

**THE MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND SECONDARY SPECIAL  
EDUCATION OF THE REPUBLIC OF UZBEKISTAN**

# **COURSE PAPER**

**on**

**STYLISTIC NEOLOGISMS IN MODERN ENGLISH**

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Reviewer:

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## INTRODUCTION

Neologisms are the main problem of modern scientific research. A lot of new objects and processes are continually created in technology. We can find new ideas and variations in social life, science. Neologisms can be defined as newly coined lexical units that acquire new sense. Peter Newmark proposed to review twelve types of neologisms and discuss the translation of particular instances by the way of the appropriate contextual factors. Every time neologisms appeared in our life. The 16<sup>th</sup> century was the period of the great course in literature called “Renaissance”. A lot of writers used new words in their poems and stories in order to “enrich” the English language. But some of neologisms are short-lived. They appeared and disappeared.

**The subject matter of the course paper** is lexical-semantic features of stylistic neologisms in modern English.

**The object of the research work** is the types of stylistic neologisms: the old words with new senses, derived words, abbreviations, collocations, new coinages.

**The main aim of this work** is to describe stylistic neologisms by their structure, to give examples of neologisms of old and new senses, to compare their meanings, to describe stylistic neologisms from the point of view of phonetic factors and semantics.

**The following tasks have been solved in our course paper:**

1. The contextual factors and comparative procedures of neologisms (all factors are in the frame of reference to compare neologisms) page 10.
2. To show examples of stylistic neologisms according to their structure in some languages.

**The actuality of this theme** is that neologisms are very important in our life, especially now, because we have a development of science and technology, the new courses in the field of literature, art and music etc. And there are a lot of new words created in different fields. All these mean that the actuality of this theme is

very important. Sometimes people even don't know the meaning of some abbreviations because they are new. Indeed, sometimes with the abbreviations such as AIDS, the unabbreviated form may be so specialized that it is unknown to most people – a point not missed by the compilers of quiz games, who regularly catch people out with a well-known abbreviations and another types of neologisms.

**The theoretical meaning.** This theme is not so spread, but a lot of language scientists describe neologisms in their books. It is a very interesting theme to study. New notions come into being, requiring new words to name them. Sometimes a new is introduced for a thing or notion that continues to exist, and the older name ceases to be used. The number of words in a language is therefore not constant; the increase as a rule, more than makes up for the leak-out. It means that the vocabulary of any language does not remain the same but changes constantly.

**The practical value.** The theme of this qualification paper can be used as an aid for lectures of lexicology and it also can be used as a topic for discussion for students of Language Universities.

**The structure of the work** consists of the following parts: introduction, 2 chapters, conclusion and the list of the used literature.

The introduction to this work is based on the choice of this theme, the actuality of the aim and specific problems. Also considered are the theoretical meaning and the practical value of this work.

The first chapter shows the division of neologisms by their structure.

In the second chapter the appearance of neologisms during the English Renaissance is considered.

In the third chapter the types of the stylistic neologisms were described.

The forth chapter shows stylistic neologisms from the point view of semantic and phonetic factors.

The fifth chapter studies sociolinguistic aspects of mathematical education based on neologisms.

The conclusion generalizes all the results of the work and forms its primary conclusions.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Abbreviations used on this Qualification Paper:

SL – source language

TL – target language.

## CHAPTER I THEORETICAL ASSUMPTIONS OF INVESTIGATION

### 1.1 NEOLOGISMS. THEIR MEANING AND DIVISION BY THEIR STRUCTURE

Neologism – 1) The use of new words or old words with new meaning: "His particular grievance was neologisms... even the newspaper, he complained, had got into the habit of using the adjective "off-coloured" – properly applied only to certain diamonds – to describe the pigmentation of half-caste people (New Yorker)<sup>1</sup>;

2) New word or expression or a new meaning for an old word: Such neologisms are clipped words like lube for lubricating oil and co-ed for coeducational; back-formations like to televise (1931) from television...; artificial or made-up formations like carborundum, cellophane and pianola (Simeon Patter)<sup>1</sup>;

3) The introduction of new view of doctrines, especially on religious subjects (The world encyclopedia)<sup>2</sup>.

Neologisms are perhaps the non-literary and the professional translator's biggest problem. New object and processes are continually created in technology. New ideas and variations on feelings come from the media. Terms from the social sciences, slang, dialect coming into the mainstream of language, transferred words, make up the rest. A few years ago, three hundred "new" words were said to be counted in four successive numbers of the French weekly language express. It has been stated that each language acquires three thousand new words annually. In fact, neologisms cannot be quantified, since so many hover between acceptance and oblivion and many are short-lived individual creations. What is obvious is that their number is increasing steeply and as we become more language as well as self-conscious, articles, books and specialist and general dictionaries devoted to them appear more commonly. Since they usually arise first in a response to a particular

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1 Ахманова О.С. Принципы и методы лексикологии как социолингвистической дисциплины. - М., Наука. – 1971.

2 Cannon K. I. Word structure. - Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1986. 236 p.

3 Словарь лингвистических терминов/ О. С. Ахманова.- М.:Сов. Энциклопедия, 1966.- 408 с.

need, a majority of them have a single meaning and can therefore be translated out of context, but many of them soon acquire new (and sometimes lose the old) meanings in the Target Language.

Neologisms can be defined as newly coined lexical units or existing lexical units that acquire a new sense. Unless they are opaque, obscure and possibly cacophonous (compare “yum” and “yuck”), neologisms usually attract and please everyone, but purists are so attached to Graeco-Latin conventions. (Once there was a fuss about oracy) that they jibe at so-called violations of English grammar (‘who did you get it from?’). Unlike the French, the English have no basis from which to attack new words. Most people like neologisms and so does the media and commercial interests exploit this liking. Multinationals with their ingenious advertising, make efforts to convert their brand names (Coke, Tipp-Ex, Tesa, Bic, Schweppes, etc.) into eponyms (i.e. any word derived from a proper noun including acronyms) and in appropriate cases you have to resist this attempt when you translate<sup>1</sup>.

Neologism is any word which is formed according to the productive structural patterns or borrowed from another language and felt by the speakers as something new. Example: tape-recorder, supermarket, V-day (Victory day). The research of cosmic space by the Soviet people gave birth to new words: Sputnik, spaceship, space rocket. For that period all these words were new.

J.Buranov and A.Muminov in their book “A practical course in English lexicology” (1990) said that neologisms may be divided into:

1) **Root words:** Ex: jeep – a small light motor vehicle, zebra – street crossing place etc;

2) **Derived words:** Ex: collaborationist – one in occupied territory works helpfully with the enemy, to accessorize – to provide with dress accessories;

3) **Compound:** Ex: air-drop, microfilm-reader<sup>2</sup>.

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<sup>1</sup> Galperin I.R. Stylistics. -M.: Higher school, 1977.-322 p.

<sup>2</sup> J.Buranov, A.Muminov. A practical course in English Lexicology. T., - 1990.

New words are as a rule monosemantic. Terms, used in various fields of science and technology make the greater part of neologisms. New words belong only to the notional parts of speech: to nouns, verbs, adjectives etc.

Neologisms are mainly formed by:

1) Word formation (mainly production types).

Ex: -gen, -ogen: carcinogen (biological term);

-ics: psycholinguistics, electronics;

-nik: filmnik; folknik;

2) Semantic extension: heel – a tractor (old meaning: heel – the back part of foot); to screen – to classify;

3) Borrowing: telecast, telestar (Greek), sputnik.

Neologisms also deal with metaphor. The translation is concerned with certain particular problems: metaphor, synonyms; proper names, institution and cultural terms, grammatical, lexical and referential ambiguity, cliché, quotations; cultural focus, overlap and distance, idiolect; neologisms; jargon, the four categories of key terms.

Neologisms can be categorized as:

a) formal – completely new words. These are rare – the locus classicus is the 17<sup>th</sup> century word for ‘gas’ (from ‘chaos’) – in the semantic translation. If they are original, they should be transcribed, and recreated, if recently coined. Brand names should be transcribed or given their TL brand names;

b) eponyms – recently based on proper names, including inventors and names of firms and towns. (For the purposes of translation theory at any rate, I am extending the meaning and area of ‘eponym’ to include all instances of transferred use of proper names, e.g. ‘macadamise’, ‘Stalingrad’, ‘academic. The secondary meaning of antonomasia (use of a proper name to express a general idea) is also included within my definition of ‘eponym’. The translator often has to be careful not to transcribe these (boycotter, but not limoger) and in particular beware of the

Western nations' chauvinism about their medical vocabulary (Roentgen, Graves, Hodgkin, Wilson etc)<sup>1</sup>;

c) derived – formed with production prefixes (i.e. de-, mis-, non-, pre-, pro-) and suffixes (e.g. –ism, -ize, -ization), e.g. misdefine, non-event, encyclopaedism, taxon, paraclinique, etc. If such neologisms are transparently comprehensible, the translator can cautiously ‘naturalise’ them, assuming that Latin and Greek roots are acceptable in the TL – particularly in technological texts;

d) new collocations, e.g. ‘urban guerrilla’, ‘unsocial hours’, route fleurie, ouvrier spĭcialisĭ (‘skilled worker’). Normally it is unwise to attempt a loan or ‘through translation’ unless the translator is officially authorized to do so, otherwise he has to ‘normalise’. Is ‘scenic route’ acceptable for route fleurie?

e) phrasal (nouns or verbs) – ‘trade-off’, ‘zero-in’, etc. The translator has to normalise these in the TL usually by translating into two or three words;

f) acronyms (now a translation label for any combination of initial letters or syllables, and apparently the most productive element in European languages). International acronyms are usually translated (e.g. EEC, CEE, EG) – national acronyms are usually retained with, if necessary, a ‘translation’ of their function, rather than their meaning, e.g. CNAА-CNAА, degree-awarding body for higher education colleges (non-university) in the United Kingdom; EDF, the French Electricity Authority, ZUP, areas for priority housing development. Words derived from acronyms have to be normalised (e.g. сĭгĭtiste, ‘member of CGT, the French TUC’, onusien (related to UNO); smicard, ‘minimum wage earner’;

g) blends (“portmanteau” words), i.e. combinations of two words, highly productive. These either become internationalisms for at least European languages if they have Latin/Greek roots (e.g. ‘meritocracy’, ‘tachygraph’, ‘eurocrat’, ‘bionics’, many medical terms) or they are ‘borrowed’ (e.g. sovkhos, sovnarkom, sovpreme) or adopted (e.g. motel). If no recognized equivalent exists they should

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<sup>1</sup> Prokhorova V.I., Soshalskaya E.G. Oral Practice Through Stylistic Analysis. - M.: Higher school, 1979. - 115 p.

be translated (e.g. Abkьft, 'mania for abbreviations', ecotage, 'environment cult', but 'workaholic ergomane (?)). Opaque blends such as 'ruckus' should where possible have both components (ruction, rumpus) translated;

h) semantic, old words with new meanings, e.g. 'sophisticated', 'viable', 'credible', 'gay', base (F), Base (G). These should be 'normalised' (i.e. translated by a normal word) but 'base' should perhaps replace the patronizing 'rank and file' and the excruciating 'grassroots', as an old word with a new meaning (cf. 'chalk face');

i) abbreviations (shortened form of word). These are commoner in French and German than English: e.g. Uni, Philo, 'Beeb', 'vibes', bac, Huma; they are normalised (i.e. translated unabbreviated), unless there is a recognized equivalent (e.g. bus, metro, plus sci-tech terms).

P.Newmark proposes to review twelve types of neologisms and discuss the translation of particular instances by way of the appropriate contextual factors. P.Newmark is a professor and he has many years of experience in teaching translation techniques. In the below frame you can see types, contextual factors and translation procedures for the translation of neologisms<sup>1</sup>.

**Neologisms.** These are very common in newspaper vocabulary. The newspaper is very quick to react to any new development in the life of society, in science and technology. Hence, neologisms make their way into the language of the newspaper very easily and often even spring up on newspaper pages, e.g. lunik, a splash-down (the act of bringing a spacecraft to a water surface), a teach-in (a form of campaigning through heated political discussion), backlash or white backlash (a violent reaction of American racists to the Negroes' struggle for civil rights), frontlash (a vigorous antiracist movement), stop-go policies (contradictory, indecisive and inefficient policies)<sup>2</sup>.

The above-listed peculiarities of brief news items are the basic vocabulary

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<sup>1</sup> Widdowson H.G. Linguistics. - Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2005.

<sup>2</sup> Vachek J. Chapters from Modern English Lexicology and Stylistics. – Praga., 1971.

parameters of English newspaper style.

The vocabulary of brief news items is for the most part devoid of emotional colouring. Some papers, however, especially those classed among "mass" or "popular" papers, tend to introduce emotionally coloured lexical units into essentially matter-of-fact news stories, e.g.

"Health Minister Kenneth Robinson made this shock announcement yesterday in the Commons." (Daily Mirror)

"Technicians at the space base here are now working flat out to prepare GeAiini 6 for next Monday's blast-off." (Daily Mail)

"Defense Secretary Roy Mason yesterday gave a rather frosty reception in the Commons to the latest proposal for a common defense policy for all EEC countries." (Morning Star)

Important as vocabulary is, it is not so much the words and phrases used in brief news items that distinguish them from other forms of newspaper writing. The vocabulary groups listed above are also commonly found in headlines and newspaper articles. The basic peculiarities of news items lie in their syntactical structure<sup>1</sup>.

As the reporter is obliged to be brief, he naturally tries to cram all his facts into the space allotted. This tendency predetermines the peculiar composition of brief news items and the syntactical structure, of the sentences. The size of brief news items varies from one sentence to several (short) paragraphs. And generally, the shorter the news item, \ the more complex its syntactical structure.

The following grammatical peculiarities of brief news items are of paramount importance, and may be regarded as their grammatical parameters.

### **Translation of neologisms.**

The English language is very rich in neologisms – the word has been created recently and perhaps will not live in the language for a long time. It is very seldom that we find equivalent for the translation of neologisms and for the most part we

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<sup>1</sup> Yoo Yushin "The Legend of Tan-gun." Golden Pond Press, 1987.- 270p.

use descriptive translation and word-for-word translation /people of good will, top level talks.

We usually make out the meaning of the new words with the help of the context, but it is also necessary to take into consideration the way of their formation.

### The frame of reference for the translation of neologisms

Type	Contextual factors	Translation procedures
Existing lexical items with new senses. Words. Collocations New forms New coinages Derived words (including blends) Abbreviations Collocations Eponyms Phrasal words Transferred words (new and old referents) Acronyms (new and old referents) Pseudo-neologisms Internationalisms	1. Value and purpose of neolog 2. Importance of neolog to a) SL culture; b) TL culture; c) general 3. Recency 4. Frequency 5. Likely duration 6. Translator's authority 7. Recognized translation 8. Existence of referents in TL culture 9. Transparency or opaqueness of neolog 10. Type of text 11. Readership 12. Setting 13. Fashion, clique commercial 14. Euphony 15. Is neolog likely to become internationalism? 16. Is neolog (acronym) being formed for prestige reasons? 17. Milieu 18. Status and currency of neologism in SL 19. Is neolog in competition with others?	Transference (with inverted commas) TL neologisms (with composites) TL derived word Naturalisation Recognised TL translation Functional term Descriptive term Literal translation Translation procedure combinations (coup lets etc.) Through-translation Internationalism

Neologisms. These are very common in newspaper vocabulary. The newspaper is very quick to react to any new development in the life of society, in science and technology. Hence, neologisms make their way into the language of

the newspaper very easily and often even spring up on newspaper pages, e.g. lunik, a splash-down (the act of bringing a spacecraft to a water surface), a teach-in (a form of campaigning through heated political discussion), backlash or white backlash (a violent reaction of American racists to the Negroes' struggle for civil rights), frontlash (a vigorous antiracist movement), stop-go policies (contradictory, indecisive and inefficient policies).

The above-listed peculiarities of brief news items are the basic vocabulary parameters of English newspaper style.

## **1.2 THE APPEARANCE OF STYLISTIC NEOLOGISMS DURING THE ENGLISH RENAISSANCE**

During the 16<sup>th</sup> century there was a flood of new publications in English, prompted by a renewed interest in the classical languages and literatures, and in the rapidly developing fields of science, medicine, and the arts. This period, from the time of Caxton until around 1650, was later to be called the “Renaissance”, and it included the Reformation, the discoveries of Copernicum, and the European exploration of Africa and the Americas. The effects of these fresh perspectives on the English languages were immediate, far-reaching and controversial<sup>1</sup>.

The focus of interest was vocabulary. There were no words in the language to talk accurately about the new concepts, techniques, and inventions which were coming from Europe, and so writers began to borrow them. Most of the words which entered the language at the time were taken from Latin, with a good number from Greek, French, Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese. Then, as the period of word-wide exploration got under way, words came into English from over 50 other languages, including several indigenous languages of North America, Africa, and Asia. Some words came into English directly; others came by way of an intermediate language. Many came indirectly from Latin or Italian via French.

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<sup>1</sup> [WWW.LIB.RU](http://WWW.LIB.RU); [WWW.ALDEBARAN.RU](http://WWW.ALDEBARAN.RU)

Some writers, such as Thomas Elyot, went out of their way to find new words, in order (as they saw it) to ‘enrich’ the language. They saw their role as enabling the new learning to be brought within the reach of the English public—whether this was access to the old classical texts, or to the new fields of science, technology, and medicine. There were many translations of classical works during the 16<sup>th</sup> century, and thousand of Latin and Greek terms were introduced, as translators searched for an English equivalent and could not find one. Some, indeed, felt that English was in any case not an appropriate vehicle for the expression of the new learning. English, in this view, did not compare well with the tried and tested standards of Latin or Greek, especially in such fields as theology or medicine. It was a language fit for the street, but not for the library<sup>1</sup>.

Then as now, the influx of foreign vocabulary attracted bitter criticism, and people leaped to the language’s defense. Purists opposed the new ‘inkhorn’ terms, condemning them for obscurity and for interfering with the development of native English vocabulary. Some writers (notably, the poet Edmund Spenser) attempted to revive obsolete English words instead – what were sometimes called ‘Chaucerisms’ – and to make us of little-known words from English dialects. *Algate* (‘always’), *sicker* (‘certainly’), and *yblent* (‘confused’) are examples. The scholar John Cheke used English equivalents for classical terms whenever he could, such as *crossed* for ‘crucified’ and *gainrising* for ‘resurrection’<sup>2</sup>.

The increase in foreign borrowings is the most distinctive linguistic sign of the Renaissance in English. Purist opinions did not, in the event, stem the influx of new words – nor have it ever, in the history of this language.

### **Some Renaissance loan words in English**

#### From Latin and Greek

Absurdity, adapt, agile, alienate, allusion, anachronism, anonymous, appropriate, assassinate, atmosphere, autograph, benefit, capsule, catastrophe, chaos, climax, conspicuous, contradictory, crisis, criterion, critic, delirium,

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<sup>1</sup> Verdonk P. *Stylistics*. - Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2003. - 110 p.

<sup>2</sup> Cannon K. I. *Word structure*. - Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1986. 236 p.

denunciation, disability, disrespect, emancipate, emphasis, encyclopedia, enthusiasm, epilepsy, eradicate, exact, exaggerate, excavate, excursion, exist, expectation, expensive, explain, external, extinguish, fact, glottis, habitual, halo, harass, idiosyncrasy, immaturity, impersonal, inclemency, jocular, larynx, lexicon, lunar, malignant, monopoly, monosyllable, necessitate, obstruction, pancreas, parasite, parenthesis, pathetic, pneumonia, relaxation, relevant, scheme, skeleton, soda, species, system, tactics, temperature, tendon, thermometer, tibia, tonic, transcribe, ulna, utopian, vacuum, virus.

#### From or via French

Alloy, anatomy, battery, bayonet, bigot, bizarre, chocolate, colonel, comrade, detail, docility, duel, entrance, equip, explore, grotesque, invite, moustache, muscle, naturalized, passport, pioneer, probability, progress, shock, surpass, ticket, tomato, vase, vogue, volunteer.

#### From or via Italian

Argosy, balcony, ballot, cameo, carnival, concerto, cupola, design, fuse, giraffe, grotto, lottery, macaroni, opera, piazza, portico, rocket, solo, sonata, sonnet, soprano, stanza, stucco, trill, violin, volcano

#### From or via Spanish and Portuguese

Alligator, anchovy, apricot, armada, banana, barricade, bravado, cannibal, canoe, cockroach, cocoa, corral, desperado, embargo, guitar, hammock, hurricane, maize, mosquito, mulatto, negro, potato, port (wine), rusk, sombrero, tank, tobacco, yam

#### From other languages

Bamboo (Malay), bazaar (Persian), caravan (Persian), coffee (Turkish), cruise (Dutch), curry (Tamil), easel (Dutch), flannel (Welsh), guru (Hindi), harem (Arabic), horde (Turkish), keelhaul (Dutch), ketchup (Malay), kiosk (Turkish), knapsack (Dutch), landscape (Dutch), pariah (Tamil), raccoon (Algonquian), rouble (Russian), sago (Malay), sheikh (Arabic), shekel (Hebrew), shogun (Japanese), troll (Norwegian), trousers (Irish Gaelic), turban (Persian), wampum (Algonquian), yacht (Dutch), yoghurt (Turkish).

## **CHAPTER II SPECIFIC PECULIARITIES OF STYLISTIC NEOLOGISMS**

### **2.1 THE BASIC NOTION OF STYLISTIC NEOLOGISMS**

The more creative the language context, the more likely we are to encounter lexical experiments, and find ourselves faced with unusual neologisms. The stretching and breaking of the rules governing lexical structure, for whatever reason, is characteristic of several contexts, notably humor, theology, and informal conversation, but the most complex, intriguing and exciting instances come from the language of literature.

These pages illustrate the range of neologisms used by several modern authors, with pride of place given to the chief oneiroparonomastician (or ‘dream-pun-namer’ – the term is Anthony Burgess’s), James Joyce. Joyce himself called *Finnegan’s Wake* ‘the last word in stolentelling’, a remark which seems to recognize that the extraordinary lexical coinages in his novel have their roots in perfectly everyday language. Certainly, it is our grassroots linguistic awareness which enables us to disentangle some of the layers of meaning in a Joycean neologism. However, untutored native intuition will not sort everything out, as considerable use is also made of elements from foreign languages and a wide range of classical allusions<sup>1</sup>.

The style largely depends on the mechanisms involved in the simple pun, but whereas puns generally rely for their effect on a single play on words, it is usual for Joyce’s forms to involve several layers of meaning, forming a complex network of allusions which relate to the characters, events, and themes of the book as a whole. There is also a similarity to the ‘portmanteau’ words of Lewis Carroll, though Carroll never tried to pack as much meaning into a portmanteau as Joyce routinely did.

James Joyce (1882-1941) was a writer of that period.

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<sup>1</sup> Риффатер М. Критерии стилистического анализа. - М.: Высшая школа, 1981.- 9- 25 с.

In Joysprick (1973), Anthony Burgess presents an illuminating analysis of the linguistic processes involved in the development of what he calls Joyce's 'jabberwocky'. These successive drafts (a-c) of *Finnegan's Wake*, published in the 1920s, show that the style is carefully engineered, despite its apparent randomness and spontaneity. Each version introduces extra connotations, puns, and allusions, and a growing intricacy of lexical structure. The version, which appears in the book (d), is included for comparison.

(a) Tell me, tell me, how could she cam trough all her fellows, the daredevil? Linking one and knocking the next and polling in and petering out and clyding by in the east way. Who was the first that ever burst? Some one it was, whoever you are. Tinker, tailor, soldier, sailor, Paul Pry or polish man. That's the thing I always want to know.

(b) Tell me, tell me, how could she cam through all her fellows, the nectar she was, the diveline? Linking one and knocking the next, tapping a flank and tipping a jetty and palling in and petering out and clyding by on her east way. Waiwhou was the first that ever burst? Someone he was, whoever they were, in a tactic attack or in single combat. Tinker, tailor, soldier, Paul Pry or polishman. That's the thing I always want to know.

(c) Tell me, tell me, how cam she camlin trough all her fellows, the neckar she was, the diveline? Linking one and knocking the next, taptng a flank and tipping a jutty and palling in and pietaring out and clyding by on her eastway. Waiwhou was the first thurever burst? Someone he was, whuebra they were, in a tactic attack or in single combat. Tinker, tilar, souldrer, salor, Pieman peace or Polistamann. That's the thing want to know.

(d) Tell me, tell me, how cam she camlin trough all her fellows, the neckar she was, the diveline? Casting her perils before our swains from Fonte-in-Monte to Tidingtown and from Tidingtown tilhavet. Linking one and knocking the next, taptng a flank and tipping a jutty and palling in and pietaring out and clyding by on her eastway. Waiwhou was the first thurever burst? Someone he was,

whuebra they were, in a tactic attack or in single combat. Tinker, tilar, souldrer, salor, Pieman Peace or Polistamann. That's the thing I'm elways on edge to esk.

A good way of developing an understanding of how Joyce's neologisms wok is to try to imitate them, or parody them.

Burgess suggests a game to fill long winter evenings. In response to an instruction to 'punbaptise the names of the months from the viewpoint of a confirmed drunkard', he gives us:

Ginyouvery

Pubyoumerry

Parch

Grapeswill

Tray

Juinp

Droolie

Sawdust

Siptumbler

Actsober

Newwinebar

Descendbeer

Al this means that a lot of writers use literary neologizing in their novels and stories<sup>1</sup>.

### **Abbreviations**

Abbreviations have always been a common type of pseudo-neologisms, probably more common in French and German than in English. Example: Uni, Philo, sympa, Huma, fac, fab, video; they are normalised (i.e. translated unabbreviated), unless there is a recognized equivalent (e.g. bus, metro, plus science-technical terms).

Abbreviations, one of the most noticeable features of present-day English linguistic life, would form a major part of any super dictionary. Often thought to be

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<sup>1</sup> [www.lib.com](http://www.lib.com), [www.aldebaran.ru](http://www.aldebaran.ru)

an exclusively modern habit, the fashion for abbreviations can be traced back over 150 years. In 1839, a writer in the *New York Evening Tatler* comments on what he calls ‘the initial language... a species of spoken shorthand, which is getting into very general use among loafers and gentlemen of the fancy, besides Editors, to whom it saves much trouble in writing...’. He was referring to OK (‘all correct’), PDQ (‘pretty damn quick’) – two which have lasted – GT (‘gone to Texas’), LL (‘liver loafers’), and many other forms introduced, often with a humorous or satirical intent, by society people.

The fashionable use of abbreviation – a kind of society slang – comes and goes in waves, though it is never totally absent. In the present century, however, it has been eclipsed by the emergence of abbreviations in science, technology, and other special fields, such as cricket, baseball, drug trafficking, the armed forces, and the media. The reasons for using abbreviated forms are obvious enough. One is the desire for linguistic economy – the same motivation which makes us want to criticize someone who uses two words where one will do. Succinctness and precision are highly valued, and abbreviations can contribute greatly to a concise style. They also help to convey a sense of social identity: to use an abbreviated form is to be ‘in the know’ – part of the social group to which the abbreviation belongs. Computer buffs the world over will be recognized by their fluent talk of ROM and RAM, of DOS and WYSIWYG. You are no buff if you are unable to use such forms, or need to look them up (respectively, ‘read-only memory’, ‘random-access memory’, ‘disk operating system’, ‘what you see is what you get’). It would only irritate computer-literate colleagues and waste time or space (and thus money) if a computer-literate person pedantically expanded every abbreviated form<sup>1</sup>. And the same applies to those abbreviations which have entered everyday speech. It would be strange indeed to hear someone routinely expanding BBC, NATO, USA, AIDS, and all the other common abbreviations of contemporary English. Indeed, sometimes (as with radar and AIDS), the unabbreviated form may

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<sup>1</sup> [www.twirx.com](http://www.twirx.com)

be so specialized that it is unknown to most people – a point not missed by the compilers of quiz games, who regularly catch people out with a well-known (sic) abbreviation. As a test, try UNESCO and UNICEF, AAA, SAM and GI (context: military), or DDT and TNT (context: chemistry).

There are 6 types of abbreviation: initialisms, acronyms, clipping, blends, awkward cases, facetious forms.

Initialisms – items which are spoken as individual letters, such as BBC, DJ, MP, EEC, e.g., and USA; also called alphabetizes. The vast majority of abbreviations fall into this category. Not all use only the first letters of the constituent words: PhD, for example, uses the first two letters of the word philosophy and GHQ and TV take a letter from the middle of the word.

Acronyms – initialisms which are pronounced as single words, such as NATO, laser, UNESCO, and SALT (talks). Such items would never have periods separating the letters – a contrast with initialisms, where punctuation is often present (especially in older styles of English). However, some linguists do not recognize a sharp distinction between acronyms and initialisms, but use the former term for both.

Clipping – a part of word which serves for the whole, such as ad and phone. These examples illustrate the two chief types: the first part is kept (the commoner type, as in demo, exam, pub, Gill), and the last part is kept (as in bus, plane). Sometimes a middle part is kept, as in fridge and flue. There are also several clippings which retain material from more than one part of the word, such as maths (UK), gents, and specs. Turps is a curiosity, in the way it adds an –s. Several clipped forms also show adaptation, such as fries (from French fried potatoes), Betty (from Elizabeth) and Bill (from William).

Blends – a word which is made up of the shortened forms of two other words, such as brunch (breakfast+lunch), heliport (helicopter+airport), smog (smoke+fog), and Eurovision (European+television). Scientific terms frequently make use of blending (as in the case of bionic), as do brand names (a device which

cleaned your teeth while you used the phone might be called Teledent) and fashionable neologisms.

A lexical blend, as its name suggests, takes two lexemes which overlap in form, and welds them together to make one. Enough of each lexeme is usually retained so that the elements are recognizable. Here are some longstanding examples, and a few novelties from recent publications.

Motor + hotel = motel

Advertisement + editorial = advertorial

Channel + Tunnel = Chunnel

Oxford + Cambridge = Oxbridge

Yale + Harvard = Yarvard

Slang + language = slanguage

Guess + estimate = guesstimate

Square + aerial = squaerial

Toys + cartoons = toytoons

Breath + analyser = breathalyzer

Affluence + influenza = affluenza

Information + commercials = informercials

Dock + condominium = dockominium

In most cases, the second element is the one which controls the meaning of the whole. So, brunch is a kind of lunch, not a kind of breakfast – which is why the lexemes are brunch and not say lunkfast. Similarly, a toytoon is a kind of cartoon (one which generates a series of shop toys), not a kind of toy<sup>1</sup>.

Blending seems to have increased in popularity in the 1980s, being increasingly used in commercial and advertising contexts. Products are sportsational, swimsational, and sexsational. TV provides dramacons, docufantasies, and rockumentaries. The forms are felt to be eye-catching and

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<sup>1</sup> Vance Laflin S. Something to crow about: A concise collection of American English idioms for everyday use. - Washington: Materials Development & Review Branch, 1996. 84 p.

exciting; but how many of them will still be around in a decade remains an open question.

Awkward cases – abbreviations which do not fall clearly into the above four categories. Some forms can be used either as initialisms or acronyms (UFO – ‘U F O’ or ‘you-foe’). Some mix these types in the one word (CDROM, pronounced ‘see-dee-rom’). Some can form part of a larger word, using affixes (ex-JP, pro-BBC, ICBMs). Some are used only in writing (Mr, St- always pronounced in full in speech).

Facetious forms: TGIF – Thank God It’s Friday, CMG – Call Me God (properly, “Companion of St Michael and St George”), GCMG – God Calls Me God (properly, “Grand Cross of St Michael and St George”), and above all AAAAAA – Association for the Alleviation of Asinine Abbreviations and Absurd Acronyms (actually listed in the Gale Dictionary).

## **2.2 SOCIOLINGUISTIC ASPECTS OF STYLISTICS NEOLOGISMS.**

### **1) The notion of a ‘developed’ language**

Perhaps the most remarkable aspect of human language is the range of purposes it served, the variety of different things that people make language do for them. Casual interaction in home and family, instruction of children, activities of production and distribution like building and marketing and more specialized functions such as those of religion, literature, law and government – all these may readily be covered by one person on one day’s talk.

We can define a ‘developed’ language as one that is used freely in all the functions that language serves in the society in question. Correspondingly an ‘undeveloped’ language would be one that serves only some of these functions, but not all. This is to interpret language development as a functional concept, one which related to the role of a language in the society in which it is spoken.

In the Caribbean island of Sint Maarten, the mother tongue of the habitants is English. Education and administration, however, take place in Dutch; English is

not normally used in these contexts. In Sint Maarten, English is an undeveloped language. The islanders find it hard to conceive of serious intellectual and administrative processes taking pace in English. They are, of course, perfectly well aware that English is used in all these functions in Britain, the USA and elsewhere. But they cannot accept that the homely English that they themselves speak (although dialectally it is of quite 'standard' type that is readily understood by speakers from outside) is the same language as English in its national or international guise.

In the same way, English in medieval England was not a developed language, since many of the social functions of language in the community could be performed only in Latin or in French.

Not unnaturally, the members of a society tend to attach social value to their languages according to the degree of their development. A language that is 'developed', being used in all the functions that language serves in the society, tends to have a higher status, while an undeveloped language is accorded a much lower standing, even by those who speak it as their mother tongue.

## **2) Structural aspects**

But the introduction of new vocabulary is not the only aspect of the development of a register. Registers such as those mathematics, or of science and technology, also involve new styles of meaning, ways of developing an argument, and of combining existing elements into new combinations.

Sometimes these processes demand new structures, and there are instances of structural innovation taking place as part of the development of a scientific register. For the most part, however, development takes place not through the creation of entirely new structures (a thing that is extremely difficult to do deliberately) but through the bringing into prominence of structures which already existed but were rather specialized or rare. Examples of this phenomenon from English can be seen in expressions like 'signal-to-noise ratio', 'the sum of the

series to n terms'<sup>1</sup>, 'the same number of mistakes plus or minus', 'each term is one greater than the term which precedes it', 'a set of terms each of which stands in a constant mathematical relationship to that which precedes it'. We can compare these with new forms of everyday expression such as 'it was a non-event' (meaning 'nothing significant happened'), which are derived from technical registers although used in nontechnical contexts.

There is no sharp dividing line, in language, between the vocabulary and the grammar. What is expressed in one language by the choice of words may be expressed in another language (or in the same language on another occasion) by the choice of structure. The 'open-endedness' referred to earlier is a property of the lexicogrammar as a whole. There are indefinitely many meanings, and combinations of meaning, to be expressed on one way or another through the medium of the words and structures of a language; a more can always be added. This is a reflection of the total potential that every language has, each in its own way.

In the past, language development has taken place slowly, by more or less natural processes ('more or less' natural because they are, after all, the effect of social processes) taking place over a long period. It took English three or four hundred years to develop its registers of mathematics, science and technology, and they are still developing. Today, however, it is not enough for a language to move in this leisurely fashion; the process has to be speeded up. Developments that took centuries in English and French are expected to happen in ten years, or one year, or sometimes one month. This requires a high degree of planned language development. Not everyone involved in this work is always aware of the wide range of different resources by means of which language can create new meanings, or of how the language in which he himself is working has done so in the past. But there is, now, a more general understanding of the fact that all human languages

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<sup>1</sup> [www.lib.ru](http://www.lib.ru); [www.alfebaran.ru](http://www.alfebaran.ru)

have the potential of being developed for all the purposes that human society and the human brain can conceive.

### **The explaining of the meaning of neologism from the context**

Coming out from the term ‘neologism’ we can assume, that the translator first meet with his own neologism, naturally he has no imagination, about that which is explained by him.

For that the meaning of neologism we often forced to understand it from the contexts. During the written translation the context as a rule rather informed. During the translation of the word usually secludes two periods;

1. The explaining of the meaning of the word in context;
2. Giving that meaning by the medium of WP<sup>1</sup>.

By the translating of neologism, how it says, the first period plays an important role, and the second is only just a technique question and it must solve with the methods of more usable for the WP.

In general understanding of the context differences to micro context and macro context: under the micro context means the context of the sentence, as linguistic unit, without going out from the circle of the sentence; macro context it is compactness of linguistic unit, surrounding that unit out of the sentence, saying another word-in mixing with them sentences.

Stable type of the macro context is impossible to show- it can be context from group of sentences, chapters or the whole creation, f. e. story, tales, articles or drama.

It is very important that during the using of neologism we must pay attention to macro context, because exactly in it can be ‘the prompt word’.

Micro context we can separate into syntactic and lexical. Syntactic context it is the syntactic construction in which used this word, combinations or sentence.

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<sup>1</sup> Skrebnev Y.M. Fundamentals of English Stylistics. – M.: Higher school, 2003. - 49-87 p.

Lexical context it is completeness of clear lexical units, words and stable word combinations, as surrounding them we meet this unit.

New words as a rule appeared on base of already existing words and morphs in language. The analyze of that words and morphs can give to the translator real help in clearing the meaning of neologism. For that is necessary to know well the mediums of word shaping in English language, like these:

### **Giving one more meaning to already existing word Combinations**

f. e. the word call in English it means “named”, “to call to somebody” “telephone ring” and so on.

One of the most ancient, universal and propagated mediums combinations, which doesn't lose their activeness and now days. One from three of new-founded words in modern English are complicated words.

F. e. carry-back – “to replace the harm payment to a news period”,  
Citiplus- “City bank (USA)” and so on.

As the norms of modern English language lets co-ordination of words, carrying the same lexical-grammatical characterizes which connects during the word-foundation of the base, it is explaining that in what reasons the translator works with hard words of neologism, and there are combinations in which:

f. e. closing bank- “bank, which had already finished its deal, in which took part several banks”;

closing bank- “bank which has already closed” and so on.

Now recultivated a row of criteria's for limiting complicated words and word combinations. During the translation of neologisms in English an unique attention has autographical criteria, it's sense is in to review any complex, written together or by dash, as the complicated words and complexes, which components written lone, like combinations.

Dividend-right certificate- “a certificate which gives you a right to get the certificate”,

Dear-money policy- “limited credit by the way of rising the percents”,

Fill-or-kill order-“the order of client to the dealer, which must be done immediately or be annulated.”

In reasons when the word is connected, finishing and beginning in the same sound or consonant, one of them being low:

net + etiquette=netiquette-“unwritten wholly rule of relations or an information placed in Internet”.

However we must mark that it is not a rule:

Some sections of the American press are upping the case still further by using an even more emotive term “cyberrape”, to describe the actions of Jake Baker, a 20-year-old American student. (The Independent, 1998).

However, it is necessary to mark, that in many variants viewed incompleteness in writing even the same complex. For example, in reason of *man-made* “artificial, made by a man” 6%- written in lone, 82%-by dash, 12%-together.

The analyze of components numbered in the contents of complicated word, gives to the translator a possibility, knowing its lexical meaning, to clear out the meaning of the whole complex:

Graphite bombing caused power lines destruction turning off *life-supports* in Belgrade hospitals (Fox News Direct, 1999). How we see the neologism *life-supports* composed from two pieces *life* (“жизнь”) and *support* (“поддерживать”), it means that allowed to keep life or be livable, so paying attention on context this neologism we can translate as “an instrument of life supporting”.

**The forming by analogue already existing in language by the way of adding in it different productive affixes**

For the right understanding of the meaning formed by that way of neologism, translator is needed to know the productive affixes in modern English language and be able to member the word right in components:

Kiteflyer- “money receiver under the fixed checks.

Very often in such method of forming neologisms has theatrical colour, particularly in press:

...that they taste the same in Peking as they do in London or New York, and so it was that world *burgernomics* was born by McDonald's. (The Independent, 1998).

Here the author of the article want to pay attention of the reader on essential developing the net of restaurants "McDonalds", the industry of fast food, where take place their own rules and didn't act like another economic rules do in different countries.

### **2.3 STYLISTIC NEOLOGISMS FROM THE POINT OF VIEW OF SEMANTIC AND PHONETIC FACTORS**

Stephen Ullmann is the professor of the Roman languages in the University of Oxford. In his book "Semantics and the Introduction to the Science of Meaning" described some phonetic factors that can be seen in some marginal elements of language – neologisms, place-names, foreign words.

Phonetic factors – the phonetic structure of a word may give rise to emotive effects in two different ways. The first of these is onomatopoeia. Where there is an intrinsic harmony between sound and sense, this may, in suitable context, come to the fore and contribute to the expressiveness and the suggestive power of the word.

Vangelas, for example, described the new word exactitude as a monster against which everybody protested at first, though in the end they became used to it. English words adopted into French have been subjected to a great deal of adverse criticism because of their alleged harshness: Keepsake, for instance, which was very fashionable in the early 19<sup>th</sup> century, was denounced in a magazine article as a 'hard word' whose perilous pronunciation will prevent it from becoming popular.

The Italian poet Alfieri went even further: he wrote an epigram on the sonorous quality of the Italian word capitano, which was deformed and 'nasalised' in French capitaine, and reduced to a mere captain in harsh English throats.

Stephen Ullmann in his book also wrote about the loosing of emotive meaning of some words, and as an example, he took neologisms. He said that the more often we repeat an expressive term or phrase, the less effective it will be. This is particularly noticeable in the case of figurative language. When, a few years ago, the term bulge began to be used to denote an increase in the birth rate. It had the effect of an illuminating metaphor; now we are accustomed to it that we no longer visualize the image.

Hyperbolic terms are even more affected by the law of diminishing returns. We all know how quickly they go out of fashion. In our own time, modern forms of publicity and propaganda consume such words at an unprecedented rate and are constantly on the look-out for fresh alternatives: even such technical terms as supersonic have been drawn into their orbit.

Finally, words may lose their evocative power as they pass from a restricted milieu into common usage. When the English term sport was introduced into French in 1828, the writer who first used it was at pains to explain that the word had no equivalent in his own language. For several decades, sport remained an Anglicism of limited currency in French; as late as 1855, the purist Viennet protested against it in a poem about English words, which he read to the Institut:

Faut-il, pour cimenter un merveilleux accord,  
Changer l'arene en turf, et le plaisir en sport?

Since then, the word has become part of everyday French has lost all evocative force. The same has happened to many successful neologisms. The adjective international for instance, was formed in 1780 by Jeremy Bentham who apologized for his temerity in coining a new term: "The word international, it must be acknowledged, is a new one, though, it is hoped, sufficiently analogous and intelligible". Subsequently the word became an indispensable element of our political vocabulary and lost any air of neologism it may have had in Bentham's day<sup>1</sup>.

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<sup>1</sup> Skrebnev Y.M. Fundamentals of English Stylistics. – M.: Higher school, 2003. - 49-87 p.

Rather more subtle are the movements of words up and social scale. One is quite surprised to learn that some ordinary English words such as joke or banter began their career as slang terms, and that many others – cajole, clever, fun, job, width, etc. – were stigmatized as ‘low’ by Dr. Johnson.

Similarly, in the French *la blaquier* ‘to joke, to banter’ is today a harmless colloquialism; yet little more than a century ago it must have had powerful social overtones.

## **CONCLUSION**

This paper is dedicated to the peculiarities of the stylistic neologisms.

This work was done according to the intensive developing branch of communicative theory of language – linguistic pragmatics based on material of stylistic neologisms.

New words and expressions or neologisms are created for new things irrespective of their scale of importance. In this work we can see the lexical creation of neologisms, during the English Renaissance and all types of neologisms according to their structure. The examples of some neologisms in different languages like German and French show us the appearance and disappearance of neologisms in language. Neologisms may be all-important and concern some social relationships, such as a new form of state e.g. People’s Republic, or something threatening the very existence of humanity, like ‘nuclear war’. Or again they may be quite insignificant and short-lived, like fashions in dancing, clothing, hair-do or footwear. In every case either the old words are appropriately changed in meaning or new words are borrowed, or more often coined out of the existing material according to the patterns and ways productive in the language at a given stage of its development.

All the statements made above defined the actuality which is carried out in the field of communicative linguistics. Its main aim is to describe neologisms by

their structure, to give examples, to show the creation of neologisms with the help of word-building techniques.

According to the stated aim, the tasks of the object of the study are as follows:

1. The division of neologisms according to their structure;
2. The appearance of neologisms during the English Renaissance and their lexical creation;
3. The types of neologisms and their translation;;
4. Neologisms from the point of view of semantic and phonetic factors;
5. Sociolinguistic aspects of mathematical education based on neologisms;
6. Differentiation with respect to time axis of neologisms based on word-building.

Methods of interpretation and translation of neologisms were used for the analysis of this material.

The results of the analysis of this topic have proved all the aforementioned specific tasks.

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