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NEOLOGISMS IN MODERN ENGLISH: STUDY OF WORD-FORMATION
PROCESSES
Bachelor's thesis

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NARVA 2013

PREFACE

With the development of science and technology a lot of new words appear in the English language. The language vocabulary is changing all the time at an increasingly higher speed. The development of a language brings about advancements on its different levels, for example, in Lexicology. One of such advancements- is the phenomenon of neologisms. The present paper is dedicated to Neologisms in Modern English and their word-formation processes. The main purposes of this paper are to analyze the recent neologisms that have appeared during the last eight months from the several websites, identify their word-formation processes and find out whether affixation is the most used process of forming neologisms.

The paper consists of the Introduction, two core chapters and the Conclusion. The introductory part gives the literature review on the topic and the overview of some previous research. It also includes justification of the choice of the topic and presents the research aims and the hypothesis. Chapter I, which is the theoretical part of the paper, provides background theoretical information about neologisms, the overall picture of the historical context, their usage, types, cultural acceptance and formation. The following Chapter II focuses on the practical analysis of 100 recent neologisms and provides the description of the results obtained. On the basis of such results a summary of the linguistic analysis is presented in the Conclusion, which also comments on the aims and the hypothesis of the thesis.

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INTRODUCTION

Every language is like a dynamic system that changes and develops all the time. Consequently, the vocabulary of a language is changing by introduction of new words and phrases into it. Some of the newly coined words successfully adapt in the language and are extensively used by people, whether other neologisms exist for a while and disappear from the language. The new words that come into extensive use in the society are then codified in dictionaries. “The online Oxford English Dictionary (OED) is updated quarterly with at least 1,000 new and revised entries; this is a fair measure of how dynamic our vocabulary is” (Minkova & Stockwell 2009: 5). New words appear according to the productive means of word-building in a given language- the process which creates new lexical units. The present paper sets out to investigate the process of creating such new words or, in linguistic terms, neologisms. The topic of the paper is “Neologisms in Modern English: Study of Word-formation processes”. Modern English is considered as the English language at the current stage of its development.

The reason for choosing this particular subject is the high topicality and importance of new words in our life. Especially nowadays, with the development of different inventions and innovations, a significant number of new words have appeared in the English language many of which are still unfamiliar to many people. Moreover, it is very interesting to trace the origin, ways of formation and development of neologisms; to understand the process of their appearance in the English language.

There are some people who have already made various investigations into this area. One of them is a Professor of English Linguistics – Roswitha Fischer. She wrote a book –“*Lexical Change in Present-day English: a corpus based study of the motivation, institutionalization, and productivity of creative neologisms* (1998). The second person who brought up the topic of neologisms is Yaroslav Levchenko. He investigated neologisms in the lexical system of modern English (on the basis of mass media material) (2010). Prof. Dr. Ingo Plag, who specializes in English Language and Linguistics, wrote a book called *Word-formation in English* (2003). This book is about words and their formation processes.

Every period in the development of English language is important as it produces an enormous number of new words or new meanings of already existing words. As Levchenko (2010:5) observes:

The ancient Continental period, the migration to the British Isles, the raids of the Vikings, The Norman Conquest, the end of the Hundred Year’s War, the great geographical discoveries and the following revolutions in science and society brought about new features and characteristics to the English language and its vocabulary in particular.

In the last few decades of this century influx of new words became more rapid and far-reaching than in any previous periods. During the past 25 years the advances in technology, and communication media brought considerable changes in the English language. Also, with the development of social and natural sciences, there have appeared various specialized vocabulary items in such areas as: television, medical and atomic research, aviation, radio and many others. Furthermore, the war has brought into English such words as blackout, fifth-columnist, paratroops, A-bomb, V-Day, etc.; the development of science gave such vocabulary items as hydroponics, psycholinguistics, polystyrene, radar, cyclotron, meson, positron; antibiotic, etc.; the conquest and research of outer space by the Soviet people gave birth to sputnik, lunnik, babymoon, space-rocket, space-ship, space-suit, moonship, moon crawler, Lunokhod, etc (Ginzburg 1979).

The two most important sources of developing coinages are borrowing and word-creation. In the rapidly developing fields of medicine, science, law, art, literature, English has usually borrowed words from other languages in order to use them as new words in covering of new concepts or various abstract phenomena. The word may be borrowed from other languages as a whole as it was in original form or just by taking a root (and combining it with different affixes). Most of the words which entered the language were taken from Latin, with a significant number from Greek, and French (Minkova & Stockwell 2009).

If consider the English vocabulary as an adaptive system, it is easily adapts to the different changes in human communications, cultural needs and new environment, so as to be fit for a new use. To express ourselves we choose words that can precisely convey all our feelings and thoughts from the existing stock of words. If it is impossible to find such word that can fit the situation people create new one. When changes prove to be useful in the language they stay in the vocabulary. New notions constantly come into being in order to name new things or, sometimes, old words are replaced by new words for things or notions that proceed to exist. Therefore, the number of words in the language not permanent, it always varies. The entrance of new words in the vocabularies, as a rule, is more than their reduction.

It is obvious that it is hard to predict fate of neologisms due to the fact that some of them remain in vocabulary and accepted by people for a long period of time while others are short-lived and rapidly disappears from the language. Once accepted, they may serve as a basis for further word creation: gimmick, gimmickry, gimmicky. Zip (an imitative word denoting a certain type of fastener) is no longer a new word, but its

derivatives — the verb *zip* (*zip* from one place to another), the corresponding personal noun *zipper* and the adjective *zippy* — appear to be neologisms. (Arnold 1986).

The process of producing new words is certainly connected with word-building. Together with borrowing, word-building affects the vocabulary of the English language by enriching and enlarging it. There are several types of word-formation: echoism, reduplication, back-formation, shortening, affixation, composition and conversion. More detailed characteristics of all these types of word-formation will be given in Chapter I.

As the main aims of this paper are to analyze recent neologisms and identify their word-formation processes, it is hypothesised that affixation is the most used process of forming neologisms. Therefore, this work does a research into all word-formation means to determine the most productive ways of forming new words that have recently appeared in the English language. The other objectives that are determined in this paper are:

- to give general information about newly coined words (their characteristics, history, cultural acceptance, adaptations);
- to describe their types and classification;
- to observe their usage in Modern English;
- to give a complete classification of word-building means;
- to analyse the word-building patterns of recent neologisms in English;
- to comment on the conducted analysis.

CHAPTER I. GENERAL INFORMATION ABOUT NEOLOGISMS

1.1. Definitions and Characteristic of Neologisms

The Oxford Dictionary (1998) defines neologism as a new coined word or expression; the coining or use of new words.

As is written in the Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary (1987) neologism is: a new word or expression in a language, or a familiar word or expression that is now being used with a new meaning.

According to John Algeo (1991) a new word is a form or the use of a form not recorded in general dictionaries. The form may be one that is usually spelled as a single word (guesstimate) or a compound (sandwich generation) or even an idiomatic phrase (out of the loop, go double platinum) (Algeo 1991: 2).

New words and expressions or neologisms are created for new things irrespective of their scale of importance. A neologism is a newly coined word or phrase or a new meaning for an existing word, or a word borrowed from another language – that is another definition that was written by Arnold I.V. (Arnold 1986: 217).

Peter Newmark says that “Neologisms can be defined as newly coined lexical units or existing lexical units that acquire a new sense” (Newmark 1988: 140).

T. I. Arbekova (1977) in her book “Лексикология английского языка” admits that new coinages occur in the case where people have a necessity somehow to name new objects or to express different attitude to already existing word (Arbekova 1977).

Most of them do not live long as they are coined to be used at the moment of speech and for the particular situation. The main feature of it is their temporariness. “The given word or meaning holds only in the given context and is meant only to serve the occasion” (Galperin 1981: 92).

There are various definitions of neologism in different dictionaries and books. The most general is a new word or phrase in the language or already existing word that acquires a completely new meaning and further is used as a new coinage. As neologisms task is to serve a certain occasion with the time they may disappear as quickly as they occur in the language. Thus, the fate of new coinages is unclear as some of them may stay in the language for a long period of time whether others become forgotten and useless.

1.2. Historical Context of Neologisms

The Old English vocabulary was approximately 25,000-30,000 words. The main three sources that contributed to several changes in the language were: Celtic, Latin and Scandinavian languages. Celtic languages were not a significant source of new words in comparison with the early influence of Latin, especially the period of adoption of Christianity by the Anglo-Saxons. Consequently, words borrowed in that period were connected with Christian religion and religious practices; most of these words go back to Greek prototypes: OE cleric ‘clerk,’ Lat. clericus < Gk. ;OE idol ‘idol,’ Lat. idolum < Gk.; OE paradis ‘paradise,’ Lat. paradisus < Gk. Such words as candle, congregation, devil, disciple, eternal, martyr, mass, pope, noon, offer, testament were also borrowed from Latin (Minkova, Stockwell, 2009). As for Scandinavian one of the main entries was connected with place names containing or ending in -beck ‘stream’, -by ‘settlement, dwelling’, -thorpe ‘hamlet’, -toft ‘farmstead’, -thwaite ‘clearing’. For example: Beckbury, Carnaby, Grimsthorpe, Thurdistoft, Applethwaite. The other one was connected with name-forms; the best known novelty was the ending -son, as in Henryson, Jackson, Robertson (ibid.).

In the Middle English, there were several periods that enormously affected the vocabulary of English. One of such is The Norman Conquest that brought new legal, administrative, military, political, literature, and ethnical terms. The massive influx of French words in post-Conquest England changed the proportion of Germanic vs. non-Germanic words in the language. The exact number of French loanwords is difficult to calculate. As Minkova and Stockwell (2009:43) point out

According to one estimate the number of French words adopted during the Middle English period was slightly over 10,000. Of these, about 75 percent have survived and are still used in Present-Day English. The large volume of new words changed the etymological balance from approximately 3 percent of foreign (Latin) words in Old English, to 25 percent of borrowed words in Middle English. At no other time in the history of English had such a dramatic change in the composition of the vocabulary occurred

The first two centuries after The Conquest the source of new words was mainly Norman French. Such words as air, beast, beauty, colour, dangerous, diet, feast, flower, jealous, journey, judge, liquor, oil, part, peace, soil, story, baron, noble, throne appeared in English. Also, the word-stock continued to be enriched with words reflecting the leading position of the new aristocracy in the legal, military, administrative, political, religious, and cultural spheres. Many words from English vocabulary were replaced by Romance borrowings: army, assembly, council, defense, empire, mayor, navy, parliament, record, soldier, state, statute, tax. Predictably, words from the fields of literature, art, science, medicine came into the language in large numbers, including the

words literature, art, science, medicine, and number themselves: figure, grammar, image, logic, music, pain, physician, poet, remedy, romance, study, surgeon, tragedy. Many of these loanwords can be traced back to Classical Greek and Latin (Ibid.).

The sources of recent loanwords of the late Middle Ages and Renaissance were from almost every language. Garland Cannon (1987) made a research where he analysed more than one thousand loanwords from eighty-four languages.

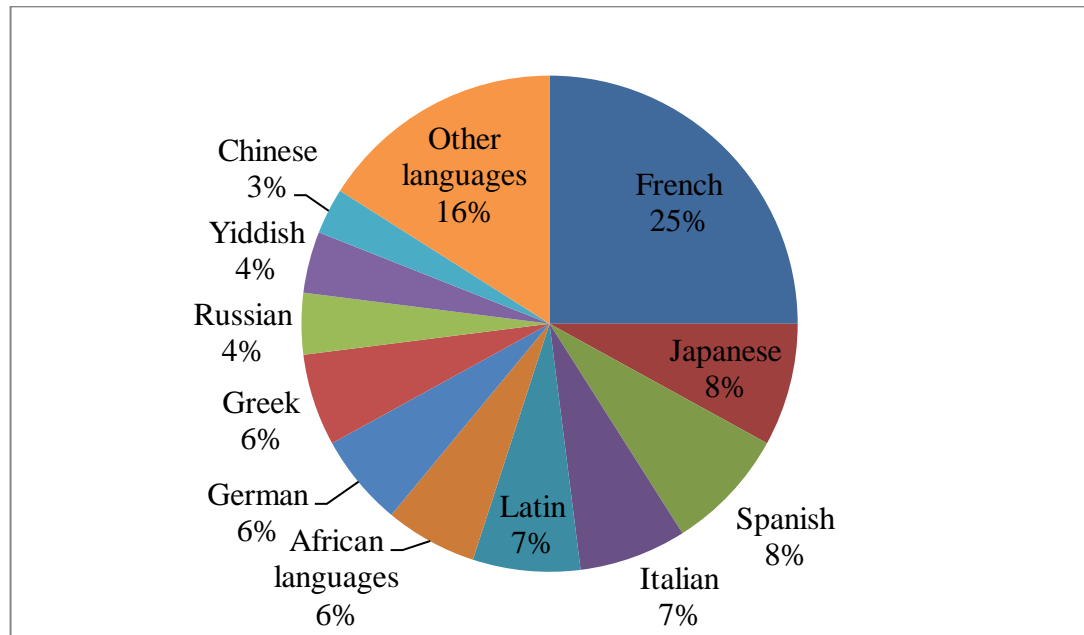


Figure 1. A study of Garland Cannon (1987)

Other languages from which English borrowed very small percentage of words are: Arabic, Portuguese, Hindi, Hebrew, Sanskrit, Afrikaans, Malayo-Polynesian, Vietnamese, Swedish, Bengali, Danish, Korean, Irish, Norwegian and 35 other languages (Pyles 1992).

As can be seen from the figure borrowings from Latin language became insignificant probably because of the Old English period where so much of the Latin vocabulary was borrowed. French, as it was said before, remains the basic single language for English vocabulary loans.

The most notable event in Early Modern English period was the introduction of the printing press, by Sir William Caxton, in 1476. That was the period of a crucial influx of new word-stock due to production and accessibility of printed books. The more people read the more new words they knew and adopted. As Minkova and Stockwell observe (2009: 48)

According to one estimate based on counting entries in the OED, as many as 4,500 new words were recorded in English during each decade between 1500 and 1700. Two-thirds of these words were creations based on already existing roots and affixes, but an impressive one-third were straight borrowings. Eliminating new words of unknown origin, and words not recorded after 1700

(one-third of the entries), English adopted for permanent use over 20,000 borrowings in two centuries

During the Renaissance, the borrowing of new words from French reduced, while Greek and Latin became very important for new learned words. The knowledge of these languages became prestigious and was equivalent to being educated. Translating the classics into English brought a huge number of new words. In turning *The History of the World* by Diodorus Siculus into English, Skelton, famous poet and writer, brought more than 800 new Latin words in the language, many of which are recorded by the OED as later borrowings. Such fields as: civilization, philosophy, education, religion, mathematics and geometry, botany, biology, geography, medicine and everyday words enriched by new borrowed words. Some of them are: arena, contend, curriculum, elect, exclusive, imitate, insidious, investigate, relate, sporadic, transcendental, antenna, calculus, cerebellum, compute, evaporate, lacuna, larva, radius, frequency, parental, offensive, virus. What is more, a lot of Latin affixes were also borrowed. They are: -ence, -ancy, -ency, -entia, -antia, -ius, -ia, -ium, -ous, -us, -ate, ante-, post-, sub-, super-. Many of them became part of productive morphology of English. Such words as atheism, atmosphere, chaos, dogma, economy, ecstasy, drama, irony, pneumonia, scheme, and syllable are Greek words that came through Latin or French. Learned borrowings from Greek through higher education are asterisk, catastrophe, crypt, criterion, dialysis, lexicon, polyglot, rhythm, syllabus. Of course, there were also borrowings from Italian, French and many other European languages (ibid.:49).

1.3. Types of Neologisms

V.I. Zobotkina in her book *Новая лексика современного английского языка* (1989) highlights three types of neologisms on the basis of their form and content: 1) neologisms itself where novelty of the form perfectly combined with novelty of the content: audiotyping аудиопечатание; bio-computer компьютер, имитирующий нервную систему живых организмов; thought-processor компьютер, логически выстраивающий и развивающий идеи; 2) words that combine novelty of the form with the meaning that have already indulged in another form before: sudser мыльная опера; big C (мед.) рак; Af, houtie перр; 3) semantic innovations where the new value denotes by the form that already exists in the language: bread деньги; drag скучища; acid наркотик ЛСД; gas нечто волнующее и очень приятное (Zobotkina 1989).

Regarding the style, Galperin (1981) distinguishes three types of newly coined words. The first one is terminological coinages or terminological neologisms - those

which designate new-born notions. The second type is stylistic coinages, - words coined by people who look for expressive statements. The third type is the nonce-words – these words are created only to serve the particular occasion and do not live long. As for example in: “Let me say in the beginning that even if I wanted to avoid Texas I could not, for I am wived in Texas, and mother-in-lawed, and uncled, and aunted, and cousined within an inch of my life.” (J.Steinbeck). As (Galperin, 1981:102) comments, “The past participles mother-in-lawed, uncled, aunted and cousined are coined for the occasion on the analogy of wived and can hardly be expected to be registered by English dictionaries as ordinary English words.”

According to Peter Newmark and his book “*A Textbook of Translation*” there are two existing lexical items with new senses and ten types of neologisms that are classified by their formation. In general he distinguishes twelve types of neologisms. They are:

- **Old words with new sense** – old words that acquire new meaning; these words usually do not relate to new objects or processes that is why they cannot be connected with technology. For instance a word *revoulement* means ‘return of refugee’; it can be also used for ‘refusal of entry’ and ‘deportation’. In psychology this word denotes ‘repression’. Therefore, it is a loose term, the understanding of which depends on its context. (Newmark 1988).
- **Collocations with new meanings** – collocations that eventually changed their meanings; the collocations which exist may be cultural as well as non-cultural. There is commonly a recognised translation if the concept is in the Today’s language. In case if the concept does not exist or people are not familiar with it yet, descriptive information has to be given. (E.g., ‘tug-of-love’) (ibid.).
- **Abbreviation** – common type of pseudo-neologisms (ibid.). The main feature of abbreviation is that we have to pronounce each letter individually. Examples: CD (compact disc or certificate of deposit), ER (emergency room), and PC (personal computer or politically correct).
- **Eponyms** – any words that were gained from proper names and also brand names (if they were derived from objects) that can be translated only when they are accepted and familiar to the people. When the word, from a proper name, directly refers to the person, we can easily understand and translate it, but if it refers to an object’s idea or quality we do not know an extra clarification has to be given in order to understand the meaning (ibid.).

- **Transferred words** – words with the meaning that are to a lesser degree dependent on their contexts. They are used more in media or product concepts rather than in technological ones. Furthermore, transferred words may be common to different languages. Examples: newly imported foodstuffs, various brands of clothes ('Cagoule,' 'Adidas,' 'Sari', 'Nike') (ibid.).
- **Acronyms** – are an expanding common peculiarity of all non-literary texts. They tend to be short and euphonious; acronyms attract our attention and interest in case if we do not know the meaning. So, they make us find out what the letters stand for. Example: the word radar (radio detecting and ranging) is an acronym, due to the fact, that each of the letters of the word stands for a particular word. Once the original form of the acronym is forgotten by people it becomes new independent word in the language system (ibid.).
- **New coinages** – mainly brand or trade names. For example: 'Bistro', 'Bacardi' 'Schweppes', 'Revlon' (ibid.).
- **Derived words** – new words that are coined by adding one or more affixes to the stem. "The great majority of neologisms are words derived by analogy from ancient Greek (increasingly) and Latin morphemes usually with suffixes such as -ismo, -ismus, -ja, etc., naturalised in the appropriate language" (ibid.: 143).
- **Collocations** – are widespread especially in the social sciences and in computer fields. Examples: 'lead time', 'domino effect', 'acid rain' (ibid.). *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* (1974) defines collocation as grouping together or arrangement, esp. of words.
- **Phrasal words** – Newmark (1988: 147) declares that "phrasal verbs: a) are often more economical than their translation; b) usually occupy the peculiarly English register between 'informal' and 'colloquial', whilst their translations are more formal. New 'phrasal words' are restricted to English's facility in converting verbs to nouns (e.g. 'work-out,' 'trade-off,' 'check-out,' 'thermal cut-out,' 'knock-on (domino) effect,' 'laid-back,' 'sit-in')".
- **Pseudo- neologisms** - Pseudo-neologism is "a generic word stands in for a specific word, e.g. longitudinaux (restarts longitudinaux) - 'longitudinal springs'; humerale - 'humeral artery'; la Charrue - 'The Plough and the Stars'; la Trilateral - a private political commission with representatives from the USA, Western Europe and Japan." (Newmark 1988: 148).

- **Internationalisms** – borrowed by several languages words that convey concepts which play crucial role in our communication. International words can be found in such fields as science names (e.g. philosophy, biology, mathematics, medicine, lexicology); art (e.g. theatre, music, drama, artist, primadonna); politics (e.g. politics, revolution, communism, progress); technology (e.g. atomic, antibiotic, radio, computer) and so on (Antrushina 1999).

Furthermore, neologisms are classified by their stability:

- Unstable – extremely new word that are known and used only by a particular subculture. Protologism [Greek protos, first + Greek logos, word; cf. prototype, neologism] is a new word created by Mikhail Epstein.
- Diffused – words that reached a high level of spreading and already known to many people, but they are not still accepted (e.g., jargon or lingo).
- Stable – words that are recognised, known and accepted by people for a long period of time. (e.g., words which have recently been added to print dictionaries, including popular slang dictionaries) (Andreescu 2012).

1.4. Different Types of Word-formation

Word-formation is the way of how new different words are created and morphemes are combined with each other. A more precise definition is given by G.N. Babich (2005:51) in his book of English stylistics, “Word formation is that branch of lexicology that studies the derivative structure of existing words and the patterns on which a language builds new words. It is a certain principle of classification of lexicon and one of the main ways of enriching the vocabulary”. Consequently, we can say that together with borrowings from other languages, word-building is very significant in enriching and enlarging English vocabulary. Most English vocabulary emerges by making new words out of already existing words either by adding affixes or combining words together in order to get compounds.

There are a lot of ways of word-formation which are very various and, of course, there are major and minor means of building new words. To quote from the book of lexicology written by G.N.Babich (2005:51), “Neologisms are mainly coined according to the productive models for word-building in the given languages. Most of the literary coinages are built by means of affixation and word compounding”. Also, in many other books of stylistics and lexicology, it is said that affixation and compounding are the most productive and dominant ways of coining new words. Galperin (1981:97) also

adds that “Most of the literary-bookish coinages are built by means of affixation and word compounding that is still predominant in coining new words”.

Russian lexicologist G.B. Antrushina (1999) distinguishes three most productive means of word-building. They are: derivation, composition and conversion.

The other word-formation processes are: shortening, sound-imitation, clipping, alphabetism, acronyms, back-formation, blending and reduplication. Let us look at each type in more detail in what follows.

1.4.1. Affixation

Affixation is the process of adding one or more affixes to the root morpheme in order to get a new word. Affixes can be divided into: prefixes (they occur before the root of a word), suffixes (occur after the root of a word) and infixes (they occur within the root of a word). With the help of these affixes a significant number of new coinages occurred in Modern English (Crystal 1995).

From the etymological point of view, according to Antrushina (1999), affixes are classified into two groups: native and borrowed affixes.

Native suffixes include : noun-forming: -er (worker, teacher), -ness (loneliness, weightlessness), -ing (meaning, dancing), -dom (freedom, kingdom), -hood (childhood, motherhood), -ship (friendship, companionship), -th (length, wealth); adjective-forming: -ful (wonderful, peaceful), -less (careless, sleepless), -y (funny, cozy), -ish (English, childish), -ly (lonely, ugly), -en (golden, silken), -some (tiresome, handsome); verb-forming: -en (widen, redden, sadden); adverb-forming: -ly (hardly, simply, angrily).

Borrowed affixes include: from Latin: for nouns: -ion (communion, opinion), -ate (create, appreciate), -ct (act, conduct), -tion (relation, revolution), dis- (disable, disagree); for adjectives: -able (detestable), -ate (accurate, graduate), -ant (arrogant, constant), -or (major, junior), -al (final, maternal), -ar (lunar, familiar) and from French: for nouns: -ance (endurance, arrogance), -ence (consequence, patience), -ment (appointment, development), -age (marriage, village), -ess (lioness, actress); for adjectives: -ous (curious, dangerous); for verbs: en- (enable, enact) (ibid.).

Besides, there are productive affixes: (for example: -ise (realize), -ed (learned), -able, -less, -ly, -ate, un- (unhappy), re-, dis- (disappoint), -ism (materialism), -ist (impressionist), -er, -ing, -ness) and non-productive affixes (for example: -th, -hood, -ly, -some, -ous, -en) affixes (ibid.).

1.4.2. Compounding

Compounding or word-composition is a type of word-building, in which coinages are produced by combining two or more stems. It is one of the most productive and important types of word-formation in Modern English. Examples: dining-room, blackbird, sunflower, bedroom, bluebell, mother-in-law, good-for-nothing.

Antrushina (1999) in her book of lexicology mentions three aspects of composition that present special interest, which are also subdivided into different types and subtypes.

The first is the structural aspect, which consists of compounds: neutral, morphological and syntactic. Neutral compounds contain two stems that are combined without any linking elements (e.g. tallboy, blackbird). These examples have affixless stems, but also, there are derivational compounds that have affixes in their structure (e.g. Blue-eyed, lady-killer, broad-shouldered, music-lover, teenager, babysitter). The last two examples are relatively recent formations. The majority of nonce-words are coined on this pattern that shows us high productivity of this word-forming type. The third type of neutral compounds is contracted compounds. The main peculiarity is in their shortened stem in the word structure (e.g. TV-set (-program, -show, -channel, etc.), G-man (Government man "FBI agent"), H-bag (handbag), T-shirt, etc.). In morphological compounds two stems are combined together by a linking element: a consonant or a vowel (e.g. Anglo-Saxon, Franko-Prussian, handiwork, handicraft, craftsmanship, spokesman and etc.). They are few in number. Finally, syntactic compounds are formed from different parts of speech (nouns, verbs, articles, prepositions, adverbs) as they occur together in phrases: such as in the nouns lily-of-the-valley, good-for-nothing, mother-in-law, sit-at-home, pick-me-up, know-all, know-nothing, go-between, get-together. This type is very important in productivity of new words and is large in number.

The second is the semantic aspect that divides into three groups: 1) compounds which meaning is understandable from the sum of their composite meaning (e.g. Classroom, bedroom, working-man, dining-room, sleeping-car, reading-room, dancing-hall); 2) compounds where one or two of words components have changed their meanings (e.g. blackboard, blackbird, football, lady-killer, good-for-nothing, lazybones); 3) compounds with irreversibly lost meaning (e.g. ladybird is - not a bird, but an insect, tallboy not a boy but a piece of furniture, bluestocking is a person, bluebottle may denote both a flower and an insect but never a bottle).

The third and final aspect is the theoretical aspect – the criteria that distinguishes compounds from word-combination. For example, a tall boy is a word-combination,

while a tallboy, which is originated from the first one, is a compound. Moreover, they are different in meaning: the word-group a tall boy denotes: 1. a young male person; 2. big in size, whereas the word tallboy expresses one concept – a piece of furniture (Antrushina 1999).

1.4.3. Conversion

Conversion is the way of making a new word from an already existing word by changing the category of part of speech without any additional affixes. Mainly change such parts of speech as: nouns, adjectives, and verbs – primarily the verbs that come from nouns and the nouns that come from verbs (Crystal 1995).

Ingo Plag (2003) provides some examples of words which are made by means of conversion. These words are derivationally related and are completely identical in their phonetics.

- A. the bottle – to bottle; the hammer – to hammer; the file – to file; the skin – to skin; the water – to water
- B. to call – a call; to dump – a dump; to guess – a guess; to jump – a jump; to spy – a spy
- C. better -to better; empty -to empty; hip -to hip; open- to open; rustproof -to rustproof
- D. poor -the poor; rich -the rich; well-fed -the well-fed; blind -the blind; sublime- the sublime

As can be seen, different types of conversion can be distinguished, in particular noun to verb (A), verb to noun (B), adjective to verb (C), and adjective to noun (D). Of course, there are other types which are insignificant and which are few in number. These four types are the most important and productive (Plag 2003).

1.4.4. Shortening

Shortening (Contraction) is the process of forming a word from the initial elements of a word combination (for example: flu, lab, B.B.C, U.F.O, V-day).

Shortenings are produced in two ways. New word can be made from a syllable or two syllables of the original words – that is the first way. Here the word may lose its beginning, ending or both the beginning and ending. There are some examples: phone made from telephone, hols from holidays, vac from vacation, fridge from refrigerator.

The second way of shortening is initial shortenings. It means that a new word is made from the initial letters: B.B.C. from the British Broadcasting Corporation, M.P.

from Member of Parliament. It can be applied not only with formal words but, also, with colloquialisms and slang. So, g. f. is a shortened word made from the compound girl-friend (Antrushina 1999).

1.4.4.1. Clipping

Clipping is the way of shortening, realised by clipping off some part of a word, and removing the rest, with the result that the word acquires some linguistic value of its own (for example: phone from telephone, plane from airplane, flu from influenza). In this process not only words can be shortened but also whole phrases (for example: zoo is made from zoological gardens). In that case, a new obtained word is not really new as it is a stylistic option of already existing word.

More examples of clipping are: ad ← advertisement, condo ← condominium, demo ← demonstration, disco ← discotheque, fax ← telefax, lab ← laboratory, photo ← photography, prof ← professor (Minkova & Stockwell 2009).

1.4.4.2. Blending

Blending is a type of both shortening and compounding where two or more words are combined together into a new one, removing some parts from one or both words.

Ingo Plag (2003) in his book *Word-formation* distinguishes two types of blends. In the first type compounds are shortened in order to form a new word where the first element modifies the second. Therefore, a breath analyzer means a kind of analyzer (not a kind of breath), a motor camp is a kind of camp (not a kind of motor), etc. Examples are: breath + analyzer = breathalyzer, motor + camp = mocamp, motor + hotel = motel, science + fiction = sci-fi. In comparison with the first type, the basic words of the second type are usually not confirmed as compounds in their full form. Moreover, they denote objects that possess and share estates of both elements. Thus, a boatel means both a boat and a hotel, a brunch means either breakfast or lunch. More examples: boom + hoist = boost, channel + tunnel = chunnel, compressor + expander = compander, goat + sheep = geep, guess + estimate = guesstimate, modulator + demodulator = modem, sheep + goat = shoat, smoke + fog = smog, Spanish + English = Spanglish (Plag 2003).

1.4.4.3. Alphabetism

Alphabetism is abbreviation which is formed from the initial letters of each part of an expression and pronounced exactly as alphabetic names of the letters (Algeo 1991). For example, in the US, taxes are paid to the IRS (Internal Revenue Service), driver's

licenses are issued by the DMV (Division of Motor Vehicles). Other examples: NBC (National Broadcasting Company), ABC (American Broadcasting Company), and CBS (Columbia Broadcasting System) (Minkova & Stockwell 2009).

1.4.4.4. Acronyms

Acronyms are special types of shortening that also are made of initial letters from each of several words. The main difference from alphabetism is pronunciation which is following the rules of English orthography (Algeo 1991).

If the newly created word is pronounced as any other English word it can be considered as a true acronym. Some examples: ASCII (pronounced [ass-key]) (American Standard Code for Information Interchange), NASA (National Aeronautics and Space Administration), WAC (Women's Army Corps, pronounced to rhyme with lack, sack, Mac), SHAPE (Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe), NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization, pronounced to rhyme with Cato). In some cases we take not only the initial sounds, but the first consonant and the first vowel together as well. So, the word radar comes from radio detecting and ranging; sonar is from sound navigation (and) ranging; modem was formed from modulator–demodulator. When an acronym becomes accepted by a significant number of people often its spelling changes into lower-case letters, like in modem and radar (Minkova & Stockwell 2009).

1.4.5. Sound-imitation

Sound-Imitation is a word-formation process that consists of imitation of different kinds of sounds which are produced by animals, humans, birds, insects and inanimate objects (Antrushina 1999). Sound imitating or onomatopoeic words are echoes of natural sounds. Thus, they are based on a phonetical use of a word; that means in what way sound is heard, more or less in the same way it is pronounced. However, it is wrong to believe that all sounds directly reflect the real sounds, due to the fact that in different languages they are performed in different ways. Furthermore, an action or thing can be named by reproduction of a sound associated with it. For instance words naming sounds and movement of water: babble, blob, bubble, flush, gurgle, gush, splash, etc.

Onomatopoeic words are divided into several groups according to the origin of produced sound: 1) sounds produced by people in communication processes: babble, chatter, giggle, grunt, grumble, murmur, mutter, titter, whine, whisper and many more; 2) sounds produced by animals, birds and insects, e.g. buzz, cackle, croak, crow, hiss, honk, howl, moo, mew, neigh, purr, roar and others; 3) some birds names are similar

with the sound they make, these are the crow, the cuckoo, the whippoor-will and the other; 4) the verbs that imitate the sound of water such as bubble or splash; verbs that imitate the noise of metallic things: clink, tinkle, or forceful motion: clash, crash, whack, whip, whisk, etc. (Arnold 1986).

1.4.6. Back-formation

Back-formation or reversion is a word-formation process in which shorter words are derived from longer words by removing imagined affixes. At first sight we can say that the word editor comes from edit, whereas the noun appeared in the language first. The same situation is with television, double-glazing, baby-sitter – all these words preceded televise, double-glaze, baby-sit (Crystal 1995).

I. V. Arnold (1986) in his book of *Lexicology of Modern English* tells us about some examples which show that back-formation may be also based on the analogy of inflectional forms.

Pea (the plural of which is *peas* and also *pease*) is from ME *pese* < OE *pise*, *peose* < Lat *pisa*, pl. of *pesum*. The ending *-s* being the most frequent mark of the plural in English, English speakers thought that *sweet peas(e)* was a plural and turned the combination *peas(e) soup* into *pea soup*. *Cherry* is from OFr *cerise*, and the *-se* was dropped for exactly the same reason." (Arnold 1986:151).

In Modern English the most productive type of back-formation is derivation of verbs from compounds that have such elements as: *-er*, *-ing* at the end. Examples: thought-read v < thought-reader n < thought-reading n; air-condition v < air-conditioner n < air-conditioning n; turbo-supercharge v < turbo-supercharger n. Other examples of back-formations from compounds are: beachcomb, house-break, house-clean, house-keep, red-bait, tape-record (Arnold 1986:151).

1.4.7. Reduplication

In this type of word-formation new words are formed by doubling the stem of a word. A new word can be formed in two ways: 1) without any phonetic changes (bye-bye for good-bye), 2) with a modification of the root-vowel or consonant that is also called gradational reduplication (ping-pong, chit-chat). A vast number of new words, which are made by reduplication - are used in informal style: colloquial words and slang. Other examples: walkie-talkie ("a portable radio"), riff-raff ("the worthless or disreputable element of society"; "the dregs of society"), chi-chi (sl. for chic as in a chi-chi girl) (Antrushina 1999).

1.5. Where are Neologisms Used?

Neologisms are extensively used in various fields such as: social network, technology, sport, music, medicine, culture, business, literature and many others.

Examples of neologisms connected with sport: word **bouncebackability** was formed from phrasal verb *bounce back*, meaning 'the ability to recover quickly after a failure' and was created by former Crystal Palace manager Iain Dowie; **monster verb** (often passive) in rugby, to defeat another team convincingly; **doosra noun** in cricket, a ball bowled in such a way that it spins away from right-handed batsmen. This word is derived from the Hindi/Urdu what means 'second, another'; **groundshare noun** the activity or principle of two local sports teams sharing a stadium and an activity noun **groundsharing** is also quite common; **bench player noun** a player who does not regularly play for the first team, but shows good form and potential (Maxwell 2006).

Some examples of new coined words connected with music (*Popular new rap neologisms 2010*): **dougie (verb)** - to swagger. Also: to dance in a Bollywood-inspired way. Can also be used as a noun, as in “All the ladies love my Dougie” or an adjective, as in: “Before we go out I need to get Dougie”; **hashtag rap (noun)** – a phrase use to describe a style of rapping used by the Young Money crew, such as Drake, Lil Wayne, and Nicki Minaj; **scurt (adj. or interjection)** – an onomatopoeic description for the sound of brakes. The term is mostly favored by southern rappers; **trap music (noun)** – a phrase for “drug-dealing music” or “music for drug dealers.” As in: “Put on that trap music, we about to grind”. (Eby 2010).

Examples of Social Networking and Technology Neologisms: **google-** to use an online search engine as the basis for looking up information on the World Wide Web; **404-** someone who's clueless. From the World Wide Web error message 404 Not Found, meaning that the requested document could not be located; **crowdsourcing-** the activity of getting a large group of people to contribute resource to project, especially by using a website where people can make contributions; **spam-** flooding the Internet with many copies of the same message, in an attempt to force the message on people who would not otherwise choose to receive it; **geobragging-** repeated status updates noting your location in an attempt to get attention or make other people jealous; **app-** software application for a smartphone or tablet computer; **noob-** someone who is new to an online community or game; **troll-** an individual who posts inflammatory, rude, and obnoxious comments to an online community (54 Great Examples of Modern-Day Neologisms, 2012).

Examples of Popular Culture Neologisms: **brangelina**- used to refer to supercouple Brad Pitt and Angelina Jolie; **metrosexual**- a man who dedicates a great deal of time and money to his appearance; **muffin top**- this refers to the (often unsightly) roll of fat that appears on top of trousers that feature a low waist; **BFF**- stands for best friends forever; **chilax**- to calm down or relax, it is a slang term used when someone is starting to get uptight about something that is happening; **staycation**- a vacation at home or in the immediate local area (54 Great Examples of Modern-Day Neologisms, 2012).

Examples of medical neologisms: **Air sacs or Alveoli** - the air cells of the lungs which exchange oxygen and carbon dioxide with the blood. **Bronchial Tubes** - the two branches of the trachea which go to the lungs. **Diaphragm** - a large muscle that separates the abdomen from the chest cavity. **Epiglottis** - a cartilage that covers the windpipe (trachea) when food is swallowed to prevent choking. **Larynx** - the enlarged part of the trachea often called the voice box. **Medulla** - the part of the brain that controls the breathing. **Trachea** - the windpipe which divides into two branches at its lower ends. The words that were borrowed from Latin and Greek languages need a peculiar approach due to their specific pronunciation and spelling issues (Andreescu 2012).

CHAPTER II. LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS OF RECENT NEOLOGISMS

2.1. Method and Sample

As stated above, basing on the theoretical research, the paper puts forward a hypothesis that affixation or derivation is the most frequent process of forming neologisms. In order to achieve the main aim of the paper and find out whether the hypothesis is true or not, it is necessary to analyse a list of recent coinages. For this research 100 recent neologisms (from September 2012 till April 2013) were taken from various relevant Internet sources. They are:

- <http://oxforddictionaries.com/> - an Online Oxford Dictionary.
- <http://dictionary.cambridge.org/> - an Online Cambridge Dictionary.
- <http://www.wordspy.com/> - a website of Canadian writer that tracks a new words and phrases as they occur in the language.
- <http://www.urbandictionary.com/> - an Urban Dictionary devoted to recently coined words.

For my research I used the method of linguistic analysis. To make the practical part more concrete only new words were chosen excluding all newly coined collocations and phrases. A word can be defined as “The basic unit of language which composed of one or more morphemes, each consisting of one or more spoken sounds or their written representation. In comparison with morphemes words can be used in sentences independently” (Arnold 1986: 27). In order to understand newly coined words and their word-formation processes I looked for definition and origin of each word in online websites that were chosen for the practical part of this paper. Unfortunately, I could not find the origin of the majority of neologisms what is indicating their novelty. Some of the analysed words are not in the list because it was hard to find even their definitions.

New entries that are written below are words which were created over the last eight months period.

1. **Etymythology** – noun, a false etymology that has come to be widely known and so is generally believed. Blending (etymology + myth)
2. **Faitheist** – noun, an atheist who is nevertheless understanding and tolerant of religions and religious people. Blending (faith + atheist)
3. **Gran-lit** – noun, literature that appeals to older women. Composition and Shortening (grandmother + literature)

4. **Doorer** – noun, a person who causes a cyclist to come off their bike by opening a car door (by ‘dooring’ them). Affixation (door + er)
5. **SMIDSY** – this refers to an accident caused by a driver’s failure to see another road user, especially a cyclist or motorcyclist. Acronym (stands for ‘sorry, mate I didn’t see you’)
6. **Co-opetition** – noun, an element of working together for mutual benefit between avowed corporate rivals. Blending (cooperative competition)
7. **Pulchronics** – noun, the study of the economics of physical attractiveness. Hamermesh is the acknowledged father of pulchronics, or the economic study of beauty. Blending (pulchritude + economics)
8. **Cryotherapy** – noun, a treatment in which the patient is subjected to freezing jets of air in the bid to encourage the production of collagen and thus the rejuvenation of the skin. Cryotherapy is also used to smooth out wrinkles and fine lines. Composition (cryo + therapy)
9. **Jel** – informal, jealous. Shortening and acronym (Just Enough to Lose)
10. **Mob** – noun, informal, someone with a snobbish take on modern trends. Blending (modern + snob)
11. **Selfie** – noun, informal, a photograph taken of yourself, often for the purposes of posting on a social-networking website. Affixation (self + ie)
12. **Judgie** – adjective, informal, judgemental or critical. Shortening, affixation (suffix –ie)
13. **Gastrocrat** – noun, a wealthy foodie. Blending (gastro + aristocrat)
14. **Dench** – adjective, slang, means very good; cool. Eponym (from Judi Dench – a British actress, commonly known from James Bond movies)
15. **Facekini** – noun, a face mask worn on the beach to avoid facial tanning. Blending (face + bikini)
16. **iPub** – noun, a pub with iPads on its tables. The customers use a magnetic swipe card from the bar to buy drinks and then pour the drinks themselves from taps installed on their tables. Blending (iPad + pub)
17. **Like-gating** – noun, the practice of requiring a user to ‘like’ a brand’s page so that they can access content from that brand on social-networking websites. Composition (like + gate) and affixation (-ing)
18. **Groomzilla** – noun, informal, humorous, a man who is neurotically obsessed with planning his wedding. Blending (groom + Godzilla)

19. **Ladvert** – noun, informal, an advert featuring and designed to appeal to a ‘lad’.
Blending (lad + advert)
20. **Flirtationship** – noun, informal, a relationship that consists chiefly of flirting.
Blending (flirtation + relationship)
21. **Mansplain** – verb, informal (of a man) to explain something patronisingly to a woman. Blending (man + explain)
22. **Wifestyle** – noun, informal, what sort of wife you are. Composition (wife + style)
23. **Bankster** – noun, informal a banker whose actions are illegal. Blending (bank + gangster)
24. **FidoCam** – noun, a camera that attaches to the head of a police dog. Blending (probably from FidoNet – a computer network which logo is a dog + camera)
25. **Momshell** – noun, informal, a very attractive and glamorous new mother, usually a celebrity. Blending (mother-as-bombshell)
26. **Astroturfing** – noun, creating the false impression that a lot of people support a particular viewpoint, especially online. Eponym from AstroTurf – a brand of artificial turf or grass. Affixation (-ing)
27. **Contactless** – noun, a type of debit or credit card that can be waved over a sensor and does not require a pin or signature. Affixation (contact + less), conversion (from adj. to noun)
28. **Bantz** – noun, slang, banter; witty chat. Shortening and affixation (from ‘banter’)
29. **Pay-neutral** – adjective, describes work that only covers expenses once childcare costs, travel, etc. has been deducted. Composition (pay + neutral), Conversion (pay –verb, neutral-adverb)
30. **Re-mode** – verb, to use another method, e.g. of travel. Affixation (re-)
31. **Techno-fundamentalism** – noun, the unquestioning embracing of all that technology has to offer, believing that it holds the answers to every problem. Composition and shortening (technology + fundamentalism)
32. **Virome** – noun, all of the viruses that live in the human body considered together; a part of the human microbiome. Blending (virus + biome)
33. **Négociant** – noun, a wine maker or merchant who buys grapes, juice, or wine to blend from small producers and bottles the finished wines under their own name. Blending (negotiator + merchant)
34. **Nip-slip** – noun, informal, an accidental showing of a nipple. Reduplication

35. **Biomining** – noun, a method of extracting minerals from ores in which micro-organisms are used to draw out the minerals. It is thought to be less harmful to the environment than other forms of mining. Blending (biologic + mining)
36. **Mem** – noun, an image or piece of text that helps you to remember something. Shortening/Clipping (from memory)
37. **HENRY** – high earner not rich yet; refers to a person with an income between \$100,000 and \$250,000. Acronym
38. **Crowdfunded** – adjective, funded by asking many people to contribute, usually in an online campaign. Composition(crowd + funded), Affixation (-ed)
39. **Blue-blind** – adjective, unable to see the colour blue or to distinguish the colours blue and yellow. Composition (blue + blind)
40. **Blue-blindness** – noun, rare form of dichromacy characterized by a lowered sensitivity to blue light resulting in an inability to distinguish blue and yellow. Composition (blue + blindness), affixation (-ness)
41. **Boccia** – mass noun, a game similar to bocce, played by competitors who have a physical disability that requires the use of a wheelchair. Affixation (bocce – boccia)
42. **Braggadocious** – adjective, informal, boastful or arrogant. Affixation (braggadocio + -ous)
43. **Clunker** – noun, informal, an old, run-down vehicle or machine; a thing that is totally unsuccessful. Affixation (clunk + -er)
44. **Cred** – noun, informal term for street credibility. Shortening/Clipping
45. **Defriend** – verb, another term for unfriend; remove (someone) from a list of friends or contacts on a social networking website. Affixation (de- + friend)
46. **Downlink** – noun, a telecommunications link for signals coming to the earth from a satellite, spacecraft, or aircraft. Composition (down + link)
47. **Teletreat** – verb, to examine and prescribe treatment for a patient remotely, using videoconferencing. Blending (television + treatment)
48. **Gangling** – adjective (of a person), tall, thin, and awkward in movements or bearing. Composition (gang + ling)
49. **Self-tracking** – noun, the practice of using a Smartphone to monitor and record one's health and wellbeing. Composition (self + tracking)
50. **Nung** – noun, a branch of the Tai languages. Borrowed word, internationalism
51. **Podium** – verb, (of a competitor) finish first, second, or third, so as to appear on a podium for an award. Conversion (from noun podium)

52. **SSD** – noun, computing, a storage device containing nonvolatile flash memory, used in place of a hard disk because of its much greater speed. Abbreviation (Origin: 1980s: abbreviation of solid state drive or solid state disk)
53. **Tretinoin** - noun, a drug related to retinol (Vitamin A), used as a topical ointment in the treatment of acne and other disorders of the skin. Blending (trans + retinoid acid)
54. **Uplink** – verb, provide (someone) with or send (something) by satellite link. Composition (up + link)
55. **Whip-smart** – adjective, someone who is "whip-smart" is able to come up with an answer right away, and succinctly; (intelligent, brainy). Composition (whip + smart)
56. **Kitchenalgia** – noun, nostalgia for the homespun domesticity of the 1950s as evinced by the success of craft stores and retro retailers such as Cath Kidston. Blending (kitchen + nostalgia)
57. **Owling** – noun, the practice of posting pictures of oneself crouching in unlikely places: an Internet craze. Affixation (owl + -ing)
58. **Milking** – noun, the pouring of milk over one's head in a public place. Affixation (milk + -ing)
59. **Bi-balling** – verb, when playing a mono-ball sport with two balls. Composition (bi + balling), affixation (-ing)
60. **Bpab** – noun, Acronym for “Boring people are boring”.
61. **Cooler** – noun, a person who is a nark, or negative person particularly in relation to gambling or punting. Change of the meaning, affixation (- er)
62. **Flexivore** – noun, a person who combines a mostly meat diet with the occasional vegetarian meal. Also: flexi-vore. —adj. Blending (flexible + carnivore).
63. **Twintern** – noun, an intern hired to monitor and post messages to a company's social media accounts. Blending (twitter + intern)
64. **Nanofacture** – verb, to manufacture something at the molecular level using nanotechnology. Blending (nano- +manufacture).
65. **Crime-as-a-service** – noun, web-based software that enables or enhances online criminal activity. Also: cybercrime-as-a-service, crimeware-as-a-service, CaaS. Composition

66. **BYOD** – noun, the use of a personally owned mobile device, such as a laptop, smartphone, or tablet, to access a workplace network. Alphabetism (from the phrase bring your own device).
67. **Proem** – noun, a prose poem; a work written in prose but incorporating poetic imagery and rhythms. Blending (prose + poem)
68. **Mini-job** – noun, a part-time job which attracts tax concessions. Composition/ Clipping (minimum + job)
69. **MOOC** – noun, an online course that anyone can do and that is geared towards large numbers of students. Abbreviation (a massive open online course)
70. **Pentpreneur** –noun, an entrepreneur of pensionable age. Blending (pensioner + entrepreneur)
71. **Zero-hours** – adjective, refers to a contract of employment under which an employee has no guarantee of work but must be available for work as required and is only paid for hours worked. Composition (zero + hours).
72. **Bluegill** – noun, an edible North American freshwater fish of the sunfish family, with a deep body and bluish cheeks and gill covers. Composition (blue + gill)
73. **Swag** – noun, slang, the quality of being accomplished, impressive, etc. Clipping (from ‘swagger’)
74. **Pass-agg** – verb, informal, to behave in a passive-aggressive manner towards someone. Composition, clipping
75. **Dadpreneur** – noun, a man who creates a business connected with fatherhood. Blending (dad + entrepreneur)
76. **Mumblogger** – noun, a mother who blogs about topics of interest to other mothers. Composition (mum + blogger), affixation (-er)
77. **Applepick** – verb, to steal someone’s iPhone. Composition (apple + pick)
78. **iWAG** – noun, humorous, the wife or girlfriend of a successful internet entrepreneur. Acronym (Internet, Wife, And, Girlfriend)
79. **Murder-cam** – noun, a device which takes a 3-D image of a crime scene. Clipping/Composition (murder + camera)
80. **Promession** – noun, a green way of disposing of dead bodies which involves freeze-drying the remains. Eponym (from Swedish company ‘Promessa’) + affixation
81. **Twit-rape** – verb, to hijack someone’s Twitter account and tweet as if you are them. Clipping/ Composition (twitter + rape)
82. **Twittion** – noun, a Twitter petition. Blending

83. **Rooftopping** – verb, taking photographs from the roof of a building, particularly one accessed illegally. Composition (roof + top), affixation (top + -ing)
84. **Spectrumy** – adjective, relating to a person or personality trait that falls somewhere on the autism spectrum. Affixation (spectrum + -y)
85. **Recreativity** – noun, repurposing or remixing existing artistic works to create, in whole or in part, a new work. Affixation (re- + creativity)
86. **Prepper** – noun, a person who goes to great lengths to prepare for a natural or man-made disaster. Blending (prepare + person)
87. **Misteress** – noun, a man who has an extramarital affair with a woman. Affixation (mister + -ess) or blending (mister + mistress)
88. **Self-interrupt** – verb, to interrupt one's own work to check social media or perform some other non-work-related task. Composition (self + interrupt)
89. **Dozenalist** – noun, a person who believes society should switch to a base-12 counting system instead of the current base-10 system. Blending (dozen + maximalist)
90. **Highless** – adjective, relating to a drug that has had its psychoactive properties removed. Affixation (high + -less)
91. **Patchwriting** – noun, a restatement of another writer's text that uses too much of the original vocabulary and syntax. Composition (patch + writing)
92. **Sageism** – noun, discrimination based on a person's gender and age, particularly discrimination against older women. Blending (sexism + ageism)
93. **Zombie** – noun, a bee that is forced to abandon its hive and kill itself after being infected by a parasitic fly. Blending (zombie + bee)
94. **Uncumbent** – noun, a defeated incumbent politician. Affixation, blending (un- + incumbent)
95. **Lolbertarian** – noun, a libertarian whose views are so extreme as to invite mockery. Blending (LOL (laugh out loud) + libertarian)
96. **Twitchfork** – noun, an angry or aggressive protest on Twitter, particularly one seeking justice or vengeance. Blending (twitter + pitchfork)
97. **Fiberhood** – noun, a neighborhood that has Internet access via fiber-optic cable. Blending (fiber +neighbourhood)
98. **Mansplaining** – noun, an explaining in a patronizing way, particularly when done by a man who combines arrogance with ignorance of the topic. Blending (man + explaining)

99. **Racebending** – noun, in a movie, play, or TV show, the practice of hiring actors whose race is different from that of the characters they portray. Composition (race + bending)

100. **Orange-collar** – adjective, relating to a worker who wears an orange safety vest while on the job. Composition (orange + collar)

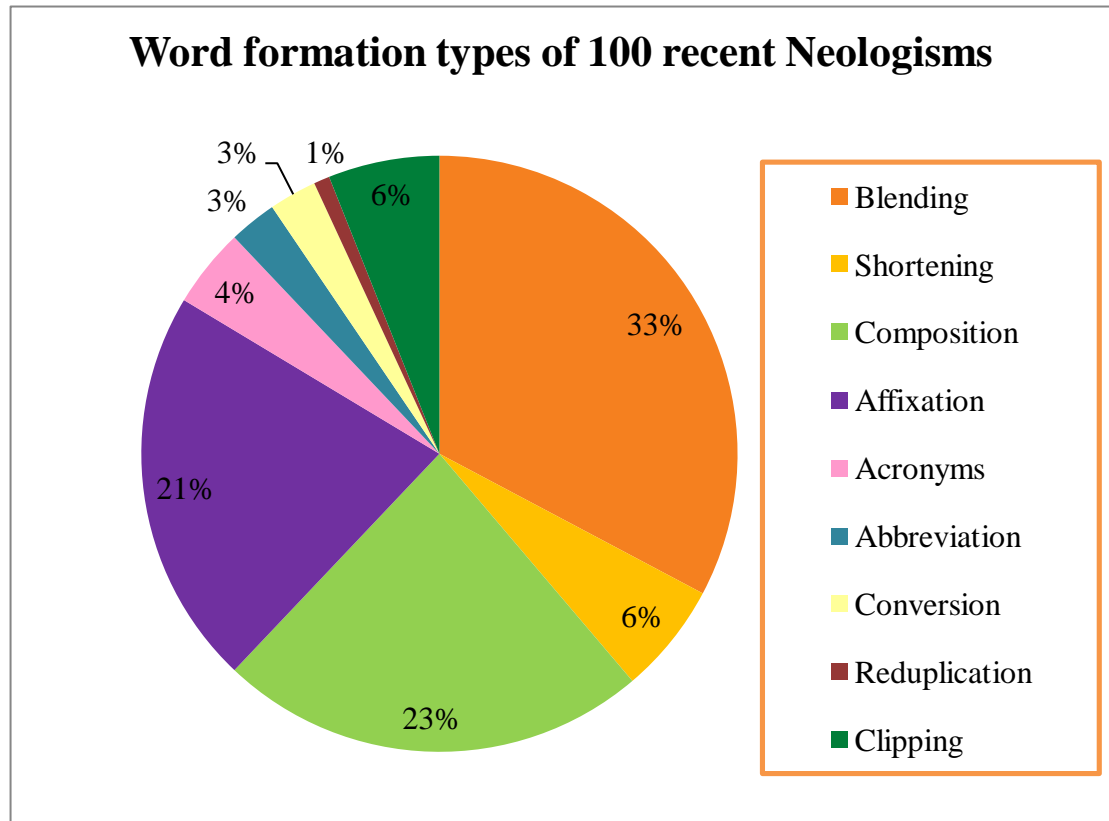


Figure 2. Word-formation types of 100 recent neologisms.

2.2. Discussion of the Results

As can be seen from the chart above, the most common word-formation type of 100 recent neologisms that were chosen for the linguistic analysis is blending. Blending is a word-formation type which involves both shortening and compounding and it appears to be highly used in coining new words. This indicates that people prefer a constructive combination of various parts of two or more words in order to receive a new one that will definitely express their feelings and thoughts. Such kind of word-formation allows combining words to describe new objects or phenomena in the modern society. The most significant aspect in this word formation process is the word's sounding not the morpheme structure. Quite often, it produces an amusing or entertaining effect.

A large proportion of words are also made by means of composition, again a combination of two words but in a more direct way (two or more words joined together and form a new single word). Of course, affixation is also a frequently used type of creating new words. The pie chart shows that composition and affixation have almost the same proportion in word building of chosen neologisms. As clipping, acronyms and abbreviation directly refer to shortening, it can be said that 19% of the analysed neologisms were built with the help of this particular word formation type. A small number of coinages appear to have been built by means of conversion and only 1%, 1 word out of 100, turned out to have been created with the help of reduplication.

More general results of the empirical research, where clipping, acronyms and abbreviation have been generalised to shortening, are presented in the figure below.

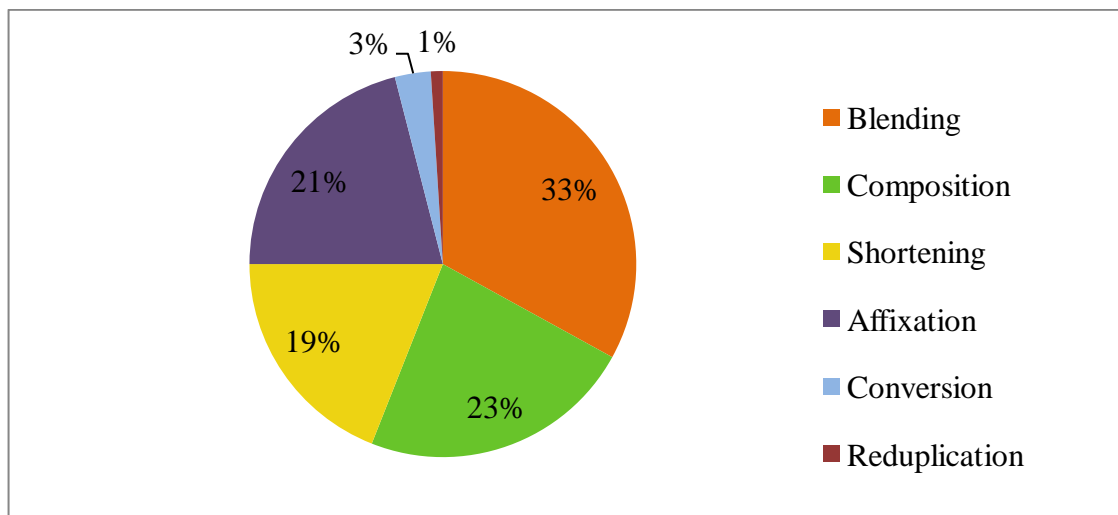


Figure 3. General results of analysed coinages.

According to the results received, there are four main and crucial types of word-formation processes: blending, composition, affixation and shortening. 96% of the newly-coined words are built by means of these four types. A minor part of this figure is for conversion and reduplication word-formation processes.

Among these recent coinages the most frequent types of neologisms that were described in Chapter 1 were also found. They are: old words with new sense (such as podium, cooler), abbreviations (SSD, BYOD), eponyms (dench, promession), acronyms (SMIDSY, HENRY), derived words (doorer, milking), internationalisms (Nung), terminological neologisms (teletreat, biomining, virome), and stylistic coinages (faitheist, facekini, proem).

While analysing the results, it was noticed that the most common areas of these neologisms are: technology, internet, medicine and literature. Furthermore, there are a significant number of words that denote peoples' qualities and different titles that were given to a person (such as doorer, groomzilla, flexivore). Also, there is a large proportion of informal words that were created for everyday speech and some of them for humorous effect. There are several slang words (such as bantz, dench) too.

CONCLUSION

Having discussed the results of the empirical research, it seems now reasonable to give some additional comments on the results obtained. First of all, it has to be admitted that the hypothesis put forward by this paper that affixation is the most frequent process of forming coinages does not prove to be the correct one. For the linguistic analysis, 100 newly-coined words, which were created during the last 8 months, were chosen. What appears to be the most remarkable finding in this analysis is that blending turned out to be the most common word formation type for these recent neologisms in today's English. It occurs much more frequently than other types of word-formation processes.

The first presumable reason for such result can be found in peoples' desire to make their language simpler as compound words or phrases could be long and difficult in pronunciation while a blended word may be shorter and easier in pronunciation. To describe various new objects or phenomena in the modern world it is often necessary to combine words together. The second possible reason can lie in the humorous effect that people want to receive from combination of two incompatible words. Finally, there are people for whom creation of such blends is the field of interest. There are websites where different people show their creativity by posting their own created neologisms for a general review and then share their comments on results obtained.

The second most common word-formation type is, according to the empirical data, composition, and only after it follows affixation, the word formation type that was presumed to be the most common way of word building. Also, shortening is found to be an important way of word-formation as well. The theoretical part of the present paper refers to several authors in whose opinion affixation, compounding and conversion are the major types of word-formation and shortening, blending, acronyms and abbreviation are minor types, whereas in this linguistic analysis of neologisms from various online dictionaries blending appears to be the primary type of word building and conversion turned out to be quite an uncommon type, particularly for the selected coinages.

Taking the received results into consideration, it can be assumed that in today's English combination of different parts of two or more words becomes more popular, in comparison with the neologisms that appeared during the previous decades where the main word-formation processes were affixation and compounding. It should be noted that the present research cannot be considered exhaustive and due to certain limitations it cannot produce any broad generalizations as the number of analysed neologisms is not

enough for making comprehensive conclusions. Moreover, some types of coinages such as phrases and collocations were excluded as they did not fit the criteria (only one-word neologisms were analysed by their word-formation structure).

RESÜMEE

Teaduse ja tehnoloogia arengu tõttu ilmub inglise keelde palju uusi sõnu. Keele sõnavara muutub kogu aeg üha kasvava kiirusega. Keele areng toob kaasa edusamme keele eri tasemetel, näiteks leksikoloogias. Üks nendest edusammudest on uudissõnade fenomen. Käesolev töö on pühendatud kaasaegse inglise keele uudissõnade ning nende moodustamise protsesside uurimisele. Käesoleva töö eesmärgiks on analüüsida uudissõnu, mis on tulnud keelde viimase kaheksa kuu jooksul, teha kindlaks nende sõnamoodustamise protsesse ning selgitada välja, missugune tuletamisviis on kõige enamkasutatav uudissõnade moodustamisel. Uuritavaid sõnu võetakse mõnelt internetileheküljelt.

Töö koosneb sissejuhatusest, kahest peatükist ja kokkuvõttest. Sissejuhatav osa annab ülevaate teemapõhisest kirjandusest ning eelnevatest uuringutest. Töö samuti sisaldab teema valiku põhjendust ning esitab uuringu eesmärgi ja hüpoteesi. Esimene peatükk, mis on töö teoreetiliseks osaks annab taustainfo uudissõnadest, ajaloolise konteksti üldpildist, uudissõnade kasutusest, tüüpidest, kultuurilisest tunnustamisest ning sõnamoodustusest. Teine peatükk keskendub 100 hiljutise uudissõna praktilisele analüüsile ning annab saadud tulemuste kirjeldamise. Keeleteadusliku analüüsi tulemuste põhjal on tehtud kokkuvõte, mis samuti kirjeldab töö eesmärgi ja hüpoteesi.

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