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ENGLISH VOCABULARY AS A SYSTEM

5120100 - Philology and teaching languages (the English language) for granting bachelor`s degree

QUALIFICATION PAPER

C O N T E N T S

Introduction

The present qualification paper deals with a through and detailed study of structural- semantic and etymological characteristics of neologisms. Their translation into Uzbek languages, which presents a certain interest both for the theoretical investigation and for the practical language use.

The <u>actuality</u> of the investigation is explained on one hand by the profound analyses of neologisms, and the function of neologisms in the literary text and in speech. There is widely analyzed from the semantic, structural and translational points of view.

The <u>novelty</u> of the amplification paper is defined by concrete results of the investigation. Special emphasis is laid on various types of rendering the structure, the semantic features the translation of neologisms from English into Russian.

The <u>aim</u> of this Qualification Paper is to define the specific features of neologisms in the literary text and in speech and their rendering into Russian.

According to this general aim the following particular <u>tasks</u> are put forward:

1. To define different classification of the English vocabulary, historisms, archaisms and neologisms.

2. To study the definition of neologisms in English.

3. To study the etymological characteristics of neologisms. To reveal specific structural properties of neologisms.

The <u>methods of investigation</u> used in this qualification paper are as follows, structural, semantic, etymological and translation.

The <u>Practical value</u> of the research is that the material and results of the given qualification paper can serve as the material for the theoretical courses and practical courses of lexicology, translation as well as can be used for the practical lessons in translation, conversational practice and current events:

The <u>material</u> includes:

1 .Monographs, articles and dissertation

2. Different types of dictionaries

3. Books of English and American writer.

The theoretical importance of the qualification paper is determined by the necessity of detailed and comprehensive of the neologisms which form a big layer of vocabulary.

The structure of the given qualification. The present qualification paper consists of an introduction I-II chapters and a conclusion which are followed by the list of literature used in the course of the research.

Introduction tells about the aim of the research, methods used in the course of it, explains its actuality, novelty practical value.

2.0. Chapter I. English Vocabulary as a system.
2.1. Different types of non-semantic grouping

For different purposes of study different types of grouping may prove effective -synchronic or diachronic, semantic or formal, depending on possible distribution or taking words as isolated units. There is no optimum short cut equally good for all purposes. It is therefore of paramount importance to work out a comprehensive review of all the types so far suggested and an estimate of their possibilities. If we succeed in establishing their interrelation, that will help us in obtaining an idea of the lexical system in general. We must be on our guard, however, against taking the list of possible oppositions in this chapter for a classification. In an adequate classification the definition of various classes must be based on the same kind of criteria. In this chapter we shall constantly slide the basis of our definition from one level to another. That means we shall obtain data for various approaches to the system, not the system itself.

The simplest, most obvious non-semantic grouping, extensively used in all branches of applied linguistics is the alphabetical organization of written words, as represented in most dictionaries. It is of great practical value as the simplest and the most universal way of facilitating the search for the necessary word. Even a dictionaries arranged on some other principles (in Roget's Thesaurus, for example) we have an alphabetical index for the reader to refer to before searching the various categories. The theoretical value of alphabetical grouping is almost null, because no other property of the word can be predicted from the letter or letters the word begins with. We cannot infer anything about the word if the only thing we know is that it begins with a p. Only in exceptional cases some additional information can be obtained on a different, viz.

The etymological, level. For instance, words beginning with w are mostly native, and those beginning with ph borrowed from Greek. But such cases are few and far between. The rhyming i.e. inverse, dictionary presents a similar non-semantic grouping of isolated written words, differing from the first in that the

sound is also taken into consideration and in that the grouping is done the other way round and the words are arranged according to the similarity of their ends.

The practical value of this type is much more limited. These dictionaries are intended for poets. They may be also used, if but rarely, by teachers, when making up lists of words with similar suffixes.

A third type of non-semantic grouping of written words is based on their, length, i.e. the number of letters they contain. This type, worked out with some additional details, may prove useful for communication engineering, for automatic reading of messages and correction of mistakes. It may prove useful for linguistic theory as well, although chiefly in its modified form, with length measured not in the number of letters but in the number of syllables. Important statistical correlations have been found to exist between the number of syllables, the frequency, the number of meanings and the stylistical characteristics a word possesses. The shorter words occurs *more* frequently and accumulate a greater number of meanings.

Finally, a very important type of non-semantic grouping for isolated lexical units is based on a statistical analysis of their frequency. Frequency counts carried out for practical purposes of lexicography, language teaching and, shorthand enable the lexicographer to attach to each word a number showing its importance and range of occurrence. Large figures are, of course, needed to bring out any inherent regularities, and these regularities are, naturally, statistical, not rigid.' But even with these limitations the figures are fairly reliable and show important correlations between quantitative and qualitative characteristics of lexical units, the most frequent words being polysemantic and stylistically neutral.

2.2. Morphological grouping

On a higher, i.e. on the morphological level words are divided into four groups according to their morphological structure, namely the number and type of morphemes, which compose them. They are:

1. Root or morpheme words. Their stem contains one free morpheme, e.g. dog; *hand.*

2. Derivatives contain no less than two morphemes of which at least one is bound: *dogged, doggedly, handy, handful;* sometimes both are bound: terrier.

3. Compound words consist of not less than two free morphemes, the presence of bound morphemes is possible but not necessary: dog-cheap '-very cheap', dog-days '-hottest part of the year', *handball, handbook.*

4. Compound derivatives consist of not less than two free morphemes and one bound morpheme referring to the whole combination. The pattern is (stem + stem) + suffix *--dog-legged* 'crooked or bent like a dog's hind leg; left-handed.

This division is the basic one for lexicology.

Another type traditional lexicological grouping is known as word - families. The number of groups is certainly much greater, being equal to the number of root morphemes if all the words are grouped according to the root morpheme.'

For example: *dog, doggish,* dogless, *doglike, doggy doggie, to* dog, *dogged, doggedly, doggedness, dog-wolf, dog-days, dog-biscuit, dog-cart. Hand, handy, handicraft, handbag, handball, handful, handmade, handsome, handy.*

Similar groupings according to a common suffix or prefix are also possible, if not as often made use of. The greater the combining power of the affix, the *moгe* numerous the group. Groups with such suffixes as *-ish, -less, -ness constitute* infinite (open) sets, i.e. are almost unlimited because new combinations are constantly created. When the suffix is no longer productive the group may have a diminishing number of elements, as with the aadjective-forming suffix-some; gradsome, gruesome, handsome,! ithesome, lonesome, tiresome, trouble-some, wearisome, wholesome, winsome, etc.

The next step is classifying words not in isolation but taking them within actual utterances. Here the first contrast to consider is the contrast between notional words and form or functional words. Actually the definition of the word as a minimum free form holds good for notional words only. It is only notional words that can stand-alone and yet have meaning and form a complete utterance.

They can name different objects of reality, the qualities of these objects and actions or the process in which they take part. In sentences they function syntactically as some primary or secondary members. Even extended sentences are possible which consist of notional words only. They can also express the attitude of the speaker _-towards reality.

Form words, also called functional words, empty words or auxiliaries (the latter term is coined by H. Sweet), are lexical units which are called words, although they do not conform to the definition of the word because they are used only in combination with notional words or in reference to them. This group comprises auxiliary verbs, prepositions, conjunctions and relative adverbs. Primarily they express grammatical relationships between words. This does not, however, imply that they have no lexical meaning of their own. What other opposition, indeed, if not a lexical one, exists between the prepositions: *across, from, into, round, out of, through, to* ?

B. N. Aksenenko very aptly proves the presence of a lexical meaning by suggesting a substitution test with *They went to the village as* a test frame. By substituting the above six prepositions for *to,* one readily sees the semantic difference between them.

The borderline between notional and functional words is not always very clear and does not correspond to that between various parts of speech. Thus, most verbs are notional words, but the auxiliary verbs are classified as form words. It is open to discussion whether link verbs should be treated as form words or not. The situation is very complicated if we consider pronouns. Personal, demonstrative and interrogative pronouns, as their syntactical functions testify, are notional words; reflexive pronouns seem *to* be form words building up such analytical verb forms as warmed *myself,* but this is open to discussion. As to prop-words *(one, those,* etc.), some authors think that they should not be considered as a separate, third group.

It is typical of the English language that the boundary between notional and

functional words sometimes lies within the semantic structure of one and the same word, so that in some contexts they appear as notional words and in other contexts as form words. Compare the functions and meanings of the verb *have* as used in the following extract from a novel by *A*. Huxley:

Those that have not complain about their own fate. Those that have do not, it is only those in contact with them- and since the haves are these too are few-who complain of the curse of having. In my time 1 have belonged to both categories. Once I had; and 1 can see that to my fellowmen 1 must then have been intolerable... now I have not. The curse of insolence and avarice has been removed from me.(HUXLEY)

The systematic use of form words is one of the main devices of English grammatical structure, surpassed in importance only by fixed word order. Form words are therefore studied in grammar rather than in lexicology, which concentrates its attention upon notional words.

Those linguists who divide all the words into three classes (notional words, form words, deictic and substitute words or prop-words) consider the latter as pointing words *(this, that, they, there, then, thus, he, here, how, who, what, where, whither, nobody, never, not).* Deictic words are orientation words, relative to the time and place of utterance. They ultimately stand for objects of reality, if only at second hand.

Very interesting treatment of form words is given by Charles Fries.

The classes suggested by Fries are based on distribution, in other words, they are syntactic positional classes. Fries establishes them with the view of having the minimum number of different groups needed for a general description of utterances. His classification is based on the assumption that all the words that could occupy the same "set of positions" in the patterns of English single free utterances without a change of the structural meaning, must belong to the same class. Very roughly and approximately his classification may be described as follows.

The bulk of words in the utterances he investigated is constituted by four main classes. He gives them no names except numbers. Class 1: *water, time, heating, thing, green* (of a particular shade), *(the) sixth, summer, history,* etc.; Class II: *felt(arranged, sees, forgot, guess, know, help, forward* 'send on'; Class III: *genera/ eighth,good,better,outstanding, wide, young;* Class IV: *there, here, now, usually, definitely, first,, twice. .* If each word is counted only once in the recorded material and repeated instances of the same *word* ignored, the percentage of the total vocabulary in these four classes is over 93%. The remaining 7% are constituted by 154 form words. These, though few in number, occur very frequently so that if each word is counted every time it occurs, then the form words make up about one third of the total vocabulary bulk within texts.

Every reader is at once tempted to equate these class numbers with the usual names 'nouns', 'verbs', 'adjectives' and 'adverbs'. The two sets of names, however, do not strictly coincide in either what is included or what is excluded. Neither morphological form nor meanings are taken into consideration. Unfortunately Fries does not give satisfactory definitions and offers only the procedure of substitution by which words can, be tested and identified in his minimum test frames:

Class I	Class II	Class III	Class IV
Frame A (The) concert was	good	(always)	
Frame B (The) clerk	remembered	(the) tax	(suddenly)
Frame C (The) team	went		there

Fries starts with the minimum free utterance *the concert was* good and sets out to find in his material all the words that could be substituted for the word *concert* with no change in structural meaning. The words of this list he calls Class I words. Class I words also fit into other positions in other test frames: the clerk remembered *the* tax, *the* team went *there.* The same test frames are used to *find* Class II words but the substitution is made in another "position". To be accepted as belonging to Class III, a word has to be one that could fit both in the position after Class 11 words and also between *the* and, a Class 1 word.

Although there is considerable overlapping in the positions words can occupy (cf. Class I and Class II), there are also positions in which large groups naturally fit, from which other groups are excluded.

Ch. Fries also strives to find out the identifying features of these differently functioning classes by which the average speaker recognizes them. This recognition in the process of understanding and communication is not in any way a conscious recognition, but an automatic conditioned response. Fries points out the formal characteristic of each class (1) as regular patterns of contrast of form between classes (e.g. *This exercise is fun: This exercise is funny)* and (2) as the formal marks of various positions in which each of the classes could appear. In the second case words are identified in structures by the recognition of other form-classes of which the structure is composed. For example, in the sentence Bus fares *badly in emergency,* with badly recognized as a Class IV word, *fares* must be a Class II word.

The functional words are subdivided into 15 groups, and as Fries could not find for them any general identifying characteristics, they are supposed to be recognized and learned as separate words, so that they form 15 subsets defined by listing, all the elements. As an example of form words the group of determiners may be taken. These are words, which in the Fries classification system serve to mark the so-called Class I forms. They can be substituted for *the* in the frame (The) *concert is* good. That is to say, they are words belonging to the group of limiting noun modifiers, such as a, *an, any, each, either, every, neither, no, one, some, the, that, those, this, what, whatever, which, whichever,* possessive adjectives *(my)* and possessive case forms (Joe s). Detertminers may occur before descriptive adjectives modifying the Class I words.

We have dwelt so extensively upon this classification because it is very much used, with different modifications, in modern lexicological research practice, though the figures in the denotations of Ch. Fries were later substituted by letters. N denotes Class I words, i.e. all the nouns and some pronouns and numerals occupying the same positions, V — Class II, namely verbs with the exception of

the auxiliaries, A — Class III, adjectives, some pronouns and numerals used attributively, D — Class IV, adverbs and some noun phrases. In lexicology the notation is chiefly used in various types of semasiological research with distributional and transformational analysis.

3. Lexico-grammatical groups.

The division into such classes as parts of speech takes place on a still higher level as it observes both paradigmatic and syntagmatic relationships of the words and also their meaning. There is no necessity to well here upon the parts of speech because they are dealt with in grammar.' We shall limit our discussion to subdivisions of parts of speech and call them lexico-grammatical groups. By a lexico-grammatical group we understand a class of words which have a common lexico-grammatical meaning, a common paradigm, the same substituting elements and possibly a characteristic set of suffixes rendering the lexico-grammatical meaning. These groups are subsets of the parts of speech, several lexico-grammatical groups constitute one part of speech. Thus, linglish nouns are subdivided approximately into the following lexico-grammatical groups: personal names, animal names, collective names (for people), collective names (for animals), abstract nouns, material nouns, object nouns, proper names for people, toponymic proper nouns.

If, for instance, we consider a group of nouns having the following characteristics: two number forms, the singular and the plural; two case forms; animate, substituted in the singular by *he* or *she;* common, i.e. denoting a notion and not one particular object (as proper names do); able to combine regularly with the indefinite article, some of them characterized by such suffixes as *- er- or, -1st, -ee, -eer* and the semiaffix *-man,* we obtain the so-called personal names: *agent, baker, artist, volunteer, visitor, workman.*

Observing the semantic structure of words, belonging to this group we find a great deal of semantic likeness within it, not only in the denotative meanings as

such, but also in the way various meanings are combined. Personal nouns, for instance, possess a comparatively simple semantic structure. A structure consisting of two variants predominates. In many cases the secondary, i.e. derived meaning is due to generalization, or specialization. Generalization is present in such words as *advocate,* which may mean any person who supports or defends a plan or a suggestion anywhere, not only in court; *apostle,* which alongside its religious meaning may, denote any leader of any reform or doctrine, e.g. What *would Sergius, the apostle of the higher love,* say *if he saw me now?* (SHAW) Specialization is observed in cases like *beginner,* where the derived meaning corresponds to a notion of a narrower scope: one who has not had much experience as compared to one who begins.

The group is also characterized by *a* high percentage of emotionally colored, chiefly derogatory words among the metaphorical derived variants, such as *baby: 'a* person who behaves like a baby' or *witch* 'an ugly and unkind woman'. It is also common knowledge that words belonging to another lexico - grammatical group, namely those denoting well-known animals, very often develop metaphorical expressive names for people possessing qualities rightly or wrongly attributed to the respective animals: ass, *bitch, cow, fox, swine.* E.g.Armitage had talked, he supposed. Damned young pup! What did he know about it! (CHRISTIE) The subdivision of all the words belonging to some part of speech into groups of the kind described above is also achieved on this basis of oppositions. Should we want to find the subgroups of the English noun, we may take as distinctive features the relations of the given word to the categories of number and case, their combining possibilities with regard to definite, indefinite and zero article, their possible substitution by *he, she, it* or *they,* their unique or notional correlation. Lexico-grammatical groups should not be confused with parts of speech. A few more examples will help to grasp the difference. *Audience* and *honesty,* for instance, belong to the same part of speech but to different lexico-grammatical groups because their lexico-grammatical meaning is different: *audience* is a young of people, and *honesty* is a quality; they have different paradigms: *audience* has

two forms, singular and plural, *honesty* is used only in the singular; also *honesty* is hardly ever used in the Possessive case unless personified. To show that the substituting elements are different two examples will suffice: I *am referring to what goes on inside the audience's mind when they see the play.* (ARDEN) *Honesty isn't! Everything but f believe it's the first thing.* (PRIESTLEY) Being a collective noun, the *word audience* is substituted by *they; honesty is* substituted by *it.*

Other words belonging to the same lexico-grammatical group as *audience* are *people, party, jury,* but not flock or *swarm,* because the lexico-grammatical meaning of the last two words is different: they are substituted by it and denote groups of living beings but not persons, unless, of course, they are used metaphorically.

In what follows we shall understand by emotive speech any speech or utterance conveying or expressing emotion. This emotive quality of discourse is due to syntactical, intonational and lexical peculiarities. By lexical peculiarities we mean the presence of emotionally coloured words. The emotional colouring of the word may be permanent or occasional. We shall concentrate our attention on the first. A word acquires its emotional colouring, otherwise called its affective connotations, its power to evoke or directly express feelings, as a result of its history in emotional contexts reflecting emotional situations. The character of denotata corresponding to the root of the word may be wrought with emotion. Thus in the emotive phrases like *to be beastly mean about something, a glorious idea, a lovely drink, a rotten business,* etc., the emotional quality is based upon associations brought about by such notions as 'beast', 'glory', 'love' and 'rot' and the objects they stand for.

The best studied types of emotional words are interjections, They express emotions without naming them: *Ah! Alas! Bother! Boy! Fiddlesticks! Hear, hear! Heavens! Hell! Humbug! Nonsense! Pshaw! Pooh!* etc. groups because their lexico-grammatical meaning is different: *audience* is a young of people, and *honesty* is a quality; they have different paradigms: *audience* has two forms,

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Some of them are primary interjections; others are derived from other ' parts of speech. On the latter opinions differ. Some say that Come/ and *Hark!* are not interjections at all, but complete sentences with their subject not expressed. We

shall not go into this controversy and keep to our main theme.' A word may have some morphological features signaling its emotional force. These may be; either morphemes or patterns. Diminutive and derogatory affixes, though not so numerous and variegated as in Russian, still play an important role. The examples are *daddy, darling, dearie, babykins, blackie, and oldie.* The scarcity of emotional suffixes favours the appearance of such combinations as: *little chap, old chap, old fellow, poor-devil,* where the emotional effect results from the interaction of elements. The derogatory group of suffixes may be exemplified by *bastard, drunkard, dullard, tructard, princeling, weakling, gangster, hipster* (now with a diminutive *hippie), mikester; mobster, youngster.* It must be noted that the suffix — ster is derogatory only with nouns denoting persons, and neutral otherwise: cf.roadster-an open automobile.

There is a disparaging semi-affix: *-monger: panicmonger. Scandalmonger; scaremonger, warmonger.*

A very interesting problem, so far investigated but little, concerns the relationship between the morphological pattern of a word and its emotional possibilities. Thus, for example, personal noun formed by composition from complete sentences or phrases are derogatory: also ran, never-do-well, sit-by-the-fire, stick-in-the-mud, diehard. 1 suppose your friends, if you have any,don^t mean much to you unless... they are great-something-or-other. (FAIRCHILD) The presence of the emotional component is for example evident in *also ran* in the following example: (her son was) . . . her only consolation, in spite of the fact that she regarded herself as a devout Christian. Little Johnny took first, second and third place; God was an also ran. (HUXLEY)

Another group expressing censure consists of personal nouns formed by combined composition and conversion from verbs with postpositive: *a come-back, a pin-up.* There are several groups expressing censure by their morphological structure.

There are- personal nouns formed by conversion: *a bore, a well* and by combined composition and conversion from verbs with postpositive; *a come-back*

'a person reinstated in his former position', *a stand-in* 'a substitute', *a stuck-up =an upstart* 'a person who assumes arrogant tone', also 'one who has risen from insignificance', washout a failure'.

To express emotion the utterance must be something not quite ordinary. Syntactically this is reflected in inversion contrasted to the usual word order. Its counterpart in vocabulary is coinage of nonce-words. Very often it is a kind of echo-conversion, as in the following: Hans: Well? Lucas: Well? Hans: *Don't! well me, you feeble old muny.* (OSBQRNE)

Emotional nonce-words are created in angry back-chat by transforming whole phrases into verbs to express irritation with the interlocutor. For example: Now well! Don't now-well me! How on earth!? Don't begin how-on-earthing! Oh, bloody hell! You don't bloody-hell here.

The type is definitely on the increase in English speech of today. It is interesting to note that emotion is often manifested in a divergence from linguistic norm, in a tendency towards something unusual.

Often the muscular feeling of the emotional word or phrase is моге important than its denotational meaning. Its function is to release pent- up emotion, pent-up tension. This may explain why hell and *heaven* have such rich possibilities, while *paradise has* practically none.

It must be noted that emotional words only indicate the presence of emotion but very seldom are capable of specifying its exact character.

The emotionally coloured words are contrasted to the emotionally neutral ones. The words of this latter group express notions but do not say anything about the state of the speaker or his mood: copy, *report, impatient, reach,* say, *well* are all emotionally neutral. The difference between the sets is not very clear-cut, there are numerous boundary cases. The sets may be said to intersect and contain elements that belong to both because many words are neutral in their direct meaning and emotional under special conditions of context. Having been used for some time with an occasionally emotional effect they may acquire some

permanent features in their semantics structure that justify referring them into the other subset. It is also difficult to draw a line of demarcation between emotional and emphatic or intensifying words; therefore we shall consider the latter a specific group of the emotional words subset. Intensifiers convey special intensity to what is said, they indicate the special importance of the thing expressed. The simplest and most often used of these are such words as *ever, even, all, so.* The first of them, due to its incessant use, has become a kind of semi-affix., as seen from the solid spelling of such combinations as whatever; *whenever,* etc. If we compare: *Whyever didn t you* go? and *Why didn't you go?* we shall see at once how much more expressive and emphatic the first variant is. There is also a big incessantly developing and changing group of intensifying adverbs: awfully, capitally, dreadfully, fiercely, frightfully, marvelously, terribly, tremendously, wonderfully *and very* many others. The fashion for them changes, so that every generation has its favorite intensifiers and feels those used by their elders trite and inexpressive. The denotative meaning of intensifying adverbs may be almost completely suppressed by their emphatic function, so that in spite of the contradiction of combinations like *awfully glad, frightfully beautiful or terribly important, they are very frequent. E.g How are you, Molly? You're looking frightfully welt.*

Very little is known so far about limitations imposed upon the combining possibilities of intensifiers. It is for instance quite usual to say stark naked or stark mad, where *stark* means 'wholly', but not *stark deaf;* we say *stone deaf* instead. The fact is very little studied from the synchronic point of view. Compare also the fixed character of such combinations as flat *denial, sheer nonsense, paramount importance, dead tired, bored stiff.* All such purely linguistic constraints concerning the valency of words are of great theoretical interest.

Sometimes it is very difficult to `tell` an intensifier from an emotionally coloured word, because in many cases both functions are fulfilled by one and the same word, as in the following example: *"You think 1 know damn nothing, "he said itndignantly. "Actually! know damn alt. "* (PRIESTLEY)

An intensifying function may be also given to sound-imitative interjections, as in the following: I was an *athlete, yon see, one of those strong- as a horse boys.. And never a. day" s illness — until* bang, *comes a coronary, or* whoosh, *go the kidnyys!* (HUXLEY).

A third group which together with emotional and intensifying words could be opposed to the neutral vocabulary may be called evauatory words. Words which, when used in a sentence, pass a value judgment differ from other emotional words in that they can not only indicate the presence of emotion but specify it. In evaluatory words the denotative meaning is not superseded by the emotional component, on the contrary they co-exist and support each other. *The-verb fabricate* has not lost its original neutral meaning of'manufacture', but added to it the meaning of invent falsely'. When using this word, the speaker is not indifferent to the fact but expresses his scorn, irony or disgust, whereas in using the *verb forge* to папе the same action, he merely states the fact. Scheming is a derogatory word, it means 'planning secretly, by intrigue or for private ends'. For exemple: I wouldn't exaggerate that, Mildred" said Felix. "You're such a schemer yourself, you're a bit too ready to attribute schemes to other people." Well, somebody's got to do some scheming," said Mildred. "Or let's call it planning, shall we? As you won't raise a finger to help yourself, dear boy, I have to try to help you. And than I was accused of scheming. (MURDOCH) When the emotional variant of the word or a separate emotional word is contrasted to its neutral homonym the emotional word always turns out to be morphologically or semantically derived, not primary.

The names of animals, for instance, when used metaphorically, alinost invariably have a strong evaluatory force: *"Silly ass" said Dick. "He's jeolous because he didn 7 win a prize* .(M. DICKENS)

Compare also *colt* 'a young male horse up to an age of four or five', which occurs in the figurative meaning of a young inexperienced person'; jay 'a crow-like bird noted for its bright colours and noisy chattering', figuratively 'a foolish person who talks a lot'. The same type of relationship is seen in the figurative meaning of

the word pup as a contemptuous term for a conceited young man. All these words are evaluatory an expressive. The list *of* examples be very long, ass, *cat, cow, goose, parrot, pig, rat, shark, sheep, snake, swine, wolf;* etc. Meanings with emotional components always come into being as secondary, not original, in some cases they may give rise to derivation of separate emotional words. Many of these are to be found among interjections.

Emotional, emphatic and evaluatory words should not be confused with words possessing some definite stylistic features although in actual discourse these properties may coincide, and we often *come* across words both emotionally and stylistically coloured. This is, however, a different kind of connotation: it will be discussed in the next chapter. The distinction we are dealing with in the present paragraph is helpful because it permits us to observe some peculiar phenomena and features of words in emotional speech.

The emotive effect is also attained by an interaction of syntactic and lexical means. The pattern a + (A)   H + N1+ of +a + N_2 is often used to express emotion and emphasis. The precise character of the emotion is revealed by the connotations possible for N1 and N_2, the denotata may be repulsive, pleasant or give some image. Compare, for example: *a devil of a time, a deuce of a price, a hell of a success, a peach of a car, on absolute jewel of a report, a mere button of a nose. etc.The* word *button* in the last example acquires expressiveness and ironical connotation, being used metaphorically, i.e. being transferred to a different sphere of notions, whereas in its direct meaning it is emotionally neutral. The adjectives *absolute* and *mere* serve as intensifies and may be omitted. The fact that the position of the adjective is optional is shown by including its symbol in brackets. Actually, the position of an emotional word is mostly optional, and this absence of grammatical connection with the rest of the sentence is a common feature of emotional words and intensifiers.

The way emphatic and emotional words are used will be clear if we consider the words *little, bloody* and *damned* in the following extract from a play called "The Milberry Bush" No, shut up! I am talking now. You are don't understand a

bloody thing about me or anybody else unless like you they go round and round themselves like dancing round the damned mulberry tree in the warden's garden. Dancing round your own little injustices and spites until you're so giddy in the head that you think you're a superman.(A. Wilson) , The adjectives little, bloody and damned are not expressing their original denotative meaning, they render the speaker's scorn. Their connection with the words they precede is very loose. They give a colouring to the whole of the utterance.

Emotional words may be inserted into a syntactic chain any formal or logical connection with what precedes or follows but influencing the whole; and making it more forcible, as, for example, in the following: "The was a rumour in the office" Wilson , said , " about some diamonds," Diamonds my eye " Father Rank said. They'll never find any diamonds"(GREENE) It would be wrong to consider this use *of my eye* a figurative meaning, its relationship with the direct denotationa! meaning being different from what we observe in metaphorical or metonymical meanings. In this and similar cases the emotional component of meaning expressing in a very general way the speaker' s feelings and his state of mind dominates over the denotational meaning: the latter is suppressed and has a tendency towards fading out.

Emotional words may even contradict the meaning of the words they formally modify, as, for example, in the following: *Everything* was *too bloody friendly: Damn good stuff this.* The emotional words in these two examples were considered unprintable in the 19th century and dashes were used to indicate the corresponding omissions in oaths: D n. The word has kept its emotional colouring but its stylistical status has improved.

Words expressing similar emotions may belong to different styles and the vulgar Damn *that* can be at best qualified as familiar colloquial can be compared with the lofty and poetical A *last Each* of them in its own way expresses vexation, so that their emotional colouring, though not identical, is similar: stylistically they are very different.

3.0. Chapter II. Structural - semantic features of English new words

3.1. Different classification of the English vocabulary historisms, archaisms, new words.

As for qualitative changes due to leave-out it must be noted that some words may drop out of the language altogether. These are called obsolete words. The disappearance of the words may be caused by purely linguistic factors, when a new name is introduced for the notion that continues to exist. The old word on becoming rare can acquire a new stylistic property obtaining, due its ancient flavors, a lofty poetic tinge, and thus be accepted in poetic diction. Examples are: ought, betwixt, ere before, ere, damsel, forbear, hapless, harks, hight, called, morn, save except, to whit namely whilom woe. When the causes are extra-linguistic and it is the denotatum (the thing named) that is out dated and no longer used, we deal historisms. They are very numerous as names for social relations and institutions and objects of material culture of the past. The names of ancient weapons types of boats, types of carriages, musical instruments or agricultural implements can offer good examples: archer, baldric belt for a sword, horn etc. battering ram, an ancient machine for breaking walls, battleaxe, blaron coat of arms, blunderbuss (an old type of gun), brougham a closed   carriage having one seat. Cf. also diligence, landeau, phaeton. When a word is no longer in general use but not absolutely obsolete, we call it an archaism.

It is often very difficult to say whether a word of this type should be counted as still belonging to the present-day English vocabulary or whether it should be considered absolute. If often happens that names for obsolute notions remain in the language in their figurative meaning. We may speak even now about the alchemy of somebody's presence. Flails are no longer used in agriculture but the expression to flail about with one's arms in not obsolete.

3.2. Definition of new words in English

The vocabulary of any language does not remain the same but changes constantly-New notions come into being, requiring new words to name them. On the other hand, some notion and things become outdated and the words that denote them drop out of the language. Sometimes a new name 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 constand: the increase, as a rule, more than makes up for the leak -out. New words and expressions or neologisms are created for new things irrespective of their scale of importance. The may be all important and concern some social relation ships, such as a new form of state 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 foot war, as the already outdated jitterbug and pony-tail. In every case either the old words are appropriately changed in meaning or new words are borrowed, or more often coined out of the existing language material according to the patterns and ways productive in the language at a given state of its development. Thus a neologism is any word or set expressions formed according to the productive structural patterns or borrowed from another language and felt by the speakers as something new.

The intense development of science and industry has called forth the invention and introduction of an immense number of new words and changed the meaning of old ones: allergic, computer, isotope, feedback nuclear fission, penicillin, pulsar, tape-recorder, super-market and many more.

In the ever-changing field or political life and affairs new words are constantly coined. In this connection it is interesting to play attention to process of coining political euphemisms. Unemployment is substituted by the down toned expression:

unused or underused manpower or redundancy. The problem of starvation in the problem of adequate nourishment and the poor are only the underprivileged. A

few examples of neologisms showing the patterns according to which they are formed may by of interest. Automation automatic control of production is a irregularly formed from the stem automatic with help of the very productive suffix-tion. The corresponding verb to automate is a black-formation e.g. to re-equip in the most modern and automated fashion. Re is one of the most productive prefixes, the others are: anti-, de-, un-, the semi-affixes self and mini and many more: antiflash serving to protect the eyes" or the jocular anti-everything: she was anti-everything, except such of the patients who were good for a gossip (M. Dickens) Cf. deglamorize (to make less attractive: rejuvenate , to make young again, rehouse to move a family a community, etc. to new houses : The prefer un-increases its combining power, enjoys a new wave of fashion and its now attacked even to noun stems. A literary critic referes to the broken down " Entertainer (in John Osborne's play) as a " contemporary un-hero, the desperately unfunny Archie Rice ". Unfunny hery means not amassing in spite of the desire to amuse." A freer use of the semi-affixes can be illustrated by mini budget, mini-car, mini-dream, mini-shirt, midi-coat, midi-frock: Cf. self-service of restorant, shop, etc., in which costomers help themselves to food or goods and many more neologisms with self-.

Compounding by mere juxtaposition of free forms has been a frequent pattern since the Old English period. Cf. brainstrust- a group of experts, quiz-master-chairman in competitions designed to test the knowledge of the participants. In the neologism "back-room boys" men engaged in secret research the structural cohesion of the compound is enhanced by the attributive function. Cf. red brick (universities), paperback (books).

A peculiarly English and steadily developing type is presented by noun formed by a combined process of conversion and composition form verbs with postpositives, such as a hold-up "armed robbery « from hold-up- rob, fall out airbone particles of radio-active matter: teach in a student conference of a series of seminars on some burning issue of the day. This pattern is very frequent: read-in, sigh-in, stay -in, talk-in. Many technical and scientific inventions and notions are

named by using the socolled combining form, e.g. aqualung (from the Latin Combing from aqua and lung) a portable, Cf. astronaut, astronautics, isotope, semi-conductor. The change of meaning, or rather the introduction of a new, additional meaning may be illustrated by the word net-work a number of broadcasting stations, connected for a simultaneous broadcast of the same programme. Another examples is a word of American literary slang- the square. This neologisms is used as a derogatory epithet for a person who plays safe, who sticks to his illusions, and thinks they only his own life embodies all moral values.

Conversion is quite frequent, e.g. to orbit the moon, to garage a car, to service car. Very often two or more types of word-building combine in creating a neologism. Thus composition substantivation and semantic change together are present in the personal name come-back meaning a person who returns ofter a long absence. As a general rule neologisms are at first clearly motivated. An exception is shown by those based on borrowing or learned coinages which though motivated at an early stage, very soon begin to function as indivisible sighs. A good examples is the much used term cybernetics (study of systems of control and communication in living beings and manmade devices, coined by Norbert Wiener from the Greek word Kubernetes steersman + suffix-ics.)

There are however, causes when etymology is abscure as in the noun bottin a scientist engaged in research work or in gimmick a tricky device - an American slang word that is now often used in British -English. Etymology offered for the latter is only guess work.

In the course of time the new word is accepted into the word-stock of the language and being often used ceases to be considered new or else it may not be accepted for some reason or other of neologisms is hardly predictable, some of them are short lived others, on the contrary, become durable if they are liked and accepted. Once accepted, they may serve as a basic for further word-formation.Thus gimmick, gimmicky.

The student of mass phenomena is naturally interested in appraising the number of units he has to deal with. It has proved no easy task. The difficulties

confronting one in under talking a word count are manifold. It is difficult to estimate the number of words in a language because of the so-called nonce-words, that is word coined for one occasion. For example: I am sure I can help you publicity wise with Beethoven's birthdays.

After all this is s really big thing. We must do whatever is best. Aldous Huxley created very effective compound derivatives art-for after and trans beasted turned into beasts: ... there was some one who could never believe that I was not an art-for- after: as though our lives depended on getting there before the other trans-beasted passengers: and T. Priestly goes father and derives a personal noun with the suffix-er out of a whole sentence. All they want to be is to be acquaintances, mere How'd you- doers. Are we justified to count those as units of the vocabulary?

3.3. Functional types of English new words.

Most people of literary taste will say on this point. It must needs be that offences *come;* but woe to that man by whom the offence come. They are Liberal-Conservatives, their liberalism being general and theoretic, and their conservatism particular and practical. And indeed, if no new words were to appear, it would be a sign that the language was moribund; but it is well that each new word that does appear should be severely scrutinized. The progress of arts and sciences gives occasion for the large majority of new words; for a new thing we must have a new пате; hence, for instance, *motor, argon, appendicitis.* It is interesting to see that the last word did not exist, or was at least too obscure to be recorded, when the *Oxford Dictionary began* to *come* out in 1888; we cannot do without it now. Nor is there in the same volume any sign of *argon,* which now has three pages of the Encyclopaedia *Britannica* to itself. The discoverers of it are to be thanked for having alsc invented for it a пате that is short, intelligible to those at least who know Greek, free of barbarism, and above all pronounceable. As to barbarism, it might indeed be desired that the man of science should always call in the man of

Greek composition as godfather to his gas or his process; but it is a point of less importance. Every one has been told at school how *telegram* ought to be *fetegrdpheme,* but by this time we have long ceased to mourn for the extra syllable, and begun seriously to consider whether the further shortening into *wire* has not been resisted as long as honor demands. Among other arts and sciences, that of lexicography happens to have found convenient a neologism that may here be used to help in the very slight classification required for the new words we are *more* concerned with —that is, those whose object is literary or general, and not scientific. A 'nonce-word' (and the use might be extended to 'nonce-phrase' and 'nonce-sense' — the latter not necessarily, though it may be sometimes, equivalent to nonsense) is one that is constructed to serve, a need of the moment. The writer is not seriously putting forward his word as one that is for the future to have an independent existence; he merely has a fancy to it for this once. The motive may be laziness, avoidance of the obvious, love of precision, or desire for a brevity or pregnancy that the language as at present constituted does not seem to him to admit of. The first two are bad motives; the third a good, and the last a mixed one. But in all cases it may be said that a writer should not indulge in these unless he is quite sure he is a good writer.

The adjective is a noncesense, *summerly* elsewhere meaning 'such as one expects in summer', the noun is a nonce-word.

In Christian art we may clearly trace a parallel *regenesis.* — Spencer, Russia's disposition is aggressive ... Japan may conquer, but she will not aggress. — *Times.*

Though *aggress* is in the dictionary, every one will feel that it is rare enough to be practically a neologism, and here a nonce-word. The mere fact that it has never been brought into common use, though so obvious a form is sufficient condemnation.

She did not answer at once, for, in her rather *super sensitized mood,* it seemed to her...— E. F. Benson. The word is, we imagine, a loan from photography. Expressions so redolent of the laboratory are as well left alone

unless the metaphor they suggest is really valuable. Perhaps, *if rather* and *super-* were cancelled against each other, *sensitive- might* suffice.

Notoriously and unctuously *rectitudinous. — Westminster Gazette.* Some readers will remember the origin of this in Cecil Rhodes's famous remark about the unctuous rectitude of British statesmen, and the curious epidemic of words in -*ude* that prevailed for some months in the newspapers, especially the *Westminster Gazette. Correctitude,* a needless variant for *correctness,* has not perished like the rest. We only refer to it again because Mr. Balfour clearly thinks it necessary to vindicate his claims to correctitude. This desire for correctitude is amusingly illustrated in the *Outlook* this week, which...— *Westminster Gazette.* All these formations, whether happy or the reverse, may be assumed to be conscious ones: the few that now follow — we shall call them new even if they have a place in dictionaries, since they are certainly not current — are possibly unconscious: The minutes to dinner-time were numbered, and they *briskened their* steps back to the house.— E. F. Benson. (Quickened) He was in some amazement at himself ... *remindful* of the different nature...— Meredith (mindful) *Remindful* should surely mean 'which reminds', not 'who remembers'. Persistent *insuccess,* however, did not prevent a repetition of the *бame question.— Times.* (Failure)

The best safeguard against any displacement of the center of gravity in the Dual Monarchy.-Times.(displacement)

Which would condemn the East to a long period of unquiet.- Times (unrest)

Mere slips, very likely. If it is supposed that therefore they are not worth notice, the answer is that they are indeed quite important in a writer who allows himself only one such slip in fifty or a hundred pages: but one who is unfortunate enough to make a second before the first has faded from the memory become at once a suspect. We are uneasily on the watch for his next lapse, wonder whether he is a foreigner or an Englishman not at home in the literary language, and fall into that critical temper which is the last he would choose to be read in.The next

two examples are quite distinct from these - words clearly created, or exhumed, because the writer feels that his style requires galvaning into energy:A man of a cold, perseverant character. - Carlyle.Robbed of the just fruits of the victory by the arbitrary and forceful interference of outside Powers. - Times. All the specimens yet mentioned have been productions of individual caprice: the writer for some reason or other took a liberty, or made a mistake, with one expression: he might as well, or as ill, have done it with another his little effect, or taking his little nap, at this moment or at that. But there are other neologisms of a very different kind, which come into existence as the crystallization of a political tendency or a movement in ideas. Prime Minister , Cabinet, His Majesty's Opposition, have been neologisms of this kind in their day, all standing for particular developments of the party system, and all of them probably, in more or less general use before they made their way into books. Such words in our day are racial and intellectuals. The former is an ugly word, the strangeness of which is due to our instinctive feeling that the termination -al has no business at the end of the word that is not obviously Latin. Nevertheless the new importance that has been attached for the last half century to the idea of common descent as opposed to that of mere artificial nationality has made a word necessary. Racial is nit the word that might have been ornamental as well as useful: but it is too well established to be now uprooted. Intellectuals is still apologized for in 1905 by The Spectator as a convenient neologism. It is already familiar to all who give any time to observing continental politics, though the Index to the Encyclopedia (1903) knows is not. A use has not yet been founded for the word in home politics, as far as we have observed: but the fact that intellect in any country is recognized as a definite political factor is noteworthy: and we should hail intellectuals as a good omen for the progress of the world.

These, and the scientific, are the sort of neologism that may fairly be welcomed. But there is this distinction. With the strictly scientific words, writers have not the power to decide whether they shall accept them or not; they must be content to take submissively what the men of science choose to give them, they

being as much within their rights in naming what they have discovered or invented as an explorer in naming a new mountain, or an American founder a new city. *Minneapolis, Pikeville,* and *Pennsylvania, may* have a barbaric sound, but there they.are; so *telegram,* or *aesthophysiology.* The proud father of the latter (Herbert Spencer) confesses to having docked it of a syllable; and similarly Mr. Lecky writes of a eudaemometer measuring with accuracy the degrees of happiness realized by men in different ages'; consequently there will be some who will wish these long words longer, though more who will wish them shorter; but grumble as we may, the *patria potestas* is indefeasible. On the other hand, with such words as *racial, intellectuals,* it is open to any writer, if he does not like the word that threatens to occupy an obviously vacant place, to offer a substitute, or at least to avoid giving currency to what he disapproves. It will be remembered that when it was proposed to borrow from France what we now know as the closure, it seemed certain for some time that with the thing we should borrow the name, *cloture;* a press campaign resulted in *closure,* for which we may be thankful. The same might have been done for, or rather against, *racial,* if only some one had thought of in time.

Changing culture

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 (see compound noun and adjective) 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 (see also Wiktionary's Neologisms: unstable or Protologism pages for a wiki venue of popularizing newly coined words) — 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 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.

Cultural acceptance

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 other language." 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.

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.

Types of neologism

* Scientific — words or phrases created to describe new scientific discoveries. Example: prion

* 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: pro-life. 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). Example: carb

* Imported — words or phrases originating in another language. Typically they are used to express ideas that have no equivalent term in the native language. (See loanword.) Example: tycoon

* 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: Kodak

* 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.

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, Mc.Job 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 die neologism, although the term is sometimes based on only one work of that author. This includes such words as Orwellian (from George Orwell, referring to his novel Nineteen Eighty-Four) and Ballardesque (from J.G. Ballard, author of Crash). Kurt Vonnegut's Cat's Cradle was the container of the Bokononism family of sconce 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.

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Miscellaneous

In psychology, a neologism is a word invented by a person suffering from a language disorder, which may occur in the context of psychosis (see thought disorder) 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). 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. In our professional lives, business and technology are the main sources for many new words. In our personal lives, blame (I mean credit) goes to popular culture for new words. New words, or "neologisms," are defined in Merriam Webster as "a new word, usage, or expression" and (and next is my preferred definition) as "a meaningless word coined by a psychotic."For example, "beepilepsy" is a condition that "afflicts those with vibrating pagers; characterized by sudden spasms, goofy facial expressions and loss of speech." Paging technology combined with people's sense of fun and wordplay gave birth to "beepilepsy" as a new word. A more familiar example might be the word "software" (first used in 1960, source Merriam Webster). Now in the 1990s, software is a common term, but when it was first used, it was a made-up word that meant "computer programs." See if you can figure out what the neologisms mean in this short story (yes, some of them have been around for a long time). Which new words do you think will survive and graduate into common usage? It was a hot day and 1 was almost glad to be inside working with my square- headed boyfriend. I didn' t have time for any facetime, so 1 put a do-not-disturb sign on my cube to keep the carbon community at bay. 1 had a tight deadline for the next

release of treeware for our product. I had met yesterday with the project's high dome and held given *me* a lot of new information. Not only did 1 have to update the treeware, but I really needed to clean out the cobwebs on our Web site.Ed surfed the world wide wait just last week and seen our competitor's site and, boy, did they have some hot new news. 1 write for siliwood and if s a fast - changing industry.I hope our product doesn't' get betamaxed. This puts me under a lot of stress. I've been seeing a therapist so 1 don't go postal. I was on a roll. Suddenly the power flickered and died. Everyone prairie-dogged to see what was going on. Our power was down like the Titanic. Fred, the guy in the next cube, moaned, "Man, I just lost everything I've been working on all morning. What a salmon day." (I refrained from reminding him he should save often.) I heard him try some percussive maintenance. He and I both knew it wouldn't't bring his data back, but it probably felt good to hit something. He asked me if 1 wanted to go to lunch. The power loss had totally blown my buffer (and my square-headed boyfriend") so 1 said, "Sure, but I need to stop and get some yuppie food coupons first." Fred and 1 left cubeville and the comfort of Cyberspace to interface F2F in the scary world of meatspace and to bravely search for a food source in the frighteningly cookie-cutter world of generica. At the present moment English is developing very swiftly and there is so called "neology blowup". R. Berchfield who worked at compiling a four-volume supplement to NED says that averagely 800 neologisms appear every year in Modern English. It has also become a language-giver recently, especially with the development of computerization. New words, as a rule, appear in speech of an individual person who wants to express his idea in some original way. This person is called "originater". New lexical units are primarily used by university teachers, newspaper reporters, by those who are connected with mass media. Neologisms can develop in three main ways: a lexical unit existing in the language can change its meaning to denote a new object or phenomenon. In such cases we have semantic neologisms, e.g. the word "umbrella" developed the meanings: "авиационное прикрытие", "политическое прикрытие". A new lexical unit can develop in the language to denote an object

or phenomenon which already has some lexical unit to denote it. In such cases we have transnomination, e.g. the word "slum" was first substituted by the word "ghetto" then by the word-group "inner town". A new lexical unit can be introduced to denote a new object or phenomenon. In this case we have "a proper neologism", many of them are cases of new terminology. Here we can point out several semantic groups when we analize the group of neologisms connected with computerization, and here we can mention words used: a) to denote different types of computers, e.g. PC, supercomputer, multi-user, neurocomputer / analogue of a human brain ;) to denote parts of computers, e.g. hardware, software, monitor, screen, data, vapourware / experimental samples of computers for exhibition, not for production/; c) to denote computer languages, e.g. Basic, Algol Fortran etc;) to denote notions connected with work on computers, e.g. computerman, computerization, computerize, to troubleshoot, to blitz out / to ruin data in a computers memory/. There are also different types of activities performed with the help of computers; many of them are formed with the help of the morpheme "tele", e.g. to telework, to telecommute / to work at home having a computer which is connected with the enterprise for which one works/. There are also such words as telebanking, telemarketing, teleshopping / when you can perform different operations with the help of your computer without leaving your home, all operations are registered by the computer at your bank/, videobank /computerized telephone which registers all information which is received in your absence/. In the sphere of lingusitics we have such neologisms as: machine translation, interlingual / an artificial language for machine translation into several languages / and many others. In the sphere of biometrics we have computerized machines which can recognize characteristic features of people seeking entrance: finger-print scanner / finger prints/, biometric eye-scanner / blood-vessel arrangements in eyes/, voice verification voice patterns/. These are types of biometric locks. Here we can also mention computerized cards with the help of which we can open the door without a key. In the sphere of medicine computors are also used and we have the following neologisms:

telemonitory unit / a telemonitory system for treating patience at a distance/. With the development of social activities neologisms appeared as well, e.g. youthqnake - волнения среди молодежи, pussy-footer - политик, идущий на компромисы, Euromarket, Eurodollar, Europarliament, Europol etc. In the modern English society there is a tendency to social stratification, as a result there are neologisms in this sphere as well, e.g. belonger - представитель среднего класса, приверженец консервативных взглядов. To this group we can also refer abbreviations of the type yuppie young urban professional people/, such as: muppie, gruppie, rumpie, bluppie etc. People belonging to the lowest layer of the society are called survivers, a little bit more prosperous are called sustainers, and those who try to prosper in life and imitate those, they want to belong to, are called emulaters. Those who have prospered but are not belongers are called achievers. All these layers of socety are called VAL /Value and Lifestyles/. The rich belong also to jet set that is those who can afford to travel by jet planes all over the world enjoying their life. Sometimes they are called "jet plane travellers". During Margaret Thatchers rule the abbreviation PLU appeared which means "People like us" by which snobbistic circles of society call themselves. Nowadays /since 1989/ PLU was substituted by "one of us". There are a lot of immigrants now in UK, in connection with which neologisms partial and non-partial were formed /имеющие право жить в стране и его антоним/. The word-group "welfare mother" was formed to denote a non-working single mother living on benefit. In connection with criminalization of towns in UK volantary groups of assisting the police were formed where dwellers of the neighbourhood are joined. These groups are called "neighbourhood watch", "home watch". Criminals wear "stocking masks" not to be recognized. The higher society has neologisms in their speech, such as: dial-a-meal, dial-a-taxi. In the language of teen-agers there are such words as: Drugs! /OK/, sweat /бег на длинные дистанции/, task home composition /, brunch etc. With the development of professional jargons a lot of words ending in "speak" appeared in English, e.g. artspeak, sportspeak, medspeak, education-speak, video-speak, cable-speak etc. There are different semantic

groups of neologisms belonging to everyday life: a) food e.g. "starter"/ instead of "hors doevres'V macrobiotics / raw vegetables, crude rice/, longlife milk, clingfilm, microwave stove, consumer electronics, fridge-freezer, hamburgers beef-.

4 Neologisms from A to Z

The following neologisms and novel uses of words in English were collected by members of the class Linguistics/English 215, Words in English: Structure, History and Use, taught by Suzanne Kemmer at Rice University 1996-99. Over the course of the semester, students collected instances of words and word uses that appear to be new in the language. They defined the words, described their origin where possible, illustrated their use, and analyzed the words in terms of their structure and the types of word formation processes they exemplify.The list below includes many different structural word formation types, including novel derivations, clippings, back formations, and compounding processes of various sorts. The words also exemplify a wide range of semantic/pragmatic phenomena such as metaphor, metonymy, euphemism, and eponymy. The words on this page give a good picture of the creative aspects of word formation and use in present day English. Speakers do not confine themselves to existing, conventional units when using language; to express their exact meaning in a given context, they take advantage of the wide range of creative resources provided by their language. Many of these creations become more frequent and conventionalized over time. Looking at new words allows us to get a glimpse of lexical change in progress:

ANDROPAUSE (OR VIROPAUSE), n. The end of virility, [blend of virility and menopause Context and Source: "andropause or viropause, the end of virility," (Newsweek 9/16/96)

ARTSY, adj. pretending to be artistic. Overly artistic. [Compound of arts + 'y' (adjectival ending, "have the characteristic of)]

A.S.S. GRADUATE, n. A long-winded person (who's attended the "American Sidebartending School"). [Lingo used by journalists covering the OJ. Simpson Civil Trial. Found in Newsweek]

AUDIOPHILE, n. One who loves and collects audio equipment and media [compound from L. audio 'hear' and G. phile 'loving'] Context and source: "Being an audiophile, I own an 8 track player, phonograph, cassette player, CD player, DAT recorder, and a Minidisc player." (Conversation)

AUTO "DENTIST", n. One who repairs dents, hail damage, and other types of minor damage on automobiles, ["dentist" to mean "one who repairs dents.]

Context and source: "Auto 'dentist' specializing in dents, dings, and hail damage; high quality, affordable rates,"advertisement painted on the auto dentist's car. (used by persons associated with car body repair — none phrase)

BACK STORY, n. The events of a character's life prior to the start of a fictional story. Also used metaphorically to mean "background" [compound of "back" and "story"]

BAGGRAVATION, n. A feeling of annoyance and anger one endures at the airport when his bags have not arrived at the baggage carousel but everyone else's bags have [blend formed from words bag and aggravation].Context and source: "Nancy couldn'I help but feel baggravation as she watched other passengers get their luggage and leave the airport." (Internet)

BENEDICT, n. [alter, of Benedick] a newly married man who has long been a bachelor, [based on the Shakespearean character from Much Ado About Nothing] Source: Word a Day.

BFE, adj. Very far away: Beyond Fu**ing Egypt, also B.F.E., b.f.e. [Acronym. Egypt was chosen somewhat arbitrarily as a country on the opposite

side of the world. Variant: Bomfoq EgyptJContext and source: "My car is parked BFE!" (Conversation)

BIG-EYED, adj. One who eats when s/he is not hungry; greedy, [compound of big+eye+d 'adjective forming] Context and Source: If I see food, I want to eat it. *I'm* so big-eyed. (Conversation)

BLADING, v. The act of rollerblading, or skating while wearing a modified version of roll er skates called rollerblades which have only one continuous line (a blade) of wheels on- the underside of each boot [clip of verb rollerblading].Context and source: *I'm* going blading around the inner loop if you want to *come."* (Conversation)

BRONCO BAG, n. Tarp material used to protect well-coifed TV types from sun or rain. [Lingo used by journalists covering the O.J. Simpson Civil Trial. Found in Newsweek]

BTW, conj. Shorthand method of expressing by the way, commonly used in office memorandums and email communications. Context and source: "BTW, there' s a diversity training class meeting at Γ.00 in the conference room." (Memorandum at work)

CADILLACING, v. Slang. Relaxing, syn. chilling. Context and source: "He didn' t work at all. He was just cadillacing." (Conversation)

CAMPOS, n. The campus police who patrol Rice University; refers to either one policeman, a group of them, and/or the collective entity of policemen, [clipping/blend of 'campus' and 'police.] Context and source: "You could get a ticket from the campos if you park your car here." (Conversation)

CARJACKING, n. An incident by which a usually armed individual coerces the driver of an automobile to give up his vehicle or drive it and the assailant to some specified location [blend of car and hijacking].Context and source: "A

carjacking at the corner of Cherry Lane and the Interstate 30 access road has left local residents shocked." (KXAS Local News, 9-28-96)

COMETFSED - adj. used to describe Netscape when it freezes or jams. [based on the observation of a "shooting star" or a comet (cannot really tell) that appears on the Netscape button, in the upper right corner of a Netscape browser.]Context and source: "Oh geez, Netscape is cometised." (Internet Newsgroup)

CORDS, n. A garment or article of clothing made of corduroy fabric. [Clipping of corduroy]Context and source: "Hey, I like your cords!" (Conversation)

CROSS-TRAINER, n. A type of athletic shoe designed for cross-training, an all encompassing fitness routine which involves running, weight lifting, and other sports [compound formed from roots cross and train + -er].Context and source: "The new Nike Cross-Trainer." (Advertisement, Sports Illustrated 9-30-96) DATE RAPE, n. An incidence of forced sexual intercourse by one of two individuals after an initial social encounter, usually a date [compound formed with roots date and rape].Context and source: "You Can Protect Yourself Against Date Rape" (Flyer at Hanszen College, Rice University)

DEFLICTED,adj. Affected with a condition that misshapes or distorts. [Blend of "afflicted" and "deformed.] Context and source: "I wouldn' t want my girlfriend to have the deflicted body of a rower." (Conversation)

DETOX, n. A clinic or treatment facility at which substance abusers attempt to rid themselves of dependency on a particular drug. Part of this process entails the actual physical removal of toxins present in the body due to the abuse of a substance [clip of detoxification].Context and source: "Mrs. Herrod checked herself into detox..." (Conversation)

DISORIENT EXPRESS, n. A state of confusion, [novel formation].Context

and Source: "1 felt like 1 was on the Disorient Express for good this time."(Newsweek 11/14/96)

EARWITNESS, n. An individual who hears an incident occur, especially one who later gives a report on what he heard [blend of ear and eyewitness].Context and source: "I didn' t see what happened, I just heard it. I guess I was an earwitness. (Conversation)

EATERS COMA, n. A condition characterized by sluggishness, sleepiness, and often a lack of motivation to do anything but rest/relax or sleep; a condition whose onset occurs shortly after a meal, usually dinner. Context and source: "I have a lot of homework to do, but I just ate a big dinner and now 1 ^{ve} g^{ot} eaters coma. (Conversation)

EATERS DEATH, n. The acute form of eaters coma; characterized by difficulty in standing up and walking, onset occurs after an extremely large meal. Context and source: Tve got eaters death and I don' t think 1 can get up from this chair."(Conversation)

EBONICS, n. Black English Vernacular [Blend of ebony and phonics]

E-MAIL, n. An application of personal computers through which messages are automatically (electrically) sent through networks of computers to Electronic mailboxes [clipped compound formed from electronic and mail].Context and source: "I need to check *my* e-mail" (Conversation)

EMOTICON, n. A symbol, usually found in e-mail messages, made up of punctuation marks that resembles a human expression. [Blend of emotion and icon]Contex and source: " I received a strange symbol at the end of an e-mail and was informed that it is called and emoticon."

FANTABULOUS, adj. beyond fabulous, [blend of fantastic and fabulous] Context and source: "If s fantabulous!" (Conversaton with classmate Amir Brown)

adj. Excellent, superlative, both fabulous and fantastic, [blend of fantastic and fabulous] Context and source: "This fantabulous four-poster bed can be yours..." (Television advert)

F.I.M.E, adj. acronym (F*cked up, Insecure, Neurotic, and Emotional). Usually derogatory;indicated by tone of voice. Context: "We all know he' s F.I.N.E, just like those freaks he hangs out with."

FLAGGIN', v. Slang. Flashing or giving gang signs, [derived from flag - to flash.] Context and source: Don't go flaggin' in the wrong 'hood or you gonna end up dead.

FLAME, v. A personal attack within a post on Usenet, [metaphorical extension of flame]Context and source: "Please don't flame me if you disagree with this." (Usenet article)

FLOW, v. Slang. Rapping, [from the observation that rapping usually contains long strings of text without many pauses]Context and source: "Flow on the mike." (Conversation)

411, n. Information or informative details, usually about a planned event or activity. Also 4-I-I. [One usually dials 4-I-I on the telephone to reach an operator in order to inquire about some piece of information one is searching for.]Context and source: "Here's the 411 on the crabbing trip." (heard in conversation)

FRO-YO, n. A frosty, creamy dessert; frozen yogurt, [clipping of frozen yogurt] Context and source: "Chocolate fro-yo is my favorite dessert!" (Conversation)

FUNKINETICS, n. a very energetic form of step aerobics that mixes exercise and soul music. [Blend of funk and kinetics (motion).]Context and source: If you like soul music and aerobics, you' 11 like funkinetics. (KPRC Houston 10 pm news)

FUNNY, n. A joke; a humorous comment or remark, sometimes unintentionally humorous, [zero- derivation of adj. funnyjContext and source: "Did I make a funny?" (Conversation)

FUNKINETICS, n. a very energetic form of step aerobics that mixes exercise and soul music. [Blend of funk and kinetics (motion).]Context and source: If you like soul music and aerobics, you' 11 like funkinetics. (KPRC Houston 10 pm news)

FURTHER-FETCHED, adj. Beyond far-fetched [Compound further and [fetched]Context and Source: "That' s even worse. That' futher-fetched." (Lecture)

GARDEN BURGER, n. A hamburger made with a non- meat, vegetarian patty instead of beef, served by Rice University Food Service. Also gardenburger. Context and source: "The garden burger is a healthy alternative to a hamburger." (Conversation)

"GARDEN TOOL" MAMA, n. Slang, a prostitute. ["Garden tool" is a euphemism of the vulgar slang ho, which is a derivative (euphemistic respelling) of 'whore'.] Context and Source: She is nothing but a "garden tool" mama. (Conversation)

GET FUNGED, Epithet for when someone bungles an important task (in honor of criminalist Dennis Fung). [Lingo used by journalists covering the O.J. Simpson Civil Trial. Found in Newsweek]

GINORMOUS- adj . extremely large [blend of gigantic and enormous]Context and source: "Oh my! It is not gigantic. It is ginormous!" (Conversation)

GLOBOBOSS, n. A cosmopolitan executive that has the ability to perform well across the globe. Context and Source: "Wanted a globoboss who' s at home anywhere and sings the same tune- profits- everywhere." (Newsweek 12/2/96)

HANZOUND TM, n. The sound system at Hanszen College, Rice University, adj. The presentation of a production using the Hanszen sound system, [combination of "Hanszen" College and "sound". The capitalized "Z." serves to separate the two constituent parts of the word. Also, only "-en" was clipped off of "Hanszen". Also, "s"

and "z" are similar in sound (differ only in voicing) which allows for the particular type of blending and clipping in this new word.]Context and source: "The Hanszen Movies Committee presents A Christmas Story in HansZound TM." (from a flyer posted at Hanszen College)

HOT-SEATING, v. To use the *same* boat but switch out rowers for consecutive races, as in races that occur immediately after another. [Rowers' jargon] Context and source: "We're hot-seating the next race." (Conversation) IMHO, In My Humble Opinion [Acronym used on the Internet]

INTERQUEL, n. A television production that dramatizes a story lying temporally between the story in the original production and that of its sequel. [Analogical formation from model word sequel, first extension *prequel* via recutting to form new morpheme quel; then prefixed with *inter-* 'between'] Context and source: "Having written and filmed a "Lonesome Dove" sequel and prequel, come about 1997 Mr. McMurtry plans to finish an *interquel* "Comanche Moon," about his heroes' prime adulthood." (New York Times 5/12/96)

ITO'D, v. To get hit on the head, especially with a TV crew' s boom microphone. [Lingo used by journalists covering the O.J. Simpson Civil Trial. Found in Newsweek]

JAPANIMATION, n. A type of cartoon or animation originating in Japan carrying robotic and futuristic themes. Also refers to the style of animation. The characters have a distinctive type of appearance, usually incorporating a lock of hair hanging in front of an eye, and nudity. Also known as *anime.* [Blend of Japan and animation].

JONES, n. Slang. An intense desire. Context and source: "Geez, you really got the jones for her." (Conversation)

JORDANESQUE, adj. reminiscent of Michael Jordan, [coined by NBC Sports commentator Mary Albert. The -esque ending means 'like', as found on words like

Romanesque and statuesque.]Context and source: "He made a jordanesque move under the basket." (Conversation)

K-MART EXPRESS, n. Vulgar. Nicely put, a cheap tart, [derived from the notion that K-Mart sells cheap goods, and express meaning quick.]Context and source: "All his girlfriends is K-Mart Express. " (Interview on the Ricki Lake Show)"

KRUNK, adj. Slang. Awesome, syn. tight, cool. [? blend of funk and (k)ool; African American Vernacular English]Context and source: That was a krunk song. (Conversation)

LATE PLATE, n. Dinner/meal eaten after the regular (family-style) dinner is served (Rice University). Context and source: "Late plate doesn' t start until 6:15." (Conversation)

LOC, n. Slang, gangster, as in a member of street gang, [derived from the Spanish word loco meaning "crazy."]Context and source: "Don' t mess with Steve, he's a loc." (Conversation explaining gang terminology)

LOCS, n. Slang, dark sunglasses. Context and source: "Donde esta mis Iocs? [Where are my sun glasses?]" (Conversation explaining gang terminology)

LOSINGEST, adj. In last place, worst off, lagging behind the rest. ["losing"+ superlative]Context and source: "CBS is being asked to pay producers *more* for its series because, as the losingest network, CBS cancels more of them." (Wall Street Journal 09 Feb. 1989)

MACINTRASH, n. A Macintosh computer. Derogatory reference, [blend of Macintosh and trash].Context and source: "I hate doing work on these d*** Macintoshes!" (Conversation)

MALLRATS, n. Collective term used for pre-teens and teenagers for whom it is commonplace to spend large amount of time socializing and wandering through urban

shopping mails [compound formed from roots mall and rat].Context and source: "I really don'I want *my* sister running around with that gang of mallrats." (Conversation)

MCJOB, n. A job in a service related field with low pay, low prestige and little opportunity for advancement [analogous word formed from prefix Mc- and job]. Context and source: "...a message that I suppose irked Dag, who was bored and cranky after eight hours of working his McJob." (Generation X, pg. 5)

MEDIA LEAKS CENTER, n. The row of Porta Potties (portable public toilets) outside the courthouse. [Lingo used by journalists covering the O.J. Simpson Civil Trial. Found in Newsweek]

MEANDERTHAL, n. An annoying individual moving slowly and aimlessly in front of another individual who is in a bit of a hurry [blend formed from meander and neanderthal].Context and source: "As much as he tried, Ben could do nothing to get around the meanderthal on the narrow sidewalk." (Internet)

MOTO, n. Energy for action toward a goal; motivation, [clipping of "motivation"]Context and source: "I need some moto to go workout at the gym day." (Conversation)

NETIZEN, n. A person who spends an excessive amount of time on the Internet, [blend of Internet and citizen].Context and Source ".. investors and Netizens alike were left wondering what went wrong. (Newsweek).

NOAH' S ARKING, v.pres. part. The state of wearing pants in which the length is hilariously short (in other words, it is more than a couple of inches above the ankle.) [Metonymic coinage. Noah' s Ark refers to the great biblical flood, when the world was covered by "high water". "Noah' s Arking." has replaced the earlier term flooding. *A* related term for the too-short pants themselves was *high water pants.]Context* and source: His pants are too short. He is "Noah' s Arking."

O.J.-BY-THE-SEA, n. The media center at the Santa Monica civil trial.

Different from "Camp O.J.."the center at the criminal trial. [Lingo used by journalists covering the O.J; Simpson Civil Trial. Found in Newsweek]

PILTROL (registered tradename) n. *A* fabric/material which is resistant to pilling. [clipped compound of "pilling" and "control"]Context and source: "These coats are made with Piltrol which resists pilling on cuffs and waistband." (Land's End catalog)

PLUGGERS, n. Individuals leading a very nondescript and mediocre life who nonetheless always put forth their best effort and make do with the lot life has given out [noun formed form verb plug].Content and source: "Pluggers prefer baseball caps over fancy toupees and hair treatments." (Comic strip "Pluggers" in Ft. Worth Star-Telegram, 10-13-96) "A plugger's barn or workshed is almost always larger than his actual home. (10-14-96)

POPAGANDA, n. Music that is popular with the general public, and has purpose or is trying promote particular ideas. [Blend of pop (clipping of popular) and propaganda] Content and source: Title of a K.D. Lang album. POOPER-SCOOPER, n. An instrument comprised of a scooping device on a long pole used for the collection of animal waste matter [rhyming compound formed from roots poop, scoop, and suffix- er on each root].Context and source: "I kind of dread going home for Thanksgiving. The first thing *my* dad's going to do is hand *me* the old pooper-scooper..." (Conversation)

POSTAL, adj. extremely hostile. [From the observation of postal workers going insane and killing 5:4 fellow co-workers. Found most often in expressions go *postal* and *get postal] Context* and source: Unable to cope, he got all postal.

PROLLY, adv. Likely to happen, possibly occur, [elided pronunciation of "probably." Assimilation of the "b" to an "1"] Context and source: *Vm* prolly going to the party tonight." (Conversation)

PSYCHODRAMATIC, adj. very crazy (psychotic) and overly dramatic, [blend of psychotic and dramatic] Context and source: "Calm down. Stop being so psychodramatic." (Conversation)

RETAIL ELEPHANT, n. A business that dominates or monopolizes an area. [compound; metaphoric association with the size of an elephant].Context and Source: "... they are increasingly ambivalent about retail elephants lumbering into their neighborhoods. " (Newsweek 9/16/96).

ROAD RAGE, n. Aggressive driving habits often accompanied by dehumanization of обжег drivers and sometimes resulting in violence against other drivers. [Compound of road and rage] Context and Source: "Two thirds of all highway deaths are caused by road rage." (Discussion forum of Milwaukee Journal Sentinel).

ROLLING, n. A dangerous activity popular with today' s delinquents which involves throwing sometimes heavy objects from the back of a moving truck or vehicle [noun formed from addition of pres. participle *-ing* suffix to verb *roll*]. Context and source: "The youths were engaged in a dangerous but increasingly popular new activity known as rolling..." (Fort Worth Star-Telegram, 11-29-96)

RUBBER-CHICKEN CIRCUIT, n. The round of fund-raising dinners attended by politicians. Refers to the standard unappetizing, rubbery chicken served at such dinners, [compound] (New York Times)

SARCASTROPHE, n. An embarrassing and catastrophic event occurring when an individual attempts and fails to use humorous sarcasm [blend of sarcasm and *catastrophe*].Context and source: "Todd's failed attempt at humorous sarcasm resulted in a sarcastrophe at dinner." (Internet)

SCHECK HAPPENS - General epithet used when things go awry. Lingo used by journalists covering the O.J. Simpson Civil Trial, [blend: Scheck, eponym in honor of criminal defense lawyer Barry Scheck, + 'sh-t happens', bumper sticker cliché.] Found in Newsweek.

SCHIZO, n. A cup of coffee made with equal parts of caffeinated and de-caffeinated coffee [clip of schizophrenia]. Context and source: Menu list, Sundance Coffee

SEA LAWYER, n. One who attempts to shirk responsibility or blame through trivial technicalities. [This word is used chiefly in the Navy and at the

Naval Academy to describe a midshipman or officer who uses technicalities and other trivial excuses to escape responsibility or punishment. Based on the popular stereotype of lawyers always arguing technicalities and trivial details coupled with the fact that the Navy is closely associated with water and the sea.] Context and source: "Most sea lawyers are not well respected by their classmates. (A Sense of Honor by James Webb)

SECADEM, n. a Rice student whose double majoring in both Group 1 or II and III. [Blend of Rice terms S/E (Group HI major) and academy (Group 1 or n).]Context and source: "Are you an S/E or an academy?" "Actually, both. I am a secadem." (Conversation)

SEXAHOLISM, n. A condition describing someone who is addicted to sex and alcohol, [blend of sex and alcoholism]. Source: An episode of the "Simpsons."

SHOPGRIFTING, n. to 'rent' something for free by purchasing it and then returning it within 30 days for a full refund. [Compound of shop + grift "to swindle"]Context and source: His shop grifting is totally shameless." (Conversation)

SLACKADEM, n. A term used by science/engineering majors at Rice University for a person majoring in humanities or social sciences due to a perceived lack of work or effort put forth by the latter [blend formed from words academy and slacker].Context and source: "If you' 11 excuse *me.* Eve got to study for a test. Not everyone can be a slackadem and watch TV all day." (Conversation) SLOW-SPEED CHASER, n. A celebratory drink after court is adjourned. [Lingo used by journalists covering the O.J. Simpson Civil Trial. Found in Newsweek]

SNAIL MAIL, n. The standard system of mail delivery in which letters, documents, and packages are physically transported from one location to another, in contrast to electronic mail [rhyming compound formed from roots snail and

mail].Context and source: "More and more companies and individuals are looking to e-mail as an alternative to the traditional means of sending information and documents, snail mail." (Computers, page 52)

SPACE-POSSESSION DICTATORIAL adj. Overly concerned with: one's. possessions, the placement of these, and the placement of others' possessions in the vicinity of one's possessions; characterized by compulsive behavior regarding one's possessions. Context and source: "My roommate is so space-possession dictatorial!" (Conversation)

SPAM, n. Multiple posts of the same message to the same or different Usenet newsgroups or to an e-mail account. The message is usually adverts or marketing promotions and contains no useful or worthwhile information, v. The act of sending multiple copies of a useless message to a newsgroup or an e-mail account. [Extension of the word Spam, the processed meat]

SPEEL, n. An informal speech, usually brief and sometimes impromptu. Also spiel. Context and source: "Now Π1 give my little speel about drinking." (Conversation)

SPIDER, n. person or computer program that searches the web for new links and link them to search engines. [Metaphor, a spider spins webs.]

SPORK, n. A utensil with both bowl and tines, a combination of spoon and fork. [Blend of spoon and fork]Context and source: "I hate these stupid plastic sporks." (Conversation)

STALKERAZZI, n. (pi. stalkerazzis) Tabloid journalist who pursues celebrities night and day, dogging their every move. [Blend of *stalker* and *paparazzi,* tabloid journalists, after eponymous character in Fellini movie. Italian plural -i reanalyzed to singularJContext and source: "Broomfield hooks up with a pair of "stalkerazzis" who work for the tabloids..." (New Yorker 6/8/98)

SWANGIN', v. swerving a car back and forth by rapidly turning the steering wheel (left and right ...repeatedly.)

Context and source: "I lost a wheel while swangin'." (Conversation explaining gang terminology)

SWOOSH, n. The logo of the Nike Corporation, resembling a rounded off checkmark. Context and source: "The Nike logo is called the swoosh, it appears 32 times in the annual report..." (Conversation)

SWOOSHTIKA, n. Derogatory reference to the distinctive logo of the Nike Corporation. Alludes to the powerful hegemony of Nike in the world of sportswear and marketing, the blind logo-worship of unthinking masses of people, and Nike's treatment of its third world workers like slave labor; implicit comparison with Nazi party and the its swastika, [blend of swoosh + -tika, from 'swastika'] Context and source: "People are already beginning to talk about the 'swooshtika'" (Conversation)

TAGGIN', v. spray painting a gang's пате on walls, (leaving a trademark; graffiti) [from tag- meaning to mark or a label.]Context and source: "We were taggin' all night." (Conversation explaining gang terminology)

TELESCAM, n. Illegal money-making schemes conducted by phony telemarketers. [Compound tele- (clipping of telephone) and scamJContext and source: "For Downs, the secret finally came out when she gave her 19 children and grandchildren shoe boxes stuffed with nearly identical collections of telescam trash." (Time, 25 August 1997)

TELEVANGELIST, n. An evangelist who conducts regular religious services on television. [Blend of television and evangelisfJContex and source: "Ole Anthony and his merry band take on the televangelists." (US News, 8 December 1997)

TERRAFORM, v. To change a planet's surface and atmosphere so that life

as it exist on Earth is possible [compound from b. terra 'land' and form].Context and source: "And that' s the question that will shift us to the next level of ош fascination with the place, the idea that we could live there, that Mars could be terraformed." (Newsweek, 9-16-96)

TOUCH, n. An abbreviation of touchdown, the scoring of six points in American football by penetrating an opponent's end zone while in possession of the football [clip formed from touchdown].

Context and source: "Farve drops the screen pass off to Edgar Bennet and he takes it in for the touch." (FOX NFL Hal time Show, 10-20-96)

TROLL, n. A person who sends messages to a Usenet newsgroup to incite emotions and cause controversy. [Metaphorical extension of troll, a supernatural creature (dwarf) that lives in a cave.]

TYSON, adv. Characterized by an insane rage, particularly in the context of a sporting event. [Reference to boxer Mike Tyson]Context and source: "He wne absolutely Tyson in the Monday Night Football opener against the Green Bay Packers." (Sports Illustrated, 15 September 1997)

UV

VATOR, n. Something which lifts, an ascending platform; an elevator, [clipping of elevator]Context and source: "Push '3' on the vator to get to the third floor." (Conversation)

VERTICALLY-CHALLENGED, adj. Short, not tall [compound formed from vertical + -ly (adv.) and challenge + ed.] Context and source: "Don't call him short, he' s vertically challenged." (Conversation)

VIDEOPHILE, n. One who loves and collects video equipment and media [compound from L.video 'see' and G. phile 'loving']Context and source: "The picture quality will be vastly improved,pleasing videophiles." (US News and

World Report, 1 December 1997]"I guess owning a Beta, RCA Selectavision, SVHS, Laserdisc, and DVD makes me a videophile." (Conversation)

WAC, adj. Very unpleasant, undesirable; inappropriate, incoirect or not the way something should be or expected to be, contrary to the social norm; bad or negative in a general sense. Also wack. [clipping of wacky] Context and source: "That test was wac!" "Her outfit was totally wac!" (Conversation)

WALLIN', v. Slang, to sit or stand against a wall at a party, [derived from, of course, wall] Context and source: I didn't dance. Just wallin'. (a book called Street Talk 2)

WHATEVER, v. To dismiss or ignore. Desire to dismiss. [Zero derivation of whatever] Contex and source: " That guy really whatevers *me. "* (Conversation)

WORDROBE, n. a person' s vocabulary, [blend of *word* and *wardrobe]Context* and source: "He has an extensive wordrobe. (a web page on the Internet)

WORRYWORT, n. *A* person who tends to worry habitually and often needlessly [Compound of *worry* and wort] Context and source: "The people in charge of making sure an HMO stays solvent seemed like worry warts." (US News, 24 November 1997)

x,y,z

Y2K, n. The year 2000. The problem in which some computer hardware and software are unable to process dates after 31 December 1999.

[Acronym from Y (year) + 2 + K (Gr. 'kilos' thousand)]

'ZINE, n. An unprofessional periodical publication; a non-formal, home-made magazine, [clipping of magazine]Context and source: "Until two years ago, I had no idea what a 'zine was." (Loose Lips Sink Ships, a 'zine)

CONCLUSION

In the given qualification Paper new words were investigated and analyzed and the ways of their translation were suggested.

The following tasks were set and advanced preceding from above mentioned.

- The different types of non-semantic grouping were revealed.
- Morphological groups were investigated.
- Lexica- grammatical groups were investigated.
- Definition of new words in English were analysed.

- Functional iupes of English vocabulary were analysed
- glossary of latest English new words from A to Z were analyzed with examples .

The theme was investigated on the base of works of prominent scientists such Arnold I. V. Ginsburg R. S Buronov J .B. and Muminov O. M.

In order to get a clear idea of vocabulary of any language it must be presented as a system, the elements of which are interconnected, interlated and yet independent.

As we have already mentioned, in accordance with the division of language in to literary and colloquial, the vocabulary of the English language consists of three main layers such as the literary, the neutral and the colloquial layers. Each of these layers has it's own feature where the literary layer has a bookish character, the colloquial layer has a spoken character and the neutral layer is deprived of any colouring.

Differing from the colloquial and the neutral layers the literary layer may consist of poetics, chaic words and neologisms.

As our qualification paper is dedicated to the study of neologism we tried to

pay special attention to the morphological and lexico-grammatical formation of neologisms and tried to compite a brief glossary of latest English new words which includes more than 120 items.

2) Neologisms appear when there is the need to express new ideas and notions. A neologism is any word or set expressions, formed according to the productive structural patterns or borrowed from another language and felt by the speakers as something new.

If a word is fixed in a dictionary it ceases to be a neologism. If a new meaning is recognized as an element in the semantic structure of a lexical unit, it ceases to be new and becomes part and parcel of the general vocabulary.

It is observed that, every period in the development of languages produces an enormous number of new words of new meaning of established words. Most of them do not live long and the given word or meaning holds only in the given context.

We know that the coining of new words generally arises first of all with the need to designate new concepts resalting from the development of science and also with the need to express them. Among the newly coined words we may distinguish terminological neologisms and stylistic neologisms where terminological coinages designate new-born concepts and stylistic neologisms may be used for expressive utterances.

Neologisms mainly are produced in accordance with the exiting productive word-building models of the English language, generally by means of affixation and word compound.

There is another means of word-building, that is blending of two words into one. (musicomedy = music +comedy; cinema + actress)

Another type of neologism, which is analyzed, is his research is the <u>nonce-word.</u> i.e. a word coined to suit one particular occasion. As we already mentioned above, <u>nonce-word</u> remain on the out skirts of the literary language. The rarely pass into the language as legitimate units of the vocabulary.

In this paper we tried to study the neologism in changing culture in literature and many other spheres of live and decided to distinguish different types:

- Scientific (word or phrases created to describe new scientific discoverers)

- Political (word or phrases created to make some kind of political or rhetorical point)

Pop-culture (word or phrases envolved from mass media content or used to describe popular culture)

- Imported (word or phrases originating in another language)

- Trademarks (neologisms to ensure they are distinguished from other brands)

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

- Inverted (words that are derived from spelling a standard word backwards)

- Paleologisms (a word that is alleged to be a neologism but turns out to be a long- used word, which especially used ironically)

At the end it is possible to say that the study of neologisms is always interesting. Full of disputable matters and develops day by day, i.e doesn't stop at all. Any suggestion on the research work will respectedly be accepted by the author and will be used in further investigations.

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