity during a pandemic (Anthropos + pause)	blending	The Telegraph
10	quaranteam	a group of people spending time together during self-isolation (quarantine + team)	blending	The Guardian, The New York Times, The Washington Post, The Telegraph
11	doomscrolling	continuous reading of negative news on the internet about the pandemic (doom + scrolling)	compounding	The Guardian
12	maskulinity	refusal by men to wear a mask as a precaution against COVID-19	blending	The Washington Post
13	quarantunes	music created and performed in self-isolation	blending	The Guardian, The New York Times, The Washington Post, The Telegraph
14	coronawashing	a company strategy to use the positive impressions of its activities to benefit from the coronavirus crisis (corona + brainwashing)	blending	The Guardian, The Telegraph
15	Zumping	breaking up a romantic relationship via Zoom (Zoom + dumping)	blending	The Guardian, The New York Times, The Washington Post, The Telegraph
16	mask-ara	an additional makeup one applies to highlight the eyes before going out (mask + mascara)	blending	The Telegraph

	1	2	3	4
17	vaccine-hunters	infection experts looking for a vaccine to stop Covid-19	compounding	The Guardian, The Telegraph
18	dinfluencer	a person who posts on social media the images of personally cooked food (dinner + influencer)	blending	The Telegraph
19	quarantini	an alcoholic cocktail made and consumed at home in the circumstances of lockdown (quarantine + martini)	blending	The Guardian, The New York Times, The Washington Post, The Telegraph
20	goutbreak	the result of overeating of reach food: alcohol, cheese, chocolate, cakes (gout + outbreak)	blending	The Telegraph
21	coronaphobia	feeling of constant fear in relation to the coronavirus	compounding	The Telegraph
22	coronacoaster	emotional ups and downs experienced during the coronavirus pandemic (corona + rollercoaster)	blending	The Telegraph
23	coronaverse	currently existing economic and social conditions (corona + universe)	blending	The Guardian
24	caremonger	a person who helps the most vulnerable people cope in the conditions of coronavirus (care + monger)	compounding	The Washington Post
25	tandemic	a tan obtained during sunbathing on your own territory in lockdown (tan + epidemic)	blending	The Telegraph
26	coronacation	termination of study or work due to the pandemic treated as vacations (corona + vacation)	blending	The New York Times, The Telegraph
27	coronials / coronnials / corennials	babies born as a result of their parents' quarantining during the coronavirus pandemic (corona + millennials)	blending	The Guardian, The Telegraph
28	quaran-TV	a video created and published on social media during the period of restrictions related to Covid-19 (quarantine + TV)	blending	The Guardian
29	fakeaway	a homemade dish intended to imitate and substitute takeaway restaurant food	blending	The Guardian, The Telegraph
30	iso-baking	home-baking and sharing recipes during the lockdown (isolation + baking)	blending	The Guardian
31	coughin' dodger	a person who walks away horrified at hearing any sob or cough	multiple process (shortening + compounding)	The Telegraph
32	locktail	a cocktail created or consumed during lockdown (lockdown + cocktail)	blending	The Guardian, The Telegraph
33	coronababies	babies born during the coronavirus pandemic (corona + babies)	compounding	The Guardian, The New York Times, The Washington Post
34	micro-ceremonies	an intimate wedding ceremony, reduced in the number of guests and possibly budget during the coronavirus pandemic	compounding	The Guardian
35	Covidentify	the name of an application that can help identify early symptoms of COVID-19 (covid + identify)	blending	The Washington Post
36	corona	a shortened name for coronavirus	shortening	The Guardian, The New York Times, The Washington Post, The Telegraph

	1	2	3	4
37	coronabonds	collective debt issued to EU member states to combat the economic impact of the coronavirus pandemic.	compounding	The Guardian, The New York Times, The Washington post, The Telegraph
38	corona party	a party held to infect or spread coronavirus.	compounding	The Washington Post, The Telegraph
39	Zoommonger	the most pessimistic member of Zoom videoconference (zoom + monger)	compounding	The Telegraph
40	telecommutercore	the clothing selected for use during videoconferencing, only the top of which can be shown (telecommuter + core)	compounding	The Guardian
41	corona corridor	the area through which people are allowed to travel during the COVID-19 lockdown	compounding	The Telegraph
42	Rona	an informal shortening denoting coronavirus	shortening	The New York Times, The Washington Post
43	Miss Rona	an ironic name for Covid-19	multiple process (shortening + compounding)	The Washington Post
44	doughverkill	an overabundance of social media posts featuring images of home-baked bread (dough + overkill)	blending	The Telegraph
45	claphazard	one who violates social distancing while expressing gratitude and support for care workers (clap + hazard)	compounding	The Telegraph
46	(Quentin) Quarantino	a person who makes amateur films in isolation and thinks they are better than they appear to be (quarantine + Tarantino)	blending	The Telegraph
47	covidivorce	divorce caused by stress due to self-isolation during the coronavirus pandemic (covid + divorce)	blending	The Guardian, The New York Times
48	anticoronavirus	directed against the coronavirus (anti- + coronavirus)	affixation	The Guardian, The New York Times, The Washington Post, The Telegraph
49	coronacoma	long sleeping during quarantine or feeling of never-ending shutdown	compounding	The Guardian, The New York Times
50	boomer remover	the name for COVID-19 as it causes the death toll of predominantly the elderly.	compounding	The Guardian, The New York Times, The Washington Post, The Telegraph
51	SARS-CoV-2	severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (Merriam-Webster)	abbreviation	The Guardian, The New York Times, The Washington Post, The Telegraph
52	Zoomposium	a working creating session that is held via a videoconferencing application.	blending	The Telegraph
53	coronadose	excess of bad news due to the use of too much media during the coronavirus pandemic (corona + dose)	compounding	The Telegraph
54	covideo	video created or watched live during the pandemic (covid + video)	blending	The Guardian
55	quarantimes	period of being under lockdown (quarantine + times)	blending	The Washington Post
56	Skumped	the one who was dumped via Skype (Skype + dumped)	blending	The Guardian

	1	2	3	4
57	co-runner virus	an infection that can be spread by runners violating coronavirus restrictions	multiple process (affixation+ compounding)	The Telegraph
58	doom 'n' Zoom	an emotional state spread by the most unhappy or pessimistic member of a Zoom conference	multiple process (shortening + compounding)	The Telegraph
59	MySpumped	a person with whom the romantic relationship was ended via MySpace (MySpace + dumped)	blending	The Guardian
60	Housepumped	a person with whom the romantic relationship was ended via Houseparty (Houseparty + dumped)	blending	The Guardian
61	FaceTumping	breaking up a romantic relationship via FaceTime (FaceTime + dumping)	blending	The Guardian
62	quaranteens	teenagers at the time of Covid-19 quarantine	blending	The Guardian, The New York Times, The Washington Post, The Telegraph
63	covid warriors	healthcare workers fighting with the consequences of the onset of Covid-19 in conditions of direct contact with it	compounding	The Telegraph
64	contagion chivalry	an act of selflessness during quarantine (Torne: 2020)	compounding	The New York Times
65	covid bae	person being courted during quarantine	compounding	The Guardian
66	schoolcation	online schooling during the holidays (school + vacation)	blending	The Telegraph
67	zombie	a person exhausted from long Zoom sessions (Zoom + zombie)	blending	The Guardian
68	zex	a kind of intimate relationship through Zoom	blending	The Guardian
69	maskne	skin problems that occur because of wearing masks (mask + acne)	blending	The Washington post
70	doomsurfing	continuous, even obsessive reading of negative news on the internet (doom+ surfing)	compounding	The New York Times, The Washington Post
71	coronacut	a bad haircut that is done by ourselves at home during lockdown (corona +cut)	compounding	The New York Times, The Washington post, The Telegraph
72	coronasomnia	an insomnia that affects people during the pandemic (corona + insomnia)	blending	The Washington Post
73	walktail	a cocktail that is consumed while walking outside due to closed pubs during the lockdown (walk + cocktail)	blending	The New York Times
74	corona-shaming	shaming people for failing to comply with established public health precautions	compounding	The Guardian, The New York Times
75	coronageddon	a state near the end of times caused by COVID-19 and related fundamental changes in all areas of people's life (corona + Armageddon)	blending	The Guardian
76	coronapocalypse	similar to <i>coronageddon</i> (corona + apocalypse)	blending	The New York Times, The Washington Post
77	mask(-)shaming	unpleasant looks and comments that accompany a person not wearing a mask	compounding	The Guardian, The New York Times

	1	2	3	4
78	anti-masker	a person who resists obligatory wearing a mask or wears a mask inappropriately	multiple process	The Guardian, The Washington Post
79	coronatimes / corona times	time during the coronavirus pandemic (corona + times)	compounding	The Guardian, The Washington Post
80	lexit	exit strategies from quarantine and economic difficulties (lockdown + exit)	blending	The Telegraph
81	loxit	an exit of the lockdown (lockdown + exit)	blending	The Telegraph
82	coronaverse	a poem related to the period of the coronavirus pandemic (corona + verse)	compounding	The Telegraph
83	masklessness	absence of mask	affixation	The Washington Post
Phrases				
84	pandemic shaming	shaming people for failing to comply with established public health precautions	compounding	The New York Times
85	Zoomwedding / Zoom wedding	a wedding ceremony held via Zoom	compounding	The Guardian, The New York Times, The Washington Post, The Telegraph
86	coronavirus party	a party held to infect or spread coronavirus	compounding	The Guardian, The Washington Post, The Telegraph
87	lockdown party	a party held to infect or spread coronavirus	compounding	The Guardian, The Telegraph
88	socially distant (distanced) wedding	a wedding ceremony that follows the established requirements to prevent the spread of coronavirus	compounding	The Guardian, The New York Times
89	pandemic fatigue / quarantine fatigue	the depletion of energy as a result of the stresses associated with the coronavirus restrictions	compounding	The Guardian, The New York Times, The Washington Post, The Telegraph
90	antisocial distancing	using health precautions as a reason for avoiding neighbours or other people a person could dislike.	multiple processes (compounding + affixation)	The Guardian, The Washington Post, The Telegraph

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