

VILNIUS UNIVERSITY  
FACULTY OF PHILOLOGY  
INSTITUTE OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

STUDY PROGRAMME  
ENGLISH AND ANOTHER FOREIGN LANGUAGE (NORWEGIAN)

**JONĖ ZDANEVIČIŪTĖ**

BACHELOR THESIS

**WORD-FORMATION OF ENGLISH NEOLOGISMS IN SOCIAL MEDIA**

Academic Supervisor – Asist. dr. Lina Inčiuraitė-Noreikienė

Vilnius

2023

## LIST OF TABLES

<b>Table 1.</b> The collected data .....	18
<b>Table 2.</b> Research methodology.....	19
<b>Table 3.</b> Types of blending .....	21
<b>Table 4.</b> Classification of compounds.....	22
<b>Table 5.</b> Analogy-based neologisms .....	24

## LIST OF FIGURES

<b>Figure 1.</b> Word-formation types of neologisms in social media .....	20
---	----

## CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION .....	5
I. THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR NEOLOGISMS AND WORD-FORMATION .....	8
1.1 The concept of neologisms .....	8
1.2 Word-formation processes in English.....	12
1.2.1 Affixation.....	12
1.2.2 Back-formation .....	13
1.2.3 Compounding.....	14
1.2.4 Abbreviation and acronyms .....	15
1.2.5 Clipping .....	15
1.2.6 Blending.....	16
II. METHODOLOGY .....	18
2.1 Data characteristics .....	18
2.2 Methodology .....	19
III. THE ANALYSIS OF WORD-FORMATION PROCESSES OF ENGLISH NEOLOGISMS IN SOCIAL MEDIA.....	20
3.1 Word-formation processes in social media.....	20
3.1.1 Blended neologisms .....	21
3.1.2 Compound neologisms.....	22
3.1.3 Clipped neologisms.....	22
3.1.4 Affixed neologisms .....	23
3.1.5 Analogy-based neologisms .....	23
3.1.6 Abbreviated neologisms.....	24
3.1.7 Semantically shifted neologisms.....	25
3.1.8 Back-formation and conversion in neologisms.....	26
3.1.9 Word-creation.....	27
CONCLUSIONS .....	28
REFERENCES .....	29
DATA SOURCES .....	32
SUMMARY .....	33
SANTRAUKA .....	34
APPENDIX .....	35

## INTRODUCTION

### **The relevance and significance of the research**

Social media has become an inevitable part of our daily lives. It is where most of our daily communication takes place, where anyone can express their thoughts, share interests, and discuss with other users. Many interactions on the internet take place in written form. There are no rules when it comes to expressing your ideas or naming unknown concepts, therefore, many word-formation processes can mix and match to create neologisms. It is the reason why social media users are one of the most innovative individuals that not only create new words, but also adopt them easily.

The English language is continually getting richer in vocabulary due to the major events in our world. These times of unpredictability call for the creation of new words that can reflect a certain period in history and how people acted during it. An event like the COVID-19 pandemic gave rise to the introduction of many newly coined words, especially between the users of various social media platforms as face-to-face conversations did not take place because of quarantine. Our daily routines changed drastically, and new experiences needed to be named.

Some scholars have already delved into the topic of neologisms and their creation. Ratih & Gusdian (2018) analyzed which processes of the word-formation were the most common in English by researching new entries in Oxford English Dictionary. From year 2012 to 2016, affixation and compounding were the most frequently used word-formation processes when creating new words (Ratih & Gusdian, 2018). More recent research conducted by Alyeksyeyeva et al. (2020) introduced the topic of Coronaspeak. Medical terms became a part of everyday discourse, strict identification of social groups became relevant, and many neologisms were introduced to name new practices around the world including topics of lifestyle, appearance, behavior, and online communication (Alyeksyeyeva et al., 2020).

The examination of how neologisms are formed is of great significance. Since new words are being introduced constantly, it is important to get familiar with the processes of word-formation for ordinary language users. It is easy to get lost when there are so many new words that one can come across on social media, therefore, knowing the word-formation patterns can also help speakers to understand the meaning of these words better. This research is meant to not only distinguish those patterns, but also to contribute to further studies that seek to explore the word-formation processes in neologisms.

## **The problem of the research**

The term neologism is very broad and not only the definition, but also the classification of neologisms varies in scientific literature. Scholars who took interest in neologisms include Plag (2003), Tokar (2012), Mattiello (2017), Newmark (1988) and Bauer (1983). They analyzed neologisms by introducing their understanding of this concept. Plag (2003) refers to a neologism as a derivative that was coined in a particular time period. Tokar (2012) introduces a distinction between an established lexeme and a neologism because a neologism does not have the stability of an established word and, therefore, can be considered only as a nonce formation. The term of nonce formation is further analyzed by Mattiello (2017). Neologism and nonce formation can be used to refer to a new word synonymously, however, in contrast to Tokar's (2012) insights, neologism is a creation that is already accepted by the speakers (Mattiello, 2017). Bauer (1983) specifies the term nonce formation and explains that it is a word that has been created because of a sudden need to express something and although some might adopt this new creation in a particular context, it is rarely used later on.

Regarding the classification of neologisms, scholars identify the patterns differently again. Plag (2003) classifies neologisms by their functions. Neologisms can be created for substitution purposes to make communication faster, to verbalize one's attitude or to simply name a new concept or a thing (Plag, 2003). Mattiello (2017) analyses neologisms in diachrony and introduces three types of neologisms: past (Early Modern English period), recent (1980s and 1990s) and present-day. Newmark's (1988) classification can be considered more oriented towards the word-formation of neologisms as he introduces types such as abbreviations, acronyms, derived words, eponyms, transferred words or old words that have acquired a new meaning. This classification is the most relevant for the research of this paper as the type of word-formation is the key characteristic in the analysis of neologisms.

The **subject** of this research is English neologisms on social media platforms – Twitter, TikTok, Reddit and Instagram.

The **aim** of the research is to explore neologisms on social media platforms in order to shed light on their recent word-building patterns.

To achieve this aim, the following **objectives** were raised:

1. to review scientific literature on types of word-formation and neologisms;
2. to identify the word-formation processes in the formation of neologisms used on social media;

3. to reveal the most frequent word-formation processes when creating new words on social media.

### **The outline of the paper**

This paper consists of five parts. Firstly, relevance and significance of the research is presented in the introduction as well as the main subject, aim and objectives that are necessary to successfully do this research. The second part includes the literature review that presents the previously done research and necessary theoretical background to analyze neologisms in social media. Moreover, the methodology is introduced to explain how the data for this research was collected and analyzed. The third chapter of this paper includes the analysis of collected neologisms according to their word-formation processes. Finally, the conclusions are drawn after the analysis of the data in accordance with the raised objectives. This paper also includes lists of references, sources, and a summary in English and Lithuanian.

## I. THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR NEOLOGISMS AND WORD-FORMATION

The following chapter focuses on the theoretical background concerning the concept of neologisms and word-formation processes in the English language.

### 1.1 The concept of neologisms

The definition of a term neologism varies as it can be perceived in many ways. According to Plag (2003), a neologism can be referred to as a derivative that was coined during a chosen period of time. These new words are created for many reasons, one of them being the necessity to name a particular concept or a thing, therefore, this function is called “labeling or referential” (Plag, 2003, p. 73). Another function is referred to as “syntactic recategorization” (Plag, 2003, p. 73). It is a process of substitution when a long phrase is expressed by using one more complex word, for example, *clumsiness* instead of saying that someone *is always clumsy* (Plag, 2003). Lastly, new words are coined to verbalize one’s attitude (Plag, 2003). Despite the function of a newly formed derivative, it is intended to be useful in a particular moment when expressing emotions.

Although it is very easy to form new words, this process can face some restrictions. They can be of two types (Plag, 2003, p. 74–76):

1. **pragmatic restrictions** that appear because of the way the language is used. When it comes to semantics, some lexemes like *mega-* and *giga-* already denote meaning, therefore they can be easily used and combine words that are desirable. However, they have to “denote something meanable” (Plag, 2003, p. 74).
2. **structural restrictions** concern the basics of the linguistic analysis and the rule-specific constraints. For instance, in the field of phonetics, there can be stress-related restrictions like a nominal *-al* only attaching verbs that have a stressed syllable at the end. That makes a noun *arrival* a possible derivative but words such as *manageal* or *promiseal* cannot exist in the English language.

Tokar (2012) explores the difference between an established lexeme and a neologism. An established lexeme is considered to be a norm of a particular language, whilst a neologism is a newly created lexeme that has not become a standard lexeme but might become a norm in the future (Tokar, 2012). Tokar (2012) refers to the three stages of establishing a lexeme presented by Schmid (2008): creation, consolidation, and establishment. In the creation stage, a new word does not have the stability when it comes to understanding it from the structural perspective,

for example, the spelling not being clear, and at this point it is just a nonce formation (Tokar, 2012). During the consolidation, a neologism is being used, however, there are still many variations regarding the orthographic forms (Tokar, 2012). The establishment is the final stage during which the nonce-formation results in full-lexicalization (Tokar, 2012). In this stage there is a “conventionalized association between a particular form and a particular meaning” (Tokar, 2012, p. 93).

The term nonce formation is further analyzed by Bauer (1983). It is described as a complex word that has been newly created because of a sudden need to express something (Bauer, 1983). The definition also includes regularly used words, although some may argue with this statement (Bauer, 1983). A newly coined form becomes a nonce formation once the speakers start using the word and are aware of the context in which to use it (Bauer, 1983). However, many nonce formations are used once or twice because of the very specific need to be used on a particular occasion or the complexity in grammar that the word holds (Bauer, 1983).

The term “new word” can be used to refer to both a neologism and to a nonce word according to Mattiello (2017, p. 25). A neologism is “a new word that is accepted by the speech community and meant to enrich the language lexicon” (Mattiello, 2017, p. 25) whilst a nonce word is considered to be “coined for a particular occasion and not institutionalized yet” (Mattiello, 2017, p. 25). Therefore, Mattiello does not use these terms synonymously.

According to Mattiello (2017, p. 26–27), new words should be analysed in diachrony and, thus, provides a following threefold classification of neologisms:

1. **past neologisms** include words that were formed during the Early Modern English period (from 15th to 17th century). There was a great expansion of English vocabulary through the words coming from Latin and French. For example, the word *propaganda* was borrowed from Latin in 1668, whilst and word *brigade* came from French in 1649. These neologisms are considered to be new words at a particular time in history, however, synchronically they are no longer neologisms.
2. **recent neologisms** are novel words that were introduced in the last century, especially during the 1980s and 1990s. New technologies and media had a huge impact in the creation of new words during this time. For instance, the words like *blog* and *e-reader* entered the English language in 1999. These words have become institutionalised and codified in dictionaries.
3. **present-day neologisms** or so-called **occasionalisms** are words that are being newly coined in the English language every day. These neologisms “originate from the news,

tabloids, TV shows, sit-coms, blogs, social network sites, and other state-of-the-art genres” (Mattiello, 2017, p. 27). The term of an occasionalism comes from a word being created only for a single occasion and later vanishing because of the limited use. For example, a verb *prooflisten* was introduced in 2000 after another frequently used and institutionalized word *proofread*. However, it did not become stable as it is not that common to listen to a certain recording to check for some errors.

The creation of new words must follow some criteria that would make the neologism acceptable. There are seven key aspects for establishing a new word-formation presented by Mattiello (2017, p. 28–29):

1. **transparency**: the formation processes used by the speakers to create new words are rather “phonologically, morphologically and semantically transparent” (Aitchison, 2003, p. 181). A newly created word has to stand out and catch the attention of the other speakers (Lipka, 2000).
2. **regularity**: adult speakers are likely to obey existing rules and schemas of word-formation (Aitchison, 2003).
3. **productivity**: speakers use productive patterns to create new words. They might be able to identify and analyse the less productive word-formation types (like the suffixation with *-th* (*grow-th*)), however, the speakers would not use this pattern to create new words (Bauer, 2001).
4. **decodification**: contextual material is provided by the speakers if a new form happens to be difficult to understand. Several strategies can be adopted to mark the fact that the word is new, for example, the use of metalinguistic markers like inverted commas that can be written or gestured.
5. **informativity**: speakers are forced to create words containing as less information as possible. The speakers of English “tend to restrict themselves to a small number of constituents” (Mattiello, 2017, p. 29), especially when creating compounds. Multiple-word compounds are usually avoided.
6. **mnemonic effect**: this effect influences speakers to create new compounds (Bauer, 1983). Metaphorically based compounds are likely to be memorised easier in a similar way as the compounds that rhyme with the already adopted words, for instance, *knee-mail* with *e-mail* (Bauer, 1983).
7. **analogy**: it is an important factor influencing the creation of compounds. Speakers tend to use the already available forms when creating new words and this substitution principle by using analogy “appears to be innate and universal” (Lamb, 1998, p. 265).

Another description of neologisms is “newly coined lexical units or existing lexical units that acquire a new sense” and is provided by Newmark (1988, p. 140). New words are constantly created due to the new technologies and most of them come from media (Newmark, 1988). There is no possibility to quantify every single neologism as there are so many being constantly created and hover between being accepted into a language and just being totally oblivious (Newmark, 1988). Media and commercial interests tend to exploit the fact that speakers like to create new words, for example, brand names are turned into eponyms, a particular word “derived from a proper noun” (Newmark, 1988, p. 140). A classification of neologisms is proposed by Newmark (1988, p. 141–149) in the context of translation:

1. **old words with new senses** include already existing words that are given a new meaning. They are rarely related to technology or any other new concepts. Some meanings depend on the context that the word is used in, for instance, the word *refoulment* can be understood as the “return of refugees” but can also have a different meaning of “deportation” or even “repression” in the field of psychology (Newmark, 1988, p. 141).
2. **new coinages** are rather a myth nowadays because new words are often created from already existing morphemes. The main source of new coinages comes from various brand names.
3. **derived words** are created by adding one or more affixes to the base of the word.
4. **abbreviations** are words and phrases that have been shortened (Oxford Dictionary of English, 2010).
5. **collocations** are very common when it comes to the computer language and they can represent some serious issues, for example, *sexual harassment*, *cold-calling*, and *domino effect*.
6. **eponyms** are “any word derived from a proper name (therefore including toponyms)” (Newmark, 1988, p. 146). Eponyms usually include brand names and sometimes geographical names.
7. **phrasal words** in the English language include verbs converted into nouns, for example, *work-out* or *check-out*.
8. **transferred words** “keep only one sense of their foreign nationality” (Newmark, 1988, p. 147) and their meaning is stable despite in what context they are used in.
9. **acronyms** are created in certain topics and in translation there is either an equivalent or such acronym does not exist in other languages. However, acronyms of international institutions are usually universal.

## 1.2 Word-formation processes in English

The way new words are created in the English language vary and so does the definition that word-formation holds in general. Plag (2003) analyses word-formation as a process of combining smaller units (morphemes) to form more complex and meaningful words. Tokar (2012, p. 79) provides a rather different definition that it is the sounds that “are capable of independent use” which are combined to create new words.

During the research of the creation of the new English words in Oxford English Dictionary Ratih & Gusdian (2018) analyzed which processes of the word-formation were the most common in English including affixation, back-formation, compounding, abbreviation, acronyms, clipping and blending (Ratih & Gusdian, 2018). The following sections of this paper will contain detailed descriptions of each word-formation process.

### 1.2.1 Affixation

An affix can be considered to be a bound morpheme that can attach to the base of a word (Plag, 2003). The bound morphemes include prefixes and suffixes (Plag, 2003). The former are attached “before the central meaningful element of the word” whereas the latter after the root (Plag, 2003, p. 13). Plag (2003, p. 109–123) presents a further classification of suffixes and prefixes. Suffixes can be classified into nominal, verbal, adjectival and adverbial as following:

1. **nominal suffixes** can be used to derive nouns from other words like verbs or adjectives and even nouns themselves. These derived words are usually related to an action but can also denote other properties and qualities. For example, the suffix *-ance* and its other variants like *-ence* or *-ency* expresses action (like in *absorbance* or *retardance*), meanwhile the suffix *-ant* refers to a person (as in *applicant* and *disclaimant*) or a substance (as in *dispersant* and *suppressant*). An example of a suffix denoting qualities is *-ity* which is usually attached to the adjectives borrowed from Latin (e.g., *productivity*).
2. **verbal suffixes** “derive verbs from other categories (mostly adjectives and nouns)” (Plag, 2003, p. 116). There are four verbal suffixes in the English language: *-ate*, *-en*, *-ify* and *-ize*. The suffix *-ate* can be related to chemical substances as in *fluorinate*, but also appears in the cases of back-formation (e.g., *to formate* and *formation*), local analogies (e.g., *regular* and *regulation*), etc. Suffix *-en* mostly attaches to the adjectives. They are “monosyllables that end in a plosive, fricative or affricate” (Plag, 2003, p. 117), as in *blacken* and *quicken*. Suffixes *-ize* and *-ify* are polysemous and are related to various concepts like locative (e.g., *hospitalize*), resultative (e.g., *aerosolize*) or performative (e.g., *vampirize*).

3. **adjectival suffixes** (like *-able*, *-al*, *-ary*, etc.) can be divided into two groups by the type of adjectives that are being derived. Mostly they are relational adjectives that simply give a noun some adjective qualities. Other adjectives are called qualitative and “express more specific concepts” (Plag, 2003, p. 118).
4. **adverbial suffixes** include *-ly* and *-wise*. The suffix *-ly* can make words “semantically distinct from their base” as in *hardly* or “have metaphorical senses” like in *hotly* (Plag, 2003, p. 123). Adverbs are derived from nouns by the use of the suffix *-wise* (e.g. *clockwise* and *crosswise*).

According to Plag (2003, p. 123), prefixes can be classified into four major groups:

1. **prefixes that express quantity**, for example, *uni-* (meaning “one”), *bi-* (meaning “two”) and *multi-* (meaning “many”).
2. **numerous locative prefixes** that include *circum-* (“around”), *counter-* (“against”), *epi-* (“on”), etc.
3. **temporal prefixes** that express a particular motion, for example, prefixes *ante-* and *pre-* meaning “before”.
4. **negative prefixes** including *in-*, *mis-*, *anti-*, *dis-*, etc.

Although a concept like infixation is agreed upon to not exist in the English language, it is still possible to create new words by using infixes to express one’s negative attitude, for example, *kanga-bloddy-roo* (Plag, 2003, p. 127).

### 1.2.2 Back-formation

Another productive way of creating new words is back-formation. According to Tokar (2013), back-formation is the process of removing the derivational affix from the word including it. For example, the verb *to tase* came from a noun *taser* (Tokar, 2013). Back-formation adds to the creation of the “verbal and nominal lexemes” and is no longer productive when producing adjectives (Tokar, 2013, p. 85). Stašková (2013) provides a very similar definition of back-formation being a subtraction of an affix from the source word to make it less complex. This process can be considered unusual because of the “opposite direction of creation” (Stašková, 2013, p. 31). Nonce words are often a result of back-formation because it is a convenient way for speakers to make shortcuts and create a humorous or an ironic effect (Stašková, 2013, p. 31). Nine different types of back-formation can be distinguished during the period from 1980s until the beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Stašková, 2013, p. 34–45):

1. **verb from agent / instrument noun**, for example, *blush* from *blusher*, *deal* from *dealer* and *volumize* from *volumizer*.

2. **verb from action noun.** Examples include *break-dance* from *break-dancing*, *disinform* from *disinformation* and *job-share* from *job-sharing*.
3. **verb from adjective**, for example, *hard wire* from *hard-wired*.
4. **noun from adjective**, for example, *decaf* from *decaffeinated* or *tack* from *tacky*.
5. **adjective from noun** type that only includes three items: *capitated* from *capitation*, *desertified* from *desertification* (meaning “transformed onto desert” (Stašková, 2013, p. 42)) and *genethic* from *genethics* (meaning that it relates to the ethical issues that come from “the human manipulation of genetic material” (Stašková, 2013, p. 42)).
6. **noun from another noun (likely to be its derivative).** There are two examples: *eco-label* from *eco-labelling* and *fact-find* from *fact-finding*.
7. **prefixal back-formations** that include three words: *concerting* from *disconcerting*, *ilch* from *zilch* (American slang meaning “total” (Stašková, 2013, p.44)) and *plore* from *explore* (meaning “a museum exhibit which demonstrates some scientific principle in action” (Stašková, 2013, p. 44)).
8. **inflectional back-formations** which make up a disappearing category because only two vocabulary items have been collected since the 20<sup>th</sup> century: *gigaflop* and *megaflop*. They include prefixes *giga-* and *mega-*, and an acronym made from the word *floating-point operations per second*.
9. **adjective from agent noun type** which does not include any items from the latest decades. Three words can be collected from 1960s and 1970s that include *carburetted* from *carburettor*, *do-good* from *do-gooder* and *teenybop* from *teenybopper*.

### 1.2.3 Compounding

Compounding can be regarded as the most dominant word-formation in the English language when it comes to productivity (Plag, 2003). Definition of a compound stays mostly the same between various linguists. According to Fabb (2017), a word created by combining two or more words is called a compound. Bauer (1983) refers to a compound as the combination of elements that can separately act as stems.

Regarding the classification of compounds, Fabb (2017) distinguishes three types: endocentric, exocentric and co-ordinate. Compounds are considered to be endocentric if they have a head, for example, the compound *sneak-thief* (the head is *thief* while *sneak* determines what type of thief one is) (Fabb, 2017). Compounds that do not have a head are exocentric as in *greenhouse* (Fabb, 2017). Coordinate compounds are made of words that are equally important and share “head-like characteristics”, for example, *student-prince* (Fabb, 2017, p. 67). Plag (2003) also distinguishes compounds into endocentric and exocentric, however he introduces two

additional types of possessive and copulative compounds. Possessive compounds express a particular property that is related to an entity that is being described, for example, the compound *loudmouth* metaphorically refers to a person with “a loud mouth” (Plag, 2003, p. 187). Copulative compounds include members that are equally important as in *singer-songwriter* or *scientist-explorer* (Plag, 2003, p. 187). Copulative compounds turn out to be the exact type of compounds as the previously mentioned coordinate compounds introduced by Fabb (2017).

Lieber (2005) presents a different classification of compounds by their forms and states that there are synthetic and root compounds. Synthetic compounds are known as verbal compounds because “the second stem is derived from a verb”, for example, *gift-giving* and *wind-blown* (Lieber, 2005, p. 375). In root compounds the second stem is not taken from a verb as in *dog bowl*.

#### **1.2.4 Abbreviation and acronyms**

Abbreviation can act as an umbrella term for other related processes such as clipping (see subchapter 1.2.5) and acronyms (Mattiello, 2013). Therefore, it is important to note the difference between these phenomena. Katamba (2005) explains that abbreviations differ from acronyms in the field of phonology. Abbreviations are made from the initial letters of the source words and do not have the pronunciation as the ordinary words have, or, in other words, “do not give permissible syllables” as in *UN* for *United Nations* (Katamba, 2005, p. 127). Plag (2003) mentions that abbreviations can also include some non-initial letters as in *BSc* (*Bachelor of Science*). Abbreviation is considered to be an acronym when the initial letters creating a word are read “by applying regular reading rules” (Plag, 2003, p. 163). Katamba (2005) has the same approach and states that all initial letters represent one or more complete syllables as in *NASA* for *National Aeronautics and Space Administration*.

Another term of initialisms is introduced by Finegan (2007). Initialisms “resemble acronyms but are pronounced as sequence of letters” as in *USC* for *University of Southern California* (Finegan, 2007, p. 48). Other popular initialisms include *CD*, *DNA*, *DVD* and *PDA* (Finegan, 2007, p. 48–49).

#### **1.2.5 Clipping**

According to Bauer (2003), clipping can be referred to as “the process of shortening a word without changing its meaning or part of speech” giving the word a different stylistic approach (p.40). Katamba’s (2005) definition of clipping is quite similar, however, it is formed from a phonological perspective. Clipping is described as a newly created word-form “by lopping off a

portion a portion and reducing it to a monosyllabic or disyllabic rump” (Katamba, 2005, p. 124).

There are some obvious patterns when it comes to clipping as a word-formation process. Four of them are distinguished by Jamet (2009, p. 17–18) and go as following:

1. **back-clipping** (clipping of the end of the word) as in *binos* for *binoculars*, or *mike* for *microphone*.
2. **fore-clipping** (clipping of the beginning), for example, *loid* from *celluloid*.
3. **syncope** (clipping of the beginning and the ending of the word) as in *flu* instead of *influenza*, or *fridge* from *refrigerator*.
4. **median clipping** (clipping of the middle part of the word) as in *smog* created from the words *smoke* and *fog*.

### 1.2.6 Blending

Another word-formation process that is closely related to clipping is blending. Most commonly blending is described as a process in which two or even more lexemes are merged together (Mattiello, 2019). During this process, at least one lexeme loses its “phonological and/or graphic material” as in *smaze* (a combination of words *smoke* and *haze*) or there can be an overlap of chosen words like in *boatel* (a combination of words *boat* and *hotel*) (Mattiello, 2019, p. 3). This view is based on Connolly’s (2013) classification of blends into two types: substitution blends and overlap blends.

A similar classification regarding the structure of blends is presented by Lehrer (2007) as the term of a splinter (a part of a particular word) is introduced. There are seven types of blends in total (Lehrer, 2007, p. 117–119):

1. **the first part of a blend is a full word that is followed by a splinter**, for example, a blend *chatire* consisting of a word *chat* and a splinter *satire*.
2. **blends beginning with a splinter that is followed by a complete word**. A great example is a blend *narcoma* (consists of *narcotic* and *coma*).
3. **blends with two splinters when “the beginning of one word is followed by the end of another”** (Lehrer, 2007, p. 118). For example, *psynergy* from *psychic* and *energy*.
4. **blends with two splinters when “both splinters are the beginning of words”** (Lehrer, 2007, p. 118). For example, *sitcom* including the beginnings of *situation* and *comedy*.
5. **blends including overlap of phonemes** as in *cattitude* (formed from *cat* and *attitude*).

6. **blends with a discontinuous element.** Such blends are created when a word or a clipping act as an infix in another word, for example, a blend *chortle* from verbs *chuckle* and *snort*.
7. **blends with partial overlap** as in *wintertainment* when both words include same letters (or in other cases, phonemes).

After having looked at how scholars define neologisms, it can be stated that this term does not have a clear definition and can be interpreted differently. These variations arise because neologisms are analyzed and classified according to individual criteria. When it comes to the formation of new words, some word-formation processes in English are stated to be more productive than others. Scholars identify processes like compounding, affixation and blending of being the most productive. In this research paper, neologisms will be classified according to their formation and further analyzed by the already described classifications of word-formation processes.

## II. METHODOLOGY

This part of the paper deals with data characteristics and methodology used to carry out the analysis of English neologisms found on social networking sites.

### 2.1 Data characteristics

The collection of 135 English neologisms for the analysis was gathered from the posts of the users of the following social media platforms: Twitter, TikTok, Reddit and Instagram. The following platforms were chosen due to their popularity and active members. Numbers of collected neologisms in each platform are presented in **Table 1** below.

**Table 1.** The collected data

Time period	Social media platform	Number of neologisms
2020 – 2021	Twitter	52
	TikTok	34
	Reddit	19
	Instagram	30
	<b>Total:</b>	135

Collected neologisms were related to the Coronavirus pandemic, therefore, the data was analyzed from the time period of approximately 2 years (2020 – 2021). Neologisms were searched by entering only keywords or hashtags with words that are associated with the pandemic including *Coronavirus*, *COVID-19*, *quarantine*, *pandemic*, etc. Twitter, TikTok and Instagram had practical search options, hence many neologisms could be found there. In comparison, Reddit was difficult to manage as the communities related to the new word creation did not have the option to go back in time and the use of hashtags was not as common as in the previously mentioned social media platforms.

A total of 135 COVID-19 neologisms were further analyzed to determine which word-formation processes were used to create new words. Most of the neologisms were assigned a definition found on Urban Dictionary as it is a platform with the most recently created and not institutionalized words that were spotted on the Internet. Some definitions were found in the posts together with the mentioned neologisms or in a glossary made by a linguist Thorne (2020) who was actively collecting neologisms during the Coronavirus pandemic. A few definitions for neologisms were not available on any platform, therefore, were presumed.

## 2.2 Methodology

Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used for the analysis of the collected neologisms. These methods are presented in more detail in **Table 2** below.

**Table 2.** Research methodology

	<b>Method</b>	<b>Procedural steps</b>
1.	Qualitative	1. Collecting neologisms and their meanings in social media. 2. Analyzing neologisms according to what they are made of.
2.	Quantitative	1. Making a frequency chart according to how neologisms were created. 2. Identifying which word-formation processes are the most frequent.

Qualitative method was applied to indicate how a chosen neologism is formed. They were analyzed according to the word-formation classifications presented by different scholars. Blends were classified according to Lehrer's (2007) structural classification of blends, Plag's (2003) theories were used to analyze new compounds, affixed and clipped neologisms. Clippings were also analyzed according to Jamet's (2009) distinguished patterns. Analysis of analogy and abbreviation in neologisms was based on Mattiello's (2013; 2017) work. Tokar's (2013) insights on backformation and conversion were prominent in this research. Semantic shift in neologisms was analyzed in accordance with Newman's (2016) work. Analysis of word-creation processes like respelling and clipping was based on research done by Moon (2008), Miller and Turković (2016).

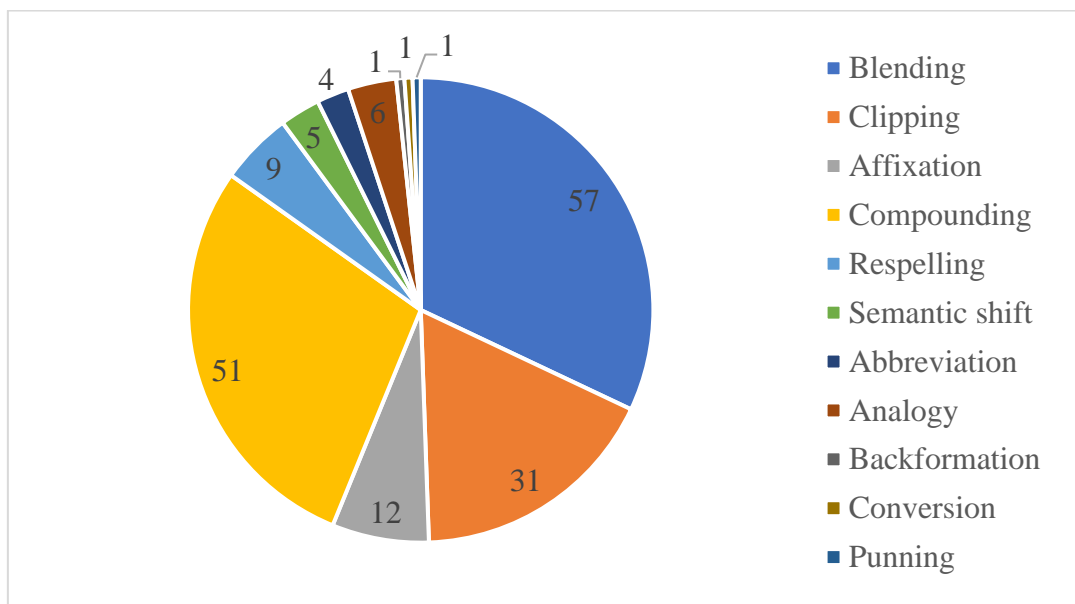
Quantitative approach was used to classify the findings according to the frequency of word-formation processes they included and determine which word-formation processes were the most frequent when creating new words in the English language.

### III. THE ANALYSIS OF WORD-FORMATION PROCESSES OF ENGLISH NEOLOGISMS IN SOCIAL MEDIA

This chapter deals with the morphological analysis of the COVID-19 neologisms found in social media. The collected examples were classified according to how they were formed. The results were analyzed to determine which word-formation processes are the most common in social media.

#### 3.1 Word-formation processes in social media

The collected number of 135 English neologisms were analyzed and classified by the word-formation types. Some neologisms included only one word-formation process, whereas some included two or more. Every additional word-formation process was counted separately. All of the encountered word-formation processes and their distribution are presented in **Figure 1** below.



**Figure 1.** Word-formation types of neologisms in social media

As it can be observed from the **Figure 1**, some word-formation processes are way more dominant than others. The majority of analyzed neologisms are either blends (a total of 57 cases) or compounds (a total of 51 cases), although, some of them include additional word-formation types in their creation process. Another significant word-formation process with 31 cases is clipping. Affixation was not as resultative as other processes with 12 cases in total making it appear only in 9% of the cases. Creative respelling is common in only 9 neologisms. Analogy includes barely 6 examples. 5 cases of semantic shift are recorded, and abbreviation falls behind with 3 occurrences. This research has proved that changes in word class is

extremely uncommon because backformation and conversion embrace 1 case each. 1 case is also evident for punning. In the following sections. A conclusion can be drawn that compounding, blending, and clipping are the most frequently word-formation processes when it comes to coining new words in social media.

The following parts include detailed descriptions of the word-formation processes that are dominant in the gathered neologisms.

### 3.1.1 Blended neologisms

Blends make up the majority of the collected neologisms in this research. There is a total of 57 examples of blending, and they comprise 42% of all the neologisms. These examples can be further classified by the types of blending. 5 types of blending are applicable from Lehrer's (2007) presented classification of blends regarding their structure. Examples of types of blending and found examples are listed in **Table 3** below.

**Table 3.** Types of blending

	<b>Types of blending</b>	<b>Examples of neologisms</b>
1.	A full word that is followed by a splinter	<i>Case + pandemic – casedemic</i>
2.	A splinter that is followed by a full word	<i>Coronavirus + baby – coronababy</i>
3.	Two splinters including a beginning of a word and an ending of a word	<i>Coronavirus + rollercoaster – coronacoaster</i>
4.	Overlap of phonemes	<i>Quarantine + teen – quaranteen</i>
5.	Partial overlap	<i>Quarantine + entertainment – quarantainment</i>

The first example is formed by taking a full word *case* and a splinter that is the second part of the word *pandemic*. The second neologism consists of the first part of the word *Coronavirus* and a full lexeme *baby*. The following neologism *coronacoaster* is a blend of two splinters: the beginning of a word *Coronavirus* and the second part of a compound *rollercoaster*. Moreover, the neologism *quaranteen* is an example of the overlap of phonemes. Although, words *quarantine* and *teen* make up a blend which differs in spelling, the pronunciation remains the same as in the source word *quarantine*. Finally, the partial overlap is present in the word *quarantainment*. The blend is made from combination of source words *quarantine* and *entertainment* which both include a letter *t* that overlaps.

### 3.1.2 Compound neologisms

Compounding is the second most prominent word-formation process of neologisms in social media. There are 51 cases of compounding among the discovered neologisms and make up almost a third of all collected data. Plag's (2003) classification of compounds in terms of headiness is relevant for the analysis of compounded neologisms in this research and the findings are further discussed in **Table 4** below.

**Table 4.** Classification of compounds

	<b>Types of compounds</b>	<b>Examples of neologisms</b>
1.	Endocentric compounds	<i>Pandemic puppy, corona wedding. COVID belly, COVID casualty.</i>
2.	Exocentric compounds	<i>Boomer remover, invisible enemy.</i>
3.	Possessive compounds	<i>Superspreader.</i>
4.	Copulative compounds	No examples found.

Endocentric compounds have a head, therefore both words in a compound contribute to its meaning. For instance, *pandemic puppy* is a puppy that was bought or adopted during the pandemic, *corona wedding* is a wedding that took place during the Coronavirus pandemic. Exocentric compounds do not have a head and their components are far from the meaning itself. Both examples, *boomer remover* and *invisible enemy*, are just other names for the Coronavirus and do not add to the formation of a word *Coronavirus*. Possessive compounds, as previously mentioned before, express a property that is related to an entity that is being described. For instance, a neologism *superspreader* describes a person who happens to spread Coronavirus to a lot of other people (Urban Dictionary, n.d.). When it comes to copulative compounds that include equally important words, no examples were discovered in this research.

Plag's (2003) statement that the most productive way to create new words is compounding was proven by this research as it dominated in many neologisms that were found on social media platforms.

### 3.1.3 Clipped neologisms

Clipping is a major word-formation process in this research as well. 31 one cases of clipping were found among analyzed neologisms. Most of the clippings appear alongside other formation processes like compounding. Such neologisms had words *Coronavirus* or *COVID-*

19 in clipped forms, *Corona* and *Covid* accordingly (as in *Covid golfer*, *Covid date Corona roomies* or *Corona clouds*). According to Jamet's (2009) patterns of this word-formation process, these cases can be considered as a result of back-clipping because the ending of a word has been clipped. Other example of back-clipping includes a word *vaxxed* (from *vaccinated*). Moreover, a case of syncope is recorded in a compound *Miss Rona*. In this case, *Rona* is our main concern because the beginning as well as the ending of the word *Coronavirus* are clipped. Two cases of clipping with suffix -y were discovered. This particular suffix is used in formation of diminutives (Plag, 2013). Examples including this type of clipping are analyzed below.

1. *Neggy* is short for *negative*, however, it can be used as a noun when speaking about a negative COVID-19 test result in general.
2. *Panny* is short for *pandemic*. According to the Urban Dictionary (n.d.), it is a cuter way to call the pandemic.

As it is seen from the quantity of found examples, clipping plays a major role when it comes to forming new words.

#### **3.1.4 Affixed neologisms**

Moving further to the less frequent word-formation processes in the creation of new words in social media, affixation falls under this category. With only 12 cases, affixation proves to be a rather uncommon way of forming new words. These affixed neologisms can be classified according to the Plag's (2003) classification of affixes into suffixes and prefixes with them individually having their own categories. Of nominal, verbal, adjectival and adverbial suffixes, only nominal suffixes are common in this research. Examples include *covidity* (*COVID-19* + *-ity*), *Zooming* (*Zoom* + *-ing*), *jabee* (*jab* + *-ee*), etc. Moreover, only one prefixed neologism *anti-vaxxer* was found. It has a negative prefix *anti-* that gives it a negative connotation meaning a person that refuses to get vaccinated (Urban Dictionary, n.d). Although, according to Plag (2003), affixes can make up various derivational patterns in English language, they are not as common in the creation of new words collected in this research.

#### **3.1.5 Analogy-based neologisms**

Analogy as a word-formation process was encountered six times during the analysis of discovered neologisms in social media. Mattiello (2017) describes analogy as a word-formation process when "a new word is coined that is either based on a precise actual model word, or obtained after a set of concrete prototype words" (p. 12). The coinage and the prototype word usually share the same formation process or have the same base or stem (Mattiello, 2017). In

terms of these similarities, it was not challenging to notice analogies while analyzing neologisms in this research. The examples of analogy are presented in **Table 5** below.

**Table 5.** Analogy-based neologisms

	Neologism	Analogues
1.	<i>Maskhole</i>	<i>Asshole</i>
2.	<i>Work From Homies</i>	<i>Work From Home (WFH)</i>
3.	<i>Coron</i>	<i>Moron</i>
4.	<i>Mask to mask</i>	<i>Face to face</i>
5.	<i>To mask or not to mask</i>	<i>To be or not to be</i>
6.	<i>Maskfish</i>	<i>Catfish</i>

The above-mentioned words that are regarded as analogues are modified in a way to hold a similar or a new meaning that is specific for the time period of the Coronavirus pandemic. Four of the neologisms include a word *mask*. *Maskhole* refers to a person who could be called an *asshole* but with addition of one refusing to wear a mask during a global pandemic (Urban Dictionary, n.d.). As it was mandatory to wear a face mask during the pandemic, *face to face* conversations became much different, therefore analogy *mask to mask* was created. *Maskfish* falls under the same category of real-life communication as it represents someone “who appears attractive while their mask is on but is unattractive as soon as they take it off” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.). *To mask or not to mask* is quite a philosophical statement inspired by famous Shakespeare’s (1599/2004) quote “To be or not to be” (p. 127) as many were debating if masks were needed at all. Moreover, another example of analogy is *coron* as in *moron*. *Coron* is someone acting as a *moron* during the pandemic as they refuse to take any precautions like social distancing and are not taking hygiene seriously (Urban Dictionary, n.d.). Lastly, *Work From Homies* is quite a unique neologism as it is an analogy to another newly created saying and abbreviation *Work From Home (WFH)*. It refers not only to the fact that most people were working remotely from home, but it also has a more specific detail of being quarantined with someone close to you<sup>‡</sup>. Analogy proves to be a less frequent but a very creativity-inducing word-formation process.

### 3.1.6 Abbreviated neologisms

Abbreviations only make up 4% of the collected data as there are four examples of them in total. As mentioned by Mattiello (2013), acronym formation and initialism formation can be

<sup>‡</sup> Definition is created by the author of this paper.

involved in the creation of abbreviations. The collected neologisms are presented and analyzed accordingly below.

1. *WFH* is an initialism formed from the expression *work from home* (Urban dictionary, n.d.). Although, it may seem like an acronym because the initial letters from the source word are taken to form a word, it is not read according to the reading rules (Katamba, 2005). As the definition for initialisms provided by Finegan (2007) suggests, the letters in initialisms are pronounced sequentially and it clearly applies to *WFH* as well.
2. *WFO*, or in other words *work from office*, is also an initialism that was created as an analogy to *WFH* (Urban Dictionary, n.d.).
3. *Vax* is an abbreviation formed by clipping a word *vaccine* (Urban Dictionary, n.d.). According to Plag (2003), abbreviations can also include some non-initial letters as this example shows.
4. *Vax-free* includes abbreviation and compounding. Previously mentioned abbreviation *vax* is a part of this compound.

It is quite a difficult process to distinguish various types of abbreviation and other word-formation processes included in it. However, as seen from this research, abbreviation is not the most frequent process when it comes to social media users and their preferred ways to create new words.

### **3.1.7 Semantically shifted neologisms**

A total of five neologisms were found which represent the semantic shift. Newman (2016) describes semantic shift as a change in word's meaning and can be regarded as an ordinary activity in the day-to-day language. The relevant examples in this research are analyzed below.

1. *Coronary* is originally a shortened form for a condition called coronary thrombosis which affects the blood flow to the heart (Oxford Dictionary of English, 2010, p. 390). However, during the COVID-19 pandemic this word gained a new meaning as it in a way already includes a clipped form of the *Coronavirus*. *Coronary*<sup>‡</sup> in the new context is related to a heart attack that one might have because of excitement that something is happening after a lockdown.
2. *Zoomies* is another example of semantic shift as it no longer holds a meaning of an animal running in circles because of having a lot of energy (Cambridge Dictionary, n.d.). A new meaning is suggested by a Twitter user and is related to human-beings that are sprinting around after spending the whole day on Zoom platform.

3. *Boosted* is an adjective formed to describe a person who has gotten a booster of a vaccine, in this case, a COVID-19 vaccine (Urban Dictionary, n.d.). This definition does not fall far from a term booster that describes the vaccine that can increase the effect of a previous vaccine (Oxford Dictionary of English, 2010, p. 197), however this particular saying of *being boosted* has become relevant during the pandemic.
4. *BC* is well a known abbreviation originally meaning “before Christ” (Oxford Dictionary of English, 2010, p. 141). During the pandemic when people were reminiscing about their past memories before a lockdown, this term gained a new and very practical meaning. *BC*, in this context, stands for “Before Coronavirus” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.).
5. *Panini* is a very creative way to name the pandemic (Urban Dictionary, nd.). *Panini* is originally known as an Italian sandwich (Oxford Dictionary of English, 2010, p. 1283), however, due to similarities in spelling and phonological significance, the social media users started calling the Coronavirus pandemic this way.

In accordance with Newman (2016), the semantic shift shows how dynamic a language can be and how the meanings of words are flexible. However, it is not a significant process among the social media users as not many examples of semantic shift were found in this research.

### **3.1.8 Back-formation and conversion in neologisms**

As stated by Tokar (2013, p. 170), the back-formation is not a very frequent word-formation process in the English language. This research proves this statement as only one neologism with back-formation was found. It is a verb *ivermect* which was formed from the name of a medication *Ivermectin*. *To ivermect* means to put effort to avoid greater danger than you are in right now (Urban Dictionary, n.d.).

Another word-formation process related to the change in word classes is conversion. It is a process in which lexemes stay the same, although their word class changes (Tokar, 2013). One example of conversion was *coronaed*. It is a past-simple form of a verb *corona* which is basically a clipping of *Coronavirus*. It means that some plans got cancelled because of the pandemic (Urban Dictionary, n.d.). This neologism is a very complex creation that includes multiple possible word-formation processes, however, the conclusion was drawn to choose conversion as one of them because the change in word class is prominent. Tokar (2013) argues that the meanings of words are constantly being changed and it does not require a lot of effort, therefore, a process like conversion could be considered as productive.

Having analyzed only two examples including back-formation and conversion, it is accurate that such word-formation processes with a change in word classes are not as frequent as others and further research with more examples should be conducted to prove otherwise.

### **3.1.9 Word-creation**

Some cases of respelling and punning were discovered during this research. According to Arnaud (2013), word-creation is different from word-formation because it is non-rule-governed which means that new words can be created without adhering to grammatical rules.

When dealing with linguistic creativity, Moon (2008) distinguishes respelling as one of relevant creation processes. Respelling appears in media like newspaper headlines or in “electronic personal correspondence”, therefore, its relevant for this research as well (Moon, 2008, p. 147). Nine cases of respelling were found while analyzing the collected neologisms. All of these examples included variations in spelling of words *vaccine*, *vaccination* and *vaccinate*. Examples include *vaxxies*, *vaxxism*, *anti-vaxxer*, etc. Respelling on this occasion does not denote a new meaning but rather adds to the expression of creativity.

One case of punning was found in this research. A pun can be described as “a writer’s use of a word in a deliberately ambiguous way” (Miller & Turković, 2016, p. 60). Puns are usually created for humorous purposes, however, they can be used non-humorously in literature as a rhetorical device (Miller & Turković, 2016). The pun that was found during the analysis of neologisms was *Locky D*. It is a slang word used by Australians to refer to the Coronavirus lockdown (Urban Dictionary, n.d.). This pun was created by taking the first part of a compound lockdown, adding suffix -y to it and leaving only a *d* from the second part *down*. The use *Locky D* in the conversation gives a rather lighthearted approach towards the tough times in the unpredictable lockdown. Same as with the cases of respelling, *Locky D*, does not express any new meaning, however, it adds playfulness to the conversation.

To conclude the analysis, it can be stated that neologisms can be classified according to the word-formation processes that were used when creating them. Social media users are mostly using blending, compounding, and clipping as their primary word-formation processes. As new words are being constantly created and there are many ways to classify and analyze neologisms, they remain of great importance for further research.

## CONCLUSIONS

The conducted research led to the following conclusions.

1. In the reviewed scientific literature, the definition of a neologism varies as there are various interpretations among scholars when it comes to defining a newly created word. The main and clear difference between the terms of a neologism and a nonce formation is that the former has a stable structure and is accepted by the speakers, whilst the latter is only created for a specific occasion and has not been institutionalized. When it comes to the formation of new words, a few word-formation processes are stated to be more productive than others. The processes like compounding, affixation and blending have been of great importance in the English language.
2. After going through four social media platforms (Twitter, TikTok, Reddit and Instagram), a total of 135 neologisms were collected. 11 different word-formation processes were identified during the analysis of these neologisms: blending (e.g., *casedemic*, *coronacoaster*, *quaranteen*), compounding (e.g., *pandemic puppy*, *COVID belly*, *superspreader*), clipping (e.g., *neggy*, *panny*), affixation (e.g., *Zooming*, *jabee*, *anti-vaxxer*), analogy (e.g., *maskhole*, *coron*, *mask to mask*), abbreviation (e.g., *WFH*, *WFO*, *vax*), semantic shift (e.g., *panini*, *zoomies*, *BC*), back-formation (e.g., *ivermect*), conversion (e.g., *coronaed*), respelling (e.g., *vaxxism*, *vaxxies*) and punning (e.g., *Locky D*). Respelling and punning could be regarded as word-creation processes as their creations do not denote any new meaning. Many of the collected neologisms were created by using more than one word-formation process. Combinations included cases of compounding and clipping (e.g., *Miss Rona*, *hand sanny*, *covid-phobia*), affixation and clipping (e.g., *covidity*, *covidism*), and blending and compounding (e.g., *coronaspiracy theory*).
3. Morphological analysis of the collected neologisms revealed that the most frequently used word-formation process when it comes to creating new words in social media is blending. Blends make up 42% of the collected data. Compounding has also resulted in a high number of neologisms which comprise 38% of the new words found in social media. Other word-formation processes that were less frequent include clipping (23%) and affixation (9%). Processes like semantic shift (4%), abbreviation (2%), back-formation (1%) and conversion (1%) proved to be the least frequent.

## REFERENCES

- Aitchison, J. (2003). *Words in the mind: An introduction to the mental lexicon* (3rd ed.). Hoboken: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- Alyeksyeyeva, I. O., Chaiuk, T. A., & Galitska, E. (2020). Coronaspeak as Key to Coronaculture: Studying New Cultural Practices Through Neologisms. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 10(6), 202. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v10n6p202>
- Arnaud, P. J. L. (2013). Word-formation and word-creation: A datadriven exploration of inventiveness in neologisms. *Quaderns De Filologia. Estudis Lingüístics.*, 18, 97–113. <https://cefd.uv.es/index.php/qfilologia/article/view/3283>
- Bauer, L. (1983). *English Word Formation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bauer, L. (2001). *Morphological productivity*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bauer, L. (2003). *Introducing Linguistic Morphology* (Second). Washington: Georgetown University Press.
- Connolly, P. J. (2013). The innovation and adoption of English lexical blends. *JournaLIPP*, 2, 1–14. <https://lipp.ub.uni-muenchen.de/lipp/article/view/68>
- Fabb, N. (2017). Compounding. In A. Spencer & A. M. Zwicky (Eds.) *The Handbook of Morphology*. Hoboken: John Wiley & Sons.
- Finegan, E. (2007). *Language: Its Structure and Use*. Boston: Thomson Wadsworth.
- Jamet, D. (2009). A morphophonological approach to clipping in English. *Lexis, HS 1*. <https://doi.org/10.4000/lexis.884>
- Katamba, F. (2005). *English Words*. New York: Routledge.
- Lamb, S. M. (1998). *Pathways of the Brain: The neurocognitive basis of language (Current Issues in Linguistic Theory)*. Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Lehrer, A. (2007). Blendalicious. In J. Munat (Ed.), *Lexical Creativity, Texts and Contexts* (Vol. 58). Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

- Lieber, R. (2005). English Word-formation Processes. In P. Štekauer & R. Lieber, (Eds.) *Handbook of Word-formation*. Dordrecht: Springer.
- Lipka, L. (2000). English (and general) word-formation – The state of the art in 1999. In Bernhard Reitz & Sigrid Rieuwerts (eds.), *Anglistentag 1999 Mainz: Proceedings*, 5–20.
- Mattiello, E. (2017). *Analogy in Word-formation: A Study of English Neologisms and Occasionalisms*. Berlin: De Gruyter.
- Mattiello, E. (2013). *Extra-grammatical Morphology in English: Abbreviations, Blends, Reduplicatives, and Related Phenomena*. Berlin: De Gruyter.
- Mattiello, E. (2019). A corpus-based analysis of new English blends. *Lexis*, 14.  
<https://doi.org/10.4000/lexis.3660>
- Miller, T., & Turković, M. (2016). Towards the automatic detection and identification of English puns. *The European Journal of Humour Research*, 4(1), 59–75.  
<https://doi.org/10.7592/ejhr2016.4.1.miller>
- Moon, R. J. (2008). Lexicography and Linguistic Creativity. *Lexikos*, 18(1).  
<https://doi.org/10.4314/lex.v18i1.47249>
- Newman, J. (2016). Semantic shift. In N. Riemer (Ed.), *The Routledge Handbook of Semantics*. New York: Routledge.
- Newmark, P. (1988). *A Textbook of Translation*. New York: Prentice Hall.  
[http://ilts.ir/Content/ilts.ir/Page/142/ContentImage/A%20Textbook%20of%20Translation%20by%20Peter%20Newmark%20\(1\).pdf](http://ilts.ir/Content/ilts.ir/Page/142/ContentImage/A%20Textbook%20of%20Translation%20by%20Peter%20Newmark%20(1).pdf)
- Plag, I. (2003). *Word-Formation in English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ratih, E., & Gusdian, R. I. (2018). Word Formation Processes in English New Words of Oxford English Dictionary (OED). *Celtic: A Journal of Culture, English Language Teaching, Literature and Linguistics*, 5(2), 24–35.  
<https://doi.org/10.22219/celtic.v5i2.7617>

- Schmid, H. J. (2008). New Words in the Mind: Concept-formation and Entrenchment of Neologisms. *Anglia - Zeitschrift Für Englische Philologie*, 126(1), 1–36.  
[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/270487792\\_New\\_Words\\_in\\_the\\_Mind\\_Concept-formation\\_and\\_Entrenchment\\_of\\_Neologisms](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/270487792_New_Words_in_the_Mind_Concept-formation_and_Entrenchment_of_Neologisms)
- Shakespeare, W. (2004). *Hamlet*. New York: Simon and Schuster.
- Stašková, N. (2013). Back-formation in the Newest Layer of English Vocabulary. *Acta Universitatis Carolinae: Philologica*, 3, 31–60.  
<https://dspace5.zcu.cz/bitstream/11025/16619/1/Staskova.pdf>
- Thorne, T. (2020). #CORONASPEAK – the language of Covid-19 goes viral – 2. Thony Thorne. Language and Innovation. [https://language-and-innovation.com/2020/04/15/coronaspeak-part-2-the-language-of-covid-19-goes-viral/?utm\\_content=bufferdddfa&utm\\_medium=social&utm\\_source=facebook.com&utm\\_campaign=buffer](https://language-and-innovation.com/2020/04/15/coronaspeak-part-2-the-language-of-covid-19-goes-viral/?utm_content=bufferdddfa&utm_medium=social&utm_source=facebook.com&utm_campaign=buffer)
- Tokar, A. (2012). *Introduction to English Morphology*. Frankfurt am Main: Internationaler Verlag der Wissenschaften.

## DATA SOURCES

*Cambridge Dictionary. English Dictionary, Translations & Thesaurus.* (2023).

<https://dictionary.cambridge.org/> Last accessed on April 14, 2023.

*Instagram.* (n.d.). <https://www.instagram.com/> Last accessed on March 30, 2023.

Stevenson, A. (2010). *Oxford Dictionary of English.* New York: Oxford University Press.

*Reddit.* (n.d.). <https://www.reddit.com/> Last accessed on March 30, 2023.

*TikTok.* (n.d) <https://www.tiktok.com/> Last accessed on March 29, 2023.

*Twitter* (n.d). <https://twitter.com/> Last accessed on March 27, 2023.

*Urban Dictionary.* (n.d.) <https://www.urbandictionary.com/> Last accessed on April 3, 2023.

## SUMMARY

The subject of this research paper is English neologisms on various social media platforms: Twitter, TikTok, Reddit and Instagram. The aim is to explore neologisms on social media platforms in order to shed light on their recent word-building patterns. The objectives to achieve the aim include reviewing scientific literature on types of word-formation and neologisms, identifying the word-formation processes in neologisms used in social media and revealing the most frequent word-formation processes when creating new words in social media. In order to achieve the aim, a total of 135 Coronavirus-related neologisms were collected. The qualitative and quantitative methods were used to analyze the data.

The results of the analysis revealed that the most frequent word-formation process on social media is blending (42%). The second most frequently used type of word-formation proved to be compounding (38%). Clippings and affixed neologisms also made up a significant part of the collected data (23% and 9% accordingly). Social media users were less likely to use word-formation processes like semantic shift, abbreviation, back-formation and conversion.

## SANTRAUKA

Šio mokslinio darbo tyrimo objektas yra anglų kalbos naujažodžiai socialiniuose tinkluose Twitter, TikTok, Reddit ir Instagram. Tyrimo tikslas – ištirti dabartinių anglų kalbos naujažodžių darybos būdus. Šiam tikslui pasiekti buvo iškelti trys uždaviniai: apžvelgti mokslinę literatūrą susijusią su naujažodžiais bei žodžių darybos būdais, užfiksuoti žodžių darybos procesus socialinėje erdvėje vartojamuose naujažodžiuose bei atskleisti, kokie žodžių darybos būdai yra dažniausiai naudojami kuriant naujus žodžius. Iš viso tyrimui buvo surinkti 135 naujažodžiai susiję su koronaviruso pandemija. Šių naujažodžių analizei atlikti buvo pasitelkti kokybinis ir kiekybinis tyrimo metodai.

Tyrimo rezultatai atskleidė, jog pagrindinis žodžių darybos būdas socialiniuose tinkluose yra kontaminacija (42%). Dūryba yra antras dažniausiai naudojamas naujažodžių darybos būdas, kuris buvo aptiktas tarp 38% surinktų naujažodžių. Trumpinimas bei afiksacija taip pat buvo dažnai aptinkami procesai (23% ir 9% atitinkamai). Socialinių tinklų vartotojai tokius žodžių darybos procesus kaip semantinė kaita, abreviatūra, atgalinė žodžių daryba ar konversija naujiems žodžiams kurti rinkosi rečiau.

## APPENDIX

	Neologism	Word-formation	Definition	Source
1.	Covidiot	COVID-19 + idiot – Blending	“Someone who ignores the warnings regarding public health or safety.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	Twitter
2.	Coronasomnia	Coronavirus + insomnia - Blending	“Experiencing sleeplessness—getting arguably less than seven hours of sleep—due to the stress of life during the coronavirus crisis.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
3.	Coronaversary	Coronavirus + Anniversary - Blending	“March 13 <sup>th</sup> .” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
4.	Coronaed	Coronavirus + -ed – Conversion, clipping, affixation	“When an event, or other plans get cancelled because of the COVID-19 virus in one word, you can say they got CORONAed.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
5.	WFH	Working From Home - Abbreviating	““Work from Home” - a concept popularized from COVID-19, where everyone is self-quarantined, resulting in many working from home.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
6.	WFO	Working From Office – Abbreviating	“Work From Office; a concept popularised post the COVID-19 workplace shutdown, and subsequent reopening following a hybrid work modality.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
7.	Coronial	Coronavirus + millennial – Blending	“Kids who were conceived by their parents during the quarantine that resulted from the coronavirus.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
8.	Covidian	COVID-19 + -ian – Clipping, affixation	“Someone who has elevated COVID-19 prevention or mitigation to the point of a religious persuasion.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
9.	Coronary	Semantic shift	A heart attack that one has because something exciting after the lockdown is happening <sup>‡</sup> .	

10.	Zumping	Zoom + dumping - Blending	“The action of getting dumped on zoom during quarantine.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
11.	Maskhole	Analogy to <i>asshole</i> .	“Someone who refuses to wear a safety mask for selfish reasons during a global pandemic.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
12.	Coronageddon	Coronavirus + armageddon – Blending	“The near-certain, end-of-times condition created either by the actual COVID-19 virus or the massive social, financial and political devastation generated on the back of global hysteria.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
13.	Zooming	Zoom + -ing - Affixation	“The act of holding a conference call using the Zoom app during the Coronavirus pandemic.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
14.	Zoom-Bombing	Zoom + bombing - Compounding	“The act of raiding a Zoom call, usually on school related calls by posting pornography or otherwise offensive content.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
15.	Zoomies	Semantic shift	“An act of humans sprinting around after being cooped up on Zoom all day.” (Twitter, n.d.)
16.	Coronacation	Coronavirus + vacation – Blending	“Going on an impromptu vacation/trip during the coronavirus outbreak.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
17.	Blursday	Blur + s + day – Compounding	“The day you are presently living but have no idea what day it actually is.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
18.	Quaranteam	Quarantine + team – Blending	“The people you choose to live with during a coronavirus quarantine.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
19.	Covid Cohort	COVID-19 + cohort – Compounding, clipping	People who have in common the fact that they are living during the COVID-19 pandemic <sup>‡</sup> .
20.	Corona Roomies	Coronavirus + roomies – Compounding, clipping	People who are living together during the COVID-19 pandemic or quarantine <sup>‡</sup> .

21.	Work From Homies	Analogy to <i>Work From Home</i>	It refers to people who are great friends and all work from home during the COVID-19 pandemic <sup>‡</sup> .
22.	Quarantrend	Quarantine + trend – Blending	Trends that became viral during the time when everybody was quarantining during the COVID-19 pandemic <sup>‡</sup> .
23.	Loxit	Lockdown + exit – Blending	“The process of exiting from lockdown impositions.” (Thorne, 2020)
24.	Spendemic	Spend + pandemic – Blending	“Widespread tendency to overspend. It is also evidenced as an increase in online shopping during the pandemic.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
25.	Respirouette	Respirator + pirouette - Blending	“That U-turn you do at your front door to go back and fetch your mask” (Twitter, n.d.)
26.	Coronaspeak	Coronavirus + speak – Blending	The new language that was created during the pandemic. (Twitter, n.d.)
27.	Antimasker	Anti- + mask + -er – Affixation	“A person who does not want to wear a mask during the COVID-19 pandemic.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
28.	Maskdebator	Mask + debator – Compounding	“People who endlessly argue either way as to whether you should wear a mask to prevent covid-19 transmission.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
29.	Heard immunity	Heard + immunity – Compounding	“Immunity from believing everything you hear, especially faux news, conspiracy theories and lying politicians.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
30.	Coronasplaining	Coronavirus + explaining - Blending	“Having to explain why you make noises in a restaurant or in a public place, that would normally be associated with being sick with the Coronavirus, but the noises are from choking or swallowing food or liquids abnormally.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
31.	Coronashaming	Coronavirus + shaming – Blending	“When a person is shamed for not using proper hygiene or taking the proper precautions

			during the COVID-19 Pandemic.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
32.	Vaxxie	Vaccine + selfie – Blending, creative respelling	“A selfie you take while getting a Covid-19 vaccine.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
33.	Quarantime	Quarantine + time – Blending	“The time you spend in quarantine.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
34.	Infodemic	Information + epidemic – Blending	“An excessive amount of information concerning a problem such that the solution is made more difficult.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
35.	Quarantini	Quarantine + Martini – Blending	“A strong alcoholic beverage that is made when people are quarantined, or otherwise locked up or trapped in a location for an extended period of time.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
36.	Coronacut	Coronavirus + cut – Blending	“When all the barbers are considered "non-essential" and you've got to cut your own hair.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
37.	Neggy	Clipping, suffixation	“Negative.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
38.	Coronapocalypse	Coronavirus + apocalypse – Blending	“End of the world via coronavirus.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
39.	Vaxillate	Vaccinate + late – Blending, creative respelling	“To delay or be indecisive about getting one’s vaccination shot(s), or as to where to get them.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
40.	Boosted	Semantic shift	“The act of getting a covid-19 vaccine booster.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
41.	Triple-vax'd	Triple + vaccinated Compounding, clipping, creative respelling	Having gotten three doses of a vaccine <sup>‡</sup> .
42.	Fauxvid	Faux + COVID-19 – Blending	“A medical syndrome in which the patient develops symptoms identical to Covid-19, eg sore throat, coughing, fever.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
43.	Pingdemic	Ping + pandemic – Blending	“This is when a large number of people are notified ("pinged") by a contact-tracing

			app to self-isolate after they have come into contact with a person who has tested positive for COVID-19.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
44.	Scariant	Scary + variant – Blending	“Exaggerated fear of a COVID-19 variant.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
45.	Vaccine shopping	Vaccine + shopping - Compounding	“The desire to only be vaccinated with a certain vaccine that one considers superior.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
46.	Pandemicide	Pandemic + homicide – Blending	“The action, inaction or incompetence that anyone or body takes that magnifies or aggravates the impacts of a pandemic or hinders its control method, leading to unnecessary widespread suffering and death.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
47.	Jabee	Jab + -ee – Affixation	“Person who has been vaccinated.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
48.	Vaccine diplomacy	Vaccine + diplomacy – Compounding	“The use of a vaccine by a nation to gain a diplomatic advantage.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
49.	Twindemic	Twin + pandemic – Blending	“The unfortunate, synergistic death-collision between standard-issue, but expected Influenza season and the unwanted, unexpected yet persistent, COVID-19 pandemic.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
50.	Revenge tourism	Revenge + tourism – Compounding	“Post covid vaccination touring with a vengeance.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
51.	Tripledemic	Triple + pandemic – Blending	“Widespread prevalence of three infectious diseases: Covid, the flu, and RSV.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
52.	Partygate	Party + gate – Compounding	“The scandal around a load of British MPs having parties together during lockdowns.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
53.	Miss Rona	Miss + Coronavirus – Compounding, clipping	“An alternative name for Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID 19) used exclusively in an ironic or comedic	TikTok

			setting.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
54.	COVID baby	COVID-19 + baby – Compounding, clipping	“Infants born during COVID pandemic, March 2020 to June 2021.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
55.	Coronababy	Coronavirus + baby – Blending	“A Baby conceived during the mandatory quarantine during the Covid-19 outbreak.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
56.	Vaxed	Vaccinated – Clipping, creative respelling	“When you have received a vaccination, you are / have been vaxed.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
57.	Coronaissance	Coronavirus + Renaissance - Blending	“The period in history during the 2020 Covid 19 global pandemic when people learned and perfected a skill because of being in quarantine for days.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
58.	Boomer remover	Boomer + remover – Compounding	“Synonym for coronavirus or COVID-19, created by the internet, since the virus is most dangerous for older people.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
59.	BC	<i>Semantic shift</i> from “Before Christ”	“The days before coronavirus.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
60.	Beforetimes	Before + times - Compounding	“Before the COVID-19 pandemic, when things were normal.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
61.	COVID-15	COVID-19 + 15 - Blending	“The 15 lbs of weight gain caused by nervously binge eating your COVID-19 food stockpile.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
62.	Panny	Pandemic – Clipping, suffixation	“A shorter more cuter word for pandemic.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
63.	Panini	Semantic shift	“Pandemic.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
64.	Hand sanny	Hand + sanitizer – Compounding, clipping, suffixation	“Australian slang for hand sanitizer.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
65.	Zoomwear	Zoom + wear – Compounding	“A style of dress where someone wears office attire (laundered shirts, sweaters, blouses, jackets, etc.) above

			the waist and sweats, gym shorts, pj's or less down below." (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
66.	Coronacoaster	Coronavirus + rollercoaster - Blending	"The feeling of uncertainty, anxiety, and helplessness surveying news and information concerning humankind's possible demise from covid-19." (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
67.	Coronaquake	Coronavirus + earthquake - Blending	Earthquake that happened during the Coronavirus pandemic <sup>‡</sup> .
68.	Coronabeard	Coronavirus + beard – Blending	A beard grown while in quarantine or isolation during the 2019 Coronavirus pandemic.
69.	Vaxism	Vaccine + -ism – Clipping, suffixation, creative respelling	"Prejudice against a person based on their vaccination status." (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
70.	Vax	Abbreviating, creative respelling	"Vaccine." (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
71.	Fully vaxxed	Fully + vaccinated – Compounding, clipping, creative respelling	"Describing someone who has gotten all of the necessary doses of a vaccine." (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
72.	Vax-free	Vaccine + free – Abbreviating, compounding	"An individual or group of individuals who are free of vaccinations." (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
73.	Anti-vaxxer	Anti + vaccinate + -er – Prefixation, suffixation, clipping, creative respelling	"A person, or group of people who reject vaccines or do NOT believe in them! Many reasons could be used for their beliefs, but most them stem for religious, fearful, reasons etc." (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
74.	Zoombies	Zoom + zombies - Blending	"People who spend way too much time in Zoom meetings." (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
75.	Vaccine hangover	Vaccine + hangover – Compounding	"The side effects experienced after a covid vaccine." (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
76.	Zoom Mullet	Zoom + mullet - Compounding	"The act of wearing business attire on the top part of your body and wearing comfortable clothes on the bottom part of your body." (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)

77.	Chinese Virus	Chinese + virus – Compounding	“Racist name for the COVID-19 coronavirus.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
78.	Scamdemic	Scam + pandemic - Blending	“Scamdemic, a combination of the words scam and pandemic, defines the desperate mainstream media's orchestration in creating a COVID-19 hysteria.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
79.	Pandemic pants	Pandemic + pants – Compounding	“The loose fitting or elastic pants most are wearing while working from home.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
80.	Pandemic puppy	Pandemic + puppy – Compounding	“A young dog that has been purchased after the start of the pandemic. The pandemic puppy's main function is to provide some sort of company to a person that feels socially isolated.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
81.	Pandemic brain	Pandemic + brain – Compounding	“Having a fuzzy memory, including not remembering details or having a skewed timeline, due to being socially isolated or quarantined during a pandemic.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
82.	Quaranteen	Quarantine + teen – Blending	“Someone who was a teen during the isolation period so missed out on important self-discovery and education.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
83.	Quarantino	Quarantine + Tarantino - Blending	“Place and/or period of time for which a person cuts themselves off from society and watches Quentin Tarantino films.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
84.	Quarantainment	Quarantine + entertainment – Blending	“The ridiculous things you do to entertain yourself during a quarantine.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
85.	Maskne	Mask + acne – Blending	“Acne that is caused by wearing a mask (due to COVID-19).” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
86.	Covid-phobia	COVID-19 + phobia –	“An extreme fear of acquiring, transmitting and contacting with persons carrying

		Compounding clipping	Coronavirus-19 (CoVid-19).” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
87.	Coron	Analogy to <i>moron</i>	“A coron is somebody acting the fool during the whole Coronavirus/quarantine thing. They refuse to social distance, hoard more toilet paper than they could ever use, and are lacking in basic hygiene. Also known as a covidiot.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	Reddit
88.	Portasite	From French “porte” (door) + parasite – Blending	“Describes someone who never opens their own door, instead following other people through.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
89.	Ivermect	From Ivermectin – backformation	“To try to avoid potential harm by putting oneself in even greater danger.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
90.	Covidity	COVID-19 + -ity – Affixation, clipping	“Following or observing all of Covid-19 self protection protocols such as hand hygiene, respiratory etiquette, environmental cleaning and ventilation, practicing social distancing, self-monitoring, self-isolation, and mandatory quarantine.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
91.	Covidism	COVID-19 + -ism – Affixation, clipping	“Covidism is a new way of thinking and living forced by a disease causing virus called corona; disease phobia and death phobia reigns the world; protecting oneself and others through lockdown, social distance, masks, washing hands has become the priority in life.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
92.	Casedemic	Case + pandemic – Blending	“An overemphasis on the amount of positive results of those infected, who may not even be contagious or have an infective viral load.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
93.	Coronawashing	Coronavirus + washing - Blending	“When you take your pre-existing product and/or service and claim it can prevent, treat, or cure coronavirus without providing ample evidence, and	

			likely having a profit motive.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
94.	Corona clouds	Coronavirus + cloud – Clipping + Compounding	“Corona Clouds are People blowing Vape-clouds during the Corona Virus Scare.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
95.	Covid Crazy	COVID-19 + Crazy – Compounding, clipping	“An individual who obsesses about Covid-19 and all the accompanying CDC precautions.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
96.	Covid date	COVID-19 + date – Compounding, clipping	“A date that consists of consistent mask wearing and proper social distancing while genuinely getting to know your date.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
97.	Coronaspiracy theory	Coronavirus + conspiracy + theory – Blending, compounding	“A bizarre conspiracy theory linking country, person, or technology to the coronavirus crisis.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
98.	Great Reset	Great + reset – Compounding	“The Great Reset is a proposal by the World Economic Forum (WEF) to rebuild the economy sustainably following the COVID-19 pandemic.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
99.	The invisible enemy	Invisible + enemy – Compounding	“The SARS-CoV-2 virus that created the 2020 COVID-19 pandemic.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
100.	Plandemic	Plan + pandemic – Blending	“The inability to plan or make plans due to a pandemic and all of the accompanying restrictions.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
101.	Covid Con	COVID-19+ convention – Compounding, clipping	“A scam related to using the pandemic to become rich.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
102.	COVID belly	COVID-19 + belly - Compounding, clipping	“Weight Gain incurred by being in Covid.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
103.	Coronaboom	Coronavirus + boom – Blending	“The increase in population as a result of quarantine during the coronavirus.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
104.	Covid drunk	Covid-19 + drunk – Compounding, clipping	“The act of having a few drinks and going absolutely bonkers with no memory of

			the night due to underlying mental issues aquired by being in lockdown for months.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
105.	COVID casualty	COVID-19 + casualty – Compounding, clipping	“Something you dearly loved or enjoyed doing before Covid.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
106.	Covid bait	COVID-19 + bait – Compounding, clipping	“A person with one or more visible risk factors for severe Covid-19 illness, especially if the factors are within the individual's ability to mitigate.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	Instagram
107.	Covid golfer	COVID-19 + golfer – Compounding, clipping	“Someone who has picked up the sport of golfing since the beginning of covid lockdowns as a means of getting out.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
108.	Covid clutter	COVID-19 + clutter - Compounding, clipping	“The accumulation of a mess in one’s home due to COVID-19.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
109.	Covid thriving	COVID-19 + thriving – Compounding, clipping	“The absence of personal crises during a global pandemic.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
110.	Halfinated	Half + vaccinated – Blending	“Only receiving the first dose of the Pfizer or Moderna COVID-19 vaccines, but not receiving the second. Receiving the second will make you fully vaccinated.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
111.	Drivecation	Drive + vacation – Blending	“Going for a drive in your private vehicle and using it as an accommodation near your place of residence.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
112.	Pandemicat	Pandemic + cat – Blending	“Pandemicats are the kittens we adopt during a long world-wide health emergency to cheer us up as we remain housebound for endless months.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	
113.	Pandemic proposal	Pandemic + proposal – Compounding	“Proposing marriage to your partner during a pandemic - often out of haste, panic or heightened emotions.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)	

114.	Covid bride	COVID-19 + bride – Compounding, clipping	A bride who is getting married during the Coronavirus pandemic <sup>‡</sup> .
115.	Covid wedding	COVID-19 + wedding – Compounding, clipping	A wedding which takes place during the Coronavirus pandemic <sup>‡</sup> .
116.	Pandemic wedding	Pandemic + wedding – Compounding	A wedding that takes place during a pandemic <sup>‡</sup> .
117.	Pandemic pretty	Pandemic + pretty – Compounding	“A person on Zoom or other live meetings who doesn’t attempt to do any personal grooming, yet still is acceptable officially in a social gathering.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
118.	Zoomlag	Zoom + lag – Compounding	“The exhaustion and disorientation felt from traveling a lot on Zoom to conferences, meetings, groups and parties.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
119.	Zoomerang	Zoom + boomerang – Blending	“Making an Instagram boomerang of a zoom call.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
120.	Zoom coma	Zoom + coma – Compounding	“The state of lethargy that you feel after a full day of Zoom meetings or after an extra-long Zoom call.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
121.	Zoom fatigue	Zoom + fatigue – Compounding	“When you've participated in too many Zoom meetings and it makes you tired.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
122.	Zoom University	Zoom + University – Compounding	“Refers to the online school system that started during COVID-19, which mostly took place on the Zoom video conferencing platform.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
123.	Zoomba	Zoom + Zumba – Blending	“Doing zumba over zoom.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
124.	Isolationship	Isolation + relationship – Blending	“Long- or short-distance relationship between two people kept apart due to shelter-in-place constraints.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
125.	Coronabration	Coronavirus + celebration – Blending	“The celebration of a holiday 6 months past its actual date due to Coronavirus.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)

126.	Superspreader	Super + spreader – Compounding	“A person or place who spread(s) covid to a lot of people.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
127.	Mask to mask	Face to face – Analogy	“An in person meeting of two people during quarantine.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
128.	To mask or not to mask	To be or not to be – Analogy	“The moral decision heads of state need to take due to a shortage of face masks in the market, as they don’t want to create a public panic that would lead to mask hoarding, which would endanger the lives of unmasked medical personnel and frontline workers.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
129.	Maskfish	Catfish – Analogy	“A person who appears attractive while their mask is on, but is unattractive as soon as they take it off.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
130.	Novid	No + COVID-19 - Blending	“(of a person) having negative test results for coronavirus or not showing traces of a specified covid-19 in their body.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
131.	Covid companion	COVID-19 + companion – Compounding, clipping	“The person you have chosen to self-isolate with during the Covid-19 Pandemic.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
132.	Locky D	Punning	“Aussie slang for COVID lockdown.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
133.	Quarantan	Quarantine + tan – Blending	“Tanning at your residence or backyard, while being quarantined by the COVID19 pandemic.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
134.	Vaxinista	Vaccine + fashionista – Blending, creative respelling	“A person who gets the vaccine and and flaunts it will high end shopping, trips, and parties.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)
135.	Porch coffee	Porch + coffee – Compounding	“Having coffee on the porch because your local coffee shop is closed due to COVID-19.” (Urban Dictionary, n.d.)