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INTRODUCTION

“In Uzbekistan, all spheres are developing dynamically; outstanding achievements have been made especially in the socio-cultural, economic, scientific and educational spheres. All these, of course, epitomize the development of education system. It should be noted that government policy in Uzbekistan in this area is built on universal values, historical experience, national ages-old spiritual, cultural and scientific traditions of your people, as well as prospects for the development of society.

“Successive reforms embarked on under the leadership of President Islam Karimov in education sphere have been contributing to fostering highly skilled, competitive personnel for all industries, to raising the quality and content of education to a higher level.

“Uzbekistan has for ages been known as the birthplace of great thinkers who have made enormous input into the world science and culture. Organization of such a major international conference in your country and the speech delivered by President Islam Karimov at the forum are a clear manifestation of the high emphasis being placed on education.

“I would like to stress that centers of vocational guidance, job fairs, active cooperation between relevant agencies, organizations and companies for employment of graduates organized in Uzbekistan could serve as a model for other nations.

Any discussion of the relationship between language and society, or of the various functions of language in society, should begin with some attempt to define each of these terms. Let us say that a *society* is any group of people who are

drawn together for a certain purpose or purposes. By such a definition ‘society’ becomes a very comprehensive concept, but we will soon see how useful such a comprehensive view is because of the very different kinds of societies we must consider in the course of the various discussions that follow. We may attempt an equally comprehensive definition of language: a *language* is what the members of a particular society speak. However, as we will see, speech in almost any society can take many very different forms, and just what forms we should choose to discuss when we attempt to describe the language of a society may prove to be a contentious matter. Sometimes too a society may be plurilingual; that is, many speakers may use more than one language, however we define language. We should also note that our definitions of language and society are not independent: the definition of language includes in it a reference to society.

A language grows by infusion of new words. Anyone who has been on the Internet for more than a few days knows what a webmaster is. Yet only a few years ago if we came across a "webmaster", we wouldn't know what that person did for a living.

From ancient times, change in human society has been brought about through new experiences and the consequent expansion of our range of awareness. One notable aspect of this change is the development and transformation that human languages have undergone throughout the many years of human history.

An inevitable element of the process of change is generation and extinction in both small and large scale. Generation and extinction in the realm of language is closely related to social phenomena, in that language directly reflects changes in social reality, politics, the economy and culture (Krysin 1992).

We live today in an “Information Age” which prescribes that information be at the center of all societal activities. The amount of newly generated information that we utilize in our daily lives far surpasses the accumulative amount of information that we produced in past generations. And therefore we are faced with the task of

creating a huge number of new labels and names for everything new that has come into existence in recent years.

There are many ways to coin words. You can make words out of thin air: googol, a word for a very large number (1 followed by 100 zeros) was coined by a nine-year-old boy. It was the inspiration behind the naming of the Google search engine.

You can redefine old words. The Google name, in turn, became genericized as a verb meaning to search for something, not necessarily on the Web.

You can sandwich two existing words (web + master) or you can fuse them together: lexpert (lex + expert), someone who is an expert in words. Such an amalgamated word is also known as a portmanteau (from French, meaning a bag for carrying clothes, one that opens on two sides) since Lewis Carroll gave them this moniker in his 1872 classic "Through the Looking-Glass". Carroll himself coined some great portmanteaux, such as chortle (chuckle + snort), and slithy (slimy + lithe).

The actuality of the present qualification paper is determined due to the fact that the investigation of neologisms in the vocabulary system of any language plays the great role in studying the given language.

The novelty of the qualification paper is determined due to the fact that although neologisms as a specific group of words are repeatedly subject to investigate in different languages.

The subject of the qualification paper is a vocabulary system of the language.

The object of the qualification paper is to study neologisms in the system of the vocabulary. It is widely used to perform linguistic richness of the language.

The aim of this qualification paper is to analyze English, especially, Uzbek neologisms those became under the process of the development of the society and this may give a good push to the improvement.

From this point of view the following tasks are defined:

- to give thorough sketch of vocabulary;
-to classify neologisms;

- to define the neologisms and their semantic characteristics in the vocabulary system of the language;
- to define the main sources of neologisms;

The methods used in the qualification work. While investigating the qualification work we have widely used analogical, comparative and morphologic methods.

The theoretical importance of this qualification paper is in the fact it will present some theoretical basis for working out concrete practical recommendation in studying neologisms in the vocabulary system of any language.

The practical importance of this qualification paper. Therefore, the problem of neologisms is apparently of vital importance for it serves as the necessary parts of linguistics.

The structure of the qualification paper. This diploma paper consists of an introduction, three chapters, a conclusion and the list of the used literature.

The sources of the qualification paper. While investigating the qualification paper we have widely used different works of well known scientists who worked on lexicology of the language, exactly, on neologisms such as “The New Stylistics” Roger Fowler, “Introducing stylistics” John Haynes, “Style and Stylistics” Louis Milic, Galperin. I.R. Stylistics. Kukharenko V.A.” A book of practice in stylistics.” and other works.

CHAPTER ONE.SOME NOTES ON SOCIOLINGUISTICS?

1.1.SOCIOLINGUISTICS AND ITS PLACE IN THE SCIENCE OF LINGUISTIGS

Sociolinguistics is the descriptive study of the effect of any and all aspects of society, including cultural norms, expectations, and context, on the way language is used, and the effects of language use on society. Sociolinguistics differs from sociology of language in that the focus of sociolinguistics is the effect of the society on the language, while the sociology of language focuses on language's effect on the society. Sociolinguistics overlaps to a considerable degree with pragmatics. It is historically closely related to linguistic anthropology and the distinction between the two fields has even been questioned recently.

It also studies how language varieties differ between groups separated by certain social variables, e.g., ethnicity, religion, status, gender, level of education, age, etc., and how creation and adherence to these rules is used to categorize individuals in social or socioeconomic classes. As the usage of a language varies from place to place, language usage also varies among social classes, and it is these sociolects that sociolinguistics studies.

The social aspects of language were in the modern sense first studied by Indian and Japanese linguists in the 1930s, and also by Louis Gauchat in Switzerland in the early 1900s, but none received much attention in the West until much later. The study of the social motivation of language change, on the other hand, has its foundation in the wave model of the late 19th century. The first attested use of the term sociolinguistics was by Thomas Callan Hodson in the title of his 1939 article "Sociolingistics in

India" published in Man in India. Sociolinguistics in the West first appeared in the 1960s and was pioneered by linguists such as William Labov in the US and Basil Bernstein in the UK. In the 1960s, William Stewart and Heinz Kloss introduced the basic concepts for the sociolinguistic theory of pluricentric languages, which describes how standard language varieties differ between nations (e.g. American/British/Canadian/Australian English;Austrian/German/Swiss German;Bosnian/Croatian/Montenegrin/Serbian Serbo-Croatian

For example, a sociolinguist might determine through study of social attitudes that a particular vernacular would not be considered appropriate language use in a business or professional setting. Sociolinguists might also study the grammar, phonetics, vocabulary, and other aspects of this sociolect much as dialectologists would study the same for a regional dialect.

The study of language variation is concerned with social constraints determining language in its contextual environment. Code-switching is the term given to the use of different varieties of language in different social situations.

William Labov is often regarded as the founder of the study of sociolinguistics. He is especially noted for introducing the quantitative study of language variation and change, making the sociology of language into a scientific discipline.

Traditional sociolinguistic interview

Sociolinguistic interviews are an integral part of collecting data for sociolinguistic studies. There is an interviewer, who is conducting the

study, and a subject, or informant, who is the interviewee. In order to get a grasp on a specific linguistic form and how it is used in the dialect of the subject, a variety of methods are used to elicit certain registers of speech. There are five different styles, ranging from formal to casual. The most formal style would be elicited by having the subject read a list of minimal pairs (MP). Minimal pairs are pairs of words that differ in only one phoneme, such as cat and bat. Having the subject read a word list (WL) will elicit a formal register, but generally not as formal as MP. The reading passage (RP) style is next down on the formal register, and the interview style (IS) is when an interviewer can finally get into eliciting a more casual speech from the subject. During the IS the interviewer can converse with the subject and try to draw out of them an even more casual sort of speech by asking him to recall childhood memories or maybe a near death experience, in which case the subject will get deeply involved with the story since strong emotions are often attached to these memories. Of course, the most sought after type of speech is the casual style (CS). This type of speech is difficult if not impossible to elicit because of the Observer's Paradox. The closest one might come to CS in an interview is when the subject is interrupted by a close friend or family member, or perhaps must answer the phone. CS is used in a completely unmonitored environment where the subject feels most comfortable and will use their natural vernacular without overtly thinking about it.

Fundamental concepts in sociolinguistics

While the study of sociolinguistics is very broad, there are a few fundamental concepts on which many sociolinguistic inquiries depend.

Speech community

Speech community is a concept in sociolinguistics that describes a distinct

group of people who use language in a unique and mutually accepted way among themselves. This is sometimes referred to as a Sprechbund.

To be considered part of a speech community, one must have a communicative competence. That is, the speaker has the ability to use language in a way that is appropriate in the given situation. It is possible for a speaker to be communicatively competent in more than one language.

Speech communities can be members of a profession with a specialized jargon, distinct social groups like high school students or hip hop fans, or even tight-knit groups like families and friends. Members of speech communities will often develop slang or jargon to serve the group's special purposes and priorities.

Community of Practice allows for sociolinguistics to examine the relationship between socialization, competence, and identity. Since identity is a very complex structure, studying language socialization is a means to examine the micro-interactional level of practical activity (everyday activities). The learning of a language is greatly influenced by family but it is supported by the larger local surroundings, such as school, sports teams, or religion. Speech communities may exist within a larger community of practice.

High prestige and low prestige varieties

Crucial to sociolinguistic analysis is the concept of prestige; certain speech habits are assigned a positive or a negative value, which is then applied to the speaker. This can operate on many levels. It can be realised on the level of the individual sound/phoneme, as Labov discovered in

investigating pronunciation of the post-vocalic /r/ in the North-Eastern USA, or on the macro scale of language choice, as realised in the various diglossias that exist throughout the world, where Swiss-German/High German is perhaps most well known. An important implication of sociolinguistic theory is that speakers 'choose' a variety when making a speech act, whether consciously or subconsciously.

Social network

Understanding language in society means that one also has to understand the social networks in which language is embedded. A social network is another way of describing a particular speech community in terms of relations between individual members in a community. A network could be loose or tight depending on how members interact with each other. For instance, an office or factory may be considered a tight community because all members interact with each other. A large course with 100+ students would be a looser community because students may only interact with the instructor and maybe 1–2 other students. A multiplex community is one in which members have multiple relationships with each other. For instance, in some neighborhoods, members may live on the same street, work for the same employer and even intermarry.

The looseness or tightness of a social network may affect speech patterns adopted by a speaker. For instance, Sylvie Dubois and Barbara Horvath found that speakers in one Cajun Louisiana community were more likely to pronounce English "th" [θ] as [t] (or [ð] as [d]) if they participated in a relatively dense social network (i.e. had strong local ties and interacted with many other speakers in the community), and less likely if their networks were looser (i.e. fewer local ties).

A social network may apply to the macro level of a country or a city, but also to the inter-personal level of neighborhoods or a single family. Recently, social networks have been formed by the Internet, through chat rooms, MySpace groups, organizations, and online dating services.

In Chomskyan linguistics, a distinction is drawn between I-language (internal language) and E-language (external language). In this context, internal language is linguistic knowledge that a native speaker of language has. It applies to the study of syntax and semantics on the abstract level. External language applies to language in social contexts, i.e. behavioral habits shared by a community. Internal language analyses operate on the assumption that all native speakers of a language are quite homogeneous in how they process and perceive language.
External language fields, such as sociolinguistics, attempt to explain why this is in fact not the case. Many sociolinguists reject the distinction between I- and E-language on the grounds that it is based on a mentalist view of language. On this view, grammar is first and foremost an interactional (social) phenomenon (e.g. Elinor Ochs, Emanuel Schegloff, Sandra Thompson).

Linguistic insecurity

Sociolinguistics as a field distinct from dialectology was pioneered through the study of language variation in urban areas. Whereas dialectology studies the geographic distribution of language variation, sociolinguistics focuses on other sources of variation, among them class. Class and occupation are among the most important linguistic markers found in society. One of the fundamental findings of sociolinguistics, which has been hard to disprove, is that class and language variety are related. Members of the working class tend to speak less standard

language, while the lower, middle, and upper middle class will in turn speak closer to the standard. However, the upper class, even members of the upper middle class, may often speak 'less' standard than the middle class. The looseness or tightness of a social network may affect speech patterns adopted by a speaker. For instance, Sylvie Dubois and Barbara Horvath found that speakers in one Cajun Louisiana community were more likely to pronounce English "th" [θ] as [t] (or [ð] as [d]) if they participated in a relatively dense social network (i.e. had strong local ties and interacted with many other speakers in the community), and less likely if their networks were looser (i.e. fewer local ties) This is because not only class, but class aspirations, are important.

Class aspiration

Studies, such as those by William Labov in the 1960s, have shown that social aspirations influence speech patterns. This is also true of class aspirations. In the process of wishing to be associated with a certain class (usually the upper class and upper middle class) people who are moving in that direction socio-economically will adjust their speech patterns to sound like them. However, not being native upper class speakers, they often hypercorrect, which involves overcorrecting their speech to the point of introducing new errors. The same is true for individuals moving down in socio-economic status.

In any contact situation, there is a power dynamic, be it a teacher-student or employee-customer situation, this power dynamic results in a hierarchical differentiation between languages.

Social language codes

Basil Bernstein, a well-known British socio-linguist, devised in his book,

'Elaborated and restricted codes: their social origins and some consequences,' a social code system he used to classify the various speech patterns for different social classes. He claimed that members of the middle class have ways of organizing their speech that are fundamentally very different from the ways adopted by the working class.

Restricted code

In Basil Bernstein's theory, the restricted code was an example of the speech patterns used by the working class. He stated that this type of code allows strong bonds between group members, who tend to behave largely on the basis of distinctions such as 'male', 'female', 'older', and 'younger'. This social group also uses language in a way that brings unity between people, and members often do not need to be explicit about meaning, as their shared knowledge and common understanding often bring them together in a way that other social language groups do not experience. The difference with the restricted code is the emphasis on 'we' as a social group, which fosters greater solidarity than an emphasis on 'I'. The time when "restricted-code" matters is the day when children start school where the standard variety of language is used. Moreover, the written form of a language is already very different from the everyday form. Children with restricted-code, therefore, struggle at school more than those who speak an "elaborated-code". The type of communication used by the working class reminds Paivio's dual code theory. According to Paivio, there are two types of codes; verbal and non-verbal. The dual coding theory proposed by Paivio attempts to give equal weight to verbal and non-verbal processing. Paivio (1986) states: "Human cognition is unique in that it has become specialized for dealing simultaneously with language and with nonverbal objects and events. Moreover, the language system is peculiar in that it deals directly with linguistic input and output

(in the form of speech or writing) while at the same time serving a symbolic function with respect to nonverbal objects, events, and behaviors. Any representational theory must accommodate this dual functionality." (p. 53). The use of context by members of working class to imply what they mean, therefore, may be a "non-verbal code". However, this type of communicative skills may not be understood by other children who belong to other classes. What's more, children with restricted-code may have difficulty in understanding the teacher, the only source of information for them at school. Therefore, it is suggested that working-class children should have pre-school training within their early childhood period. Early schooling may provide them with opportunities to acquire the way of speaking valid at school.

Elaborated code

Basil Bernstein also studied what he named the 'elaborated code' explaining that in this type of speech pattern the middle and upper classes use this language style to gain access to education and career advancement. Bonds within this social group are not as well defined and people achieve their social identity largely on the basis of individual disposition and temperament. There is no obvious division of tasks according to sex or age and generally, within this social formation members negotiate and achieve their roles, rather than have them there ready-made in advance. Due to the lack of solidarity the elaborated social language code requires individual intentions and viewpoints to be made explicit as the 'I' has a greater emphasis with this social group than the working class.

1.2. **KNOWLEDGE OF LANGUAGE**

When two or more people communicate with each other in speech, we can call the system of communication that they employ a code. In most cases that code will be something we may also want to call a language. We should also note that two speakers who are bilingual, that is, who have access to two codes, and who for one reason or another shift back and forth between the two languages as they converse by code-switching are actually using a third code, one which draws on those two languages. The system (or the *grammar*, to use a well-known technical term) is something that each speaker 'knows,' but two very important issues for linguists are just what that knowledge is knowledge of and how it may best be characterized.

In practice, linguists do not find it at all easy to write grammars because the knowledge that people have of the languages they speak is extremely hard to describe. It is certainly something different from, and is much more considerable than, the kinds of knowledge we see described in most of the grammars we find on library shelves, no matter how good those grammars may be. Anyone who knows a language knows much more about that language than is contained in any grammar book that attempts to describe the language. What is also interesting is that this knowledge is both something which every individual who speaks the language possesses (since we must assume that each individual knows the grammar of his or her language by the simple reason that he or she readily uses that language) and also some kind of shared knowledge, that is, knowledge possessed by all those who speak the language. It is also possible to talk about 'dead' languages, e.g., Latin or Sanskrit. However, in such cases we should note that it is the speakers who are dead, not the languages themselves, for these may still exist, at least in part. We may even be

tempted to claim an existence for English, French, or Swahili independent of the existence of those who speak these languages.

Today, most linguists agree that the knowledge speakers have of the language or languages they speak is knowledge of something quite abstract. It is a knowledge of rules and principles and of the ways of saying and doing things with sounds, words, and sentences, rather than just knowledge of specific sounds, words, and sentences. It is knowing what is *in* the language and what is not; it is knowing the possibilities the language offers and what is impossible. This knowledge explains how it is we can understand sentences we have not heard before and reject others as being *ungrammatical*, in the sense of not being possible in the language. Communication among people who speak the same language is possible because they share such knowledge, although how it is shared – or even how it is acquired – is not well understood. Certainly, psychological and social factors are important, and genetic ones too. Language is a communal possession, although admittedly an abstract one. Individuals have access to it and constantly show that they do so by using it properly. As we will see, a wide range of skills and activities is subsumed under this concept of 'proper use.'

Confronted with the task of trying to describe the grammar of a language like English, many linguists follow the approach which is associated with Chomsky, undoubtedly the most influential figure in late twentieth-century linguistics.

Chomsky has argued on many occasions that, in order to make meaningful discoveries about language, linguists must try to distinguish between what is important and what is unimportant about language and linguistic behavior. The important matters, sometimes referred to as *language universals*, concern the learn ability of all languages, the characteristics they share, and the rules and principles that speakers apparently follow in

constructing and interpreting sentences; the less important matters have to do with how individual speakers use specific utterances in a variety of ways as they find themselves in this situation or that.

Chomsky has also distinguished between what he has called *competence* and *performance*. He claims that it is the linguist's task to characterize what speakers know about their language, i.e., their competence, not what they do with their language, i.e., their performance. The best-known characterization of this distinction comes from Chomsky himself (1965, pp. 3–4) in words which have been extensively quoted:

Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker–listener, in a completely homogeneous speech-community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance. This seems to me to have been the position of the founders of modern general linguistics, and no cogent reason for modifying it has been offered. To study actual linguistic performance, we must consider the interaction of a variety of factors, of which the underlying competence of the speaker–hearer is only one. In this respect, study of language is no different from empirical investigation of other complex phenomena.

From time to time we will return to this distinction between competence and performance. However, the knowledge we will seek to explain involves more than knowledge of the grammar of the language for it will become apparent that speakers know, or are in agreement about, more than that. Moreover, in their performance they behave systematically: their actions are not random; there is order. Knowing a language also means knowing how to use that language since speakers know not only how to form sentences but also how to use them appropriately. There is

therefore another kind of competence, sometimes called *communicative competence*, and the social aspects of that competence will be our concern here.

1.3. LANGUAGE AND SOCIETY

We will look at many ways in which language and society are related. The possible relationships have long intrigued investigators. Indeed, if we look back at the history of linguistics it is rare to find investigations of any language which are entirely cut off from concurrent investigations of the history of that language, or of its regional and/or social distributions, or of its relationship to objects, ideas, events, and actual speakers and listeners in the 'real' world. That is one of the reasons why a number of linguists have found Chomsky's asocial view of linguistic theorizing to be a rather sterile type of activity, since it explicitly rejects any concern for the relationship between a language and those who use it.

We must acknowledge that a language is essentially a set of items, what Hudson (1996, p. 21) calls 'linguistic items,' such entities as sounds, words, grammatical structures, and so on. It is these items, their status, and their arrangements that language theorists such as Chomsky concern themselves with. On the other hand, social theorists, particularly sociologists, attempt to understand how societies are structured and how people manage to live together.

To do so, they use such concepts as 'identity,' 'power,' 'class,' 'status,' 'solidarity,' 'accommodation,' 'face,' 'gender,' 'politeness,' etc. A major concern of this book is to examine possible relationships between 'linguistic items' on the one hand and concepts such as 'power,' 'solidarity,' etc. on the other. We should note that in doing so we are trying to relate two different kinds of entities in order

to see what light they throw on each other. That is not an easy task. Linguistic items are difficult to define. Try, for example, to define exactly what linguistic items such as sounds, syllables, words, and sentences are. Then try to define precisely what you understand by such concepts as 'social class,' 'solidarity,' 'identity,' 'face,' and 'politeness.' Finally, try

to relate the two sets of definitions
within some kind of theory so as to draw conclusions about how items in these two very different classes relate to each other. Do all this while keeping in mind that languages and societies are constantly changing. The difficulties we confront are both legion and profound.

There are several possible relationships between language and society. One is that social structure may either influence or determine linguistic structure and/or behavior. Certain evidence may be adduced to support this view: the *age-grading* phenomenon whereby young children speak differently from older children and, in turn, children speak differently from mature adults; studies which show that the varieties of language that speakers use reflect such matters as their regional, social, or ethnic origin and possibly even their gender; and other studies which show that particular ways of speaking, choices of words, and even rules for conversing are in fact highly determined by certain social requirements. A second possible relationship is directly opposed to the first: linguistic structure and/or behavior may either influence or determine social structure. This is the view that is behind the Whorfian hypothesis, the claims of Bernstein, and many of those who argue that languages rather than speakers of these languages can be ‘sexist’. A third possible relationship is that the influence is bi-directional: language and society may influence each other. One variant of this approach is that this influence is dialectical
in nature, a Marxist view put forward by Dittmar (1976), who argues (p. 238) that ‘speech behaviour and social behaviour are in a state of constant interaction’ and that ‘material living conditions’ are an important factor in the relationship.

A fourth possibility is to assume that there is no relationship at all between linguistic structure and social structure and that each is

independent of the other. A variant of this possibility would be to say that, although there might be some such relationship, present attempts to characterize it are essentially premature, given what we know about both language and society. Actually, this variant view appears to be the one that Chomsky himself holds: he prefers to develop an asocial linguistics as a preliminary to any other kind of linguistics, such an asocial approach being, in his view, logically prior.

We must therefore be prepared to look into various aspects of the possible relationships between language and society. It will be quite obvious from doing so that correlational studies must form a significant part of sociolinguistic work.

Gumperz (1971, p. 223) has observed that sociolinguistics is an attempt to find correlations between social structure and linguistic structure and to observe any changes that occur. Chambers (2002, p. 3) is even more direct: 'Sociolinguistics is the study of the social uses of language, and the most productive studies in the four decades of sociolinguistic research have emanated from determining the social evaluation of linguistic variants. These are also the areas most susceptible to scientific methods such as hypothesis-formation, logical inference, and statistical testing.' However, as Gumperz and others have been quick to indicate, such studies do not exhaust sociolinguistic investigation, nor do they always prove to be as enlightening as one might hope. It is a well-known fact that a correlation shows only a relationship between two variables; it does not show ultimate causation. To find that X and Y are related is not necessarily to discover that X causes Y (or Y causes X), for it is also quite possible that some third factor, Z, may cause both X and Y (or even that some far more subtle combination of factors is involved). We must always exercise caution when we attempt to draw conclusions from such relationships.

A worthwhile sociolinguistics, however, must be something more than just a simple mixing of linguistics and sociology which takes concepts and findings from the two disciplines and attempts to relate them in simple ways. It certainly must go beyond Horvath's view (1998, p. 448) that sociolinguists should just pick and choose freely from sociology: 'What my kind of sociolinguists do is go periodically to sociology and find "social networks" or "the linguistic market place". . . and we find [these concepts] terribly useful in understanding the patterns that emerge from our data. However, we are not engaged in the sociologists' struggles over the importance of social networks *vis-à-vis* other ways of dealing with the structure of society and may remain blissfully unaware of whether or not these models have become contentious within the home discipline.'

A serious scientific approach is incompatible with 'blissful unawareness' in an essential part of its underpinnings. Hymes (1974, p. 76) has pointed out that even a mechanical amalgamation of standard linguistics and standard sociology is not likely to suffice in that in adding a speechless sociology to a sociology-free linguistics we may miss what is important in the relationship between language and society. Specific points of connection between language and society must be discovered, and these must be related within theories that throw light on how linguistic and social structures interact.

Holmes (1992, p. 16) says that 'the sociolinguist's aim is to move towards a theory which provides a motivated account of the way language is used in a community, and of the choices people make when they use language.' For example, when we observe how varied language use is we must search for the causes.

'Upon observing variability, we seek its social correlates. What is the purpose of the variation? How is it evaluated in the community? What do its variants symbolize?' (Chambers, 2003, p. 226). For Chambers these

questions ‘are the central questions of sociolinguistics.’ Chambers is not alone in holding such views. Others too believe that sociolinguistics is the study of language variation and that the purpose of such study is to find out what variation tells us about language and speakers’ ‘knowledge’ of language, in this case their unconscious knowledge of subtle linguistic differences.

We will also see that there is some opposition to this idea that sociolinguistic investigations should be confined to fairly straightforward correlational studies of this kind. Critics such as Cameron (1997) claim that these studies do not provide very satisfactory explanations for linguistic behavior because of inadequacies with social theory – sometimes there is none at all – and failure to appreciate the difficulties in using social concepts. Any conclusions are likely to be suspect. What is needed, according to Cameron (p. 62), is more social engagement so that sociolinguistics would ‘deal with such matters as the production and reproduction of linguistic norms by institutions and socializing practices; how these norms are apprehended, accepted, resisted and subverted by individual actors and what their relation is to the construction of identity.’ Milroy (2001, pp. 554–5) makes a somewhat similar claim in discussing the processes of standardization and change: ‘Social patterns are adduced only in so far as they may elucidate patterns of language by exhibiting co-variation with linguistic variables . . . and as long as internal analyses are quite strongly biased in favor of linguistic, rather than social, phenomena, the quantitative paradigm will be to that extent impeded in its attempts to explain the social “life” of language and the social origins of language change.’ I have already mentioned this idea of necessary social engagement and I will return to it later. However, one point is clear in the above disagreement: sociolinguistics, whatever it is, is about asking important questions concerning the relationship of language to society.

CHAPTER TWO. LANGUAGE AND ITS VOCABULARY SYSTEM.

2.1. GENERAL NOTES ON LEXICOLOGY AND LEXICOGRAPHY.

L e x i c o g r a p h y , that is the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries, is an important branch of applied linguistics. The fundamental paper in lexicographic theory was written by L.V. Shcherba as far back as 1940. A complete bibliography of the subject may be found in L.P. Stupin's works. Lexicography has a common object of study with lexicology, both describe the vocabulary of a language. The essential difference between the two lies in the degree of systematisation and completeness each of them is able to achieve. Lexicology aims at systematisation revealing characteristic features of words. It cannot, however, claim any completeness as regards the units themselves, because the number of these units being very great, systematisation and completeness could not be achieved simultaneously. The province of lexicography, on the other hand, is the semantic, formal, and functional description of all individual words. Dictionaries aim at a more or less complete description, but in so doing cannot attain systematic treatment, so that every dictionary entry presents, as it were, an independent problem. Lexicologists sort and present their material in a sequence depending upon their views concerning the vocabulary system, whereas lexicographers have to arrange it most often according to a purely external characteristic, namely alphabetically.

It goes without saying that neither of these branches of linguistics could develop successfully without the other, their relationship being essentially that of theory and practice dealing with the same objects of reality. The term d i c t i o n a r y is used to denote a book listing words of a language with their meanings and often with data regarding pronunciation, usage and/or origin. There are also dictionaries that concentrate their attention upon only one of these aspects: pronouncing (phonetical)

dictionaries (by Daniel Jones) and etymological dictionaries (by Walter Skeat, by Erik Partridge, “The Oxford English Dictionary").

For dictionaries in which the words and their definitions belong to the same language the term unilingual or explanatory is used, whereas bilingual or translation dictionaries are those that explain words by giving their equivalents in another language.[1] Multilingual or polyglot dictionaries are not numerous, they serve chiefly the purpose of comparing synonyms and terminology in various languages.

Unilingual dictionaries are further subdivided with regard to the time. Diachronic dictionaries, of which “The Oxford English Dictionary” is the main example, reflect the development of the English vocabulary by recording the history of form and meaning for every word registered. They may be contrasted to synchronic or descriptive dictionaries of current English concerned with present-day meaning and usage of words. The boundary between the two is, however, not very rigid: that is to say, few dictionaries are consistently synchronic, chiefly, perhaps, because their methodology is not developed as yet, so that in many cases the two principles are blended[1]. Some synchronic dictionaries are at the same time historical when they represent the state of vocabulary at some past stage of its development[2].

Both bilingual and unilingual dictionaries can be general and special. General dictionaries represent the vocabulary as a whole with a degree of completeness depending upon the scope and bulk of the book in question. The group includes the thirteen volumes of “The Oxford English Dictionary” alongside with any miniature pocket dictionary. Some general dictionaries may have very specific aims and still be considered general due to their coverage. They include, for instance, frequency dictionaries, i.e. lists of words, each of which is followed by a record of its frequency of occurrence in one or several sets of reading matter[3]. A rhyming

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[1] The Concise Oxford Dictionary/Ed. by H.W. Fowler. Oxford, 1944.
[2] Hornby A.S., Gatenby E.V., Wakefield H. The Advance Learner’s Dictionary of Current English. Oxford, 1948.
[3] See, for instance: *Thorndike E.L. and Lorge I.* The Teacher’s Word-Book of 30,000 Words; *West Michael.* A General Service List of English Words. London, 1959; *Eaton, Helen S.* Semantic Frequency List of English, French, German and Spanish.

dictionary is also a general dictionary, though arranged in inverse order, and so is a thesaurus in spite of its unusual arrangement. General dictionaries are contrasted to special dictionaries whose stated aim is to cover only a certain specific part of the vocabulary.

Special dictionaries may be further subdivided depending on whether the words are chosen according to the sphere of human activity in which they are used (technical dictionaries), the type of the units themselves (e. g. phraseological dictionaries) or the relationships existing between them (e. g. dictionaries of synonyms).

The first subgroup embraces highly specialised dictionaries of limited scope which may appeal to a particular kind of reader. They register and explain technical terms for various branches of knowledge, art and trade: linguistic, medical, technical, economical terms, etc. Unilingual books of this type giving definitions of terms are called glossaries. They are often prepared by boards or commissions specially appointed for the task of improving technical terminology and nomenclature.

The second subgroup deals with specific language units, i.e. with phraseology, abbreviations, neologisms, borrowings, surnames, toponyms, proverbs and. sayings, etc.

The third subgroup contains a formidable array of synonymic dictionaries that have been mentioned in the chapter on synonyms. Dictionaries recording the complete vocabulary of some author are called concordances,[1] they should be distinguished from those that deal only with difficult words, i.e. glossaries. Taking up territorial considerations one comes across dialect dictionaries and dictionaries of Americanisms. The main types of dictionaries are classified in the accompanying table.

Types of Dictionaries

Unilingual	Bilingual or multilingual

Chicago, 1940; *Kuccra, Henry] and Francis, W. Nelson.* Computational Analysis of Present-Day American English. Brown Univ. Press, Providence, 1967.

General	Explanatory dictionaries irrespective	English-Russian, Russian-English, etc.	
	Etymological, frequency, phonetical,		Concentrated on one of the
Special	Glossaries of scientific and other special terms; concordances[1] Dictionaries of abbreviations,	Dictionaries of scientific and other special terms[1] Dictionaries of abbreviations,	
	Dictionaries of American English, dialect and slang	Dictionaries of Old English and Middle English with	

[1] Dictionary entries are chosen according to the sphere of communication or the corpus in which they occur.

[2] Dictionary entries are selected according to the type of relationships between words.

Finally, dictionaries may be classified into linguistic and non-linguistic. The latter are dictionaries giving information on all branches of knowledge, the encyclopaedias. They deal not with words, but with facts and concepts. The best known encyclopaedias of the English-speaking world are "The Encyclopaedia Britannica[4]" and "The Encyclopaedia Americana[5]". There exist also biographical dictionaries and many minor encyclopaedias.

English lexicography is probably the richest in the world with respect to variety and scope of the dictionaries published. The demand for dictionaries is very great. One of the duties of school teachers of native language is to instil in their pupils the "dictionary habit". Boys and girls are required by their teachers to obtain a dictionary and regularly consult it. There is a great variety of unilingual dictionaries for children. They help children to learn the meaning, spelling and

[4] See, for example: Buck, Carl Darling. A Dictionary of Selected Synonyms in the Principal Indo-European Languages. Chicago, 1949.

[5] Such as: Hornby A.S., Gatenby E.V., Wakefield H. The Advance Learner's Dictionary of Current English. Oxford, 1948.

pronunciation of words. An interesting example is the Thorndike dictionary[6]. Its basic principle is that the words and meanings included should be only those which schoolchildren are likely to hear or to encounter in reading. The selection of words is therefore determined statistically by counts of the actual occurrence of words in reading matter of importance to boys and girls between 10 and 15. Definitions are also made specially to meet the needs of readers of that age, and this accounts for the ample use of illustrative sentences and pictures as well as for the encyclopaedic bias of the book.

A dictionary is the most widely used reference book in English homes and business offices. Correct pronunciation and correct spelling are of great social importance, because they are necessary for efficient communication.

A bilingual dictionary is useful to several kinds of people: to those who study foreign languages, to specialists reading foreign literature, to translators, to travellers, and to linguists. It may have two principal purposes: reference for translation and guidance for expression. It must provide an adequate translation in the target language of every word and expression in the source language. It is also supposed to contain all the inflectional, derivational, semantic and syntactic information that its reader might ever need, and also information on spelling and pronunciation. Data on the levels of usage are also considered necessary, including special warnings about the word being rare or poetical or slangy and unfit to be used in the presence of "one's betters". The number of special bilingual dictionaries for various branches of knowledge and engineering is ever increasing. A completely new type are the m a c h i n e t r a n s l a t i o n d i c t i o n a r i e s which present their own specific problems, naturally differing from those presented by bilingual dictionaries for human translation. It is highly probable, however, that their development will eventually lead to improving dictionaries for general use.

The entries of a dictionary are usually arranged in alphabetical order, except that derivatives and compounds are given under the same head-word. In the ideographic

[6] .: The Concise Oxford Dictionary/Ed. by H.W. Fowler. Oxford, 1944.

dictionaries the main body is arranged according to a logical classification of notions expressed.[1] But dictionaries of this type always have an alphabetical index attached to facilitate the search for the necessary word.[2]

The ideographic type of dictionary is in a way the converse of the usual type: the purpose of the latter is to explain the meaning when the word is given. The Thesaurus, on the contrary, supplies the word or words by which a given idea may be expressed. Sometimes the grouping is in parallel columns with the opposite notions. The book is meant only for readers (either native or foreign) having a good knowledge of English, and enables them to pick up an adequate expression and avoid overuse of the same words. The Latin word *thesaurus* means ‘treasury’. P. Roget’s book gave the word a new figurative meaning, namely, ‘a store of knowledge’, and hence ‘a dictionary containing all the words of a language’. A consistent classification of notions presents almost insuperable difficulties. Only relatively few “semantic fields", such as kinship terms, colour terms, names for parts of human body and some others fit into a neat scheme. For the most part, however, there is no one-to-one correlation between notions and words, and the classification of notions, even if it were feasible, is a very poor help for classification of meanings and their systematic presentation. The system of meanings stands in a very complex relationship to the system of notions because of the polysemantic character of most words. The semantic structure of words and the semantic system of vocabulary depend on many linguistic, historical and cultural factors.

2.2. SOME WORDS ABOUT THE VOCABULARY SYSTEM OF THE LANGUAGE.

Being an adaptive system the vocabulary is constantly adjusting itself to the changing requirements and conditions of human communication and cultural and other needs. This process of self-regulation of the lexical system is a result of overcoming contradictions between the state of the system and the demands it has to meet. The speaker chooses from the existing stock of words such words that in his opinion can adequately express his thought and feeling. Failing to find the expression he needs, he coins a new one. It is important to stress that the development is not confined to coining new words on the existing patterns but in adapting the very structure of the system to its changing functions.

The concept of adaptive system permits us to study language as a constantly developing but systematic whole, The adaptive system approach gives a more adequate account of the systematic phenomena of a vocabulary by explaining more facts about the functioning of words and providing more relevant generalisations, because we can take into account the influence of extra-linguistic reality. The study of the vocabulary as an adaptive system reveals the pragmatic essence of the communication process, i.e. the way language is used to influence the addressee.

The adaptive system approach to vocabulary is still in its infancy, but it is already possible to give an interim estimate of its significance. The process may be observed by its results, that is by studying new words or neologisms. New notions constantly come into being, requiring new words to name them. New words and expressions or neologisms are created for new things irrespective of their scale of importance. They may be all important and concern some social relationships such as a new form of state (People's Republic), or the thing may be quite insignificant and short lived, like fashions in dancing, clothing, hairdo or footwear (roll neck). 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 language material

either according to the patterns and ways already productive in the language at a given stage of its development or creating new ones.

Thus, a neologism is a newly coined word or phrase or a new meaning for an existing word, or a word borrowed from another language[7].

The intense development of science and industry has called forth the invention and introduction of an immense number of new words and changed the meaning of old ones, e.g. aerobics, black hole, computer, hardware, software, isotope, feedback, penicillin, pulsar, super-market and so on.

For a reliable mass of evidence on the new English vocabulary the reader is referred to lexicographic sources. New additions to the English vocabulary are collected in addenda to explanatory dictionaries and in special dictionaries of new words.

One should consult the supplementary volume of the English-Russian Dictionary edited by I.R.Galperin, the three supplementary volumes of The Oxford English Dictionary, The Longman Dictionary of New Words and the dictionaries of New English which are usually referred to as Barnhart Dictionaries.

The first volume covers words and word equivalents that have come into the vocabulary of the English-speaking world during the period 1963-1972 and the second-those of the 70s[8].

There is a considerable difference of opinion as to the type of system involved, although the majority of linguists nowadays agree that the vocabulary should be studied as a system. Our present state of knowledge is however, insufficient to present the whole of the vocabulary as one articulated system, so we deal with it as if it were a set of interrelated systems.

Changing requirements and conditions of human communication and cultural and other needs.

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[7] See, for example: Buck, Carl Darling. A Dictionary of Selected Synonyms in the Principal Indo-European Languages. Chicago, 1949.

[8] http|www.englishclub.ru.

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Another traditional lexicological grouping is known as word-families in which the words are grouped according to the root-morpheme, for example: dog, doggish, doglike, dogg), to dog, dogged, doggedly, doggedness, dog-days, dog-biscuit, dogcart, etc.

Antonyms are words belonging to the same pan of speech different in sound, and characterised by semantic polarity of their denotational meaning. According to the character of semantic opposition antonyms are subdivided into antonyms proper, complete and conversitives. The semantic polarity in antonyms proper is relative, the opposition is gradual, it may embrace several elements characterised by different degrees of the same property. They always imply comparison. Large and little or small denote polar degrees of the same notion, i.e. size.

Complementaries are words characterised only by a binary opposition which may have only two members; the denial of one member of the opposition implies the assertion of the other e.g. not male means female.

Conversives are words which denote one and the same referent as viewed from different points of view, that of the subject and that of the object, e.g. buy-sell, give-receive.

Morphologically antonyms are subdivided into root (absolute) antonyms (good - bad) and derivational antonyms (apper - disapper).

Semantic field is a closely knit sector of vocabulary characterised by a common concept (e.g. in the semantic field of space we find nouns (expanse, extent, surface); verbs (extend, spread, span); adjectives (spacious, roomy, vast, broad)).

The members of the semantic fields are not synonymous but all of them are joined together by some common semantic component. This semantic component common to all the members of the field is sometimes described as the common denominator of meaning, like the concept of kinship, concept of colour, parts of the human body and so on. The basis of grouping in this case is not only linguistic but also extra-linguistic: the words are associated, because the things they name occur together and are closely connected in reality.

Thematic (or ideographic) groups are groups of words joined together by common contextual associations within the framework of the sentence and reflect the interlinking of things and events in objective reality. Contextual association are formed as a result of regular co-occurrence of words in similar repeatedly used contexts.

Thematic or ideographic groups are independent of classification into parts of speech. Words and expression are here classed not according to their lexico-grammatical meaning but strictly according to their signification, i.e. to the system of logical notions (e.g. tree - -grow - green; journey - train, taxi, bass - ticket; sunshine -brightly - blue - sky)[9].

[9] Cf.: The Concise Oxford Dictionary/Ed. by H.W. Fowler. Oxford, 1944.

CHAPTER THREE. THE PROBLEM OF NEOLOGISMS IN THE VOCABULARY SYSTEM OF THE LANGUAGE.

3.1. NEOLOGISM AS A LANGUAGE UNIT.

Neologisms are often created by combining existing words (see compound noun and adjective) or by giving words new and unique suffixes or prefixes. Portmanteaux are combined words that begin to be used commonly. Neologisms also can be created through abbreviation or acronym, by intentionally rhyming with existing words or simply through playing with sounds.

Neologisms can become popular through memetics, by way of mass media, the Internet, and word of mouth, including academic discourse in many fields renowned for their use of distinctive jargon, and often become accepted parts of the language. Other times, however, they disappear from common use just as readily as they appeared. Whether a neologism continues as part of the language depends on many factors, probably the most important of which is acceptance by the public. It is unusual, however, for a word to enter common use if it does not resemble another word or words in an identifiable way.

When a word or phrase is no longer "new", it is no longer a neologism. Neologisms may take decades to become "old", however. Opinions differ on exactly how old a word must be to cease being considered a neologism[10].

Literature

Many neologisms have come from popular literature and tend to appear in different forms. Most commonly, they are simply taken from a word used in the narrative of a book; a few representative examples are: "grok" (to achieve complete intuitive understanding), from Stranger in a Strange Land by Robert A. Heinlein; "McJob", from Generation X: Tales for an Accelerated Culture by Douglas Coupland; "cyberspace", from Neuromancer by William Gibson; "nymphet" from Lolita by Vladimir Nabokov.

[10] neologism. from www.wikipedia the free encyclopedia

Sometimes the title of a book becomes the neologism, for instance, Catch-22 (from the title of Joseph Heller's novel). Alternately, the author's name may become the neologism, although the term is sometimes based on only one work of that author. This includes such words as "Orwellian" (from George Orwell, referring to his novel Nineteen Eighty-Four) and "Ballardesque" or "Ballardian" (from J.G. Ballard, author of Crash). The word "sadistic" is derived from the cruel sexual practices Marquis de Sade described in his novels. Kurt Vonnegut's Cat's Cradle was the container of the Bokononism family of nonce words.

Another category is words derived from famous characters in literature, such as quixotic (referring to the titular character in Don Quixote de la Mancha by Cervantes), a scrooge (from the main character in Dickens's A Christmas Carol), or a pollyanna (from Eleanor H. Porter's book of the same name). James Joyce's Finnegans Wake, composed in a uniquely complex linguistic style, coined the words monomyth and quark.

Lewis Carroll has been called "the king of neologistic poems" because of his poem, "Jabberwocky", which incorporated dozens of invented words. The early modern English prose writings of Sir Thomas Browne are the source of many neologisms as recorded by the Oxford English Dictionary.

The children's book Frindle by Andrew Clements is a story about neologism.

3.2. THE PROBLEM OF NEOLOGISMS IN MODERN ENGLISH.

There is a term in linguistics which by its very nature is ambiguous and that is the term neologism. In dictionaries it is generally defined as ' a new word or a new meaning for an established word.' Everything in this definition is vague. How long should words or their meanings be. regarded as new? Which words of those that appear as new in the language, say during the life-time of one generation., can be regarded as established? It is suggestive that the latest editions of certain dictionaries avoid the use of the stylistic notation "neologism" apparently because of its ambiguous character. If a word is fixed in a dictionary and provided that the dictionary is reliable, it ceases to be a neologism. If a new meaning is recognized as an element in the semantic structure of a lexical unit, it ceases to be new.. However, if we wish to divide the word-stock of a language into chronological periods, we can conventionally mark off a period which might be called new. Every period in 'the development of a language produces an enormous number of new words, or new meanings of established words. Most of them do not live long. They are not 'meant to live long. They are, as it were, coined for use at the moment of speech, and therefore possess a peculiar property -that of temporariness. The given word or meaning holds only in the given context and is meant only to "serve the occasion." However, such is the power of the written language that a word or a meaning used only to serve the occasion, when once fixed in writing, may become part and parcel of the general vocabulary irrespective of the quality of the word. In this connection it might be noted that such words as субъект, объект and their derivatives as well as тип, прэгресс, пролетариат and, others introduced into the literary Russian language by V. G. Belinsky have become legitimate Russian words firmly established in the word-stock of the Russian language and are no longer felt to be alien to the literary language as they were in the nineteenth century. Literary critics, men-of-letters and linguists have manifested different attitudes towards new -coinages both literary and colloquial. Ever since the 16th

century, literature has shown example after example of the losing battle of the purists whose strongest objection to the new words was on the score of their obscurity. A. A. Baugh points out-that the great exponent of this view was Thomas Wilson. His "Arte of Rhetorique" (1533) was several times reprinted and was used by Shakespeare.

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NEOLOGISMS At the present moment English is developing very swiftly and there is so called «neology blow up». R. Berchfield who worked at compiling a four-volume supplement to NED says that averagely 800 neologisms appear every year in Modern English. It has also become a language-giver recently, especially with the development of computerization. New words, as a rule, appear in speech of an individual person who wants to express his idea in some original way. This person is called «originater». New lexical units are primarily used by university teachers, newspaper reporters, by those who are connected with mass media. Neologisms can develop in three main ways: a lexical unit existing in the language can change its meaning to denote a new object or phenomenon. In such cases we have semantic neologisms, e.g. the word «umbrella» developed the meanings: «авиационное прикрўтие», »политическое прикрўтие». A new lexical unit can develop in the language to denote an object or phenomenon which already has some lexical unit to denote it. In such cases we have transnomination, e.g. the word «slum» was first substituted by the word «ghetto» then by the word-group «inner town». A new lexical unit can be introduced to denote a new object or phenomenon. In this case we have «a proper neologism», many of them are cases of new terminology. Here we can point out several semantic groups when we analyze the group of neologisms connected with computerization, and here we can mention words used[12]:

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[11] http|www.homeenglish.ru
[12] http|www. google.com.

a) to denote different types of computers, e.g. PC, super-computer, multi-user, neurocomputer / analogue of a human brain/;

b) to denote parts of computers, e.g. hardware, software, monitor, screen, data, vapourware / experimental samples of computers for exhibition, not for production/;

c) to denote computer languages, e.g. BASIC, Algol FORTRAN etc;

d) to denote notions connected with work on computers, e.g. computerman, computerization, computerize, to troubleshoot, to blitz out / to ruin data in a computer's memory.

In the modern English society there is a tendency to social stratification, as a result there are neologisms in this sphere as well, e.g. belonger - представитель среднего класса, приверженец консервативных взглядов. To this group we can also refer abbreviations of the type yuppie /young urban professional people/, such as: muppie, gruppie, rumpie, bluppie etc. People belonging to the lowest layer of the society are called survivers, a little bit more prosperous are called sustainers, and those who try to prosper in life and imitate those, they want to belong to, are called emulaters. Those who have prospered but are not belongers are called achievers. All these layers of socety are called VAL /Value and Lifestyles/ . The rich belong also to jet set that is those who can afford to travel by jet planes all over the world enjoying their life. Sometimes they are called «jet plane travellers».During Margaret Thatcher's rule the abbreviation PLU appeared which means «People like us» by which snobbistic circles of society call themselves. Nowadays /since 1989/ PLU was substituted by «one of us».

There are a lot of immigrants now in UK , in connection with which neologisms partial and non-partial were formed /имеющие право жить в стране и его антоним/.The word-group «welfare mother» was formed to denote a non-working single mother living on benefit. In connection with criminalization of towns in UK voluntary groups of assisting the police were formed where dwellers

of the neighborhood are joined. These groups are called «neighborhood watch», «home watch». Criminals wear «stocking masks» not to be recognized[13].

The higher society has neologisms in their speech, such as : dial-a-meal, dial-a-taxi. In the language of teen-agers there are such words as : Drugs! /OK/, sweat /бег на длинные дистанции/, task /home composition /, brunch etc.

With the development of professional jargons a lot of words ending in «speak» appeared in English, e.g. artspeak, sportspeak, medspeak, education-speak, video-speak, cable-speak etc.

There are different semantic groups of neologisms belonging to everyday life:

a) food e.g. «starter»/ instead of «hors d'oevres»/, macrobiotics / raw vegetables, crude rice/, longlife milk, clingfilm, microwave stove, consumer electronics, fridge-freezer, hamburgers /beef-, cheese-, fish-, veg- /.

b) clothing, e.g. catsuit /one-piece clinging suit/, slimster , string / miniscule bikini/, hipster / trousers or skirt with the belt on hips/, completenik / a long sweater for trousers/, sweatnik /a long jacket/, pants-skirt, bloomers / lady's sports trousers/.

c) footwear e.g. winklepickers /shoes with long pointed toes/, thongs /open sandals/, backsters /beech sandals with thick soles/.

d) bags, e.g. bumbag /a small bag worn on the waist/, sling bag /a bag with a long belt/, maitre / a small bag for cosmetics/.

There are also such words as : dangledolly / a dolly-talisman dangling in the car before the windscreen/, boot-sale /selling from the boot of the car/, touch-tone /a telephone with press-button/. Neologisms can be also classified according to the ways they are formed. They are subdivided into : phonological neologisms, borrowings, semantic neologisms and syntactical neologisms. Syntactical neologisms are divided into morphological /word-building/ and phraseological /forming word-groups/.

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[13] www.neologisms. com fromwikipediathefreeencyclopedia

Phonological neologisms are formed by combining unique combinations of sounds, they are called artificial, e.g. rah-rah /a short skirt which is worn by girls during parades/, «yeck» /»yuck» which are interjections to express repulsion produced the adjective yucky/ yecky. These are strong neologisms.Strong neologisms include also phonetic borrowings, such as «perestroika» /Russian/, «solidarnosc» /Polish/, Berufsverbot / German /, dolce vita /Italian/ etc.

Morphological and syntactical neologisms are usually built on patterns existing in the language, therefore they do not belong to the group of strong neologisms. Among morphological neologisms there are a lot of compound words of different types, such as «free-fall»-»резкое падение курса акций» appeared in 1987 with the stock market crash in October 1987 /on the analogy with free-fall of parachutists, which is the period between jumping and opening the chute/. Here also belong: call-and-recall - вўзов на диспансеризацию, bioastronomy -search for life on other planets, rat-out - betrayal in danger , zero-zero (double zero) - ban of longer and shorter range weapon, x-rated /about films terribly vulgar and cruel/, Ameringlish /American English/, tycoonography - a biography of a business tycoon. There are also abbreviations of different types, such as resto, teen /teenager/, dinky /dual income no kids yet/, ARC /AIDS-related condition, infection with AIDS/, HIV / human immuno-deficiency virus/.

Quite a number of neologisms appear on the analogy with lexical units existing in the language, e.g. snowmobile /automobile/, danceaholic /alcoholic/, airtel /hotel/, cheeseburger /hamburger/, autocade / cavalcade/.

There are many neologisms formed by means of affixation, such as: decompress, to disimprove, overhoused, educationalist, slimster, folknik etc. Phraseological neologisms can be subdivided into phraseological units with transferred meanings, e.g. to buy into/ to become involved/, fudge and dudge /avoidance of definite decisions/, and set non-idiomatic expressions, e.g. electronic virus, Rubic’s cube, retail park, acid rain , boot trade etc.

The adaptive system approach to vocabulary is still in its infancy, but it is already possible to give an interim estimate of its significance. The process may be observed by its results that are by studying new words or neologisms. New notions constantly come into being, requiring new words to name them. New words and expressions or neologisms are created for new things irrespective of their scale of importance. They may be all important and concern some social relationships such as a new form of state (People's Republic), or the thing may be quite insignificant and shortlived, like fashions in dancing, clothing, hairdo or footwear (rollneck). 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 language material either according to the patterns and ways already productive in the language at a given stage of its development or creating new ones.

Thus, a neologism is a newly coined word or phrase or a new meaning for an existing word, or a word borrowed from another language.

The intense development of science and industry has called forth the invention and introduction of an immense number of new words and changed the meaning of old ones, e.g. aerobics, black hole, computer, hardware, software, isotope, feedback, penicillin, pulsar, super-market and so on.

For a reliable mass of evidence on the new English vocabulary the reader is referred to lexicographic sources. New additions to the English vocabulary are collected in addenda to explanatory dictionaries and in special dictionaries of new words[14].

One should consult the supplementary volume of the English-Russian Dictionary edited by I.R.Galperin, the three supplementary volumes of The Oxford English Dictionary, The Longman Dictionary of New Words and the dictionaries of New English which are usually referred to as Barnhart Dictionaries. The first volume covers words and word equivalents that have come into the vocabulary of

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the English-speaking world during the period 1963-1972 and the second-those of the seventies.

A new lexical unit can develop in the language to denote an object or phenomenon which already has some lexical unit to denote it. In such cases we have transnomination, e.g. the word «slum» was first substituted by the word «ghetto» then by the word-group «inner town».

A new lexical unit can be introduced to denote a new object or phenomenon. In this case we have «a proper neologism», many of them are cases of new terminology.

Here we can point out several semantic groups when we analyze the group of neologisms connected with computerization, and here we can mention words used:

a) to denote different types of computers, e.g. PC, super-computer, multi-user, neurocomputer / analogue of a human brain/;

b) to denote parts of computers, e.g. hardware, software, monitor, screen, data, vapourware / experimental samples of computers for exhibition, not for production/;

c) to denote computer languages, e.g. BASIC, Algol FORTRAN etc;

d) to denote notions connected with work on computers, e.g. computerman, computerization, computerize, to troubleshoot, to blitz out / to ruin data in a computer's memory/.

There are also different types of activities performed with the help of computers, many of them are formed with the help of the morpheme «tele», e.g. to telework, to telecommute / to work at home having a computer which is connected with the enterprise for which one works/. There are also such words as telebanking, telemarketing, teleshopping / when you can perform different operations with the help of your computer without leaving your home, all operations are registered by the computer at your bank/, videobank /computerized telephone which registers all information which is received in your absence/.In the sphere of lingusitics we have

such neologisms as: machine translation, interlingual / an artificial language for machine translation into several languages / and many others.

In the sphere of biometrics we have computerized machines which can recognize characteristic features of people seeking entrance : finger-print scanner / finger prints/, biometric eye-scanner / blood-vessel arrangements in eyes/, voice verification /voice patterns/. These are types of biometric locks. Here we can also mention computerized cards with the help of which we can open the door without a key. In the sphere of medicine computers are also used and we have the following neologisms: telemonitory unit / a telemonitory system for treating patience at a distance/.With the development of social activities neologisms appeared as well, e.g. youthquake - волнения среди молодежи, pussy-footer - политик, идущий на компромиссы, Euromarket, Eurodollar, Europarliament, Europol etc.

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Neologisms can be also classified according to the ways they are formed. They are subdivided into: phonological neologisms, borrowings, semantic neologisms and syntactical neologisms.

It is hard to know neologisms very well, because they change so quickly and words leak out, there appear other ones. In that case it is useful to learn neologisms dividing them into groups[15].

According to the semantics neologisms are divided into the following groups:

- New science and technology
- Business and Economy
- Health and Medicine
- Law and Government
- Sports

[15] www.neologisms. com fromwikipediathefreeencyclopedia

- Popular culture
- Food and Drink
- Internet and Computer
- Political and Social trends
- Slang
- International English
- Miscellaneous
- Foreign borrowings

1) New science and Technology

Octothrope – one of a number of names used for the gate "#" symbol on telephones and keyboards.

Maryculture – the cultivation of marine organisms, plants and animals.

2) Business and Economy

Capataz – the manager of a farm estate;

Golden handcuffs – special benefits offered to an employer as an inducement to continue service.

Viral Marketing – a marketing sustem whereby product infomation or advertising is disseminated by its users.

3) Health and Medicine

Iscador – an anti-cancer treatment.

Linezolit – the first new class of synthetic anti-bacterial drugs.

Trichotillomania – an abnormal desire to pull out one's hair.

4) Law and Government

Identity theft 1991 – the illegal use of someone else's information in order to obtain money or credit.

Bright-line 1982 – providing an cinabguous creation or guideline especially in law "a bright-line distinction".

5) Sports

Monoboarding – the sport of skiing downhill on a large single ski.

Peloton – the body of riders in a bicycle race.

6) Popular culture

Headbanger – a musician who performs a hard rock

Voguering – a style of dancing to house music incorporating the movements and gestures of models displaying clothes.

7) Food and Drink

Bird-dog – hot-dog made from bird meat.

Franken-food – genetically engineered food.

8) Internet and Computer terms

G-mail – electronic message sent on GSM mobile phone

Server-farm – a large group of Internet servers at a single location.

9) Political and Social terms

Eco-friendly – not harming the environment

Gorbymania – an extreme enthusiasm for the former Soviet president Mikhail Gorbachev.

7) Slang

Dead Presidents – US money in the form of bills.

Jack – money

Phat – excellent

8) Foreign borrowings

Compadre (Spanish) – a close friend, buddy.

Fatwa (Arabic) – formal legal opinion delivered by an Islamic leader.

Glashost (Russian) – policy of openness and frankness.

NEW WORDS IN ENGLISH

No language stands still. New words and expressions are always being created, usually because something new is invented or sometimes just for fun. No government committee decides whether a new word is acceptable or not; if it is used frequently, and in a variety of contexts, it will find its way into the dictionary. Here are some of the words and expressions that have come into English since 1980.

A) New science and technology

Faxable: able to be sent by fax machine

Junk fax: unsolicited material, such as adverts, sent by fax

Tummytuck: a plastic surgery operation to remove fat from the stomach

Soundbite: a brief excerpt from a speech or statement, broadcast on TV

B) New sports and fashions

Monoboarding: the sport of skiing downhill on a large single ski

Snowsurfing: skiing downhill standing sideways on a large single ski

Vogueing: a style of dancing to house music incorporating the movements and gestures of models displaying clothes

C) Political and social trends

Eco-friendly: not harming the environment

Cardboard city: area occupied by cardboard boxes serving as homes for the homeless

Teleworking: working from home communicating by computer and fax

Advertocracy: pursuit of public policy by mass advertising campaigns

Destatisation: withdrawal of the state from areas that were previously state-controlled as in the (former) Soviet bloc in the 80s and 90s

Gorbymania: extreme enthusiasm for the former Soviet President, Mikhail Gorbchev

Newmannery: behaviour of the new man (gentle, caring, non-sexist)

Couch potato: a lazy person who prefers watching TV to being active

D) New words from other languages

Fatwa: formal legal opinion delivered by an Islamic leader (Arabic)

Karaoke: singing pop songs solo to recorded music in bars (Japanese)

Glasnost: policy of openness or frankness (Russian)

E) New forms or meanings for old words

Ageism: prejudice against someone because of their age

Nostalgize: to indulge in nostalgia

Pre-schooler: a child not yet old enough for school

Dark-green: holding radically green political beliefs

Singlehood: the state of being single rather than married

Clergyperson: a male or female member of the clergy (atypical development from clergyman. Compare: chairperson[16])

[16] www.neologisms. com fromwikipediathefreeencyclopedia

3.3. THE PROBLEM OF NEOLOGISMS IN MODERN UZBEK.

The ‘A’ language is the interpreter’s native tongue in which appropriate expressions can be formulated in the shortest amount of time. For this very reason, interpreters usually work into their ‘A’ languages in simultaneous interpretation. When an interpreter leaves their native country for a long period of time, the interpreter could lose some proficiency in their native language. New words could come into use, and existing words could take on new meanings to reflect the changes in society, leaving the interpreter with the ongoing task of making continuous efforts for top-level language proficiency.

Language is organic in that it continuously changes in tune with changes in the times, social reality, and the political, cultural, economic environment. In Korea, many neologisms are being used in various fields. Interpreters must be sensitive to neologisms, and therefore must continuously work on understanding new words and on expressing new concepts in easy-to-understand ways.

We have classified the changes in the vocabulary system of the Uzbek language by the model of classification of Avrorin V.A.

1. The branch of housing
2. The socio-political branch
3. Thing of multiple service
4. The system of education
5. In the field of literature
6. The branch of mass media
7. Aesthetic branch of the society
8. The branch of folklore
9. In the scientific sphere.
10. In all spheres of manufacture
11. The branch of official writings:

12. Old traditions and customs that dealt with the Islamic religion

In the last years and came to the following conclusion:

1. in the branch of housing. In this branch there are the words of everyday usage and everyday housing. There are the list is:

сниккерс	доллар
тижорат	ассосиация
орбит	бартер
компьютер	дастур
брокер	буюртмачи
банкир	жараён
фирма	бирлашма
адлия	зобит

2. the socio-political branch. All the words that express changing and developing ideology, tendency and concepts, political views, political system, governmental organs are there:

ҳоким	қўмита
экстремизм	уюшма
ҳокимият	қурултой
юртбоши	президент
ҳукумат	хорижий
ғазначи	вазир
шартнома	адлия
мафкура	вазирлик
шўъба	Олий Кенгаш
маъмурият	Вазирлар Маҳкамаси

3. Thing of multiple service are also named somehow newly and they satisfy everyday needs of the people.

бар

Ўзмаишиттифоқ	чипта
Холдинг	ширкат уюшмаси
қандолат	тафтиш
супермаркет	маиший хизмат
қандолатчилик	видеобар
дўкон	дискотека
ширкат	

4. News in the system of education reflects in this group of word:

Грант	магистратура	таҳлил	лицей
олийгоҳ	билим юрти	кимё	якуний назорат
компьютерлашти	тест	толиб	гимназия
риш	дастур	оралиқ назорат	дорилфунун
компьютер	таълим дастури	толиба	коллеж
бакалавриат	назорат	талаба	нотиқ
услуб	рейтинг	жорий назорат	

5. A lot of activated and new words are observed in the literature also. Besides that several fiction are published in these years of independence.

6. The branch of mass media expresses the relation of the language and society, their peculiarities, the actual events, and progress of the society:

ойнаи жаҳон	котибият	Муҳарририят
рўзнома	ношир	ЖаҳонАА
теледастур	ЎзА	Муассис
ойнома	Муҳаррир	муаллиф
мавзу	Ўзбекитон	мусаҳҳиҳ
котиб	Миллий ахборот	видео
нашр	агентлиги	рукн

7. Aesthetic branch of the society expresses the influence of coming customs and traditions to the members of the society:

шоу	рок	хит

поп	хитпарад	джей

8. The branch of folklore. This sphere is more important even than mass media. The interrelation of the language and society is demonstrated brightly.

9. Scientific sphere. Changes that take place in developed and developing countries bring new words in scientific system of it also:

Интернет	руҳшунос	матн
компьютер	исломшунос	мусиқа
маърузачи	руҳшунослик	маъруза
номзод	исломшунослик	
номзодлик	қўлланма	

10. In all spheres of manufacture. The product that coming to the society with its name enrich the vocabulary system of the language.

маркетинг	дастгоҳ
ассортимент	Ўзавтотранс
менежмент	дебиторлик
акция	Ўзэлтехсаноат
аудиторакционер	кредиторлик
акционерлик уюшмаси	Ўзфармсаноат
агрофирма	дизайн
агроқурилиш	Ўзбекбирлашув
агросервис	сертификация
Ўзкимёсаноат	Ўзтадбиркорбанк
ассосиация	импорт
Ўзсувқурилиш	брокер
дивидент	эксперт

11. The branch of official writings:

Хоним	жанобингиз
лэди	сэр
жаноб	пардон

маъзур тутмоқ

12. Old traditions and customs that dealt with the Islamic religion of the Uzbeks also were returned after getting the country's independence. The following words and terms of theology are observed in the vocabulary of nation:

Ислом	ваҳҳобийлик	қори
фарз	экстремизм	масжид
исломшунос	ҳизбит таҳрир	рўза
исломшунослик	Террорчилик	ҳаж
савоб	пайғамбар	суннат
дуо	имом	ҳайит
ваҳҳобий	халифа	қурбонлик
оят	хатиб	рамазон

We also divided the language into the following groups the sphere of its usage:

1. family treatment;
2. the treatment in manufacture;
3. Treatment in the social group;
4. Treatment n the limited places;
5. Treatment in temporal centre of the people;
6. Treatment among the nations;
7. International treatment;
8. human treatment.

Language is peculiar only for the human being, it serves only for communicating people. Being the most important communicative means language deals with the society, its culture, with all the members of the society that use the language in their life and labour[17]' (Sodikov A.S. and others 1981: 13).

Having been an important social behaviour language is created in the society.

[17] Sodikov A.S. and others 1981: 13

As the linguists often stress ‘language is an important communicative means between people’. Serving the society as communicative means, collecting and serving information is a bright example of it.

Language demonstrates the nation’s heritage, tradition, and the degree of its culture.

Language expresses in itself any event that takes place in the society, its development, failure, its past, today or future. For its expressing the changes in the society language serves as a barometre of the social development.

We are investigating the functioning, developing and enriching the language in the society and affecting the social factors to the language of the society.

Historically social conditions change and replace, according to the social conditions the language develops and in its place its social functions also enlarge.

Language usage branches are communicative means between people in the peculiar view of social activity of a human in the society.

It’s necessary to have external and internal factors for developing of the language in the society. In this case the Uzbek language has been affected by internal conditions-having admitted the independence of the republic.

And in its turn various external factors had an influence on the vocabulary system and the usage of the language.

Our investigation consists of several of them; they are: the change of social system and in its result increasing the possibilities of the economy, manufacture, changes in the science, ideological processes are the reasons of language development.

The events that take place in the society demonstrate every nation must have its national language, national culture and national spirit in spite of its quality.

CONCLUSION

Today, most linguists agree that the knowledge speakers have of the language or languages they speak is knowledge of something quite abstract. It is a knowledge of rules and principles and of the ways of saying and doing things with sounds, words, and sentences, rather than just knowledge of specific sounds, words, and sentences. It is knowing what is *in* the language and what is not; it is knowing the possibilities the language offers and what is impossible. This knowledge explains how it is we can understand sentences we have not heard before and reject others as being *ungrammatical*, in the sense of not being possible in the language. Communication among people who speak the same language is possible because they share such knowledge, although how it is shared – or even how it is acquired – is not well understood. Certainly, psychological and social factors are important, and genetic ones too. Language is a communal possession, although admittedly an abstract one. Individuals have access to it and constantly show that they do so by using it properly. As we will see, a wide range of skills and activities is subsumed under this concept of 'proper use.'

The 'A' language is the interpreter's native tongue in which appropriate expressions can be formulated in the shortest amount of time. For this very reason, interpreters usually work into their 'A' languages in simultaneous interpretation. When an interpreter leaves their native country for a long period of time, the interpreter could lose some proficiency in their native language. New words could come into use, and existing words could take on new meanings to reflect the changes in society, leaving the interpreter with the ongoing task of making continuous efforts for top-level language proficiency.

Some languages boast a very wide range of vocabulary that may seem to cover all aspects of human society. But as human activity – particularly in the field of science and technology – continues to broaden its horizons, all languages will continue to grow and develop in order to express new situations and new concepts.

With more rapid social change, neologisms will spring up at faster rates, leading to more new words every single day.

Changing requirements and conditions of human communication and cultural and other needs. This process of self-regulation of the lexical system is a result of overcoming contradictions between the state of the system and the demands it has to meet. The speaker chooses from the existing stock of words such words that in his opinion can adequately express his thought and feeling. Failing to find the expression he needs, he coins a new one. It is important to stress that the development is not confined to coining new words on the existing patterns but in adapting the very structure of the system to its changing functions.

The concept of adaptive system permits us to study language as a constantly developing but systematic whole, The adaptive system approach gives a more adequate account of the systematic phenomena of a vocabulary by explaining more facts about the functioning of words and providing more relevant generalisations, because we can take into account the influence of extra-linguistic reality. The study of the vocabulary as an adaptive system reveals the pragmatic essence of the communication process, i.e. the way language is used to influence the addressee.

The adaptive system approach to vocabulary is still in its infancy, but it is already possible to give an interim estimate of its significance. The process may be observed by its results, that is by studying new words or neologisms. New notions constantly come into being, requiring new words to name them. New words and expressions or neologisms are created for new things irrespective of their scale of importance. They may be all important and concern some social relationships such as a new form of state (People's Republic), or the thing may be quite insignificant and short-lived, like fashions in dancing, clothing, hairdo or footwear (rollneck). 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 language material either according to the patterns and ways already productive in the language at a given stage of its development or creating new ones.

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a) food e.g. «starter»/ instead of «hors d'oevres»/, macrobiotics / raw vegetables, crude rice/ , long life milk, cling film, microwave stove, consumer electronics, fridge-freezer, hamburgers /beef-, cheese-, fish-, veg- /.

b) clothing, e.g. cat suit /one-piece clinging suit/, slimster , string / miniscule bikini/, hipster / trousers or skirt with the belt on hips/, completenik / a long sweater for trousers/, sweating /a long jacket/, pants-skirt, bloomers / lady's sports trousers/.

c) footwear e.g. winklepickers /shoes with long pointed toes/, thongs /open sandals/, backsters /beech sandals with thick soles/.

d) bags, e.g. bumbag /a small bag worn on the waist/, sling bag /a bag with a long belt/, maitre / a small bag for cosmetics/.

There are also such words as : dangledolly / a dolly-talisman dangling in the car before the windscreen/, boot-sale /selling from the boot of the car/, touch-tone /a telephone with press-button/.

Neologisms can be also classified according to the ways they are formed. They are subdivided into: phonological neologisms, borrowings, semantic neologisms and syntactical neologisms.

Syntactical neologisms are divided into morphological /word-building/ and phraseological /forming word-groups/.

Phonological neologisms are formed by combining unique combinations of sounds, they are called artificial, e.g. rah-rah /a short skirt which is worn by girls during parades/, «yeck» /»yuck» which are interjections to express repulsion produced the adjective yucky/ yecky. These are strong neologisms. Strong neologisms include also phonetic borrowings, such as «perestroika» /Russian/, «solidarnosc» /Polish/, Berufsverbot / German /, dolce vita /Italian/ etc.

Morphological and syntactical neologisms are usually built on patterns existing in the language, therefore they do not belong to the group of strong neologisms.

Among morphological neologisms there are a lot of compound words of different types, such as «free-fall»-»резкое падение курса акций» appeared in 1987 with the stock market crash in October 1987 /on the analogy with free-fall of parachutists, which is the period between jumping and opening the chute/. Here also belong: call-and-recall - вызов на диспансеризацию, bioastronomy -search for life on other planets, rat-out - betrayal in danger , zero-zero (double zero) - ban of longer and shorter range weapon, x-rated /about films terribly vulgar and cruel/, Ameringlish /American English/, tycoonography - a biography of a business tycoon[18].

There are also abbreviations of different types, such as resto, teen /teenager/, dinky /dual income no kids yet/, ARC /AIDS-related condition, infection with AIDS/, HIV / human immuno-deficiency virus/.

Quite a number of neologisms appear on the analogy with lexical units existing in the language, e.g. snowmobile /automobile/, danceaholic /alcoholic/,

[18] “Stylistics” Bradford Richard, New York. 1997.

airtel /hotel/, cheeseburger /hamburger/, autocade / cavalcade/.There are many neologisms formed by means of affixation, such as: decompress, to disimprove, overhoused, educationalist, slimster, folknik etc.

Phraseological neologisms can be subdivided into phraseological units with transferred meanings, e.g. to buy into/ to become involved/, fudge and dudge /avoidance of definite decisions/, and set non-idiomatic expressions, e.g. electronic virus, Rubic's cube, retail park, acid rain , boot trade etc.

By definition, 'developing countries' are importers of technologies that have already been developed by others. In two aspects, this characteristic makes neology a slightly more formidable task for developing countries. First, most technologies from other countries have been developed under totally different technological and cultural environments. And second, if the developing countries hope to catch up with advanced countries, they need to create more neologisms at a much faster pace.

Uzbekistan is classified as a 'newly industrializing country', but it is still in the developing stage in many sectors. In order to bring in more advanced technologies, contacts with foreign experts are therefore quite frequent. An interpreter working in such situations would, in many instances, have to convey a message from a foreign language into Uzbek even though exact Uzbek corresponding terms may not exist for some technical terminology. A two-step interpretation strategy could be employed in such circumstances. When the new word first appears in the SL, the interpreter could either borrow the SL term in its original form and bring it into the TL as a loanword, or create an equivalent neologism in the TL. The interpreter should then quickly add on a brief explanation of the meaning of the new term. The next time the word appears in the SL, the interpreter could simply use the loanword or the newly created neologism without any further explanation. As interpretation must take place in a very limited amount of time, the interpreter will not be able to repeat time after time the meaning of the new term.

It should be noted that interpreters are not scholars of language, and therefore do not play the role of protecting the purity of the Uzbek language or coining socially recognized neologisms. Interpreters need only make sure that the participants of the speech event for which they are interpreting understand what is being said. The interpreter is there to communicate at the eye-level of the speaker and the audience.

Interpreting strategies for neologisms may differ according to the mode of interpretation. In consecutive interpretation, important neologisms can be interpreted by first providing a literal translation of the term, explaining about the origins of the term and then accurately conveying the meaning of the term in the current context. In simultaneous interpretation, however, there is not enough time for lengthy explanations, and the interpreter must therefore convey the contextual meaning of the neologism in as compact a manner as possible. Of course, if the speaker elaborates further on a specific neologism, then it may be necessary for the interpreter to quickly explain about the origins of the new term.

One thing that is always true for interpretation is that the ‘message’ must be fully conveyed in the limited time available. So, definitely, it would be impossible for an interpreter to state the meaning of a new word every time it comes up in the SL.

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