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## **QUALIFICATION PAPER**

**on the theme: «PECULIARITIES OF TRANSLATION OF NEOLOGISMS  
IN MODERN ENGLISH»**

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**КАФЕДРА АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА И ЛИТЕРАТУРЫ**

**ВЫПУСКНАЯ КВАЛИФИКАЦИОННАЯ  
РАБОТА**

на тему: **ОСОБЕННОСТИ ПЕРЕВОДА НЕОЛОГИЗМОВ В СОВРЕМЕННОМ  
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## INTRODUCTION

The Decree of the President of Republic of Uzbekistan “Measures on the further development of the system in teaching foreign languages” adopted on December 10 in 2012 put some actual problems: in teaching foreign languages, mainly English. Teaching English as a foreign language demands different methods and techniques. In purpose of the cardinal improvement the system of the teaching growing generations to foreign languages preparation specialists, freely mastered them, by introducing the leading methods of the teaching with use modern pedagogical and information-communication technology and on this base of the making the conditions and possibilities for broad their access to achievements of the world civilization and world information resource, developments international cooperation and contacts.

The current qualification paper has a primary aim at attempting to analyze neologisms and their word building means in Modern English. There is no doubt that the English language today is the most widely used language for international communication. Words and expressions are born, live for a short time and then die or find their place in our vocabulary according to the temporary or permanent nature of the phenomena they describe. The language is constantly changing and developing.

There are numerous factors that influence on this process one of which is neologisms. Language is the sphere of human activity that first brings social, political and other changes in human life. Every change, innovation, revolution is preceded by introduction of new words or phrases.

They can be borrowed from another language by some reasons, or can be existing words which change their meaning, or words that creating through abbreviation, or they can be slang words.

It is difficult to follow the number of words in the English language, since neologisms – new words – are coined every day. Also linguists have different opinions on such problem as how long the word is neologism.

Some linguists claim that a word or phrase is no longer a neologism, when it is no longer, new”. And some scholars think that the word should not be older than 25 years to be a neologism. So we can say that neologisms are the main problem of modern scientific research.

The problem of neologisms in the English language is researched by numerous linguists and philologists, such as I. Arnold, V. Eliseev, R. Fischer, I. Galperin, C. Gauker, M. Janssen, O. Jespersen, F. Katamba, A. Koonin, A. Metcalf, M. Mostovy, P. Newmark, E. Rozen, V. Zobotkina and others.

**The subject matter of the qualification paper** is peculiarities of translation of neologisms in modern English.

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

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

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

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

**The actuality of this theme** is that neologisms are very important in our life, especially now, because we have a development of science and technology, the new courses in the field of literature, art and music etc. And there are a lot of new words created in different fields. All these mean that the actuality of this theme is very important. Sometimes people even don't know the meaning of some abbreviations because they are new. Indeed, sometimes with the abbreviations, the unabbreviated form may be so specialized that it is unknown to most people – a point not missed by the compilers of quiz games, who regularly catch people out with a well-known abbreviations and another types of neologisms.

**The result achieved and their novelty.** Lexical-semantic features of neologisms in modern English, which more distinguished as the whole unit being in the mutual connection, have been studied. As the result of the investigation of patterns the new data of structural and semantic properties of the analyzed neologisms which determine the criteria of including frame groups into the micro system have been revealed. Description of neologisms was conducted taking into account the active interaction of a person with objective reality, while word perception is connected with subjective assessment and has reflection on the language of the certain society.

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

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

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

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

The first chapter shows main problems of neologisms, their meaning and division by their structure, main models of word formation.

In the second chapter we analyze the explanation of value of neologisms and translation of neologisms

The conclusion generalizes all the results of the work and forms its primary conclusions.

## Chapter I. Neologisms and its definition in linguistics

### 1.1 History and the development of neologisms

As a literary concept and term, *neologism* appeared in the early 18th century, at the time when the neoclassical practices of the French Generation of 1660 began to consolidate, throughout Europe, into a body of normative teaching. The idea that different domains of human experience should be represented in literature by distinct literary styles entailed the notion that each of these styles should operate within distinct vocabulary. Usage, i.e., specific usage of the «best Authors», «the Court», or «the City», determined the limits of this vocabulary, along with other grammatical and stylistic properties. Authors using words and expressions (as well as phrase structures) from outside this universe were said to use *neologisms*, new expressions. Critics of the time conceived of *neologism* in literature as analogous to the continuous creation and introduction of new lexical units into language, and they thought of language change in general as a process of decay. Thus *neologism* was condemned on both aesthetic and linguistic grounds and the term was used pejoratively only. This older meaning of *neologism*, and the attitude it reflects, is still alive today.

However, as early as the second half of the 18th century, it became obvious that the vocabulary of literary expression should and perhaps could not be fully limited. Thus *neologism* was given a ameliorative doublet, «neology» which meant the introduction of «approved» or «correct» new words into language. Critical literature has since expended a great deal of effort to define, not very successfully, the limits of «neology», usually concluding that the latter should be above all Horace's *licentia sumpta prudenter*, restricted to cases of «real need» (i.e., for concepts for which no single word or expression exists in the language) and that new words should be analogous in form to existing words in the language. Since, however, there are an infinite number of concepts an author may wish to represent in his writing, or a speaker, in his speech, and since the lexicon of most natural languages offers a very large number of possible analogies, such

puristic recommendations have never succeeded in stemming the influx of new words into language, thence into literature. [8, 480]

The old meaning of *neologism* is synonymous with «barbarism», «Gallicism» (in English), «Anglicism» (in French), and even «archaism». It is opposed to «purism».

The modern, neutral meaning of *neologism* appears early in the 19th century and, still combated by Littré in French, gains acceptance towards the end of the century. The expansion of the literary experience by the Romanticists, the Realists, and the Naturalists, as well as the emergence of linguistics as an «objective» science has contributed to this development

### **1.2 The appearance of neologisms during the English Renaissance**

In the 16<sup>th</sup> century there was a flood of new publications in English, prompted by a renewed interest in the classical languages and literatures, and in the rapidly developing fields of science, medicine, and the arts. This period, from the time of Caxton until around 1650, was later to be called the “Renaissance”, and it included the Reformation, the discoveries of Copernicum, and the European exploration of Africa and the Americas.

The effects of these fresh perspectives on the English languages were immediate, far-reaching and controversial. Focus of interest was vocabulary. There were no words in the language to talk accurately about the new concepts, techniques, and inventions which were coming from Europe, and so writers began to borrow them.

Most of the words which entered the language at the time were taken from Latin, with a good number from Greek, French, Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese. Then, as the period of word-wide exploration got under way, words came into English from over 50 other languages, including several indigenous languages of North America, Africa, and Asia.

Some words came into English directly; others came by way of an intermediate language. Many came indirectly from Latin or Italian via French.writers, such as Thomas Elyot, went out of their way to find new words, in

order (as they saw it) to 'enrich' the language. They saw their role as enabling the new learning to be brought within the reach of the English public-whether this was access to the old classical texts, or to the new fields of science, technology, and medicine.

There were many translations of classical works during the 16<sup>th</sup> century, and thousand of Latin and Greek terms were introduced, as translators searched for an English equivalent and could not find one. Some, indeed, felt that English was in any case not an appropriate vehicle for the expression of the new learning. English, in this view, did not compare well with the tried and tested standards of Latin or Greek, especially in such fields as theology or medicine.

It was a language fit for the street, but not for the library.as now, the influx of foreign vocabulary attracted bitter criticism, and people leaped to the language's defense. Purists opposed the new 'inkhorn' terms, condemning them for obscurity and for interfering with the development of native English vocabulary.

Some writers (notably, the poet Edmund Spenser) attempted to revive obsolete English words instead - what were sometimes called 'Chaucerisms' - and to make us of little-known words from English dialects. Algate ('always'), sicker ('certainly'), and yblent ('confused') are examples.

The scholar Levchenko used English equivalents for classical terms whenever he could, such as crossed for 'crucified' and gainrising for 'resurrection'.increase in foreign borrowings is the most distinctive linguistic sign of the Renaissance in English. Purist opinions did not, in the event, stem the influx of new words - nor have it ever, in the history of this language. [18,11]

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

From Latin and Greek, adapt, agile, alienate, allusion, anachronism, anonymous, appropriate, assassinate, atmosphere, autograph, benefit, capsule, catastrophe, chaos, climax, conspicuous, contradictory, crisis, criterion, critic, delirium, denunciation, disability, disrespect, emancipate, emphasis, encyclopedia, enthusiasm, epilepsy, eradicate, exact, exaggerate, excavate, excursion, exist, expectation, expensive, explain, external, extinguish, fact, glottis, habitual, halo,

harass, idiosyncrasy, immaturity, impersonal, inclemency, jocular, larynx, lexicon, lunar, malignant, monopoly, monosyllable, necessitate, obstruction, pancreas, parasite, parenthesis, pathetic, pneumonia, relaxation, relevant, scheme, skeleton, soda, species, system, tactics, temperature, tendon, thermometer, tibia, tonic, transcribe, ulna, utopian, vacuum, virus.or via French, anatomy, battery, bayonet, bigot, bizarre, chocolate, colonel, comrade, detail, docility, duel, entrance, equip, explore, grotesque, invite, moustache, muscle, naturalized, passport, pioneer, probability, progress, shock, surpass, ticket, tomato, vase, vogue, volunteer.or via Italian, balcony, ballot, cameo, carnival, concerto, cupola, design, fuse, giraffe, grotto, lottery, macaroni, opera, piazza, portico, rocket, solo, sonata, sonnet, soprano, stanza, stucco, trill, violin, volcano.or via Spanish and Portuguese

Alligator, anchovy, apricot, armada, banana, barricade, bravado, cannibal, canoe, cockroach, cocoa, corral, desperado, embargo, guitar, hammock, hurricane, maize, mosquito, mulatto, negro, potato, port (wine), rusk, sombrero, tank, tobacco, yamother languages(Malay), bazaar (Persian), caravan (Persian), coffee (Turkish), cruise (Dutch), curry (Tamil), easel (Dutch), flannel (Welsh), guru (Hindi), harem (Arabic), horde(Turkish), keelhaul (Dutch), ketchup (Malay), kiosk (Turkish), knapsack (Dutch), landscape (Dutch), pariah (Tamil), raccoon (Algonquian), rouble (Russian), sago (Malay), sheikh (Arabic), shekel (Hebrew), shogun (Japanese), troll (Norwegian), trousers (Irish Gaelic), turban (Persian), wampum (Algonquian), yacht (Dutch), yoghurt (Turkish).

### **1) Lexical creation**

Anglo-Saxon forms, borrowings, and the use of affixes account for most of what appears within the English lexicon, but they do not tell the whole story. People do some creative, even bizarre things with vocabulary, from time to time, and a fascinating topic in lexicology is to examine just what they get up to.

The general term for a newly-created lexeme is a coinage: but in technical usage a distinction can be drawn between nonce words and neologisms.nonce word (from the 16<sup>th</sup>-century phrase for the nonce, meaning ‘for the once’) is a lexeme created for temporary use, to solve an immediate problem of communication.

Someone attempting to describe the excess water on a road after a storm was head to call it a fluddle - she meant something bigger than a puddle but smaller than a flood.

The new-born lexeme was forgotten (except by a passing linguist) almost as soon as it was spoken. It was obvious from the jocularly apologetic way in which the person spoke that she did not consider fuddle to be a 'proper' word at all. There was no intention to propose it for inclusion in a dictionary.

As far as she was concerned, it was simply that there seemed to be no word in the language for what she wanted to say, so she made one up, for the nonce. In everyday conversation, people create nonce-words like this all the time. There is never any way of predicting the future, with language. [35, 352]

Who knows, perhaps the English-speaking world has been waiting decades for someone to coin just this lexeme. It would only take a newspaper to seize on it, or for it to be referred to in an encyclopedia, and within days (or months) it could be on everyone's lips.

Registers of new words would start referring to it, and within five years or so it would have gathered enough written citations for it to be a serious candidate for inclusion in all the major dictionaries.

It would then have become a neologism - literally, a 'new word' in the language. Neologism stays new until people start to use it without thinking, or alternatively until it falls out of fashion, and they stop using it altogether.

But there is never any way of telling which neologisms will stay and which will go. Blurb, coined in 1907 by the American humorist Gelett Burgess (1866-1951), proved to meet a need, and is an established lexeme now.

On the other hand his coinage of gubble, 'to indulge in meaningless conversation', never caught on. Lexical history contains thousands of such cases. In the 16<sup>th</sup> century - a great age of neologisms - we find disaccustom and disacquaint alongside disabuse and disagree.

Why did the first two neologisms disappear and the last two survive? We also find effectual, effectuous, effectfull, effectuating, effective. Why did only two

of the five forms survive, and why those two, in particular? The lexicon is full of such mysteries.

## 2) **Bagonizing**

However many words there are in English, the total will be small compared with those which do not yet exist. Native speakers, however, seem to have a mania for trying to fill lexical gaps. If a word does not exist to express a concept, there is no shortage of people very ready to invent one. Following a ten-minute programme about neologisms on BBC Radio 4 in 1990, over 1000 proposals were sent in for new English lexemes. Here are a dozen of the more ingenious creations.

- a pre-conference drink- the tendency of a dog on a leash to want to walk past poles and trees on the opposite side to its owner- the guarantee that in any group photo there will always be at least one person whose eyes are closed

- a smoker's cough- physical violence associated with the game of soccer- said of people who care about litter- said of people who don't care about litter

- the cause of nightly noise when you live in a neighborhood full of cats

- someone who complains about everything- what happens to your breakfast cereal when you are called away by a 15-minute phone call, just after you have poured milk on it

- that part of the toilet seat which causes the phone to ring the moment you sit on it

- the time that elapses between when hiccups go away and when you suddenly realize that they have- a compulsive desire to invent new words

## **Loadsalexemes**

Loadsamoney, an informal label for someone who flaunts wealth, first came to notice in the mid-1980s as the name of a character invented by British alternative comedian Harry Enfield.

It caught on, and was given a boost in May 1988, when Labour Party leader Neil Kinnock used it to label the Conservative government's policy of encouraging the creation of wealth for its own sake. Journalists began referring to a Loads money mentality and the Loads money economy, and gradually the prefix began to

take on a life of its own. Later that year we find in various newspapers: loads sermons, loads glasnost, loads space, loads people .affixes seem to have found new life in the 1980s.

Mega-, for example, was used with dozens of forms, such as -trendy, -sulk, -worry, -terror, -plan, -bid, -brand, and -city. The suffixing use of -friendly was found not only with user- (its original usage), but also with audience-, customer-, environment-, farmer-, girl-, nature-, and many more. Sexism brought a host of other -isms, such as weightism, heightism and ageism.

Rambo-based coinages included Ramboesque and Ramboistic. Band-aid gave birth to Sport-aid and Nurse-aid. And the Watergate affair of the mid-1970s lived on linguistically, -gate continuing to attach itself to almost any proper noun where there may be a hint of wicked goings-on, as in Irangate, Lloydstage, and the remarkable Gospelgate (for the wrongdoing of US televangelists).

### **Thingummybob and whatsisname**

It is by no means clear how we should spell most of the items in the following list - and accordingly they tend to be omitted from dictionaries, whose focus is generally on the written language.

They are nonetheless an important element in the English lexicon, providing speakers with a signal that they are unable to retrieve a lexeme - either because it has slipped their mind or perhaps because there is a lexical gap in the language. Such nonsense words occur in many variant forms and pronunciations, just some of which are recorder here.

Deeleebob	Gewgaw	Whatchacallem
Deeleebobber	Gimmick Gizmo	Whatchacalit
Diddleebob	Goodie	Whatchamacallit
Diddleydo	Hootenanny	Whatever
Diddleything	Lookit	Whatsisname
Diddleythingy	Oojamaflop	Whatsit
Dignus	Thingamabob	Whatsits
Dingdong	Thingamabobbit	Whatnot Whosis
Dingy Dooda	Thingamajig	Whosit Whosits

Doodad	Thingummy	Widget
Doohickey	Thingummybob	
Gadget Geega	Thingy	
	Thingybob	

In addition those with sharp ears (for such forms are often said very rapidly) will hear many idiosyncratic items - such as gobsocket, jiminycricket, and this splendid blend (from a professor of linguistics, no less) thingummycallit.

### 3) **Literary neologizing**

The more creative the language context, the more likely we are to encounter lexical experiments, and find ourselves faced with unusual neologisms.

The stretching and breaking of the rules governing lexical structure, for whatever reason, is characteristic of several contexts, notably humor, theology, and informal conversation, but the most complex, intriguing and exciting instances come from the language of literature. The following pages illustrate the range of neologisms used by several modern authors, with pride of place given to the chief oniroponomastician (or ‘dream-pun-namer’ - the term is Anthony Burgess’s), James Joyce. Joyce himself called *Finnegan’s Wake* ‘the last word in stolerntelling’, a remark which seems to recognize that the extraordinary lexical coinages in his novel have their roots in perfectly everyday language.

Certainly, it is our grassroots linguistic awareness which enables us to disentangle some of the layers of meaning in a Joycean neologism.

However, untutored native intuition will not sort everything out, as considerable use is also made of elements from foreign languages and a wide range of classical allusions. The style largely depends on the mechanisms involved in the simple pun, but whereas puns generally rely for their effect on a single play on words, it is usual for Joyce’s forms to involve several layers of meaning, forming a complex network of allusions which relate to the characters, events, and themes of the book as a whole. There is also a similarity to the ‘portmanteau’ words of Lewis Carroll, though Carroll never tried to pack as much meaning into a portmanteau as Joyce routinely did. Joyce (1882-1941) was a writer of that period. Joysprick,

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

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

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

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

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

salor, Pieman Peace or Polistamann. That's the thing I'm always on edge to ask. good way of developing an understanding of how Joyce's neologisms work is to try to imitate them, or parody them. suggests a game to fill long winter evenings. In response to an instruction to 'punbaptise the names of the months from the viewpoint of a confirmed drunkard', he gives us: this means that a lot of writers use literary neologizing in their novels and stories.

#### **4) Neologistic compounds**

A lot of writers and poets used Neologistic compounds. Some Liverpool poets as Adrian Henry, Roger McGough, and Brian Patten can show neologistic compounds in their poems. lexicalizing is but one of the several techniques described in earlier pages available to any author who wishes to neologize. For example, there may be a novel use of affixes:

by owl-light in the half-way housegentleman lay grave ward with his furies;  
(Dylan Thomas, "Altarwise by Owl-light", 1935-6) an unusual word-class conversion: slipped thro' the French window sarminarmed across the lawn  
(Roger McGough, "The Fish", 1967)

### **1 3. Main problems of neologisms**

Nowadays, there is no doubt that the English language is the most widely used language for international communication. The language is constantly changing and developing.

There are numerous factors that influence on this process one of which is neologisms. Language is the sphere of human activity that first brings social, political and other changes in human life. Every change, innovation, revolution is preceded by introduction of new words or phrases.

They can be borrowed from another language by some reasons, or can be existing words which change their meaning, or words that creating through abbreviation, or they can be slang words.

It is difficult to follow the number of words in the English language, since neologisms – new words – are coined every day. Also linguists have different opinions on such problem as how long the word is neologism.

Some linguists claim that a word or phrase is no longer a neologism, when it is no longer, new". And some scholars think that the word should not be older than 25 years to be a neologism. So we can say that neologisms are the main problem of modern scientific research.

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The etymology of „neologism". This term comes from Greek „νῆο", what is meant as a „new", and „logos", what is meant as a „speech, utterance" [1, p. 140].

Neologisms are words that have appeared in the language in connection with new phenomena, new concepts, but which have not yet entered into the active vocabularies of a significant portion of the native speakers of the language [2, p. 94].

The term "neologism" is first attested in English in 1772. But the English variant of this term was not new because French, Italian and German had their respective terms . J. Algeo defines neologisms as new-coined words or new senses of an existing word that are constantly being introduced a language, often for the purpose of naming a new concept [2, p. 297]. The, Dictionary of Linguistic Terms" by O. Akhmanova provides a more detailed definition, where there are distinguished two kinds of neologisms [1, 608]. The first definition runs as follows:

Neologism is a word or phrase created for defining a new (unknown before) object or expressing a new notion". The second one says that it is a „new word or expression that has not received the right for citizenship in the national language and thus is perceived as belonging to a specific, often substandard style of speech" [6, p. 263]. The second definition refers to some kind of barbarism or xenism (the old meaning of neologism is synonymous with „barbarism", „gallicism" (in English), „anglicism" (in French), and even „archaism") and is not appropriate in

research of neologism that are mainly relevant and in demand in a certain linguistic community.

According to B Zabolotkina, neologism is a „unit of the lexicon, a word, a word element or a phrase whose meaning, or whose signifier – signified relationship, presupposing an effective function in a specific model of communication, was not previously materialized as a linguistic form in the immediately preceding tag of the lexicon of the language. According to the model of the lexicon chosen, the neologism will be perceived as belonging to the language in general or only to one of its special usages; or as belonging to a subject – specific usage which may be specialized or general” [30, p. 126].

Neologisms tend to occur more often in cultures which are rapidly changing, and also in situations where there is easy and fast propagation of information. They are often created by combining existing words or by giving words new and unique suffixes or prefixes. Neologisms can also be created through abbreviation or acronym, by intentionally rhyming with existing words, or simply through playing with sounds.

We can say that a neologism may be a slang word that has to find its way into mainstream conversation, or it may be the creation of a non-native speaker who has made for example a grammatical error.

The so-called slip of the tongue may also be seen as neologisms. Neologisms are usually formed under the laws of the language, by its productive patterns of word formation. However, literary neologisms are sometimes created by unproductive ways of word formation [9, p. 77].

Neologisms can be also borrowed from other languages. Borrowing can be the result of political, economic, trade and cultural contact or commercial, cultural, scientific exchange.

Neologisms often become popular by way of mass media, the Internet, or word of mouth – especially, many linguists suspect, by younger people. Every word in a language was, at some time, a neologism, though most of these ceased to

be such through time and acceptance. Neologisms often become accepted parts of the language.

Other times, however, they disappear from common usage. Whether or not a neologism continues as a part of the language depends on many factors, probably the most important of which is acceptance by the public. Acceptance by linguistic experts and incorporation into dictionaries also plays a part, as does whether the phenomenon described by a neologism remains current, thus continuing to need a descriptor.

It is unusual, however, for a word to enter common use if it does not resemble another word or words in an identifiable way. In some cases however, strange new words succeed because the idea behind them is especially memorable or exciting.

Another problem aspect is classification of neologisms. One of the methods used by scholars in any science is the classification of the phenomena under investigation. For instance, in linguistics we study different parts of speech; we know the functions of words in sentences. What concerns neologisms, we have to state that the question of classification of neologisms has not been settled yet; there is no single way of classifying them.

In different classifications worked out by scholars different aspects of neologism have been taken into account. Linguists often classify the neologism by its degree of use in a language.

The newborn word is at first unstable, and it's hard to guess whether it will take hold and eventually be a word that most people know and use. A *diffused* neologism means that many people are using the word, but it doesn't yet have formal recognition as a word, and ultimately, if the word remains popular it may attain stable status.

It has become part of the language and is likely to be defined in dictionaries [13, 24]. The study of new vocabulary in the functional aspect involves the analysis of how neologisms appear and this analysis set the stage for the transition to the pragmatic aspect of the new words.

## Chapter II Lexical and semantic features of word formation and translation of neologisms

### 2.1 Ways of word formation and their classification

Neologism is any word which is formed according to the productive structural patterns or borrowed from another language and felt by the speakers as something new. J.Buranov and A.Muminov in their book “A practical course in English lexicology” [11, 68] said that neologisms may be divided into:

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

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

#### 3) **Compounds and Compounding**

In English (as in many other languages) new words can be formed from already existing words by a process known as compounding, in which individual words are "joined together" to form a compound word. For example, the noun *ape* can be joined with the noun *man* to form the compound noun *ape-man*; the adjective *red* can be joined with the adjective *hot* to form the compound adjective *red-hot*.

Compounds are not limited to two words, as shown by examples such as bathroom towel-rack and community center finance committee. Indeed, the process of compounding seems unlimited in English: starting with a word like *sailboat*, we can easily construct the compound *sailboat rigging*, from which we can in turn create *sailboat rigging design*, *sailboat rigging design training*, *sailboat rigging design training institute*, and so on.

Neologisms are mainly formed by:

1) Word formation (mainly production types).

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

-ics: psycholinguistics, electronics;

-nik: filmnik; folknik;

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

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

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

Neologisms can be categorized as:

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

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

c) Derived words - The great majority of neologisms are words derived by analogy from ancient Greek (increasingly) and Latin morphemes usually with suffixes as -ismo, -ismus, -ija etc., naturalised in the appropriate language.

In some countries (e.g. pre-War Germany, Arabic-speaking countries) this process has been preferred. E.g. ‘television’ - Fernsehen. However, now that this word-forming procedure is employed mainly to designate (non-cultural) scientific and technological rather than cultural institutional terms, the advance of these internationalisms is wide-spread. Normally, they have naturalised suffices.

Many are listed in Babel appears to be the main non-European language that 'imports' them., this does not mean that the translator can apply the process automatically. For example: "Bionomics" has given way to 'ecology', and 'ergonomics' (second sense) to 'biotechnology'. He has to consult the appropriate ISO (International Standards Organisation) glossary to find out whether there is already a recognized translation; secondly, whether the referent yet exists in the TL culture; thirdly, how important it is and therefore whether it is worth 'transplanting' at all. If he thinks he is justified in transplanting it (has he the necessary authority?), and he believes himself to be the first translator to do so.

P. Newmark should put it in inverted commas.example: televideo - appears to be an earlier version of video, which has several meanings ('tape', 'recorder', 'cassette'). Not however that most of these words are virtually context-free.we should note the medical neologisms.: 'chronopharmacology' and etc., particularly approved chemical names of generic drugs can often be reproduced with a naturalized suffix (French -ite, English -itis; French -ine, English -in).

But bear in mind that Romance languages do this more easily than others, since it is their home territory, and you should not automatically naturalize or adopt a word like 'anatomopathologie' (1960).languages combine two or more academic subjects into a single adjective thus medico-chirurgical, medico-pedagogique, etc, in a manner that Shakespeare was already satirizing in Hamlet (II.2) ('pastoral-comical', 'tragical-historical', 'tragical-comical-historical-pastoral' etc) such combinations should normally be separated into two adjectives in the translation.: 'medical and surgical', 'both medical and surgical', but 'physio' - (from physiology), 'physico' - (physics) and 'bio' - are common first components of interdisciplinary subjects

d) A collocation consists basically of two or three lexical (sometimes called full, descriptive, substantial) words, usually linked by grammatical (empty, functional, relational) words, e.g. 'a mental illness'.

The collocates within a collocation define and delimit each other by eliminating at least some of their other possible meanings; the defining may be

mutual and equally balanced, but more often it is closer for one collocate than for the other. Thus 'to pay attention', since it reduces the number of senses in which 'pay' can be used to one.

The word 'attention' is not so radically affected, but it excludes 'attention' in the sense of 'care, solicitude'. 'To buy a hat' is not a collocation, since it does not appreciably delimit the sense of 'buy' or 'hat'. However, collocations shade off into other grammatically linked word-groups without a sharp division.

A collocation is the element of system in the lexis of a language. It may be syntagmatic or horizontal, therefore consisting of a common structure; or paradigmatic or vertical, consisting of words belonging to the same semantic field which may substitute for each other or be semantic opposites. These become collocations only when they are arranged systematically. [18,11]

Syntagmatic collocations can be divided into seven main groups:

a) Verb plus verbal noun. Examples: pay attention, suffer a defeat, run a meeting, make a speech. The verb is collocate for which the translator must find the appropriate equivalent. The verbs in these collocations merely have an operative function (they mean 'do') and no particularized meaning since the action is expressed in the noun. Some verbal nouns have a small range of collocates; others, like discourse, Lob, Dients, have one obvious collocate (pronouncer, spenden, leisten).

b) Determiner plus adjective plus noun. The appropriate adjective has to be found for the noun. There is a much wider range of choices than in (a), and the force of this category of collocation is usually only established by contrast with another language. Thus 'a large apple' but *une grosse pomme*; 'a tall man' but *un home grand*; *un grand home* but 'a great man'; *un beau garçon* but 'a good looking man'; 'a pretty girl' but not (usually) a 'pretty boy'.

Some nouns have one particularly suitable adjective in an extensive variety of areas, particularly for physical qualities (e.g. woman: dark, slim, middle-aged, short, young) which, for other objects, would require different adjectives, whilst

other nouns (e.g. 'criticism') have a narrow sheaf of adjectives for each segment of a variety of areas (approfondi/grundlich; anodine/nichtssagend).

c) Adverb plus adjective. The most suitable adverb must be looked for. These collocations tend to cliché (e.g. 'immensely important'). The collocation is much rarer in Romance languages, where its equivalent transposition is 'adjective plus adjectival noun', e.g. d'une immense importance. Note however: *vachement dur*, 'damn hard' or 'bloody hard'. This collocation, which is more restricted and less frequent (therefore far less important) than (a) and (b) is much at the mercy of fashion.

d) Verb plus adverb or adjective. This is much smaller category: the adverb or adjective must be looked for. Examples: work hard, feel well, shine brightly, and smell sweet.

e) Subject plus verb. There are two groups: first, the noun and verb may mutually attract each other: 'the dog barks', 'the cat purrs', 'the bell rings', and 'teeth chatter'. In some cases, particularly when referring to animals, the verb usually has no other subject. In the second group, there is merely a fairly high expectation that a particular verb will follow the subject: 'the door creaks', *le clocher pointe*, *les champs se déroulent*, and here the right verb must be looked for. In French, some of these verbs are often found as past participles or in adjectival clauses qualifying their subjects (used as *etoffement* with low semantic content), and then they require no translation in English: *la maison qui se dresse sur la colline*, 'the house on the hill'.

f) Count noun plus 'of' plus mass noun. This restricted collocation consists of a term denoting a unit of quantity and the word for the substance it quantifies. The appropriate unit must be looked for in the TL, e.g. 'a loaf of bread', 'a cake of soap', 'a pinch of salt', 'a particle of dust', etc, if it exists.

g) Collective noun plus count noun. The collective noun has to be discovered: e.g. 'a bunch of keys', 'a flock of geese or sheep', 'a pack of cards or hounds'.

Wider and less easily categorized collocations include nominalizations (in particular, nouns personified by one or more nouns), introducing the name of an object (or unit of quantity) by a term for its size, composition, purpose, origin, destination, etc., which is now rapidly superseding the ‘noun plus “of” plus noun’ collocation; the whole range of phrasal verbs, and various items of a sequence including activity/agent/instrument/object/attribute/source/place, etc.: e.g. ‘bake/baker/oven/bread/fresh,new,stale,musty/flour,yeast/bakery’.

Stylistically and semantically, clichés are a subgroup of collocations in that one of their collocates has diminished in value or is almost redundant, as often in ‘grinding to a halt’, ‘filthy lucre’, etc., and the translator may be entitled to replace a cliché with a less common collocation, if it clarified the content without distorting it.

Paradigmatic collocations may be based on well-established hierarchies such as kinship (‘fathers and sons’), colours (‘emerald is a bright green’), scientific taxonomies and institutional hierarchies where the elements of the culture for each language often have their own distinct linguistic likeness (Abbild), although the extralinguistic object may be the same. Alternatively they may consist of the various synonyms and antonyms that permeate all languages.

e) Phrasal words are restricted to English's facility in converting verbs to nouns (e.g. 'work-out,' 'trade-off,' 'check-out,' 'thermal cut-out,' 'knock-on (domino) effect,' 'laid-back,' 'sit-in').

Note that phrasal words: (a) are often more economical than their translation; (b) usually occupy the peculiarly English register between 'informal' and 'colloquial,' whilst their translations are more formal.

f) Acronyms are an increasingly common feature of all non-literary texts, for reasons of brevity or euphony, and often to give the referent an artificial prestige to rouse people to find out what the letters stand for. In science the letters are occasionally joined up and become internationalisms ('laser,' 'maser'), requiring analysis only for a less educated TL readership.

The words *radar* and *laser* are acronyms: each of the letters that spell the word is the first letter (or letters) of some other complete word. For example, *radar* derives from radio detecting and ranging and *laser* derives from light amplification (by) stimulated emission (of) radiation. It is important to note that even though such words are originally created as acronyms, speakers quickly forget such origins and the acronyms become new independent words. The world of computers offers a wealth of acronyms. Here are just a few:

<b>Acronym</b>	<b>Source</b>
URL (pronounced "earl")	<u>u</u> niform <u>r</u> esource <u>l</u> ocator
GUI (pronounced "goeey")	graphical <u>u</u> ser <u>i</u> nterface
DOS (pronounced "doss")	<u>d</u> isc <u>o</u> perating <u>s</u> ystem
SCSI (pronounced "skuzzy")	<u>s</u> mall <u>c</u> omputer <u>s</u> ystem <u>i</u> nterface
LAN (pronounced "lan")	<u>l</u> ocal <u>a</u> rea <u>n</u> etwork
GIF (pronounced "jiff")	graphics <u>i</u> nterchange <u>f</u> ormat

Acronyms formation is just one of the abbreviation, or shortening, processes that are increasingly common in American society (and perhaps internationally) as a means of word formation.

g) Blends – a word which is made up of the shortened forms of two other words, such as brunch (breakfast lunch), heliport (helicopter airport), smog (smoke fog), and Eurovision (European television). Scientific terms frequently make use of blending (as in the case of bionic), as do brand names (a device which cleaned your teeth while you used the phone might be called Teledent) and fashionable neologisms.

A lexical blend, as its name suggests, takes two lexemes which overlap in form, and welds them together to make one. Enough of each lexeme is usually

retained so that the elements are recognizable. Here are some longstanding examples, and a few novelties from recent publications.

Motor + hotel = motel

Advertisement + editorial = advertorial

Channel + Tunnel = Chunnel

Oxford + Cambridge = Oxbridge

Yale + Harvard = Yarvard

Slang + language = slanguage

Guess + estimate = guesstimate

Square + aerial = squaerial

Toys + cartoons = toytoons

Breath + analyser = breathalyzer

Affluence + influenza = affluenza

Information + commercials = informercials

Dock + condominium = dockominium

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

Blending seems to have increased in popularity in the 1980s, being increasingly used in commercial and advertising contexts. Products are sportsational, swimsational, and sexsational. TV provides dramacons, docufantasies, and rockumentaries. The forms are felt to be eye-catching and exciting; but how many of them will still be around in a decade remains an open question.[31, 138]

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

i) Abbreviations have always been a common type of pseudo-neologisms, probably more common in French and German than in English. Example: Uni, Philo, sympa, Huma, fac, fab, video; they are normalised (i.e. translated unabbreviated), unless there is a recognized equivalent (e.g. bus, metro, plus science-technical terms)., one of the most noticeable features of present-day English linguistic life, would form a major part of any super dictionary.

Often thought to be an exclusively modern habit, the fashion for abbreviations can be traced back over 150 years. In 1839, a writer in the *New York Evening Tatler* comments on what he calls ‘the initial language... a species of spoken shorthand, which is getting into very general use among loafers and gentlemen of the fancy, besides Editors, to whom it saves much trouble in writing...’. He was referring to OK (‘all correct’), PDQ (‘pretty damn quick’) - two which have lasted - GT (‘gone to Texas’), LL (‘liver loafers’), and many other forms introduced, often with a humorous or satirical intent, by society people. fashionable use of abbreviation - a kind of society slang - comes and goes in waves, though it is never totally absent. In the present century, however, it has been eclipsed by the emergence of abbreviations in science, technology, and other special fields, such as cricket, baseball, drug trafficking, the armed forces, and the media.

The reasons for using abbreviated forms are obvious enough. One is the desire for linguistic economy - the same motivation which makes us want to criticize someone who uses two words where one will do. Succinctness and precision are highly valued, and abbreviations can contribute greatly to a concise style.

They also help to convey a sense of social identity: to use an abbreviated form is to be ‘in the know’ - part of the social group to which the abbreviation belongs. Computer buffs the world over will be recognized by their fluent talk of ROM and RAM, of DOS and WYSIWYG. You are no buff if you are unable to use such forms, or need to look them up (respectively, ‘read-only memory’, ‘random-access memory’, ‘disk operating system’, ‘what you see is what you get’).

It would only irritate computer-literate colleagues and waste time or space (and thus money) if a computer-literate person pedantically expanded every abbreviated form.

And the same applies to those abbreviations which have entered everyday speech. It would be strange indeed to hear someone routinely expanding BBC, NATO, USA, AIDS, and all the other common abbreviations of contemporary English. Indeed, sometimes (as with radar and AIDS), the unabbreviated form may be so specialized that it is unknown to most people - a point not missed by the compilers of quiz games, who regularly catch people out with a well-known (sic) abbreviation.

As a test, try UNESCO and UNICEF, AAA, SAM and GI (context: military), or DDT and TNT (context: chemistry).are 6 types of abbreviation: initialisms, acronyms, clipping, blends, awkward cases, facetious forms.- items which are spoken as individual letters, such as BBC, DJ, MP, EEC, e.g., and USA; also called alphabetizes.

The vast majority of abbreviations fall into this category. Not all use only the first letters of the constituent words: PhD, for example, uses the first two letters of the word philosophy and GHQ and TV take a letter from the middle of the word.- initialisms which are pronounced as single words, such as NATO, laser, UNESCO, and SALT (talks).

Such items would never have periods separating the letters - a contrast with initialisms, where punctuation is often present (especially in older styles of English). However, some linguists do not recognize a sharp distinction between acronyms and initialisms, but use the former term for both.- a part of word which serves for the whole, such as ad and phone.

These examples illustrate the two chief types: the first part is kept (the commoner type, as in demo, exam, pub, Gill), and the last part is kept (as in bus, plane). Sometimes a middle part is kept, as in fridge and flue.

There are also several clippings which retain material from more than one part of the word, such as maths (UK), gents, and specs. Turps is a curiosity, in the

way it adds an -s. Several clipped forms also show adaptation, such as fries (from French fried potatoes), Betty (from Elizabeth) and Bill (from William).- a word which is made up of the shortened forms of two other words, such as brunch (breakfast+lunch), heliport (helicopter+airport), smog (smoke+fog), and Eurovision (European+television).

Scientific terms frequently make use of blending (as in the case of bionic), as do brand names (a device which cleaned your teeth while you used the phone might be called Teledent) and fashionable neologisms.lexical blend, as its name suggests, takes two lexemes which overlap in form, and welds them together to make one. Enough of each lexeme is usually retained so that the elements are recognizable. Here are some longstanding examples, and a few novelties from recent publications.+ hotel = motel+ editorial = advertorial+ Tunnel = Chunnel+ Cambridge = Oxbridge+ Harvard = Yarvard+ language = slanguage+ estimate = guesstimate+ aerial = squaerial+ cartoons = toytoons+ analyser = breathalyzer+ influenza = affluenza+ commercials = informercials+ condominium = dockominiummost cases, the second element is the one which controls the meaning of the whole.

So, brunch is a kind of lunch, not a kind of breakfast - which is why the lexemes are brunch and not say lunkfast. Similarly, a toytoon is a kind of cartoon (one which generates a series of shop toys), not a kind of toy.seems to have increased in popularity in the 1980s, being increasingly used in commercial and advertising contexts. Products are sportsational, swimsational, and sexsational. TV provides dramacons, docufantasies, and rockumentaries.

The forms are felt to be eye-catching and exciting; but how many of them will still be around in a decade remains an open question.cases - abbreviations which do not fall clearly into the above four categories.

Some forms can be used either as initialisms or acronyms (UFO - 'U F O' or 'you-foe'). Some mix these types in the one word (CDROM, pronounced 'see-dee-rom'). Some can form part of a larger word, using affixes (ex-JP, pro-BBC, ICBMs). Some are used only in writing (Mr, St- always pronounced in full in

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

Abbreviations have always been a common type of pseudo-neologism, probably more common in French than in English. For many speakers of American English, one time abbreviations such as CD (compact disc or certificate of deposit), ER (emergency room), and PC (personal computer or politically correct), respectively, in most style of speech; through this process new, previously nonexistent words have come into use. Characteristic of these alphabetic abbreviations (or initials) is that each of their letters is individually pronounced (they contrast with acronyms in this respect). [35, 352]

Computer-inspired alphabetic abbreviations now number in the thousands. Here are some well-known (and perhaps not so well known) examples:

<b>Abbreviations</b>	<b>Source</b>
www	<u>W</u> orld <u>W</u> ide <u>W</u> eb
IT	Information <u>T</u> echnology
HTML	<u>H</u> ypertext <u>M</u> arkup <u>L</u> anguage
OOP	<u>O</u> bject- <u>O</u> riented <u>P</u> rogramming
HDL	<u>H</u> ardware <u>D</u> escription <u>L</u> anguage
I/O	<u>I</u> nput/ <u>O</u> utput
IP	<u>I</u> nternet <u>P</u> rotocol
FTP	<u>F</u> ile <u>T</u> ransfer <u>P</u> rotocol/ <u>F</u> ile <u>T</u> ransfer <u>P</u> rogram

Clipped abbreviations such as prof for professor, fax for facsimile, and photo op for photographic are known in common use. There are also orthographic

abbreviations such as Dr. (doctor), Mr. (mister), Az (Arizona), and MB (megabyte), where the spelling of a word has been shortened but its pronunciation is not (necessarily) altered.

j) Newly transferred words keep only one sense of their foreign nationality; they are the words whose meanings are least dependent on their contexts. They are likely to refer to everyday, rather than technological, concepts or products, and given the power of the media, they may be common to several languages, whether they are cultural or have cultural overlaps, but have to be given a functional-descriptive equivalent for a less sophisticated TL readership. Newly imported foodstuffs, clothes ('Cagoule,' 'Adidas,' 'Sari'), cultural manifestations ('Kungfu') are translated like any other cultur-bound words, and are therefore usually transferred together with a generic term and the requisite specific detail depending on readership and setting.

## **2.2 Features of the translation of neologisms**

Neologisms tend to occur more often in cultures which are rapidly changing, and also in situations where there is easy and fast propagation of information. They are often created by combining existing words or by giving words new and unique suffixes or prefixes. Those which are portmanteaus are shortened. Neologisms can also be created through abbreviation or acronym, by intentionally rhyming with existing words, or simply through playing with sounds.

Neologisms often become popular by way of mass media, the Internet, or word of mouth. Every word in a language was, at some time, a neologism, though most of these ceased to be such through time and acceptance.

Neologisms often become accepted parts of the language. Other times, however, they disappear from common usage. Whether or not a neologism continues as part of the language depends on many factors, probably the most important of which is acceptance by the public. Acceptance by linguistic experts and incorporation into dictionaries also plays a part, as does whether the phenomenon described by a neologism remains current, thus continuing to need a

descriptor. It is unusual, however, for a word to enter common use if it does not resemble another word or words in an identifiable way. (In some cases however, strange new words succeed because the idea behind them is especially memorable or exciting). When a word or phrase is no longer "new," it is no longer a neologism. Neologisms may take decades to become "old," though. Opinions differ on exactly how old a word must be to no longer be considered a neologism; cultural acceptance probably plays a more important role than time in this regard. After being coined, neologisms invariably undergo scrutiny by the public and by linguists to determine their suitability to the language. Many are accepted very quickly; others attract opposition. Language experts sometimes object to a neologism on the grounds that a suitable term for the thing described already exists in the language. Non-experts who dislike the neologism sometimes also use this argument, deriding the neologism as "abuse and ignorance of the language." [33,162]

Some neologisms, especially those dealing with sensitive subjects, are often objected to on the grounds that they obscure the issue being discussed, and that such a word's novelty often leads a discussion away from the root issue and onto a sidetrack about the meaning of the neologism itself.

Proponents of a neologism see it as being useful, and also helping the language to grow and change; often they perceive these words as being a fun and creative way to play with a language. Also, the semantic precision of most neologisms, along with what is usually a straightforward syntax, often makes them easier to grasp by people who are not native speakers of the language.

The outcome of these debates, when they occur, has a great deal of influence on whether a neologism eventually becomes an accepted part of the language. Linguists may sometimes delay acceptance, for instance by refusing to include the neologism in dictionaries; this can sometimes cause a neologism to die out over time. Nevertheless if the public continues to use the term, it always eventually sheds its status as a neologism and enters the language even over the objections of language experts.

Till now doesn't exist an unique decision of the question. From what it can be fastening the understanding of neologism, which are the criteria's concerning this or that dictionary of neologism.

The resolving of understanding "neologism" by the different investigators becomes clear two points of view, concluding in that, that the term of "neologism" using in new style, as a creating on a new material of language in full corresponding with existing in language kinds of words or word combinations, meaning new, beforehand unknown, unexciting understanding, subject, branch of knowledge, profession and so on, f. e. reaction- ядерный реактор, biocide- биологическая война and so on, in such way as neologism, and exactly in new created synonyms already existing in a word language for the meaning of well known understanding almost semantic and stylistic colours of word, which are based on its general meanings, and already to words in new meaning: for example the word boffin (scientist) presented the synonyms of the word scientist, but it already has another semantic colour and so on. Almost marked some difference in contents of that lexical innovations by the cause of its result, of its stability in language, of its clearness of using, of its future destiny when few of them will fast enter into the language, anothers will be less stabile and can be thrown out of using after some short time.

"Also the presenting of new words connected with resulting of new associations, but the understanding is the same as the language in general, lexical appropriations doing their special actions as the method of connections, rebuilding, differences and clearing with what, that more correctly to show, present and fasten new comprehensions corresponding words and combinations."

The new-foundation, if it results in periphery, as it gets more fasten demands and unchangeable in word fond. New-foundations, as a rule, presented in the language of science, techniques, art, politic, and in the same time as a neologism in speaking language.

As for the time of criteria for seclusion of new-foundation and neologism exactly to decide it is impossible, it has a sense to use subjective criteria: if it receive the collective language consciousness this or that lexical unit as a new.

For the sequent we will name it with the term ‘neologism’, any word for their comfort have the statue of lexical new-foundation, as the quality of own neologism.

The basic complications during the translation of neologisms, it is the explaining of the meaning of the new word.

Particularly the translation of neologism, which meaning has already known to translator, the mission is more easy and it solves by the way of using means, being suspended for the type of the word which belongs to that neologism.

If the new word absents in English-Russian dictionary, as it is need to try to find it in English-English dictionary.

There are ‘New words Sections’ in many famous dictionaries. In that time recommends to use dictionaries of the last issue. Many neologisms we can find in dictionaries and sections about slangs. It must remind, that more operative prepared and published dictionaries in little and middle thickness, but they can’t satisfy the demands of professionals.

However, the dictionaries in objective causes can’t wholly show in their all new-founded words, as for that lexis avoid to include in dictionaries such called ‘occasional’ neologisms, individual new-founded, brought by the individual authors, such words also turns ‘unlivable words’ and disappear as fast as they appear. Coming out from the term ‘neologism’ we can assume, that the translator first meet with his own neologism, naturally he has no imagination, about that which is explained by him.

In general understanding of the context differences to micro context and macro context: under the micro context means the context of the sentence, as linguistic unit, without going out from the circle of the sentence; macro context it is compactness of linguistic unit, surrounding that unit out of the sentence, saying another word-in mixing with them sentences. [22, 44]

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

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

Micro context we can separate into syntactic and lexical. Syntactic context it is the syntactic construction in which used this word, combinations or sentence. Lexical context it is completeness of clear lexical units, words and stable word combinations, as surrounding them we meet this unit.

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

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

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

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

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

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

closing bank- "bank which has already closed" and so on.

Now recultivated a row of criteria's for limiting complicated words and word combinations. During the translation of neologisms in English an unique attention has autographical criteria, it's sense is in to review any complex, written

together or by dash, as the complicated words and complexes, which components written lone, like combinations.

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

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

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

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

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

However we must mark that it is not a rule:

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

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

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

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

- Scientific — words or phrases created to describe new scientific discoveries or inventions. Examples:

- black hole. (1968) A black hole is a concentration of mass great enough that the force of gravity prevents anything from escaping from it except through quantum tunneling behavior.

- laser. (1960) A LASER (Light Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiation) is an optical source that emits photons in a coherent beam.

- prion. Prions — short for proteinaceous infectious particle — are infectious self-reproducing protein structures.

- quark. (1960) Quarks are one of the two basic constituents of matter in the Standard Model of particle physics.

- radar . (1941) It is a system used to detect, range (determine the distance of), and map objects such as aircraft and rain.

- beetle bank. (early 1990s) In agriculture, a beetle bank is a strip of grass or perennials in a field that provide habitat which fosters and provides cover for insects hostile to pests. They are used as a form of biological pest control to reduce or replace the use of insecticides.

- Science fiction concepts created to describe new, futuristic ideas.

Examples:

- Ringworld (1971) *Ringworld* is a Hugo and Nebula award-winning 1970 science fiction novel by Larry Niven, set in his Known Space universe. The work is widely considered one of the classics of science fiction literature. It is followed by three sequels, and it ties in to numerous other books in the Known Space universe.

- Dyson Sphere (circa 1960) A Dyson sphere is a hypothetical mega structure first described in 1960 by the physicist Freeman Dyson in a short paper published in the journal *Science* entitled "Search for Artificial Stellar Sources of Infra-Red Radiation".

- Political — words or phrases created to make some kind of political or rhetorical point, sometimes perhaps with an eye to the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis.

Example:

- *political correctness* (1990). Political correctness (also politically correct, P.C. or PC) is a term used in English-speaking countries to describe real or perceived attempts to impose limits on the acceptable language and terms used in public discussion. While it usually refers to a linguistic phenomenon, it is sometimes extended to cover political ideology or public behavior.

- *sie and hir* (neologisms). *Sie* and *hir* are two terms proposed to serve as gender-neutral third person singular personal pronouns in English . These neologisms are used by some people who feel that there are problems with gender-specific pronouns because they imply sex and/or gender. However, *sie* and *hir* are very rare compared to other solutions and most commentators feel that it is unlikely that they will catch on.

- *homophobia* (1969). The term "homophobia" is a portmanteau derived from the words homosexual and phobia. In current usage it is employed to refer to the aversion to, or disapproval of physical intimacy and sexual expression between individuals of the same sex and those who engage in such activities. This aversion may range from mild to intense.

- *meritocracy* (1958) As the suffix "-cracy" implies, meritocracy is strictly speaking a system of government based on rule by ability (merit) rather than by wealth or social position. In this context, "merit" means roughly intelligence plus effort. However, the word "meritocracy" is now often used to describe a type of society where wealth, income, and social status are assigned through competition, on the assumption that the winners do indeed deserve (merit) their resulting advantage. As a result, the word has acquired a connotation of Social Darwinism, and is used to describe aggressively competitive societies, with large inequality of income and wealth, contrasted with egalitarian societies.

- *dog-whistle politics* (1990). Dog-whistle politics is a term used to describe a type of political campaigning which is "only heard" by a specific intended audience. It is usually used pejoratively by those that do not approve of the tactics.

- *genocide*. Genocide is the systematic killing of substantial numbers of people on the basis of ethnicity, religion, political opinion, social status or other particularity. The most widely known example is the Holocaust (the genocide of various groups, especially Jews, during World War II by Nazi Germany and its collaborators). Lesser known in the West are Stalin's forced starvation of Ukrainian farmers, or Mao's murder of 20 to 60 million Chinese

- Some political neologisms, however, are intended to convey a negative point of view. Example: *brutalitarian*

- Pop-culture — words or phrases evolved from mass media content or used to describe popular culture phenomena (these may be considered a subsection of slang). Examples:

- *jumping the shark*. Jumping the shark is a metaphor used by US television critics and fans since the 1990s. The phrase, popularized by Jon Hein on his website, *jumptheshark.com*, is used to describe the moment when a pop culture icon, originally a TV show or similar episodic medium, is in retrospect judged to have passed its "peak" and shows a noticeable decline in quality, or when it has undergone too many changes that take away the original charm and interest.

- *Chuck Cunningham syndrome*. Chuck Cunningham syndrome is a term that refers to a television series in which a main character or a character otherwise important to the show's plot is removed without explanation. The term comes from the character Chuck Cunningham in the American television series, *Happy Days*.

- *Baldwin* (a good-looking man, such as one of the Baldwin family of actors)

- *Scooby Gang* (a group which humorously resembles the teens on the cartoon *Scooby-Doo*)

- *sex-it-up* a recently used phrase describing the memo that was said to be the cause of the Iraq invasion.

- Imported — words or phrases originating in another language. Typically they are used to express ideas that have no equivalent term in the native language. Examples:

- *zen* - is the Japanese name of a well known branch of Buddhist schools, practiced originally in China and subsequently in Korea, Japan, and Vietnam. Zen emphasizes the role of sitting meditation (*zazen*) in pursuing enlightenment. Zen can be considered a religion, a philosophy, or simply a practice depending on one's perspective. It has also been described as a way of life, work, and an art form. *Zen* is the common name for this branch of Buddhism in Japanese as well as in English. However, in the last half of the 20th century, Zen has become an international phenomenon, with centers in many countries around the world.

- *áo dài* - the áo dài (pronounced 'ao yai' in the South; pronounced 'ao zai' in the North) is a traditional Vietnamese dress worn by women. It is the uniform for female students in Vietnamese secondary schools and universities. The áo dài is and has been more prevalent in southern Vietnam than in northern Vietnam.

- *Tet* more commonly known as is the most important holiday in Vietnam. It is the Vietnamese New Year which is based on the Chinese calendar, a lunisolar calendar.

- *anime* is Japanese animation, sometimes referred to by the portmanteau *Japanimation*. It is often characterized by stylized colorful images depicting vibrant characters in a variety of different settings and storylines, aimed at a wide range of audiences. Anime is usually influenced by Japanese comics known as *manga*.

- *détente* is French for relaxation. It was also the general reduction in the tension between the Soviet Union and the United States and a weakening of the Cold War, occurring from the late 1960s until the start of the 1980s. More generally, it may be applied to any international situation where previously hostile nations not involved in an open war "warm up" to each other and threats de-escalate.

- *manga*. is the Japanese word for comics and/or cartoons (not necessarily animated, this includes print cartoons); outside of Japan, it usually refers

specifically to Japanese comics. Manga developed from a mixture of ukiyo-e and Western styles of drawing, and took its current form shortly after World War II.

- Trademarks are often neologisms to ensure they are distinguished from other brands. If legal trademark protection is lost, the neologism may enter the language as a genericized trademark. Example: *Laundromat*. A laundromat (U.S.), launderette (British), Washette (Southeastern U.S.) or washateria (Southwestern U.S.) is a store where clothes are washed and dried. This is often done by coin operated machines that are worked by the client. Laundromats may have a staff to wash the clothing; this is referred to as Fluff-n-Fold or drop-off service. Laundries are equipped with both washing machines and dryers, usually specialized ones designed to survive heavy use.

- Nonce words — words coined and used only for a particular occasion, usually for a special literary effect.

- Inverted — words that are derived from spelling (and pronouncing) a standard word backwards. Example: *redrum*

- Paleologism - a word that is alleged to be a neologism but turns out to be a long-used (if obscure) word. Used ironically.

Versions of neologisms

- Unstable - Extremely new, being proposed, or being used only by a very small subculture.

- Diffused - Having reached a significant audience, but not yet having gained acceptance.

- Stable - Having gained recognizable and probably lasting acceptance.

Neologisms in 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; for instance, McJob is slang for a low-pay, low-prestige job that requires few skills and offers very little chance of intracompany advancement. The term comes from the fast-food restaurant McDonald's, but applies to any low-status job where little training is required and workers' activities are tightly

regulated by managers. Most perceived McJobs are in the service industry, particularly fast food, copy shops, and retail sales.) from Douglas Coupland's *Generation X: Tales for an Accelerated Culture* and cyberspace from William Gibson's *Neuromancer*. Sometimes the title of the book will become the neologism. For instance, *Catch-22* (from the title of Joseph Heller's novel) and *Generation X* (from the title of Coupland's novel) have become part of the vocabulary of many English-speakers. Also worthy of note is the case in which the author's name becomes 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 Ballardian (from J.G. Ballard, author of *Crash*). Kurt Vonnegut's *Cat's Cradle* was the container of the Bokkonism family of Nonce words.

Lewis Carroll's poem "Jabberwocky" has been called "the king of neologistic poems" as it incorporated some dozens of invented words. The early modern English prose writings of Sir Thomas Browne 1605-1682 are the source of many neologisms as recorded by the OED

In *psychology*, a neologism is a word invented by a person suffering from a language disorder, which may occur in the context of psychosis or aphasia acquired after brain damage ; clinicians can sometimes use these neologisms, which often have meaning only to the subject, as clues to determine the nature of the disorder.

In *theology*, a neologism is a relatively new doctrine (for example, rationalism, also known as the rationalist movement, is a philosophical doctrine that asserts that the truth can best be discovered by reason and factual analysis, rather than faith, dogma or religious teaching.). In this sense, a neologist is an innovator in the area of a doctrine or belief system, and is often considered heretical or subversive by the mainstream church.

The studying of linguistic vocabulary in a functional aspect foresees the analysis of methods of coinage neologisms, which enables to pass to the pragmatic aspect of new words. Taking into account the method of appearance neologisms

are subdivided into: 1) phonological, 2) borrowing, 3) semantic, 4) syntactic, coined by combination of signs already existing in a language (word building, combination of words). It will be expedient to divide the last type of neologisms into morphological (word building) and phraseological (combination of words).

Phonological neologisms are formed from separate sounds and are unique by their configuration. Such words are sometimes called "artificial" or "invented". The new configurations of sounds are from time to time connected with the morphemes of Greek or Latin origin, example: *adhocracy* (a flexible organizational system designed to be responsive to the needs of the moment), *acryl*, *perlon* (synthetic materials). Words coined from exclamations also belong to the group of phonological neologisms such as: *to zap* (to make more powerful, exciting; to revitalize) formed from a similar word "zap" which was used in comics for the transmission of the sound of space weapon (in a graphic form). It is possible here to deliver the words formed by the change of writing for passing their pronunciation, for example: *wannabe* (a person who wants to be someone else) coined from "want to be", *wheneye* (a person who exasperates listeners by continually recounting tales of his experiences and exploits) arose up due to an introductory phrase "when I..." Such type of neologisms can be delivered to "strong neologisms", in fact they have the high degree of connotation of newness, that increase by an unusual thing and freshness of their form.

It is possible to concern borrowings which are characterized by untypical for the English language by the distribution, by the morphological division and absence of motivation to strong neologisms. And although on this stage borrowings are on periphery of lexical system, they are still an integral part of innovations. For the last decade growth of borrowings from Japanese and Spanish has taking place. The main centers of attraction for new borrowings are: 1) art and culture: *cinemateque* (from French), *karaoke* (from Japanese); 2) social and political life: *Ossi*, *Wessi* (from German) – denotation of citizen of the East and West Germany; *fatwa* (from Arabic) – a legal decision or ruling given by Islamic religious leader; *karoshi* (from Japanese) – death caused by overwork or job-

*related exhaustion*; 3) everyday life: *taqueria* (from Spanish) – *a restaurant specializing in Mexican food, particularly tacos*; *otaku* (from Japanese) – *people who are obsessed with the trivia of a particular hobby*; *geek* (from Danish) – *unfashionable, boring or socially inept person*; *basuco* (from Colombian) – *a cheap impure form of cocaine*; *bimbo* (from Italian) – *an attractive but unintelligent young woman*; 4) scientific and technical borrowings: *biogeocenose* (from Russian) – *ecological system*. Barbarisms differ by the greatest degree of newness which are not assimilated units of a new vocabulary, for example: *jihad* (from Arabic) – *a struggle*. Xanizms are close to the barbarisms (they are adopted units which represent the specific of the country – the source of borrowing): *za-zen* (from Japanese) – *a type of mediation in Zen Buddhism*.

The difference between barbarisms and xanizms that the first ones have synonyms in language-recipient, and the second ones mean the phenomena, objects and concepts, that exist only in a language-source and are strange for other countries.

Substantial diminishment of amount of the traced words is noticeable: *traffic calming* (from German *Verkehrsberuhigung*) – *the deliberate slowing of traffic, esp. along residential streets, by construction of road humps or other obstacles to progress*.

The result of borrowings is not only the addition to lexical composition of the language, the stylish colouring of lexical units changes in the process of borrowing and their inner structure homonymical relations are formed, that promotes, the variation of lexical units and partly predetermines it.

Less neological are morphological neologisms, which appear after standards which exist in the linguistic system from morphemes present in a language. The question is in word building and such regular word building processes as affixation, conversion, word composition, shortening, etc. The main sign that distinguished morphological neologisms from phonological and from borrowings is the presence of analogy and typology in the basis of their creation. [9.22]

As to semantic neologisms, the unique problem at their studying is the establishment of criteria after which it is possible to distinguish a separate independent word or a new meaning of already existing word, which are the results of semantic changes.

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

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

	reasons? 17. Milien 18. Status and currency of neologism in SL 19. Is neolog in competition with others?	
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Neologisms are very common in newspaper vocabulary. The newspaper is very quick to react to any new development in the life of society, in science and technology. Hence, neologisms make their way into the language of the newspaper very easily and often even spring up on newspaper pages, e.g. lunik, a splash-down (the act of bringing a spacecraft to a water surface), a teach-in (a form of campaigning through heated political discussion), backlash or white backlash (a violent reaction of American racists to the Negroes' struggle for civil rights), front lash (a vigorous antiracist movement), stop-go policies (contradictory, indecisive and inefficient policies). Above-listed peculiarities of brief news items are the basic vocabulary parameters of English newspaper style. Vocabulary of brief news items is for the most part devoid of emotional colouring. Some papers, however, especially those classed among "mass" or "popular" papers, tend to introduce emotionally coloured lexical units into essentially matter-of-fact news stories, e.g.

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

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

"Defence Secretary Roy Mason yesterday gave a rather frosty reception in the Commons to the latest proposal for a common defence policy for all EEC countries." (Morning Star) as vocabulary is, it is not so much the words and phrases used in brief news items that distinguish them from other forms of newspaper writing. The vocabulary groups listed above are also commonly found in headlines and newspaper articles. The basic peculiarities of news items lie in their syntactical

structure. the reporter is obliged to be brief, he naturally tries to cram all his facts into the space allotted. This tendency predetermines the peculiar composition of brief news items and the syntactical structure ^,of the sentences. The size of brief news items varies from one sentence to several (short) paragraphs. And generally, the shorter the news item, \ the more complex its syntactical structure. following grammatical peculiarities of brief news items are of paramount importance, and may be regarded as their grammatical parameters.) Complex sentences with a developed system of clauses, e. g.

"Mr. Boyd-Carpenter, Chief Secretary to the Treasury and Paymaster-General (Kingston-upon-Thames), said he had been asked what was meant by the statement in the Speech that the position of war pensioners and those receiving national insurance benefits would be kept under close review." (The Times)

"There are indications that BO AC may withdraw - threats of all-out dismissals for pilots who restrict flying hours, a spokesman for the British Airline Pilots' association said yesterday," (Morning Star)) Verbal constructions (infinitive, participial, gerundial) and verbal noun constructions, e.g.

"Mr. Nobusuke Kishi, the former Prime Minister of Japan, has sought to set an example to the faction-ridden Governing Liberal Democratic Party by announcing the disbanding of his own faction numbering 47 of the total of 295 conservative members of the Lower House of the Diet." (The Times)) Syntactical complexes, especially the nominative with the infinitive. These constructions are largely used to avoid mentioning the source of information or to shun responsibility for the facts reported, e. g.

"The condition of Lord Samuel, aged 92, was said last night to be a 'little better.'" (The Guardian)

"A petrol bomb is believed to have been exploded against the grave of Cecil Rhodes in the Matopos." (The Times)) Attributive noun groups are another powerful means of effecting brevity in news items, e.g. 'heart swap patient' (Morning Star), 'the national income and expenditure figures' (The Times), 'Labour backbench decision' (Morning Star), 'Mr. Wilson's HMS fearless package deal'

(Morning Star).) Specific word-order. Newspaper tradition, coupled with the rigid rules of sentence structure in English, has greatly affected the word-order of brief news items. The word-order in one-sentence news paragraphs and in what are called "leads" (the initial sentences in longer news items) is more or less fixed. Journalistic practice has developed what is called the "five-w-and-h-pattern rule" (who-what-why-how-where-when) and for a long time strictly adhered to it. In terms of grammar this fixed sentence structure may be expressed in the following manner: Subject-Predicate (+Object)-Adverbial modifier of reason (manner)-Adverbial modifier. of place-4Adverbial modifier of time, e.g.

"A neighbor's peep through a letter box led to the finding of a woman dead from gas and two others semiconscious in a block of council flats in Eccles New Road, Salford, Lanes, Yesterday." (The Guardian) has been repeatedly claimed by the authors of manuals of journalistic writing that the "five-w-and-h" structure was the only right pattern of sentence structure to use in news reports. Facts, however, disprove this contention. Statistics show that there are approximately as many cases in which the traditional word-order is violated as those in which it is observed. It is now obvious that the newspaper has developed new sentence patterns not typical of other styles. This observation refers, firstly, to the position of the adverbial-modifier of definite time. Compare another pattern typical of brief news sentence structure:

"Derek Heath, 43, yesterday left Falmouth for the third time in his attempt to cross the Atlantic in a 12ft dinghy." (Morning Star)

"Brighton council yesterday approved a J 22,500 scheme to have parking meters operating in the centre of the town by March." (The Times) and some other unconventional sentence patterns have become a common practice with brief news writers. are some other, though less marked, tendencies in news item writing of modifying well-established grammatical norms. Mention should be made of occasional disregard for the sequence of tenses rule, e.g. "The committee -which was investigating the working of the 1969 Children and Young Persons Act - said that some school children in remand centres are getting only two hours lessons a

day." (Morning Star) is ordinarily looked upon as a violation of grammar rules in any other kind of writing appears to be a functional peculiarity of newspaper style.

## Conclusion

In our work, we tried to give a full presentation of all aspects of such a linguistic event as neology in connection with word building means. We performed a complete analysis of neologisms according to the word building type, sphere of usage, to the source and time of appearance, ability to create new forms, new notion appearance.

As a literary concept and term, neologism appeared in the 18<sup>th</sup> century and its old meaning was synonymous to «barbarism». In the modern meaning of neologism appeared early in the 19<sup>th</sup> century and, gained the acceptance towards the end of the century. Nowadays around 4000 words enter English vocabulary every year which reflects the fast development of the language and makes the phenomena interesting to analyze.

We also tackled a problem of the cultural acceptance. There is no criterion for judging how long the neologism takes to be accepted by the public. If it does, it is not the point though, because the reason why it becomes recognized is of more importance.

The classification of word building means also presented in our investigation, based on the structural principle (one or two motivating bases) in the first place. The words which have one motivating base are usually formed by derivation with the help of affixes and zero-derivation (conversion), which is the process of turning a word in a different part of speech and with a different distribution characteristic but without adding any derivational element (n. *silence* – v. *to silence*). The second type of word building means employs two motivating bases (compounding), which is a convenient and laconic way to express some ideas, comprised in one word. Minor types of word building include shortening, acronymy, blending.

Shortening that consists in the reduction of a word to one of its parts, as a result the new form acquires some linguistic value of its own, blends that combine two words and include the letters or sounds they have in common as a connecting element. Acronymy is the process of creating new words when only

initial letters are taken. These above mentioned means are frequently used in the sphere of technology and politics as well as everyday language (*girlfriend – g.f.*), the reason is ever-growing life rhythm, when maximum information should be transferred in a minimum time, the described types are the most suitable in this case, which also explains their high productivity. The semantic word building, which is any semantic change in the word meaning, it deals with sense development, and can be also treated as one of the sources of neologisms.

Recent investigations seem to prove that productivity of derivational means is relative in many prospects, and as a conclusion we can say that there are no absolutely productive means. Conversion is popular due to its simplicity and convenience; one doesn't have to add any affixes to create a new word.

In our work we also dealt with problems concerning the sources of new words as neologisms emerge every day and so fast that dictionaries can not keep up with. While the dictionaries wait for years for the words to be fit to be published, the World Wide Web is acting more efficiently to bring these words to life. We took these words to determine the major trends in the growing vocabulary; the words were analyzed according to

- The source and time of appearance,
- To the word building type,
- To the sphere of usage,
- To the ability to create new words,
- To the new notion appearance.

Most neologisms in our work were formed whether by word composition or sense development to invent anything new, just combining two words together or implying a new meaning to an old word. Minor word building types (blending, acronimization) are less employed. That happens due to the flash-like rhythm of modern life.

While analyzing spheres of usage, we came to such a conclusion, that the most, as we can say, renewable branch is that of *sociology*, as it is the most developing sphere of the human life at this point.

This work is dedicated to the peculiarities of the translation of neologisms. The work was done according to the intensive developing branch of communicative theory of language - linguistic pragmatics based on material of neologisms. Words and expressions or neologisms are created for new things irrespective of their scale of importance.

In this work we can see the lexical creation of neologisms, during the English Renaissance and all types of neologisms according to their structure. The examples of some neologisms in different languages like German and French show us the appearance and disappearance of neologisms in language.

Neologisms may be all-important and concern some social relationships, such as a new form of state e.g. People's Republic, or something threatening the very existence of humanity, like 'nuclear war'. Or again they may be quite insignificant and short-lived, like fashions in dancing, clothing, hair-do or footwear.

In every case either the old words are appropriately changed in meaning or new words are borrowed, or more often coined out of the existing material according to the patterns and ways productive in the language at a given stage of its development. The statements made above defined the actuality which is carried out in the field of communicative linguistics. Its main aim is to describe neologisms by their structure, to give examples, to show the creation of neologisms with the help of word-building techniques. To the stated aim, the tasks of the object of the study are as follows:

- . The division of neologisms according to their structure;
- . The appearance of neologisms during the English Renaissance and their lexical creation;
- . The types of neologisms and their translation;;
- . Neologisms from the point of view of semantic and phonetic factors;
- . Sociolinguistic aspects of mathematical education based on neologisms;

Neologisms often become popular by way of mass media, the Internet, or word of mouth. Every word in a language was, at some time, a neologism, though most of these ceased to be such through time and acceptance.

Neologisms often become accepted parts of the language. Other times, however, they disappear from common usage. Whether or not a neologism continues as part of the language depends on many factors, probably the most important of which is acceptance by the public.

Some neologisms, especially those dealing with sensitive subjects, are often objected to on the grounds that they obscure the issue being discussed, and that such a word's novelty often leads a discussion away from the root issue and onto a sidetrack about the meaning of the neologism itself.

Proponents of a neologism see it as being useful, and also helping the language to grow and change; often they perceive these words as being a fun and creative way to play with a language. Also, the semantic precision of most neologisms, along with what is usually a straightforward syntax, often makes them easier to grasp by people who are not native speakers of the language

Computerizing made substantial alterations in the word building system, generated the whole row of new productive derivative elements entailed moving of whole row of prefixes and suffixes (together with moving of whole layers of vocabulary) from periphery of the system, where they served only ("languages for the special aims") to the kernel, to national language, wearing away the same border between a kernel and periphery of language.

A new vocabulary and phraseology which arose up in connection with informative revolution pierces now almost all spheres of social life, it removes both the numerous blessings and benefits and new social problems, negative consequences of modern stage of scientific and technical progress.

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