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ЎЗБЕКИСТОН РЕСПУБЛИКАСИ ОЛИЙ ВА ЎРТА МАХСУС ТАЪЛИМ ВАЗИРЛИГИ

ЎЗБЕКИСТОН ДАВЛАТ ЖАҲОН ТИЛЛАРИ УНИВЕРСИТЕТИ

ИНГЛИЗ ТИЛИ СТИЛИСТИКАСИ КАФЕДРАСИ

АТАБОЕВА НОИЛА МАШАРИПОВНА

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INTRODUCTION

On December 10, 2012 President of the Republic of Uzbekistan Islam Karimov signed Presidential Decree No 1875 'On measures to further improve foreign language learning system in order to enhance teaching and learning foreign languages in all educational directions in Uzbekistan'.

'It is noted that in the framework of the Law of the Republic of Uzbekistan "on education" and the National Program for Training in the country, a comprehensive foreign languages' teaching system, aimed at creating harmoniously developed, highly educated, modern-thinking young generation, further integration of the country to the world community, has been created'[1].

This qualification paper is devoted to the investigation of new words those appeared in the vocabulary system of English language and used in different spheres including the internet, culture and politics.

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

The aim of this work is to describe neologisms by their structure, to give examples of neologisms of old and new senses, to compare their meanings.

The following tasks have been solved in our qualification paper:

1. The contextual factors and comparative procedures of neologisms (all factors are in the frame of reference to compare neologisms).

[1] Decree No1875 by the President of the Republic of Uzbekistan – I.A. Karimov.

2. To show examples of neologisms according to their structure and sphere where they appeared.

Sources investigated in the paper. A number of scientists and linguists ideas about communicative status and the neologisms in English and English literature are taken on the main material of the work.

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

The subject of the qualification paper is lexical-semantic features of neologisms in modern English.

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

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

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

Methods used in the work. Comparative, analytical, explanation methods –

the methods of observation in selection the units research; bibliographic, componential or contextual methods – situate ones.

The structure of the work consists of the following parts: Introduction, 3 Chapters, Conclusion and the List of used literature.

The introduction to this work is based on the choice of this theme, the actuality of the aim and specific problems. The theoretical meaning and the practical value of this work are also considered. We have presented general statements about the qualification paper in it.

The first chapter is 'Lexicology, its importance in Linguistics and word' consisting of two paragraphs which deal with theoretical issue on lexicology as a science and its basic unit - word.

The second chapter is devoted to diachronic approach to new words and it includes three paragraphs which deal with new words, their etymology and classification by their structure.

And the third chapter of the work which is considered to be the practical part is devoted to the study of neologistic layer of English vocabulary and it shows the major types of the neologisms those appeared recently in three main spheres: the Internet, social and political.

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

The work finishes with The list of used literature.

CHAPTER I LEXICOLOGY, ITS IMPORTANCE IN LINGUISTICS

1.1 Lexicology as a science of Linguistics

Lexicology is a branch of linguistics – the science of language. The term ‘lexicology’ is composed of two Greek morphemes: ‘lexic’ – word, phrase and ‘logos’ which denotes learning a department of knowledge. Thus the literal meaning of the term ‘lexicology’ is ‘the science of the word’. Lexicology as a branch of linguistics has its own aims and methods of scientific research. Its basic task is being a study and systematic description of vocabulary in respect to its origin, development and its current use. Lexicology is concerned with words, variable word-groups, phraseological units and morphemes which make up words.

Distinction is made between general lexicology and special lexicology. General lexicology is a part of General linguistics. It is concerned with the study of vocabulary irrespective of the specific features of any particular language. Special lexicology is the lexicology of a particular language (Russian, German, French, etc.).

Lexicology is closely connected with other branches of linguistics: phonetics, for example, investigates the phonetic structure of language & is concerned with the study of the outer sound-form of the word. Grammar is the study of the grammatical structure of language. It is concerned with the various means of expressing grammatical relations between words as well as with patterns after which words are combined into word-groups & sentences. There is also a close relationship between lexicology & stylistics which is concerned with a study of a nature, functions & styles of languages.

The term v o c a b u l a r y is used to denote the system formed by the sum total of all the words and word e q u i v a l e n t s that the language possesses. The term word denotes the basic unit of a given language resulting from the association of a particular meaning with a particular group of sounds capable of a particular

grammatical employment. A word therefore is simultaneously a semantic, grammatical and phonological unit.

Thus, in the word *boy* the group of sounds [bOI] is associated with the meaning ‘a male child up to the age of 17 or 18’ (also with some other meanings, but this is the most frequent) and with a definite grammatical employment, i.e. it is a noun and thus has a plural form — *boys*, it is a personal noun and has the Genitive form *boy’s* (e. g. *the boy’s mother),* it may be used in certain syntactic functions.

The general study of words and vocabulary, irrespective of the specific features of any particular language, is known as general lexicology. Linguistic phenomena and properties common to all languages are generally referred to as language universals. Special lexicology devotes its attention to the description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language. This book constitutes an introduction into the study of the present-day English word and vocabulary. It is therefore a book on special lexicology.

It goes without saying that every special lexicology is based on the principles of general lexicology, and the latter forms a part of general linguistics. Much material that holds good for any language is therefore also included, especially with reference to principles, concepts and terms. The illustrative examples are everywhere drawn from the English language as spoken in Great Britain.

A great deal has been written in recent years to provide a theoretical basis on which the vocabularies of different languages can be compared and described. This relatively new branch of study is called contrastive lexicology. Most obviously, we shall be particularly concerned with comparing English and Russian words.

The evolution of any vocabulary, as well as of its single elements, forms the object of historical lexicology or etymology. This branch of linguistics discusses the origin of various words, their change and development, and investigates the linguistic and extra-linguistic forces modifying their structure, meaning and usage. In the past historical treatment was always combined with the comparative

method. Historical lexicology has been criticised for its atomistic approach, i.e. for treating every word as an individual and isolated unit. This drawback is, however, not intrinsic to the science itself. Historical study of words is not necessarily atomistic. In the light of recent investigations it becomes clear that there is no reason why historical lexicology cannot survey the evolution of a vocabulary as an adaptive system, showing its change and development in the course of time.

D e s c r i p t i v e l e x i c o l o g y deals with the vocabulary of a given language at a given stage of its development. It studies the functions of words and their specific structure as a characteristic inherent in the system. The descriptive lexicology of the English language deals with the English word in its morphological and semantic structures, investigating the interdependence between these two aspects. These structures are identified and distinguished by contrasting the nature and arrangement of their elements.

Lexicology also studies all kinds of semantic grouping and semantic relations: synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, semantic fields, etc.

Meaning relations as a whole are dealt with in s e m a n t i c s — the study of meaning which is relevant both for lexicology and grammar.

The distinction between the two basically different ways in which language may be viewed, the h i s t o r i c a l or d i a c h r o n i c (Gr *dia* 'through' and *chronos* 'time') and the d e s c r i p t i v e or s y n c h r o n i c (Gr *syn* 'together', 'with'), is a methodological distinction, a difference of approach, artificially separating for the purpose of study what in real language is inseparable, because actually every linguistic structure and system exists in a state of constant development. The distinction between a synchronic and a diachronic approach is due to the Swiss philologist Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913).[2] Indebted as we are to him for this important dichotomy, we cannot accept either his axiom that synchronic linguistics is concerned with systems and diachronic linguistics with single units or the rigorous separation between the two. Subsequent investigations have shown the

[2] Saussure F. de. Course de linguistique generale. Paris. 1949. –p34

possibility and the necessity of introducing the historical point of view into systematic studies of languages.

Language is the reality of thought, and thought develops together with the development of society, therefore language and its vocabulary must be studied in the light of social history. Every new phenomenon in human society and in human activity in general, which is of any importance for communication, finds a reflection in vocabulary. A word, through its meaning rendering some notion, is a generalised reflection of reality; it is therefore impossible to understand its development if one is ignorant of the changes in social, political or everyday life, production or science, manners or culture it serves to reflect. These extra-linguistic forces influencing the development of words are considered in historical lexicology. The point may be illustrated by the following example:

Post comes into English through French and Italian from Latin. Low Latin *posta — posita* fern. p.p. of Latin *ponere, posit,* v. 'place'. In the beginning of the 16th century it meant 'one of a number of men stationed with horses along roads at intervals, their duty being to ride forward with the King's "packet" or other letters, from stage to stage'. This meaning is now obsolete, because this type of communication is obsolete. The word, however, has become international and denotes the present-day system of carrying and delivering letters and parcels. Its synonym *mail,* mostly used in America, is an ellipsis from *a mail of letters,* i.e. 'a bag of letters'. It comes from Old French *male* (modern *malle)* 'bag', a word of Germanic origin. Thus, the etymological meaning of *mail* is 'a bag or a packet of letters or dispatches for conveyance by post'. Another synonym of *bag* is *sack* which shows a different meaning development. Sack is a large bag of coarse cloth, the verb *to sack* 'dismiss from service' comes from the expression *to get the sack,* which probably rose from the habit of craftsmen of old times, who on getting a job took their own tools to the works; when they left or were dismissed they were given a sack to carry away the tools.

In this connection it should be emphasised that the social nature of language and its vocabulary is not limited to the social essence of extra-linguistic factors influencing their development from without. Language being a means of c o m m u n i c a t i o n the social essence is intrinsic to the language itself. Whole groups of speakers, for example, must coincide in a deviation, if it is to result in linguistic change.

The branch of linguistics, dealing with causal relations between the way the language works and develops, on the one hand, and the facts of social life, on the other, is termed s o c i o l i n g u i s t i c s . Some scholars use this term in a narrower sense, and maintain that it is the analysis of speech behaviour in small social groups that is the focal point of sociolinguistic analysis. A. D. Schweitzer has proved that such microsociological approach alone cannot give a complete picture of the sociology of language. It should be combined with the study of such macrosociological factors as the effect of mass media, the system of education, language planning, etc. An analysis of the social stratification of languages takes into account the stratification of society as a whole.

Although the important distinction between a diachronic and a synchronic, a linguistic and an extralinguistic approach must always be borne in mind, yet it is of paramount importance for the student to take into consideration that in language reality all the aspects are interdependent and cannot be understood one without the other. Every linguistic investigation must strike a reasonable balance between them.

The lexicology of present-day English, therefore, although having aims of its own, different from those of its historical counterpart, cannot be divorced from the latter. In what follows not only the present status of the English vocabulary is discussed: the description would have been sadly incomplete if we did not pay attention to the historical aspect of the problem — the ways and tendencies of vocabulary development.

Being aware of the difference between the synchronic approach involving also social and place variations, and diachronic approach we shall not tear them

asunder, and, although concentrating mainly on the present state of the English vocabulary, we shall also have to consider its development. Much yet remains to be done in elucidating the complex problems and principles of this process before we can present a complete and accurate picture of the English vocabulary as a system, with specific peculiarities of its own, constantly developing and conditioned by the history of the English people and the structure of the language. "The importance of English lexicology is based not on the size of its vocabulary, however big it is, but on the fact that at present it is the world's most widely used language. One of the most fundamental works on the English language of the present — "A Grammar of Contemporary English" by R. Quirk, S. Greenbaum, G. Leech and J. Svartvik (1978) — gives the following data: it is spoken as a native language by nearly three hundred million people in Britain, the United States, Ireland, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, South Africa and some other countries".[3] The knowledge of English is widely spread geographically — it is in fact used in all continents. It is also spoken in many countries as a second language and used in official and business activities there. This is the case in India, Pakistan and many other former British colonies. English is also one of the working languages of the United Nations and the universal language of international aviation. More than a half world's scientific literature is published in English and 60% of the world's radio broadcasts are in English. For all these reasons it is widely studied all over the world as a foreign language.

The theoretical value of lexicology becomes obvious if we realise that it forms the study of one of the three main aspects of language, i.e. its vocabulary, the other two being its grammar and sound system. The theory of meaning was originally developed within the limits of philosophical science. The relationship between the name and the thing named has in the course of history constituted one of the key questions in gnostic theories and therefore in the struggle of materialistic and idealistic trends. The idealistic point of view assumes that the earlier forms of words

[3] И. В. Арнолд. Лексикология современного английского языка. Москва, 1986, p12.

disclose their real correct meaning, and that originally language was created by some superior reason so that later changes of any kind are looked upon as distortions and corruption.

Lexicology came into being to meet the demands of many different branches of applied linguistics, namely of lexicography, standardisation of terminology, information retrieval, literary criticism and especially of foreign language teaching.

Its importance in training a would-be teacher of languages is of a quite special character and cannot be overestimated as it helps to stimulate a systematic approach to the facts of vocabulary and an organised comparison of the foreign and native language. It is particularly useful in building up the learner's vocabulary by an effective selection, grouping and analysis of new words. New words are better remembered if they are given not at random but organised in thematic groups, word-families, synonymic series, etc.

A good knowledge of the system of word-formation furnishes a tool helping the student to guess and retain in his memory the meaning of new words on the basis of their motivation and by comparing and contrasting them with the previously learned elements and patterns.

The knowledge, for instance, of the meaning of negative, reversative and pejorative prefixes and patterns of derivation may be helpful in understanding new words. For example such words as *immovable* a, *deforestation* n and *miscalculate* v will be readily understood as 'that cannot be moved', 'clearing land from forests' and 'to calculate wrongly'.[4]

By drawing his pupils' attention to the combining characteristics of words the teacher will prevent many mistakes.[5] It will be word-groups falling into patterns, instead of lists of unrelated items, those will be presented in the classroom.

A working knowledge and understanding of functional styles and stylistic synonyms is indispensable when literary texts are used as a basis for acquiring oral skills, for analytical reading, discussing fiction and translation. Lexicology not only gives a

[4] Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary, OUP, 2010.

[5] Combining characteristics or distribution – structural patterns in which the words occur and their lexical collocations.

systematic description of the present make-up of the vocabulary, but also helps students to master the literary standards of word usage. The correct use of words is an important counterpart of expressive and effective speech.

An exact knowledge of the vocabulary system is also necessary in connection with technical teaching means.

Lexicology plays a prominent part in the general linguistic training of every philologist by summing up the knowledge acquired during all his years at the foreign language faculty. It also imparts the necessary skills of using different kinds of dictionaries and reference books, and prepares for future independent work on increasing and improving one's vocabulary.

The word, as it has already been stated, is studied in several branches of linguistics and not in lexicology only, and the latter, in its turn, is closely connected with general linguistics, the history of the language, phonetics, stylistics, grammar and such new branches of our science as sociolinguistics, paralinguistics,[6] pragmalinguistics[7] and some others.

The importance of the connection between lexicology and phonetics stands explained if we remember that a word is an association of a given group of sounds with a given meaning, so that *top* is one word, and *tip* is another. Phonemes have no meaning of their own but they serve to distinguish between meanings. Their function is building up morphemes, and it is on the level of morphemes that the form-meaning unity is introduced into language. We may say therefore that phonemes participate in signification.

Word-unity is conditioned by a number of phonological features. Phonemes follow each other in a fixed sequence so that [pit] is different from [tip]. The importance of the phonemic make-up may be revealed by the substitution test which isolates the central phoneme of *hope* by setting it against *hop, hoop, heap* or *hip*.

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[6] Paralinguistics – the study of non-verbal means of communication (gestures, facial expressions, eye contact, etc.).

[7] Pragmalinguistics – the branch of linguistics concerned with the relation of speech and its users and influence of speech upon listeners. (Leech G. Principles of Pragmatics. London, 1985).

An accidental or jocular transposition of the initial sounds of two or more words, the so-called s p o o n e r i s m s [8] illustrate the same point. Cf. *our queer old dean* for *our dear old queen, sin twister* for *twin sister, May I sew you to a sheet?* for *May I show you to a seat?, a half-warmed fish* for *a half-formed wish,* etc.[1]

Discrimination between the words may be based upon stress: the word ‘*import* is recognised as a noun and distinguished from the verb *im'port* due to the position of stress. Stress also distinguishes compounds from otherwise homonymous word-groups: ‘*blackbird : :* ‘*black* ‘*bird.* Each language also possesses certain phonological features marking word-limits.

Historical phonetics and historical phonology can be of great use in the diachronic study of synonyms, homonyms and polysemy. When sound changes loosen the ties between members of the same word-family, this is an important factor in facilitating semantic changes.

The words *whole, heal, hail,* for instance, are etymologically related. The word *whole* originally meant ‘unharmed’, ‘unwounded’. The early verb *whole* meant ‘to make whole’, hence ‘heal’. Its sense of ‘healthy’ led to its use as a salutation, as in *hail!* Having in the course of historical development lost their phonetic similarity, these words cannot now exercise any restrictive influence upon one another’s semantic development. Thus, *hail* occurs now in the meaning of ‘call’, even with the purpose to stop and arrest (used by sentinels).

Meaning in its turn is indispensable to phonemic analysis because to establish the phonemic difference between [ou] and [o] it is sufficient to know that [houp] means something different from [hop].

All these considerations are not meant to be in any way exhaustive, they can only give a general idea of the possible interdependence of the two branches of linguistics.

S t y l i s t i c s , although from a different angle, studies many problems treated in lexicology. These are the problems of meaning, connotations, synonymy,

[8] S p o o n e r i s m – a phrase in which the speaker accidentally exchanges the firs sounds of two words, with a funny results. (Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English).

functional differentiation of vocabulary according to the sphere of communication and some other issues. For a reader without some awareness of the connotations and history of words, the images hidden in their root and their stylistic properties, a substantial part of the meaning of a literary text, whether prosaic or poetic, may be lost.

An awareness of all the characteristic features of words is not only rewarded because one can feel the effect of hidden connotations and imagery, but because without it one cannot grasp the whole essence of the message the poem has to convey.

The difference and interconnection between g r a m m a r and lexicology is one of the important controversial issues in linguistics and as it is basic to the problems under discussion in this book, it is necessary to dwell upon it a little more than has been done for phonetics and stylistics.

A close connection between lexicology and grammar is conditioned by the manifold and inseverable ties between the objects of their study. Even isolated words as presented in a dictionary bear a definite relation to the grammatical system of the language because they belong to some part of speech and conform to some lexico-grammatical characteristics of the word class to which they belong. Words seldom occur in isolation. They are arranged in certain patterns conveying the relations between the things which they stand for, therefore alongside with their lexical meaning they possess some grammatical meaning. Cf. *head of the committee* and *to head a committee.*

The two kinds of meaning are often interdependent. That is to say, certain grammatical functions and meanings are possible only for the words whose lexical meaning makes them fit for these functions, and, on the other hand, some lexical meanings in some words occur only in definite grammatical functions and forms and in definite grammatical patterns.

For example, the functions of a link verb with a predicative expressed by an adjective cannot be fulfilled by every intransitive verb but are often taken up by

verbs of motion: *come true, fall ill, go wrong, turn red, run dry* and other similar combinations all render the meaning of 'become sth'. The function is of long standing in English and can be illustrated by a line from A. Pope who, protesting against blank verse, wrote: *It is not poetry, but prose run mad*.

On the other hand the grammatical form and function of the word affect its lexical meaning. A well-known example is the same verb *go* when in the continuous tenses, followed by *to* and an infinitive (except *go* and *come),* it serves to express an action in the near and immediate future, or an intention of future action: *You're not going to sit there saying nothing all the evening, both of you, are you?* (Simpson).

Participle II of the same verb following the link verb *be* denotes absence: *The house is gone.*

In subordinate clauses after *as* the verb *go* implies comparison with the average: *... how a novel that has now had a fairly long life, as novels go, has come to be written* (Maugham). The subject of the verb *go* in this construction is as a rule an inanimate noun.

The adjective *hard* followed by the infinitive of any verb means 'difficult': *One of the hardest things to remember is that a man's merit in one sphere is no guarantee of his merit in another.*

These are by no means the only relations of vocabulary and grammar. We shall not attempt to enumerate all the possible problems. Let us turn now to another point of interest, namely the survival of two grammatically equivalent forms of the same word when they help to distinguish between its lexical meanings. Some nouns, for instance, have two separate plurals, one keeping the etymological plural form, and the other with the usual English ending *-s.* For example, the form *brothers* is used to express the family relationship, whereas the old form *brethren* survives in ecclesiastical usage or serves to indicate the members of some club or society; the scientific plural of *index,* is usually *indices,* in more general senses the plural is *indexes.* The plural of *genius* meaning a person of exceptional intellect is *geniuses, genius* in the sense of evil or good spirit has the plural form *genii.*

It may also happen that a form that originally expressed grammatical meaning, for example, the plural of nouns, becomes a basis for a new grammatically conditioned lexical meaning. In this new meaning it is isolated from the paradigm, so that a new word comes into being. *Arms,* the plural of the noun *arm,* for instance, has come to mean 'weapon'. E.g. *to take arms against a sea of troubles* (Shakespeare). The grammatical form is lexicalised; the new word shows itself capable of further development, a new grammatically conditioned meaning appears, namely, with the verb in the singular *arms* metonymically denotes the military profession. The abstract noun *authority* becomes a collective in the term *authorities* and denotes 'a group of persons having the right to control and govern'. Compare also *colours, customs, looks, manners, pictures, works* which are the best known examples of this isolation, or, as it is also called, l e x i c a l i s a t i o n of a grammatical form. In all these words the suffix *-s* signals a new word with a new meaning.

It is also worthy of note that grammar and vocabulary make use of the same t e c h n i q u e , i.e. the formal distinctive features of some derivational o p p o s i t i o n s between different words are the same as those of oppositions contrasting different grammatical forms (in affixation, juxtaposition of stems and sound interchange). Compare, for example, the oppositions occurring in the lexical system, such as *work* :: *worker, power* :: *will-power, food* :: *feed* with grammatical oppositions: *work* (Inf.) :: *worked* (Past Ind.), *pour* (Inf.) :: *will pour* (Put. Ind.), *feed* (Inf.) :: *fed* (Past Ind.). Not only are the methods and patterns similar, but the very morphemes are often homonymous. For example, alongside the derivational suffixes *-en,* one of which occurs in adjectives *(wooden),* and the other in verbs *(strengthen),* there are two functional suffixes, one for Participle II *(written),* the other for the archaic plural form *(oxen).*

Last but not least all grammatical meanings have a lexical counterpart that expresses the same concept. The concept of futurity may be lexically expressed in the words *future, tomorrow, by and by, time to come, hereafter* or grammatically in

the verbal forms *shall come* and *will come.* Also plurality may be described by plural forms of various words: *houses, boys, books or* lexically by the words: *crowd, party, company, group, set,* etc.

The ties between lexicology and grammar are particularly strong in the sphere of word-formation which before lexicology became a separate branch of linguistics had even been considered as part of grammar. The characteristic features of English word-building, the morphological structure of the English word are dependent upon the peculiarity of the English grammatical system. The analytical character of the language is largely responsible for the wide spread of conversion[9] and for the remarkable flexibility of the vocabulary manifest in the ease with which many nonce-words[10] are formed on the spur of the moment.

This brief account of the interdependence between the two important parts of linguistics must suffice for the present. In future we shall have to return to the problem and treat some parts of it more extensively.

Lexicology studies the recurrent patterns of semantic relationships, and of any formal phonological, morphological or contextual means by which they may be rendered. It aims at systematisation.

[9] Conversion – the process of changing one part of speech to another. (И. В. Арнолд, Лексикология современного английского языка, p162).
[10] A nonce-word – it is a word coined for one occasion, a situational neologism. (Y. N. Falk, Lexical Functional Grammar).

1.2 The word as an essential unit of language and its formation

The definition of the word

Although the borderline between various linguistic units is not always sharp and clear, we shall try to define every new term on its first appearance at once simply and unambiguously, if not always very rigorously. The approximate definition of the term w o r d has already been given in the opening page of the book.

The important point to remember about d e f i n i t i o n s is that they should indicate the most essential characteristic features of the notion expressed by the term under discussion, the features by which this notion is distinguished from other similar notions. For instance, in defining the word one must distinguish it from other linguistic units, such as the phoneme, the morpheme, or the word-group. In contrast with a definition, a d e s c r i p t i o n aims at enumerating all the essential features of a notion.

The w o r d may be described as the basic unit of language. Uniting meaning and form, it is composed of one or more morphemes, each consisting of one or more spoken sounds or their written representation. Morphemes as we have already said are also meaningful units but they cannot be used independently, they are always parts of words whereas words can be used as a complete utterance (e. g. *Listen!)*. The combinations of morphemes within words are subject to certain linking conditions. When a derivational affix is added a new word is formed, thus, *listen* and *listener* are different words. In fulfilling different grammatical functions words may take functional affixes: *listen* and *listened* are different forms of the same word. Different forms of the same word can be also built analytically with the help of auxiliaries. E.g.: *The world should listen then as I am listening now* (Shelley).

The definition of every basic notion is a very hard task: the definition of a word is one of the most difficult in linguistics because the simplest word has many different aspects. It has a sound form because it is a certain arrangement of phonemes; it has its morphological structure, being also a certain arrangement of morphemes; when used in actual speech, it may occur in different word forms,

different syntactic functions and signal various meanings. Being the central element of any language system, the word is a sort of focus for the problems of phonology, lexicology, syntax, morphology and also for some other sciences that have to deal with language and speech, such as philosophy and psychology, and probably quite a few other branches of knowledge. All attempts to characterise the word are necessarily specific for each domain of science and are therefore considered one-sided by the representatives of all the other domains and criticised for incompleteness. The variants of definitions were so numerous that some authors (A. Rossetti, D.N. Shmelev) collecting them produced works of impressive scope and bulk.

A few examples will suffice to show that any definition is conditioned by the aims and interests of its author.

Thomas Hobbes (1588-1679), one of the great English philosophers, revealed a materialistic approach to the problem of nomination when he wrote that words are not mere sounds but names of matter. Three centuries later the great Russian physiologist I.P. Pavlov (1849-1936) examined the word in connection with his studies of the second signal system, and defined it as a universal signal that can substitute any other signal from the environment in evoking a response in a human organism. One of the latest developments of science and engineering is machine translation. It also deals with words and requires a rigorous definition for them. It runs as follows: a word is a sequence of graphemes which can occur between spaces, or the representation of such a sequence on morphemic level.

Within the scope of linguistics the word has been defined syntactically, semantically, phonologically and by combining various approaches.

It has been syntactically defined for instance as “the minimum sentence” by H. Sweet and much later by L. Bloomfield as “a minimum free form”. This last definition, although structural in orientation, may be said to be, to a certain degree, equivalent to Sweet’s, as practically it amounts to the same thing: free forms are later defined as “forms which occur as sentences”.

E. Sapir takes into consideration the syntactic and semantic aspects when he calls the word "one of the smallest completely satisfying bits of isolated 'meaning', into which the sentence resolves itself". Sapir also points out one more, very important characteristic of the word, its i n d i v i s i b i l i t y : "It cannot be cut into without a disturbance of meaning, one or two other or both of the several parts remaining as a helpless waif on our hands". The essence of indivisibility will be clear from a comparison of the article *a* and the prefix *a-* in *a lion* and *alive. A lion* is a word-group because we can separate its elements and insert other words between them: *a living lion, a dead lion. Alive* is a word: it is indivisible, i.e. structurally impermeable: nothing can be inserted between its elements. The morpheme *a-* is not free, is not a word. The situation becomes more complicated if we cannot be guided by solid spelling.

Yet under all the permutations certain groups of morphemes behave as 'blocks' — they occur always together, and in the same order relative to one another. There is no possibility of the sequence *s - the - boy, ly - slow, ed - walk. "*One of the characteristics of the word is that it tends to be internally stable (in terms of the order of the component morphemes), but positionally mobile (permutable with other words in the same sentence)[11]".

A purely semantic treatment will be found in Stephen Ullmann's explanation: with him connected discourse, if analysed from the semantic point of view, "will fall into a certain number of meaningful segments which are ultimately composed of meaningful units. These meaningful units are called words[12]".

The semantic-phonological approach may be illustrated by A.H.Gardiner's definition: "A word is an articulate sound-symbol in its aspect of denoting something which is spoken about[13]".

The eminent French linguist A. Meillet (1866-1936) combines the semantic, phonological and grammatical criteria and advances a formula which underlies many

[11] John Lyons, Introduction to Theoretical Linguistics, Cambridge UP, 1969, p203.
[12] Ullmann St. The Principles of Semantics. Glasgow, 1957. p30.
[13] Gardener A. H. The definition of the word and the sentence. The British Journal of Psycology,1922 XII p355.

subsequent definitions, both abroad and in our country, including the one given in the beginning of this book: "A word is defined by the association of a particular meaning with a particular group of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment[14]".

This definition does not permit us to distinguish words from phrases because not only *child*, but *a pretty child* as well are combinations of a particular group of sounds with a particular meaning capable of a particular grammatical employment.

We can, nevertheless, accept this formula with some modifications, adding that a word is the smallest significant unit of a given language capable of functioning alone and characterised by positional mobility within a sentence, morphological uninterruptability and semantic integrity. All these criteria are necessary because they permit us to create a basis for the oppositions between the word and the phrase, the word and the phoneme, and the word and the morpheme: their common feature is that they are all units of the language, their difference lies in the fact that the phoneme is not significant, and a morpheme cannot be used as a complete utterance.

Another reason for this supplement is the widespread scepticism concerning the subject. It has even become a debatable point whether a word is a linguistic unit and not an arbitrary segment of speech. This opinion is put forth by S. Potter, who writes that "unlike a phoneme or a syllable, a word is not a linguistic unit at all."[15] He calls it a conventional and arbitrary segment of utterance, and finally adopts the already mentioned definition of L. Bloomfield. This position is, however, as we have already mentioned, untenable, and in fact S. Potter himself makes ample use of the word as a unit in his linguistic analysis.

The weak point of all the above definitions is that they do not establish the relationship between language and thought, which is formulated if we treat the word as a dialectical unity of form and content, in which the form is the spoken or written expression which calls up a specific meaning, whereas the content is the meaning

[14] Meillet A. Linguistique historique et linguistique generate, Paris, 1927. p30.
[15] Potter S. Modern Linguistics. London, 1957, p78.

rendering the emotion or the concept in the mind of the speaker which he intends to convey to his listener.

The problem of creating a word theory based upon the materialistic understanding of the relationship between word and thought on the one hand, and language and society, on the other, has been one of the most discussed for many years. The efforts of many eminent scholars such as V.V. Vinogradov, A. I. Smirnitsky, O.S. Akhmanova, M.D. Stepanova, A.A. Ufimtseva — to name but a few, resulted in throwing light on this problem and achieved a clear presentation of the word as a basic unit of the language. The main points may now be summarised.

The acoustic aspect of the word serves to name objects of reality, not to reflect them. In this sense the word may be regarded as a sign. This sign, however, is not arbitrary but motivated by the whole process of its development. That is to say, when a word first comes into existence it is built out of the elements already available in the language and according to the existing patterns.

Word formation

Nowadays, the terms ‘word formation’ does not have a clear cut, universally accepted usage. It is sometimes referred to all processes connected with changing the form of the word by, for example, affixation which is a matter of morphology. In its wider sense word formation denotes the processes of creation of new lexical units. Although it seems that the difference between morphological change of a word and creation of a new term is quite easy to perceive, there is sometimes a dispute as to whether blending is still a morphological change or making a new word. There are, of course, numerous word formation processes that do arouse any controversies and are very similar in the majority of languages.

The types of word formation

Clipping

Clipping is the word formation process which consists in the reduction of a word to one of its parts[16]. Clippings are, also, known as "shortenings". Clipping mainly consists of the following types:

1) back clipping: Ad (**ad**vertisement)

2) fore clipping: Phone (tele**phone),** varsity (university**)**

3) middle clipping: Flu (in**flu**enza)

4) complex clipping: Cablegram (**cable**tele**gram**), Org-man (**org**anization **man**)

Acronymy

Acronymy and initialisms are abbreviations, such as NATO, laser, and IBM, those are formed using the initial letters of words or word parts in a phrase or name.

Examples of acronyms:

FNMA – (fannie mae) Federal National Mortgage Association

BBC – British Broadcasting Corporation

IOU – "I owe you"[17].

Blending

A blend is a word formed from parts of two other words. These parts are sometimes, but not always, morphemes.

A blend is different from a portmanteau word[18] in that a portmanteau refers strictly to a blending of two function words, similar to a contraction.

Examples: brunch (breakfast and lunch), cyborg (cybernetic and organism).

Back formation

Back formation refers to the process of creating a new lexeme (less precisely a 'new word') by removing actual or supposed affixes. The resulting neologism is called a back formation.

Examples: **insert** – insertion, **project** – projection.

Borrowing

[16] Marchand, 1969.

[17] All the acronyms from OALD8, Oxford UP, 2010.

[18] A portmanteau word – a word that is invented by combining the beginning of one word and the end of another and keeping the meaning of each. For example, motel is a portmanteau word that is a combination of motor and hotel. (OALD8).

Borrowing is just taking a word from another language. The borrowed words are called loan words. A loanword (or loan word) is a word directly taken into one language from another with little or no translation. Loanwords can also be called 'borrowings'. For example: sakul/schakul from school.

Coinage

Coinage is the invention of totally new words. The typical process of coinage usually involves the extension of a product name from a specific reference to a more general one. For example, Kleenex, Xerox, Kodak.

Derivation

In linguistics derivation is the process of forming a new word on the basis of an existing word. Example: happiness and unhappy from happy.

Compounding

A compounding is a lexeme (a word) that consists of more than one other lexeme. It can be categorized in to two i.e. endocentric and exocentric.

An endocentric compound consists of a head and modifiers which restrict this meaning. For example: **doghouse.**

Exocentric compounds do not have a head and their meaning often cannot be transparently guessed from its constituent parts. For example: **white-collar.**

As for conclusion of this chapter, lexicology is one of the basic branches of linguistics and the common concern of it is 'word' or the lexical unit of a language. Lexicology is the science of the study of word. The sum total of all the words of a language forms the vocabulary or lexical system of a language. The words of a language are like constellations of stars in the firmament. A word has a particular meaning, it has a particular group of sounds, and a particular grammatical function. As such it is a semantic, phonological and grammatical unit. Lexicology studies a word in all these aspects i.e. the patterns of semantic relationship of words as also their phonological, morphological and contextual behaviour. Words undergo constant change in their form and meaning and lexicology studies the vocabulary of a language in terms of its origin, development and current use.

CHAPTER II DIACHRONIC APPROACH TO NEOLOGISMS

2.1 The definition of neologism

New words (or neologisms) are everywhere, what kind of words can be defined as ‘‘neologisms’’? Neologisms are words and expressions used for new concepts that appear in the course of the language development, new meanings of the

already existing words and new names of old concepts. The researchers have not been reached one general agreement on the question about neologism. Researchers with different knowledge backgrounds may define neologism in different ways.

Neologisms (from Greek neo = "new" + logos = "word") is word term or phrase which has been recently created, often to apply to new concepts or to reshape older terms in newer language form. A neologism (from Greek νέο- (néo-), meaning "new", and λόγος (lógos), meaning "speech, utterance") is a newly coined term, word, or phrase, that may be in the process of entering common use, but has not yet been accepted into mainstream language. Neologisms are often directly attributable to a specific person, publication, period, or event. Neolexia (Greek a "new word", or the act of creating a new word) is a fully equivalent term. «A neologism is the term used to describe a word that has been made-up or invented by a speaker, which appears in a transcript of spontaneous speech dialogue. It can also be described as a word which does not appear in the dictionary of the primary spoken language, but which is also not a foreign word».

The common thing is that neologism is not yet registered in dictionaries and in most cases it is a colloquial for the time being. Term ‘neologism’ is first attested in English in 1772, borrowed from French néologisme (1734). However, as early as the second half of the 18th century, it became obvious that the vocabulary of literary expression should and perhaps could not be fully limited. Modern, neutral meaning of neologism appears early in the 19th century. The basic complications during the translation of neologisms, it is the explaining of the meaning of the new word. are especially useful in identifying inventions, new phenomena, or old ideas which have taken on a new cultural context. In general, neologisms may be introduced into English vocabulary because of the rapid progress of modern science and technology, political struggle, changes in social habits, economic development, etc. New words are being invented or introduced all the time.

However, those old words that hold the new meaning are also considered as neologisms. So far a general criterion for defining neologisms can be found:

1) neologisms are the words which didn't occur before and are newly built and currently enter into the common lexicons.

2) neologisms are the words which within a certain period of time, have been widely accepted by people and still find their applications nowadays.

3) neologisms are those old words which carry the new meanings.

For the time of criteria for seclusion of new-foundation and neologism exactly to decide it is impossible, it has a sense to use subjective criteria: if it receive the collective language consciousness this or that lexical unit as a new sequent we will name it with the term "neologism'', any word for their comfort have the statue of lexical new-foundation, as the quality of own neologism. Basic complications during the translation of neologisms, it is the explaining of the meaning of the new word.

The translation of neologism, which meaning has already known to translator, the mission is easier and it solves by the way of using means, being suspended for the type of the word which belongs to that neologism. The new word absents in English-Russian dictionary, as it is need to try to find it in English-English dictionary. There are ''New words Sections'' in many famous dictionaries. In that time recommends to use dictionaries of the last issue. Many neologisms we can find in dictionaries and sections about slangs. However, the dictionaries in objective causes can't wholly show in their all new-founded words, as for that lexis avoid to include in dictionaries such called ''occasional'' neologisms, individual new-founded, brought by the individual authors, such words also turns "unlivable words" and disappear as fast as they appear. Coming out from the term "neologism" we can assume, that the translator first meet with his own neologism, naturally he has no imagination, about that which is explained by him.

The translation of neologism, which meaning has already known to translator, the mission is easier and it solves by the way of using means, being suspended for the type of the word which belongs to that neologism. Neologisms often become accepted parts of the language. Other times, however, they disappear from common usage. 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. may take decades to become "old," though. Opinions differ on exactly how old a word must be to no longer be considered a neologism; cultural acceptance probably plays a more important role than time in this regard.

After being coined, neologisms invariably undergo scrutiny by the public and by linguists to determine their suitability to the language. Many are accepted very quickly; others attract opposition. Language experts sometimes object to a neologism on the grounds that a suitable term for the thing described already exists in the language. Non-experts who dislike the neologism sometimes also use this argument, deriding the neologism as "abuse and ignorance of the language.

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.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.

2.2 The etymology of neologisms

Modern word rapidly changes, so does the language of a speech. The language change reflects every aspect of the changing life as well. New inventions and new discoveries have to be named and need proper vocabulary. New words (or neologisms) are raised by creativity of our minds and come into existence in everyday communication. They appear all the time continuously: words – 'table' and 'sky' once were neologisms. But soon they became vital and widespread to be felt neologisms. Names of different fruit, species were new names of new concepts (pea, cherry, pepper). The introduction of Christianity brought with it a great number of new concepts and words (church, candle). The Norman Conquest also contributed to the enrichment of the English vocabulary (army). development of industry, the development of technology, new inventions caused the appearance of new words (film, television, self-starter). A great number of neologisms appeared during the periods of great social upheavals (machine, bank, investment). After the Bourgeois Revolution in France there appeared such words as bureaucracy, revolution, regime, terrorism. World War I such neologisms as blackout, camouflage, air-raid appeared. After World War II such words as H-bomb, the UNO, cold war entered the language. The 70-s of the 20th century neologisms were connected with all spheres of life: computerization (multi-user[19], neurocomputer, liveware, telepost, telebanking, finger-print); exploration of space (space-bike, cargo-module, link-up); development of the arts (soft art, action painting, kinetic art; development of cinema, TV, video (inflight videosystem, satellite-delivered show, kidvid); theatrical art (theatre of absurd, son et lumiere[20], revolve); social development (the Lib movement, libbie). The 70s libbies[21] declared that the English language discriminated women. As a result of it the names denoting occupations and containing the element man underwent some changes. The word cameraman was substituted by operator, fireman - fire-fighter, chairman - chairperson, policeman - police officer. Even in church the word mankind was

[19] Multi-user – able to be used by more than one person at the same time. (OALD 8)
[20] Son et lumiere – a performance that tells the story of a historical place or event using lights and recorded sounds. (LDOCE 5)
[21] Libbie – a person who supports political, social and religious change; a liberal. (OALD 8)

substituted by people. At the same time the names of women's professions were changed: stewardess - flight attendant, nurse - male nurse, male secretary. He/she in written speech is used when both sexes are meant. S/he variant is less frequently used. the 80-s - 90-s of the 20th century neologisms were connected with lifestyles (belonger, ladies who lunch, theme pub); computerisation (laptop, to back up, to toggle[22]); economics (sunrise industry, sunset industry, dawn raid); music (acid house, MTV, New Age music); mass media (video nasty, video piracy, tabloid television); art (crossfader, body-popping); medicine (to burn out, PWA, ME); education (baker day, City technology college); fashion (body conscious, leisure wear); cookery (jacket crisp, tapas).

The 16th century there was a flood of new publications in English, prompted by a renewed interest in the classical languages and literatures and in the rapidly developing fields of science, medicine and the arts. This period, from the time of Caxton[23] until around 1650, was later to be called the "Renaissance", and it included the Reformation, the discoveries of Copernican[24], and the European exploration of Africa and the Americas. The effects of these fresh perspectives on the English languages were immediate, far-reaching and controversial focus of interest was vocabulary. There were no words in the language to talk accurately about the new concepts, techniques, and inventions which were coming from Europe, and so writers began to borrow them. Most of the words which entered the language at the time were taken from Latin, with a good number from Greek, French, Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese. Then, as the period of word-wide exploration got under way, words came into English from over 50 other languages, including several indigenous languages of North America, Africa, and Asia. Some words came into English directly; others came by way of an intermediate language. Many came indirectly from Latin or Italian via French writers, such as Thomas Elliot, went out of their way to find new words,

[22] Toggle – to change from one operation to another using 'toggle'.
[23] William Caxton – the English printer, who as a translater and publisher, exerted an important influence on English literature. (Encyclopaedia Britannica).
[24] Copernican – a period when a Polish astronomer lived and discovered his 'Copernican system'. (Encyclopaedia Britannica).

in order (as they saw it) to 'enrich' the language. They saw their role as enabling the new learning to be brought within the reach of the English public-whether this was access to the old classical texts, or to the new fields of science, technology, and medicine. There were many translations of classical works during the 16th century, and thousand of Latin and Greek terms were introduced, as translators searched for an English equivalent and could not find one. Some, indeed, felt that English was in any case not an appropriate vehicle for the expression of the new learning. English, in this view, did not compare well with the tried and tested standards of Latin or Greek, especially in such fields as theology or medicine. It was a language fit for the street, but not for the library as now, the influx of foreign vocabulary attracted bitter criticism, and people leaped to the language's defense. Purists[25] opposed the new 'inkhorn' terms, condemning them for obscurity and for interfering with the development of native English vocabulary. Some writers (notably, the poet Edmund Spenser) attempted to revive obsolete English words instead - what were sometimes called 'Chaucerisms' - and to make us of little-known words from English dialects. Algate ('always'), sicker ('certainly'), and yblent ('confused') are examples. The scholar John Cheke used English equivalents for classical terms whenever he could, such as crossed for 'crucified' and gainrising for 'resurrection' increase in foreign borrowings is the most distinctive linguistic sign of the Renaissance in English. Purist opinions did not, in the event, stem the influx of new words - nor have it ever, in the history of this language.

Some Renaissance loan words in English

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

[25] A purist – a person who thinks things should be done in the traditional way and who has strong opinions on what is correct in language. (OALD 8).

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

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

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

Lexical creation

Anglo-Saxon forms, borrowings, and the use of affixes account for most of what appears within the English lexicon, but they do not tell the whole story. People do some creative, even bizarre things with vocabulary, from time to time, and a fascinating topic in lexicology is to examine just what they get up to. The general term for a newly-created lexeme is a coinage: but in technical usage a distinction can be drawn between nonce words and neologisms nonce word (from the 16th century

phrase for the nonce, meaning 'for the once') is a lexeme created for temporary use, to solve an immediate problem of communication. Someone attempting to describe the excess water on a road after a storm was head to call it a fluddle - she meant something bigger than a puddle but smaller than a flood. The new-born lexeme was forgotten (except by a passing linguist) almost as soon as it was spoken. It was obvious from the jocularly apologetic way in which the person spoke that she did not consider fluddle to be a 'proper' word at all. There was no intention to propose it for inclusion in a dictionary. As far as she was concerned, it was simply that there seemed to be no word in the language for what she wanted to say, so she made one up, for the nonce. In everyday conversation, people create nonce-words like this all the time there is never any way of predicting the future, with language. Who knows, perhaps the English-speaking world has been waiting decades for someone to coin just this lexeme. It would only take a newspaper to seize on it, or for it to be referred to in an encyclopedia, and within days (or months) it could be on everyone's lips. Registers of new words would start referring to it, and within five years or so it would have gathered enough written citations for it to be a serious candidate for inclusion in all the major dictionaries. It would then have become a neologism - literally, a 'new word' in the language. Neologism stays new until people start to use it without thinking, or alternatively until it falls out of fashion, and they stop using it altogether. But there is never any way of telling which neologisms will stay and which will go. 'blurb', coined in 1907 by the American humorist Gelett Burgess (1866-1951), proved to meet a need, and is an established lexeme now. On the other hand his coinage of gubble[26] never caught on. Lexical history contains thousands of such cases. In the 16th century - a great age of neologisms - we find 'disaccustom' and 'disacquaint' alongside 'disabuse' and 'disagree'. Why did the first two neologisms disappear and the last two survive? We also find effectual, effectuous, effectfull, effectuating, effective. Why did only two of the five forms survive, and why those two, in particular? The lexicon is full of such mysteries.

[26] Gubble – to indulge in meaningless conversation.

Loadsalexemes

Loadsamoney, an informal label for someone who flaunts wealth, first came to notice in the mid-1980s as the name of a character invented by British alternative comedian Harry Enfield. It caught on, and was given a boost in May 1988, when Labour Party leader Neil Kinnock used it to label the Conservative government's policy of encouraging the creation of wealth for its own sake. Journalists began referring to a Loadsamoney mentality and the Loadsamoney economy, and gradually the prefix began to take on a life of its own. Later that year we find in various newspapers: loadsasermons, loadsaglasnost, loadsaspace, loadsapeople. Affixes seem to have found new life in the 1980s. Mega-, for example, was used with dozens of forms, such as -trendy, -sulk, -worry, -terror, -plan, -bid, -brand, and -city. The suffixing use of -friendly was found not only with user- (its original usage), but also with audience-, customer-, environment-, farmer-, girl-, nature-, and many more. Sexism brought a host of other -isms, such as weightism, heightism and ageism. Rambo[27]-based coinages included Ramboesque and Ramboistic. Band-aid gave birth to Sport-aid and Nurse-aid. And the Watergate affair of the mid-1970s lived on linguistically, -gate continuing to attach itself to almost any proper noun where there may be a hint of wicked goings-on, as in Irangate, Lloydstage, and the remarkable Gospelgate (for the wrongdoing of US televangelists).

Thingummybob and whatsisname

It is by no means clear how we should spell most of the items in the following list - and accordingly they tend to be omitted from dictionaries, whose focus is generally on the written language. They are nonetheless an important element in the English lexicon, providing speakers with a signal that they are unable to retrieve a lexeme - either because it has slipped their mind or perhaps because there is a lexical gap in the language. Such nonsense words occur in many variant forms and pronunciations, just some of which are recorded here.

[27] Rambo- a main character in a film full of fight and brutal scenes.

Deeleebob	Gewgaw Gimmick	Whatchacallem
Deeleebobber	Gizmo Goodie	Whatchacalit
Diddleebob	Hootenanny Lookit	Whatchamacallit
Diddleydo	Oojamaflop	Whatever Whatsisname
Diddleything	Thingamabob	Whatsit Whatsits
Diddleythingy	Thingamabobbit	Whatnot Whosis
Dignus Dingdong	Thingamajig	Whosit Whosits
Dingy Dooda	Thingummy	Widget
Doodad Doohickey	Thingummybob Thingy	
Gadget Geega	Thingybob	

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

Literary neologizing

The more creative the language context, the more likely we are to encounter lexical experiments, and find ourselves faced with unusual neologisms. The stretching and breaking of the rules governing lexical structure, for whatever reason, is characteristic of several contexts, notably humor, theology, and informal conversation, but the most complex, intriguing and exciting instances come from the language of literature. The pages illustrate the range of neologisms used by several modern authors, with pride of place given to the chief oneiroparonomastician (or 'dream-pun-namer' - the term is Anthony Burgess's), James Joyce[28]. Joyce himself called Finnegan's Wake 'the last word in stolentelling', a remark which seems to recognize that the extraordinary lexical coinages in his novel have their roots in perfectly everyday language. Certainly, it is our grassroots linguistic awareness which enables us to disentangle some of the layers of meaning in a Joycean neologism. However, untutored native intuition will not sort everything out, as considerable use is also made of elements from foreign languages and a wide range of classical allusions. Style largely depends on the mechanisms involved in the simple pun, but whereas puns generally rely for their effect on a single play on words,

[28] James Joyce (1882-1941) – an Irish novelist noted for his experimental use and exploration of new literary methods in such large works of fiction as Ulysses and Finnegans Wake. (Encyclopaedia Britannnica).

it is usual for Joyce's forms to involve several layers of meaning, forming a complex network of allusions which relate to the characters, events, and themes of the book as a whole. There is also a similarity to the portmanteau words of Lewis Carroll, though Carroll never tried to pack as much meaning into a portmanteau as Joyce routinely did. Joyce was a writer of that period. Joysprick (1973), Anthony Burgess presents an illuminating analysis of the linguistic processes involved in the development of what he calls Joyce's 'jabberwocky'. These successive drafts (a-c) of Finnegan's Wake, published in the 1920s, show that the style is carefully engineered, despite its apparent randomness and spontaneity. Each version introduces extra connotations, puns, and allusions, and a growing intricacy of lexical structure. The version, which appears in the book (d), is included for comparison.

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

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

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

(d) Tell me, tell me, how cam she camlin trough all her fellows, the neckar

she was, the diveline? Casting her perils before our swains from Fonte-in-Monte to Tidingtown and from Tidingtown tilhavet. Linking one and knocking the next, tapting a flank and tipting a jutty and palling in and pietaring out and clyding by on her eastway. Waiwhou was the first thurever burst? Someone he was, whuebra they were, in a tactic attack or in single combat. Tinker, tilar, souldrer, salor, Pieman Peace or Polistamann. That's the thing I'm elways on edge to ask.

Good way of developing an understanding of how Joyce's neologisms work is to try to imitate them, or parody them suggests a game to fill long winter evenings. In response to an instruction to 'punbaptise the names of the months from the viewpoint of a confirmed drunkard', he gives us, this means that a lot of writers use literary neologizing in their novels and stories.

Neologistic compounds

A lot of writers and poets used Neologistic compounds. Some Liverpool poets as Adrian Henry (b.1932), Roger McGough (b.1937), and Brian Patten (b.1946) can show Neologistic compounds in their poems. Lexicoining is one of the several techniques described in earlier pages available to any author who wishes to neologize. For example, there may be a novel use of affixes:

'…by owl-light in the half-way housegentleman lay graveward with his furies'.

(Dylan Thomas, "Altarwise by Owl-light", 1935-6) an unusual word-class conversion.

'…slipped thro' the frenchwindowsarminarmed across the lawn'.

(Roger McGough, "The Fish", 1967).

But innovative compounds are particularly widespread, and deserve special space. Staid set of compound lexemes which was illustrated before does not even begin to capture the exuberant inventiveness which can be seen in English literature from its earliest days. Old English was dominated by its creative compounding, as seen in such forms as hronrad 'sea' (literally, 'whale-road'), and, much later, Shakespeare made considerable use of Neologistic compounds: **pity-pleading eyes** and **oak-cleaving thunderbolts**. Sometimes several items are joined in a compound-

like way:

'…base, proud, shallow, beggarly, three-suited-pound, filthy woosted-stocking, a Lilly-livered, action-taking,, glasse-gazing super-seruiceableRogue.'

(King Lear[29], II.ii.15)

is not a great remove from here to the Joycean juxtapositions[30] of Ulysses, 1922:

'…broadshouldered deepchested stronglimbed frankeyedfreely freckled shaggy-bearded widemouthedlongheaded deepvoiced bareknedhairylegged ruddyfaced sinewyarmed hero.'

To the lexical creations of Gerard Manly Hopkins[31], mixing hyphenated and solid forms: 'this darksome burn, horseback brown, rollrock highroad roaring down…windpuff-bonnet of fawn-frothand twindles over the broth…'

("Inversnaid", 1881).

A real compound acts as a grammatical unit, has a unified stress pattern, and has a meaning which is in some way different from the sum of its parts. Many literary compounds do none of this, and have a solely graphic appeal, as in this later line from Roger McGough's poem: 'you took of your other gloveis', perhaps a phonetic implication in such forms, suggestive of a difference in rhythm or speed of utterance when read aloud; but there is no grammatical or semantic change involved. A different kind of point is being made to break graphic convention for its own sake reinforces the iconoclastic, irreverent tone with which the Liverpool Poets of the 1960s came to be identified.

2.3 The types of neologisms

1. The old words with new senses

Firstly, let's take the existing words with new senses. These do not normally

[29] King Lear – a tragedy in five acts by W. Shakespear, written in 1605-1606.
[30] Juxtaposition – the sct of putting people or things together, especially in order to show a contrast or a new relationship between them.
[31] Gerard Manly Hopkins (1844-1889) – an English poet and Jesuit priest, one of the most individual of Victorian writers.

refer to new objects or processes and therefore are rarely technological. However, creneau, which started as a metaphor as creneau de vente (therefore is a 'pseudo-neologism') can normally be translated technically as 'market outlet' or informally as 'range of demand for a particular type of product' depending on the three types: 1) expert, 2) educated generalist, who may require extra explanations of the topic of the SL culture, 3) the ignorant, who may need explanations at various levels. All these types belong to the type of readership. The term 'gay' appears to have been deliberately used by homosexual to emphasise their normality. It is no longer slang-translations such as 'schwul' or 'homo' will not do. Possibly when homosexuality loses all its negative connotations, there will be no need for this sense of 'gay' but it is likely to stay - it has gone into French and German as gay. You cannot go back in language - a colloquial term is not usually replaced by a formal term. To sum up, old words with new senses tend to be non-cultural and non-technical. They are usually translated from the SL[32] either by a word that already exist in the TL[33], or by brief functional or descriptive term. Collocations with new senses are a translator's trap: usually these are 'normal' descriptive terms which suddenly become technical terms; their meaning sometimes hides innocently behind a more general or figurative meaning:

in English		in German
'unsocial hours'	-	Studen auberhalb derArbeitzeit
'high-rise'	-	Hochhaus
'real-time' (computers)	-	Echtzeit

Collocations with new senses may be cultural or non-cultural. If the referent (concept or object) exists in the TL, there is usually a recognised translation or trough-translation. If the concept does not exist or the TL speakers are not yet aware of it, an economical descriptive equivalent has to be given. There is also the possibility of devising a new collocation in inverted commas, which can later be slyly withdrawn. Also have to be aware of the reverse tendency, which is to use 'technical'

[32] SL – Source Language, a language from which a text is being translated.
[33] TL – Target Language, a language into which a text is being translated.

collocations such as ‘critical mass’ or ‘specific gravity’ at a generalized sense - this often leads to jargon which can be ‘corrected’ in the translation of informative texts.

2. Derived words

The great majority of neologisms are words derived by analogy from ancient Greek (increasingly) and Latin morphemes usually with suffixes as -ismo, -ismus, -ija etc., naturalised in the appropriate language. In some countries (e.g. pre-War Germany, Arabic-speaking countries) this process has been preferred. E.g. ‘television’ - Fernsehen. However, now this word-forming procedure is employed mainly to designate (non-cultural) scientific and technological rather than cultural institutional terms, the advance of these internationalisms is wide-spread. Normally, they have naturalised suffixes. Many are listed in Babel appears to be the main non-European language that ‘imports’ them, this does not mean that the translator can apply the process automatically. For example: “Bionomics” has given way to ‘ecology’, and ‘ergonomics’ (second sense) to ‘biotechnology’. A translator has to consult the appropriate ISO[34] glossary to find out whether there is already a recognized translation; secondly, whether the referent yet exists in the TL culture; thirdly, how important it is and therefore whether it is worth ‘transplanting’ at all. Example: televideo - appears to be an earlier version of video, which has several meanings (‘tape’, ‘recorder’, ‘cassette’). Not however that most of these words are virtually context-free. We should note the medical neologisms: ‘chronopharmacology’ and etc., particularly approved chemical names of generic drugs can often be reproduced with a naturalized suffix (French -ite, English -itis; French -ine, English -in). But bear in mind that Romance languages do this more easily than others, since it is their home territory, and you should not automatically naturalize or adopt a word like ‘anatomopathologie’ (1960). Languages combine two or more academic subjects into a single adjective thus medico-chirurgial, medico-pedagogique, etc, in a manner that Shakespeare was already satirizing in Hamlet (II.2) (‘pastoral-comical’, ‘tragical-historical’, ‘tragical-comical-historical-pastoral’

[34] ISO- International Standards Organization.

etc) such combinations should normally be separated into two adjectives in the translation: ‘medical and surgical’, ‘both medical and surgical’, but ‘physio’ - (from physiology), ‘physico’ - (physics) and ‘bio’ - are common first components of interdisciplinary subjects.

3. Abbreviations

Abbreviations have always been a common type of pseudo-neologisms, probably more common in French and German that in English. Example: Uni, Philo, sympa, Huma, fac, fab, video; they are normalised (i.e. translated unabbreviated), unless there is a recognized equivalent (e.g. bus, metro, plus science-technical terms), one of the most noticeable features of present-day English linguistic life, would form a major part of any super dictionary. Often thought to be an exclusively modern habit, the fashion for abbreviations can be traced back over 150 years. In 1839, a writer in the New York Evening Tatler[35] comments on what he calls ‘the initial language… a species of spoken shorthand, which is getting into very general use among loafers and gentlemen of the fancy, besides Editors, to whom it saves much trouble in writing…’. He was referring to OK (‘all correct’), PDQ (‘pretty damn quick’) - two which have lasted - GT (‘gone to Texas’), LL (‘liver loafers’), and many other forms introduced, often with a humorous or satirical intent, by society people. Fashionable use of abbreviation - a kind of society slang - comes and goes in waves, though it is never totally absent. In the present century, however, it has been eclipsed by the emergence of abbreviations in science, technology, and other special fields, such as cricket, baseball, drug trafficking, the armed forces, and the media. The reasons for using abbreviated forms are obvious enough. One is the desire for linguistic economy - the same motivation which makes us want to criticize someone who uses two words where one will do. Succinctness and precision are highly valued, and abbreviations can contribute greatly to a concise style. They also help to convey a sense of social identity: to use an abbreviated form is to be ‘in the know’ - part of the

[35] New York Evening Tatler – an American magazine published once in a month.

social group to which the abbreviation belongs. Computer buffs the world over will be recognized by their fluent talk of ROM and RAM, of DOS and WYSIWYG. You are no buff if you are unable to use such forms, or need to look them up (respectively, 'read-only memory', 'random-access memory', 'disk operating system', 'what you see is what you get'). It would only irritate computer-literate colleagues and waste time or space (and thus money) if a computer-literate person pedantically expanded every abbreviated form. And the same applies to those abbreviations which have entered everyday speech. It would be strange indeed to hear someone routinely expanding BBC, NATO, USA, AIDS, and all the other common abbreviations of contemporary English. Indeed, sometimes (as with radar and AIDS), the unabbreviated form may be so specialized that it is unknown to most people - a point not missed by the compilers of quiz games, who regularly catch people out with a well-known abbreviation. As a test, try UNESCO and UNICEF, AAA, SAM and GI or DDT and TNT are 6 types of abbreviation: initialisms, acronyms, clipping, blends, awkward cases, facetious forms. Items which are spoken as individual letters, such as BBC, DJ, MP, EEC, e.g., and USA; also called alphabetizes. The vast majority of abbreviations fall into this category. Not all use only the first letters of the constituent words: PhD, for example, uses the first two letters of the word philosophy and GHQ and TV take a letter from the middle of the word.

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

Clipping - a part of word which serves for the whole, such as ad and phone. These examples illustrate the two chief types: the first part is kept (the commoner type, as in demo, exam, pub, Gill), and the last part is kept (as in bus, plane). Sometimes a middle part is kept, as in fridge and flue. There are also several clippings which retain material from more than one part of the word, such as maths

(UK), gents, and specs. Turps is a curiosity, in the way it adds an -s. Several clipped forms also show adaptation, such as fries (from French fried potatoes), Betty (from Elizabeth) and Bill (from William).

Blend - a word which is made up of the shortened forms of two other words, such as brunch (breakfast+lunch), heliport (helicopter+airport), smog (smoke+fog), and Eurovision (European+television). Scientific terms frequently make use of blending (as in the case of bionic), as do brand names (a device which cleaned your teeth while you used the phone might be called Teledent) and fashionable neologisms. Lexical blend, as its name suggests, takes two lexemes which overlap in form, and welds them together to make one. Enough of each lexeme is usually retained so that the elements are recognizable. Here are some longstanding examples, and a few novelties from recent publications: motor + hotel = motel, advert + editorial = advertorial, channel + Tunnel = Chunnel, Oxford + Cambridge = Oxbridge, slang + language = slanguage, guess + estimate = guesstimate, square + aerial = squaerial, toys + cartoons = toytoons, breath + analyser = breathalyzer, information + commercials = informercials. In most cases, the second element is the one which controls the meaning of the whole. So, brunch is a kind of lunch, not a kind of breakfast - which is why the lexemes are brunch and not say lunkfast. Similarly, a toytoon is a kind of cartoon (one which generates a series of shop toys), not a kind of toy. It seems to have increased in popularity in the 1980s, being increasingly used in commercial and advertising contexts. Products are sportsational, swimsational, and sexsational. TV provides dramacons, docufantasies, and rockumentaries. The forms are felt to be eye-catching and exciting; but how many of them will still be around in a decade remains an open question.cases - abbreviations which do not fall clearly into the above four categories. Some forms can be used either as initialisms or acronyms (UFO - ‘U F O’ or ‘you-foe’). Some mix these types in the one word (CDROM, pronounced ‘see-dee-rom’). Some can form part of a lager word, using affixes (ex-JP, pro-BBC, ICBMs). Some are used only in writing (Mr, St- always pronounced in full in speech). Examples: TGIF - Thank God It’s Friday,

CMG - Call Me God (properly, "Companion of St Michael and St George"), GCMG - God Calls Me God (properly, "Grand Cross of St Michael and St George"), and above al AAAAAA - Association for the Alleviation of Asinine Abbreviations and Absurd Acronyms[36].

4. **Collocations**

Where there is an accepted collocation in the SL, the translator must find and use its equivalent in the TL, if it exists. A collocation consists basically of two or three lexical (sometimes called full, descriptive, substantial) words, usually linked by grammatical (empty, functional, relational) words, e.g. 'a mental illness'. The collocates within a collocation define and delimit each other by eliminating at least some of their other possible meanings; the defining may be mutual and equally balanced, but more often it is closer for one collocate than for the other. Thus 'to pay attention', since it reduces the number of senses in which 'pay' can be used to one. The word 'attention' is not so radically affected, but it excludes 'attention' in the sense of 'care, solicitude'. 'To buy a hat' is not a collocation, since it does not appreciably delimit the sense of 'buy' or 'hat'. However, collocations shade off into other grammatically linked word-groups without a sharp division. Collocation is the element of system in the lexis of a language. It may be syntagmatic or horizontal, therefore consisting of a common structure; or paradigmatic or vertical, consisting of words belonging to the same semantic field which may substitute for each other or be semantic opposites. These become collocations only when they are arranged syntagmatically. Collocations can be divided into seven main groups: 1) Verb + verbal noun. Examples: pay attention, suffer a defeat, run a meeting, make a speech. The verb is the collocate for which the translator must find the appropriate equivalent. The verbs in these collocations merely have an operative function (they mean 'do') and no particularized meaning since the action is expressed in the noun. Some verbal nouns have a small range of collocates; others, like discourse, Lob, Dients, have one obvious collocate (pronouncer, spenden, leisten). 2) Determiner +

[36] Actually listed in the Gale Dictionary.

adjective + noun. The appropriate adjective has to be found for the noun. There is a much wider range of choices than in (1), and the force of this category of collocation is usually only established by contrast with another language. Thus ‘a large apple’ but une grosse pomme; ‘a tall man’ but un home grand; un grand home but ‘a great man’; un beau garcon but ‘a good looking man’; ‘a pretty girl’ but not (usually) a ‘pretty boy’. Some nouns have one particularly suitable adjective in an extensive variety of areas, particularly for physical qualities (e.g. woman: dark, slim, middle-aged, short, young) which, for other objects, would require different adjectives, whilst other nouns (e.g. ‘criticism’) have a narrow sheaf of adjectives for each segment of a variety of areas (approfondi/grundlich; anodine/nichtssagend). 3) Adverb + adjective. The most suitable adverb must be looked for. These collocations tend to cliche (e.g. ‘immensely important’). The collocation is much rarer in Romance languages, where its equivalent transposition is ‘adjective plus adjectival noun’, e.g. d’une immense importance. Note however: vachement dur, ‘damn hard’ or ‘bloody hard’. This collocation, which is more restricted and less frequent (therefore far less important) than (1) and (2) is much at the mercy of fashion. 4) Verb + adverb or adjective. This is much smaller category: the adverb or adjective must be looked for. Examples: work hard, feel well, shine brightly, and smell sweet. 5) Subject + verb. There are two groups: first, the noun and verb may mutually attract each other: ‘the dog barks’, ‘the cat purrs’, ‘the bell rings’, and ‘teeth chatter’. In some cases, particularly when referring to animals, the verb usually has no other subject. In the second group, there is merely a fairly high expectation that a particular verb will follow the subject: ‘the door creaks’, le clocher pointe, les champs se deroulent, and here the right verb must be looked for. In French, some of these verbs are often found as past participles or in adjectival clauses qualifying their subjects (used as etoffement with low semantic content), and then they require no translation in English: la maison qui se drese sur la colline, ‘the house on the hill’. 6) Count noun plus ‘of’ plus mass noun. This restricted collocation consists of a term denoting a unit of quantity and the word for the substance it quantifies. The appropriate unit must be looked for in the TL, e.g. ‘a

loaf of bread', 'a cake of soap', 'a pinch of salt', 'a particle of dust', etc, if it exists. 7) Collective noun + count noun. The collective noun has to be discovered: e.g. 'a bunch of keys', 'a flock of geese or sheep', 'a pack of cards or hounds' and less easily categorized collocations include nominalizations (in particular, nouns premodified by one or more nouns), introducing the name of an object (or unit of quantity) by a term for its size, composition, purpose, origin, destination, etc., which is now rapidly superseding the 'noun plus "of" plus noun' collocation; the whole range of phrasal verbs, and various items of a sequence including e,g. activity / agent / instrument / object / attribute / source / place; 'bake / baker / oven / bread / fresh / new / stale / musty / flour / yeast / bakery and semantically, cliches are a subgroup of collocations in that one of their collocates has diminished in value or is almost redundant, as often in 'grinding to a halt', 'filthy lucre', etc., and the translator may be entitled to replace a cliche with a less common collocation, if it clarified the content without distorting it. Collocations may be based on well-established hierarchies such as kinship ('fathers and sons'), colours ('emerald is a bright green'), scientific taxonomies and institutional hierarchies where the elements of the culture for each language often have their own distinct linguistic likeness (Abbild), although the extralinguistic object may be the same. Alternatively they may consist of the various synonyms and antonyms that permeate all languages. May be classified under three heads:)

Objects which complement each other to form a set ('land, sea, air'), or a graded series ('ratings, petty officers, officers'). 8) Qualities (adjectives or adjectival nouns) which are contrary, which may have middle term (e.g. 'interested / disinterested/uninterested'), or are contradictory. Contradictory polar terms are shown formally, i.e. through affixes: 'perfect/imperfect, loyal/disloyal'. Suffixes have much stronger force than prefixes: cf. 'faithless/unfaithful'. Contrary polar terms are usually shown lexically: 'hot/cold, young/old, faithful/treacherous'. In a text, such collocations usually appear as alternatives, e.g. 'hard or soft; clear, obscure or vague'. 9) Actions (verbs or verbal nouns). In two-term collocations, the second term is converse or reciprocal: 'attack/defend; action/reaction'. In three-term collocations,

the second and third terms represent positive and negative responses respectively: ‘offer/accept/refuse, besiege/hold out/surrender’. Actions may also complement each other as in (1); ‘walk/run, sleep/wake’ are two types of synonym collocation. The main type is the ‘inclusive’ collocation which include (a) the hierarchies of genus/species/subspecies, etc., and may indicate the degree of generality (or particularity) of any lexical item, and with in the appropriate category (Oberbegriffe or super ordinates): e.g. ‘the brass in the orchestra’; ‘pump or grease-gun’; ‘equity on the market’. Fleche is a generic term for ‘spire’, and a specific term for fleche (slender spire perforated with windows); (b) synecdoche, where part and whole are sometimes used indiscriminately with the same reference (e.g. chariot/prote-outil, ‘strings/violins’); (c) metonymy, where ‘Bonn” and ‘the West German government’, ‘the City’ and ‘British bankers’ may again be interchanged. The second type of synonym collocation is usually an old idiom such as ‘with might and main’ and ‘by hook or by crook’ - which is likely to have a Germanic (auf Biegen oder Brechen) but not a Romance (coute que coute) one-to-one equivalent. Where a translator finds current and equally common corresponding collocation in source and TL texts, it is mandatory to use them; they are among the invariant components of translation. They may be factual or extralinguistic, denoting institutional terms (e.g. le President Republique) as well as linguistic. A translator must be conversant with them not only to follow them but also to know when to ‘break’ them (going off the tramlines) when they are broken in the SL text. Collocations (noun compounds or adjective plus noun) are particularly common in the social sciences and in computer language. Thus, ‘lead time’, ‘sexual harassment’, ‘claw back’, ‘cold-calling’, ‘Walkman’ (brand name for ‘personal stereo’), ‘acid rain’, ‘norm reference testing’, ‘rate-capping’, ‘jetlag’, ‘lateral thinking’, ‘narrow money’, ‘graceful degradation’, ‘hash total’ appeared. The computer terms are given their recognised translation - if they do not exist, you have to transfer them (if they appear important) and then add a functional-descriptive term - you have not the authority to devise your own neologism.

‘Sexual harassment’ is a universal concept at least in any culture where there is

both greater sexual freedom and a powerful women's movement. For a German it will come out as Sexualschikane;

'Lead time' - a term for the time between design and production or between ordering and delivery of a product, has at present to be translated in context;

'Claw back' (retrieval of tax benefits) may not last;

'Narrow money' (money held predominantly for spending), is contrasted with 'broad money' (for spending and/or as a store of value).

Brief discussion shows incidentally the difficulty of translating English collocations which appear arbitrarily to juxtapose nouns with verb-nouns because they indicate the two most significant meaning components, but have varied and sometimes mysterious case relations. Languages cannot convert verbs to nouns but, in the case of the Romance languages at least, suppress prepositions in such ruthless way, cannot imitate this procedure. For this reason, the English collocations are difficult to translate succinctly and an acceptable term emerges only when the referent becomes as important (usually as a universal, but occasionally as a feature of the SL culture) that more or less lengthy functional-descriptive term will no longer do. In linguistics, a collocation is typically defined as the 'habitual co occurrence of individual lexical items'. For the translator, for whom the collocation is the most important contextual factor collocation, in as far as it usefully affects translation, is considerably narrower; it consists of lexical items that enter mainly into high-frequency grammatical structures. Here are some examples if this in English and German languages.

Adjective + noun. heavy labour - schwere Arbeit. economic situation – Konjunkturlage.

Noun +noun (i.e. double-noun compound). nerve cell - Nervenzelle. government securities - Staatspapiere. eye ball – Augapfel.

Verb + object, which are normally a noun that denotes an action, as in 'read a paper': pay a visit - einen Besuch machen, score (win) a victory - einen Sieg erzielen, read an (academic) paper - ein Referant halten, attend a lecture - eine Vorlesung

horen or besuchenare various degrees of collocability. Some words such as ‘bandy’ and ‘rancid’ may only have one material collocate (‘legs’, ‘butter’) but figuratively they open up more choice (appearance, taste)[37]. They are always linked with the concept of naturalness and usage, and become most important in the revision stages of translation.

5. The translation of eponyms

Eponym is a word derived from a proper name (therefore including toponyms), they are a growth industry in Romance languages and a more modest one in the English media. When derived from people’s names such words (‘Audenesque’, ‘Keynesian’, ‘Laurenthian’, ‘Hallidayan’, ‘Joycean’, and ‘Leavisite’) tend to rise and fall depending on the popularity or vogue of their referent and ease of composition.

Person. When they refer directly to the person, they are translated without difficulty, but if they refer to the referent’s ideas or qualities, the translator may have to add these. In Italian, ‘Thatcherism’ can sometimes be naturalised as Il Thatcherismo without comment. The ‘Fosbury flop’, a technical term for a method of high-jumping, can be transferred for specialist and succinctly defined for non-specialists. When derived from objects, eponyms are usually brand names, and can be transferred only when they are equally well known and accepted in the TL (e.g. ‘nylon’, and ‘Durex’[38]). Such generalized eponyms as ‘Parkinson’s Law’ (work, personnel, etc. expands to fill the time, space etc. allotted to it), ‘Murphy’s or Sod’s Law (if something can go wrong, it will) have to be reduced to sense. Brand name eponyms normally have to be translated by denotative terms (‘ball point’). In general the translator should curb the use of brand name eponyms. New eponyms deriving from geographical names (the tasteless ‘bikini’ has not been repeated) appear to be rare - most commonly they originate from the products (wines, cheeses, sausages etc.) of the relevant area - in translation the generic term is added until the product is well enough known. Many geographical terms have connotations, the most recent for English being perhaps ‘Crichel Down’ (bureaucratic obstruction) with further details

[37] Slang and Unconventional English, Eric Partridge. –p 76
[38] Durex – an adhesive tape in Australian English.

depending on context. Since such eponyms are also metonyms and therefore lose their 'local habitation' (Midsummer Night's Dream[39]) they also lose their 'names' and are translated by their sense. Newmark proposes to divide eponyms into three categories, those derived from persons, objects and places.

Objects. In the first category, eponyms denoting objects usually derive from their inventors or discoverers; in translation, the main difficulty is that they may have an alternative name (e.g. 'Humboldt Current' or 'Peru current'), the authenticity of the discoverer may be implicitly disputed ('Arnold's fold' - valvule de Krause; 'Denson's disease' - maladie de Grancher), or more commonly, replaced by a technical term (Rontgenographie - 'radiography'; 'Hutchinson's angioma' - angiome serpigineux). In this category, there is a tendency for eponyms to be gradually replaced by descriptive terms ('Davy lamp' - Grubensicherheitslampe). The biggest growth-point in eponyms in many European languages is the conversion of prominent persons' names to adjectives (-ist) and abstract nouns (-ism) denoting either allegiance to or influence of the person, or a conspicuous quality or idea associated with them. This has always been common for French statesmen and writers (not artists or composers) where phrases like une preciosite giralducienne ('like Giraudoux's') have a certain vogue. It extends now to statesmen whose name lends itself readily to suffixation - often the eponym declines with the personality's fame (e.g. 'Bennite'). Thus we have 'Thatcherism', 'Scargillism', 'Livingstonian' - Reagan has to make do with 'Reaganomics' (i.e., economic policy) - others are hampered by their names, e.g. Kinnock. Sometimes, mainly in French (gaullien, gaulliste), occasionally in English (Marxian, Marxist) a distinction is made between value-free and value-loaded eponyms through the suffixes -ian and -ist respectively. Sometimes one eponym, say 'Shakespearean', 'Churchillian', has many potential meanings which can be reduced to one only by considering the collocation and the context. Main problem in translating eponyms derived from persons is whether the transferred word will be understood; thus the noun or adjective 'Leavisite' is useful in English to

[39] Midsummer Night's Dream – a comedy in five acts by W. Shakespeare, written about 1595-1596.

summarize certain principles of literary criticism, but it would mean little in most TLs unless these were stated and, usually, related to F.R.Leavis. Such connotations (e.g., for 'Shavian', wit, irony, social criticism) need recording. In other cases, e.g., Quisling, Casanova, Judas, where not much else is known of the character, the eponym has a single connotative meaning and is often transferred. In such cases, if the readership is unlikely to understand an eponym, footnotes are usually unnecessary, but you have to decide whether it is worth transferring the name as well as the sense, depending on its cultural interest and its likelihood of recurrence or permanence in the TL. In some cases, where the interest of the proper name is purely 'local' and probably temporary, only the contextual sense is translated; in others (Dante, Shakespeare, Goethe), the eponym is naturalized, though the connotation may differ somewhat between the source and target language.

In the second category, that of object, we are firstly discussing brand names which tend to 'monopolise' their referent first in the country of their origin, then internationally, e.g. 'aspirin', 'Formica', 'Walkman', which in translation require additional descriptive terms only if the brand name is now known to the readership. Secondly, you have to consciously resist subliminal publicity for manufacturers of products such as 'Pernod', 'Frigidaire', 'Durex' (adhesive tape in Australia), 'Tipp-Ex', 'Velcro', 'Jiffy bag', 'bic', 'biro', 'Tesa', sellotape' (two pairs of cultural equivalents), 'Scotch' (tape and whisky), translating them by a brief descriptive term (which is not always easy) rather than transferring them. Often it is too late. You have to accept TL standard terms, whether they are eponyms or recognised translations; jargon you must fight, either by eliminating it or by slimming it down.

Geographical names. Thirdly, geographical terms are used as eponyms when they have obvious connotations: firstly the towns and villages of Nazi horrors (Belsen, Dachau, Vel'drome, Drancy, Terezen, and Oradour), which you should transfer and, where necessary, gloss, since this is basic education. Secondly, beware of idioms such as 'meet your Waterloo' - faire naufrage; il y aura du bruit a Landerneau - 'it's just tittle-tattle'; 'from here to Timbuktu' - d'ici jusqu'a Landerneau. Lastly you

should note the increasing metonymic practice, mainly in the media, or referring to governments by the name of their respective capitals or locations and institutions or ministers by their residences or streets ('Whitehall' - the British government; 'the Pentagon' - US military leadership; 'Fleet Street' - the British press).

6. New coinages

It's a well-known hypothesis that there is no such thing as a brand new word; if a word does not derive from various morphemes then it is more or less phonaesthetic or sunaesthetic. All sounds or phonemes are phonaesthetic, have some kind of meaning. Nevertheless, the etymology of name words, in particular, dialect words, is not known and can hardly be related to meaningful sounds. The best known exception to the hypothesis is the internationalism 'quark', coined by James Joyce in Finnegan's Wake (the word exists in German with another sense), a fundamental particle in physics, for instance the computer term 'byte', sometimes spelt 'bite', is also an internationalism, the origin of the 'y' being obscure[40]. Both these words have phonaesthetic qualities - quark is humorously related to 'quark', the main new coinages are brand or trade names ('Bistro', 'Bacardi', 'Schweppes', 'Persil', 'Oxo') and these are usually transferred unless the product is marketed in the TL culture under another name; or the proper name may be replaced by a functional or generic term, if the trade name has no cultural or identifying significance. Thus Revlon may be transferred by a selection of various components ('Revlon', 'lipstick', 'fashionable American'). By principle, in fiction, any kind of neologism should be recreated; if it is a derived word it should be replaced by the same or equivalent morphemes; if it is also phonaesthetic. For this reason, in principle, the neologisms in Finnegan's Wake ('riverrun', 'from over the short sea', 'to wielderfight his penisolate war') must be re-created systematically and ingeniously, always however, with the principle of equivalent naturalness in mind, whether relating to morphology (roots and inflexion) or sound (alliteration, onomatopoeia, assonance).

[40] Slang and Unconventional English, Eric Partridge.

To conclude this chapter, it should be stressed out that, despite the exacerbated protests of the upholders of authority and tradition a living language makes new words as these may be needed; it bestows novel meanings upon old words; it borrows words from foreign tongues and to achieve speed. Often these novelties are abhorrent; yet they may win acceptance if they approve themselves to the majority. This irrepressible conflict between stability and mutation and between authority and independence can be observed at all epochs in the evolution of all languages, in Greek and in Latin in the past as well as in English and in French in the present.

CHAPTER III CLASSIFICATION OF NEW WORDS BY THEIR DISTRIBUTION IN DIFFERENT SPHERES

3.1 Newly appeared words related to the internet

Technology remains a catalyst for emerging words and is reflected in new entries including **MOOC** (‘massive open online course’: a course of study made available over the Internet without charge to a very large number of people); **bitcoin** (a digital currency in which transactions can be performed without the need for a central bank), and the compound **Internet of things** (a development of the Internet in which everyday objects have network connectivity). Other technology-related words added in this update include **click and collect**, **BYOD** (‘bring your own device’), and **hackerspace**.

smartwatch – a watch that can be used as a computer or phone, with a small keyboard.

Emoji - a small digital image or icon used to express an idea or emotion in electronic communication.

Hackerspace - a place in which people with an interest in computing or technology can gather to work on projects while sharing ideas, equipment, and knowledge.

Internet of things - a proposed development of the Internet in which everyday objects have network connectivity, allowing them to send and receive data.

MOOC - a course of study made available over the Internet without charge to a very large number of people.

Captcha- Completely Automated Public Turing Test To Tell Computers and Human Apart. A distorted image of letters and numbers used to ensure that a response is not generated by a computer, in order to prevent spamming.

Click bait – to put something on a website that will encourage visitors to click on a link.

Cyber café – a place which provides internet access to the public.

Dwell time – the length of time spent on a website.

e-cruitment – online recruitment of employees, including online submission of resumes and cover letters.

Elancer – a professional person who works from home and provides services on the internet.

Emoticon – a blend of 'emotion' and 'icon'. A symbol used in email messages which is made out of punctuation marks and resembles a human face.

e-piracy – electronic piracy illegal downloading of material found on the internet (films, music, etc.).

e-quaintance – a person you know only through online networks.

e-stalk – to stalk (follow) someone using internet searches and email.

EV – Electronic Vehicle which runs entirely on electricity stored in rechargeable batteries.

E-waste – electronic material and devices that have been thrown away.

Face time – application which enables people to make video phone calls. They can speak and see each other at the same time.

Hater – a social networking application which allows people to share their dislikes.

Hotspot – location in which wireless internet access is available for example: airports, hotels, train stations, etc.

Netbook – small laptop computer which weighs less than 3 pounds and has a 7 to 10 inch screen.

Netizen – blend of ‘internet’ and ‘citizen’. A person who spends an excessive amount of time on the internet.

Nonliner – someone who rarely or never uses the internet, usually because they cannot access it.

Notspot – an area where there is slow internet access or no connection at all.

Noogler – New Google employee.

Outernet – traditional media (newspapers, magazines, radio, television) as opposed to the internet.

Oversharing – providing too much information on the internet, especially through social network sites.

Podcast – derived from ‘pod’ and ‘broadcast’. A digital file available on the internet for downloading to a computer or mobile device.

Sofalize – stay home and use the internet, phone or other electronic device to communicate with people rather than go out and meet them face to face.

Tweeps – blend of ‘Twitter’ and ‘peeps’ (people). Users who follow you on Twitter.

Tweetheart – a user of the Twitter service who is very popular or admired, or with whom other users communicate a lot.

Twitterati – people who frequently use the social networking site Twitter.

Webiner – presentation or seminar conducted over the web.

Weblish – a form of English that used on the web (use of abbreviations, acronyms, small letters, absence of punctuation and hyphens etc.). Also known as: webspeak, netspeak, internetese.

3.2 New words in social layer

New words tend to occur more often in cultures which are rapidly changing like South Africa and also in situations where there is easy and fast propogation of information. Linguistic specialists suggest new words often migrate into a language most with great cultural changes or with the integration of two cultures that speak two different languages. Arguably, things like social media may also have great influence on what new words become a part of a language.

The neologisms appeared in socio-cultural sphere demonstrate the constant changes in different situations of human nature.

Bromance – blend of 'brother' and 'romance'. A close non-sexual relationship between two men.

Buzzword – a new word or expression that is commonly used in specialized work environments or age-groups, and has become fashionable. Terms used in advertising can often convert into buzzwords and become widely used.

Daycation – a trip or short vacation which lasts only one day. Daycationers do not stay away overnight.

Demitarian – a person who reduces by half their consumption of meat and animal products in order to reduce the environmental impact of their diet.

Dramedy – combination of 'drama' and 'comedy'. A film, play or TV program that mixes drama and comedy.

Flexitarian – a vegetarian who sometimes eats meat or fish.

Freemale – a woman who is happy to stay single and independent so that she can do what she wants when she wants.

Frenemy – an enemy who pretends to be your friends.

Funemployed – a blend of ‘fun’ and ‘unemployed’. Someone who enjoys not having a job because they have more time for leisure and fun activity.

Greycation – going on holiday or vacation with grandparents in order to reduce the cost.

Guesstimate – blend of ‘guess’ and ‘estimate’. A rough estimate without any claim of accuracy.

Jigsaw family – a family which includes the children from each partner’s previous relation, in addition to any children they may have together.

Jumbrella – blend of ‘jumbo’ and ‘umbrella’. Very large umbrella set above tables outdoors at a coffee shop, pub or restaurant.

Locavore – a person who only eats food produced locally.

Me time – a period of time spent exclusively on yourself doing something that you enjoy and allows you to relax.

Nano break – a one-night holiday, or going away from home for one night.

Nevertiree – a person who continues to work after they have reached the age of retirement.

OH – abbreviation of ‘other half’, a person’s wife, husband or partner.

Overparenting – being excessively protective of one’s children in order to guarantee their safety and ensure their success in life.

Overworking class – a segment of today's working population where there is a desire or need to work long hours.

Quintastic – a blend of the adjective 'fantastic' and the prefix 'quin'. An informal way of referring to a person who is aged fifty or over but remains sexy, smart, energetic and successful, especially someone famous. In August 2011 President Barak Obama became a quintastic.

Sandwich generation – a generation of people who care for the needs of their children as well as those of their own elderly parents.

Speed dating – a method of meeting a potential romantic partner by talking to a group of individuals at an organized event. Participants are rotated to meet each other for no more than eight minutes. They can move on to next person. At the end they indicate whether they are interested in any of the people they have met.

Sitcom – blend of 'situation' and 'comedy'. A drama, on television, based on humorous everyday situations.

Slumdog – very poor, underprivileged person who lives in an overcrowded squalid area of a city called a slum.

Trashion – blend of 'trash' and 'fashion'. Fashionable items created from old, used and recycled elements.

Winterval – blend of 'winter' and 'festival'. A festival that takes place in winter.

3.3 Newly coined words and terms in politics

Nearly all political terms were political neologisms at some point. *Left* and *right* gained their political meaning after the seating arrangement of the French revolutionary assembly, in 1789. *Bolshevik* started in 1903, when the Russian revolutionary party, the Social Democrats split into

the *Mensheviks* and *Bolsheviks* ("men'she" in Russian means "minority" and "bol'she" in Russian means "majority"). The term entered popular parlance after the 1917 Russian Revolution.

This category is for terms that have entered political jargon since approximately 2001; their first use may be earlier, but their widespread use should not be. Terms of such relative novelty may be forgotten in 100 years, or they may seem like the only sensible and neutral way to express the concepts they cover—if a term is listed here, it is too early to tell its eventual linguistic fate.

Americentrism is the idea or perceived bias to judge other cultures and nations by American standards or to center around the United States in news.

The **"And" theory of conservatism** is a political neologism coined in 2000s conservativism for the notion of holistic policy bringing together traditional conservativism with some aspects of liberalism (right-libertarianism), combining policies like low taxation with traditionally liberal solutions to issues such as poverty and global warming.

Big government (sometimes capitalized as **Big Government**) is a derogatory term generally used by political conservatives, *laissez-faire* advocates, or libertarians to describe a government or public sector that they consider to be excessively large, corrupt and inefficient, or inappropriately involved in certain areas of public policy or the private sector. The term may also be used specifically in relation to government policies that attempt to regulate matters considered to be private or personal, such as private sexual behaviour or individual food choices.

Collaborationism is cooperation with the enemy against one's country in wartime.

Conviction politics refers to the practice of campaigning based on a politician's own fundamental values or ideas, rather than attempting to represent an existing consensus or simply take positions that are popular in polls.

Cordon sanitaire is a French phrase that, literally translated, means "sanitary cordon". Though in French it originally denoted a barrier implemented to stop the

spread of disease. It has often been used in English in a metaphorical sense to refer to attempts to prevent the spread of an ideology deemed unwanted or dangerous, such as the containment policy adopted by George F. Kennady against the Soviet Union.

Democide is a term revived and redefined as "the murder of any person or people by their government, including genocide, politicide and mass murder."[41] Rummel created the term as an extended concept to include forms of government murder that are not covered by the term genocide, and it has become accepted among other scholars.

Eco-terrorism usually refers to acts of violence committed in support of ecological or environmental causes, against persons or their property.

Eurabia is a political neologism. It denotes a conspiracy theory, where European and Arab powers aim to Islamise and Arabise Europe, thereby weakening its existing culture and undermining previous alignment with the U.S. and Israel.

Eurocentrism is the practice of viewing the world from a European-centered or Western-centered perspective.

A **failed state** is a state perceived as having failed at some of the basic conditions and responsibilities of a sovereign government. There is no general consensus on the definition of a failed state.

Flying while Muslim or **Muslim while flying** is an expression referring to the problems Muslim passengers on airplanes can face in the aftermath of the September 11, 2001 attacks. It is constructed in an analogy to the older expression *Driving While Black*, which similarly satirizes racial profiling of African Americans by police and other law enforcement.

A **fragile state** is a low-income country characterized by weak state capacity and/or weak state legitimacy leaving citizens vulnerable to a range of shocks.

Hoplophobia is a neologism, originally coined to describe an irrational aversion to weapons, as opposed to justified apprehension about those who may wield them.

[41] By a scientist R. J. Rummel

The **Indian Century** or **India as an emerging superpower** is a neologism referring to the possibility that the 21st century will be dominated by India, similarly to how the 20th century is often called the American Century, and the 19th century the British Century.

Islamophobia is prejudice against, hatred towards, or fear of Muslims or of ethnic groups perceived to be Muslim. While the term is widely recognized and used, both the term and the underlying concept have been criticized.

"**Little Eichmanns**" is a phrase used to describe persons participating in society who, while on an individual scale may seem relatively harmless even to themselves, taken collectively create destructive and immoral systems in which they are actually complicit.

McWorld is a term referring to the spreading of McDonald's restaurants throughout the world as the result of globalization, and more generally to the effects of international 'McDonaldization' of services and commercialization of goods as an element of globalization as a whole.

Meritocracy is a political philosophy which holds that power should be vested in individuals according to "merit".

Minoritarianism is a neologism for a political structure or process in which a minority segment of a population has a certain degree of primacy in that entity's decision making.

Nanosocialism refers generally to a set of economic theories of social organization advocating state or collective ownership and administration of the research, development and use of nanotechnology.

Omnishambles is a neologism. The word is compounded from the Latin prefix *omni-*, meaning "all", and the word *shambles*, meaning a situation of total disorder. The word refers to a situation which is seen as shambolic from all possible perspectives. It gained popularity in 2012 after sustained usage in the political sphere.

Paper terrorism is a neologism to refer to the use of false liens, frivolous lawsuits, bogus letters of credit, and other legal documents lacking sound factual basis as a method of harassment, especially against government officials.

Refeudalization is the process of recovering mechanisms and relationships that used to define feudalism. Because the term "feudalism" is slightly ambiguous, "refeudalization" is ambiguous, too.

Remix culture is a society that allows and encourages derivative works by combining or editing existing materials to produce a new product. A remix culture would be, by default, permissive efforts to improve upon, change, integrate, or otherwise remix the work of copyright holders.

Statistical murder. When a business or regulator uses limited funds to take an action that saves a limited number of lives, instead of an alternative action that would save more lives, this decision is sometimes called **statistical murder**.

Shovel ready is a political neologism used to describe a construction project (usually larger-scale infrastructure) where project planning, engineering and funding have advanced to the stage where laborers may immediately be employed to begin work.

Theoconservatism (or simply **theocon**) is a portmanteau of "theocracy" and "conservatism" and is generally used as a political label referring to members of the Christian right, particularly those whose ideology is a synthesis of elements of American conservatism, Conservative Christianity, and social conservatism, expressed through political means.

White guilt is the individual or collective guilt often said to be felt by some white people for the racist treatment of people of color by whites both historically and presently.

Zionist entity is a phrase used by Arabs and Muslims as a pejorative for the State of Israel.

CONCLUSION

Neologisms (new words) are the main problem of modern scientific research. A lot of new objects and processes are continually created in technology. We can find new ideas and variations in social life, science. Neologisms can be defined as newly coined lexical units that acquire new sense. The 16th century was the period of the great course in literature called "Renaissance". A lot of writers used new words in their poems and stories in order to "enrich" the English language. But some of neologisms are short-lived. They appeared and disappeared.

Despite the exacerbated protests of the upholders of authority and tradition a living language makes new words as these may be needed; it bestows novel meanings upon old words; it borrows words from foreign tongues; it modifies its usage to gain directness and to achieve speed. Often these novelties are abhorrent; yet they may win acceptance if they approve themselves to the majority. This irrepressible conflict between stability and mutation and between authority and independence can be observed at all epochs in the evolution of all languages, in Greek and in Latin in the past as well as in English and in French in the present.

A luckily language is never in the exclusive control of scholars; it does not belong to them alone, as they are often inclined to believe; it belongs to all who have it as a mother-tongue. It is governed not by elected representatives but by a direct democracy, by the people as a whole assembled in town-meeting. The younger and more active citizens of this linguistic community may propose new usages and new words and new meanings for old words; and the elder and more conservative citizens may protest against these novelties with all the weight due to seniority. And when both sides have been heard, there is a show of hands; and by this the irrevocable decision of the community itself is rendered.

The following tasks have been discussed in the qualification paper:

1. Etymological characteristics of neologisms, some methods and recommendations for practical usage of English neologisms.

2. Specific peculiarities of usage and classification of neologisms.

3. New words related to three topics: the internet, culture and politics.

The theoretical value of the work is that the theoretical position can be used in delivering lecture on Lexicology.

The practical value of the work is that the theoretical and practical results in conclusion and all practical examples with their analysis can be used as a task or mini tests in delivering seminar lessons on Lexicology.

And as linguistic phenomenon neologism is needed to be investigated in many aspects: in comparison with other languages, definition of the time and reason of their appearance, determination of usage in literary and scientific books. It helps us to get information of the world people.

All languages have the means of creating new words to bear new meanings. These can be new creations; *Kodak* is one such, invented at the end of the 19th century by George Eastman; *chortle,* now in general use, was a jocular creation of the English writer and mathematician Lewis Carroll(creator of *Alice in Wonderland*); and *gas* was formed in the 17th century by the Belgian chemist and physician Jan Baptista van Helmont as a technical term in chemistry, loosely modeled on the Greek *chaos* ("formless void"). Mostly, though, languages follow definite patterns in their innovations. Words can be made up without limit from existing words or from parts of words; the sources of *railroad, railway,* and *aircraft* are obvious, and so are the sources of *disestablishment,* first cited in 1806 and thereafter used with particular reference to the status of the Church of England. The controversy over the relations between church and state in the 19th and early 20th centuries gave rise to a chain of new words as the debate proceeded: *disestablishmentarian, antidisestablishmentarian, antidisestablishmentarianism.*

It is part of the cultural history of English speakers that they have always adopted loanwords from the languages of whatever cultures they have come in contact with. There have been few periods when borrowing became unfashionable and there has never been a national academy in Britain, the US or other English-

speaking countries to attempt to restrict new loanwords, as there has been in many continental European countries.

The English language is notoriously fast in adapting to the changing world. New words enter English from every area of life where they represent and describe the changes and developments that take place from day to day.

When the community finds itself at a standstill because it lacks new words to name new things, it has to supply itself in a hurry. It makes the new word it needs when it feels the need; it has no time to submit the extemporized term to revision by a committee of scholars. The new word may be made in the library or in the laboratory, in the shop or in the street; it may be well made or ill made; but if it approves itself to the special group which needs it, it is likely at last to win acceptance from the rest of us.

Exploring this area of new words can be a useful way of equipping our students to deal, not only with the way English evolves and the new words they are likely to encounter but can also help them to understand the way the words they already know have evolved and developed. An understanding of this area can be a key skill in helping them to become more independent in their language learning and develop a greater enjoyment and engagement with the language.

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