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**FACULTAD DE COMUNICACIÓN, LINGÜÍSTICA
Y LITERATURA**

**DISERTACIÓN PREVIA A LA OBTENCIÓN DEL TÍTULO DE
LICENCIADA EN LINGÜÍSTICA APLICADA CON MENCIÓN EN
ENSEÑANZA**

**“A Bilingual Lexicon/Glossary of Neologisms from written Business English
sources for Ecuadorian English Teachers, Translators, and Students”.**

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This dissertation is dedicated to my beloved mother
who will always mean everything to me
All that I am or hope to be, I owe it to her.

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ABSTRACT

The basic premise of this dissertation is that English business vocabulary is always changing by the creation of neologisms; therefore, to help all people interested and who work with business English and related topics. The newly created words were collected, analyzed, and presented as documented additions to normal dictionaries.

The dissertation starts with an introduction, which describes the topic, justification, approach and scope of the subject, as well as the background and objectives. The first chapter develops the theoretical framework and methodology. In the second chapter, the research methodology and collection of data are applied. The third chapter presents the author's conclusions and recommendations.

The study met the proposed objectives since fifty-three neologisms were identified with their Spanish and English meaning, probable formation analysis, and they are displayed in a glossary table to facilitate their use.

As a result of this study, the author recommends that these efforts of collecting neologisms should be continued by the Faculty of Communication, Linguistics and Literature. The updates to this research should be published at least digitally because those involved in business English will take advantage of the Internet as a reference source. English Linguistics professors, as dissertation advisors, should encourage some of their students to pursue with this never-ending task, as a class exercise and a contribution that will make easier the work of English teachers, translators, and other students.

RESUMEN

La premisa básica de esta disertación se refiere a que el vocabulario del inglés de negocios siempre cambia, a través de la creación de neologismos para ayudar a todas las personas interesadas y que trabajan con el inglés de negocios y con temas relacionados. Estos nuevos términos creados se recolectaron, analizaron y presentaron como adiciones documentadas a los diccionarios tradicionales.

La disertación comienza con la introducción, dónde se describe el tema, su justificación, enfoque y el alcance, así como los antecedentes y objetivos. El primer capítulo desarrolla el marco teórico y la metodología. En el segundo capítulo se aplica la metodología de investigación y recopilación de datos. El tercer capítulo presenta las conclusiones y recomendaciones de la autora.

El estudio cumplió con los objetivos establecidos, puesto que se identificaron cincuenta y tres neologismos, con su significado en español e inglés, el análisis de su probable formación y se los incluye en un glosario para facilitar su uso.

Como resultado de esta investigación, la autora recomienda que estos esfuerzos de recopilación deberían continuar en la Facultad de Comunicación, Lingüística y Literatura. Las actualizaciones de esta investigación se deberían publicar digitalmente porque aquellas personas involucradas en Inglés Comercial aprovecharán el Internet como fuente de referencia. Los profesores de Lingüística en inglés como directores de disertaciones deberían estimular a sus estudiantes continuar con este trabajo permanente, como ejercicio de clase y una contribución que simplificará el trabajo de búsqueda e investigación de los profesores de inglés, traductores y otros estudiantes.

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INTRODUCTION

This research project was born out of the author's love for lexicography and a keen interest in the language of business. The basic premise of this dissertation is that English business vocabulary is always changing by the creation of Neologisms.

From that basis, the following questions arise. What are the related topics? Which are the newly created words to be collected, analyzed, and presented, as documented additions to normal dictionaries? The theoretical findings of the research allow putting forth the following hypothesis: mass media, specialized in business, are the perfect framework within which business neologisms are created.

The purpose of this dissertation is to gather current business neologisms in "A Bilingual Lexicon/Glossary of Neologisms from written Business English sources for Ecuadorian English Teachers, Translators, and Students", from selected published sources for the period 2005-2013.

English is changing almost daily. It is therefore, essential that professors of Applied Linguistics, English teachers, translators, and students of MCBIR (Multilingual Career in Business and International Relations) and Administration keep up-dated on changes in the business language, especially of the creation of new words (neologisms). They need easy access to a lexicon/glossary of neologisms for their professional work and studies. Therefore, an up-to-date lexicon/glossary of Neologisms will be helpful to the understanding of these words in the field of Business. Since there is no up-dated bilingual lexicon/glossary of Neologisms in the Pontifical Catholic University of Ecuador (PUCE) Main Library, this dissertation will be a useful language tool.

There is a demand for this tool in the FCLL (Faculty of Communication, Language and Linguistics) because there are various

business-related courses in the School of MCBIR where this glossary will be very useful. The courses basically are: for the second level, ‘Reading and Writing for Business’; third level, ‘English for International Affairs I’; fourth level, ‘Public Speaking Negotiation Skills’; ‘English for International Affairs II’; and fifth level, ‘International Management’.

Donald Stewart, former Director of MCBIR, mentions that languages keep changing all the time and are very dynamic. Unless people update their ability to understand the changes in the language, their comprehension of the same will be diminished. Obviously, some audience tailoring is required for such a vast field of knowledge.

Students of Business English have to be introduced to the latest terminology in order for them to be updated in their understanding of their course materials. Milica Dragosavlovich, former Director of the School of Linguistics, thinks that: “It is imperative to introduce the awareness of neologisms in courses where commercial, legal, and technical writing are taught in English because these types of writings require a deep awareness of the changes in language and the creation of neologisms”. After reviewing the course list mentioned above, the former director of the School of Linguistics suggests that all subjects taught in the school should include the teaching of neologisms because all these courses deal with business jargon, among other areas. (M.Dragosavlovich, personal communication, December 12, 2014).

The same can be said about training translators. In an interview with Marleen Haboud, former Director of the School of Linguistics (FCLL, by its Spanish acronym) she stated that “Translators should be aware of neologisms and their corresponding meaning(s) in order to make more accurate translations. A proficient translator must be aware of such changes to make sure his/her translations maintain the spirit of the languages he/she

is working with as well as the pace of social changes” (M. Haboud, personal communication, October 14, 2014).

A similar belief is held by Rosa Llerena, Assistant Dean of FCLL. She feels that the awareness of neologisms is important in the context of translations: the translator should be fully qualified in the languages involved in his/her work and keep current such knowledge of new word creation and new meanings. Therefore, the School of Linguistics should teach neologisms in every course related to translation. (R. Llerena, interview, December 12, 2014).

Ula Barnickel, current Director of the School of Linguistics, affirmed that Neologisms should be introduced in the School of Linguistics in subjects like: Semantics, Syntax, and Morphology. Neologisms are words that should be introduced to students who are going to be teachers and translators in order to keep them updated in the process of new word formation. (U. Barnickel, November 28, 2016).

As stated previously, the purpose of this dissertation is to prepare “A Bilingual Lexicon/Glossary of Neologisms from written Business English sources for Ecuadorian English Teachers, Translators, and Students”, from selected business journals for the period 2005-2013. This research project was performed for the Faculty of Communication, Linguistics and Literature, of the PUCE in Quito - Ecuador; the findings will also be valuable for all entities involved in English as a foreign language and translation (FCLL).

After reviewing the resources of the PUCE’s Main Library and the Resource Center, no dictionary of neologisms was found that can be a tool for students of MCBIR and Linguistics. Students of Business English do not have at their disposal a dictionary of neologisms and are not necessarily

aware of new business words and phrases. Their knowledge of Business English does not always include an understanding of the terminology used to describe the latest business developments. Honda (2008) states that:

“The study of neologisms is similar to the study of speech acts and discourse. However, there is a difference between neologisms and expressions even though our expressions are always unique. According to merely appearances, words or phrases that are spoken by one person may be re-circulated and another will speak the same words or phrases. However, what makes each word or phrase unique for each person is the actuality of what is being said in that particular situation where all situations are unique; hence the actual content or meaning of the expression is what becomes a neologism”.

This study is based on gathering and categorizing Neologisms used in American Business English, as found in business articles in Bloomberg Businessweek, Forbes Magazine, The Washington Post, from 2005 to 2013, and the Merriam-Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary (2002 edition, the latest available at the PUCE Library). Terms encountered in the research, which are not included in the 2002 Collegiate Dictionary, were considered neologisms for the purpose of this study.

Objectives

General: As the PUCE’s Libraries do not have any glossaries of neologisms, the aim of this dissertation is to discover new Business Neologisms. The purpose is to create a mini bilingual dictionary of American Business English Neologisms that will fill the needs in the areas of current business vocabulary of professors of Applied Linguistics, LEAI, English teachers, translators, and students in the FCLL.

Specific

- a) To investigate a framework and methodology that will be used in the search of neologisms and the analysis of the data collected as a result of it.

b) In the research of Neologisms:

To identify and gather American Business English neologisms from the business section of Bloomberg Businessweek, Forbes, The Washington Post, during the period 2005 through 2013, and the Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, 2002 edition (the latest available in the PUCE Library).

To translate the meaning of English neologisms into Spanish.

To categorize the different neologisms in alphabetical order, part of speech, translation, dictionary entry, and probable formation.

c) To reach some specific conclusions and offer recommendations for the continuity of this endeavor by future generations, gathering new neologisms for up-dated dictionaries.

CHAPTER ONE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND METHODOLOGY

1.1. Neologisms

1.1.1. Definitions of Neologisms and their types

The term neologism derives from Greek: néos means new and logos mean word while the suffix {-ism} forms the noun. The whole term stands for innovation in language. Newly created words are common in the world and widespread in all languages that grant us the possibility to express ourselves in spoken and written form. Furthermore, language creativity offers the chance for a broader language repertoire. (Hasani, Muhammid, n/d, retrieved March 2014, from, [http:// www.iasj.net/iasj](http://www.iasj.net/iasj)). Hasani's essay is very relevant to this research, and its title is "Neologism as a Linguistic Phenomenon in Mass Media Textbook with Reference to Translation". All the definitions in section 1.1.1 have been taken from Hasani.

Types of Neologisms: The kinds of neologisms vary according to the field in which they first occur (Hasani, n/d).

Scientific: these types of neologisms are words or phrases created to describe new scientific discoveries. They can be exemplified in the following: "prion" which is an "infectious protein particle: a contagious particle of protein that, unlike a virus, has no nucleic acid, does not trigger an immune response and is not destroyed by extreme heat or cold" (Hasani quotes from Microsoft® Encarta® 2009).

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

hypothesis; it states that the structure of a language helps determine how its native speakers perceive and categorize experience. Some political neologisms, however, are intended to convey a negative point of view. Example: *brutalitarian*.

Pop-culture: words or phrases evolved from mass media content or used to describe popular cultural phenomena (these may be considered a subsection of slang), e.g. *carb*

Imported: words or phrases originating in another language. Typically, they are used to express ideas that have no equivalent term in the native language, e.g. *tycoon*.⁸⁷

Trademarks: they are often neologisms to ensure they are distinguished from other brands. If legal trademark protection is lost, the neologism may enter the language as a generalized trademark, e.g. *Kodak*.

Nonce words: words coined and used only for a particular occasion, usually for a special literary effect. For example: ‘*titilifarious*’ (a blend of ‘titillating’ and ‘hilarious’), and ‘*plumtuous*’ (a blend of ‘plump’ and ‘sumptuous’).

Inverted: words that are derived from spelling and pronouncing a standard word backwards: *murder* becomes *redrum*. Another case is **Paleologism:** a word that is alleged to be a neologism but turns out to be a long-used (if obscure) word. It is used ironically, e.g. *bitchin* .

Another sort of distinction among neologisms is necessary to consider because several versions of neologisms can be pointed out as follows:

Unstable, also known as **Protologism**: They comprise a class of neologisms which are extremely new and being proposed or being used only by a very small subculture. It is a newly created word which has not gained wide acceptance. The word “protologisms” is an example of a protologism and was invented by Mikhail Epstein, as recorded in http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mikhail_Epstein.

Diffused: They have reached a significant audience but have not gained acceptance yet.

Stable: They have gained recognizable and probably lasting acceptance.

1.1.2 Processes and methods for creating neologisms

Neologisms are created and introduced into the language in a variety of ways. Some of the most important of these are:

Root Creation or Coinage: an invented word or phrase and the process of inventing it. New words may be added to the vocabulary of a language using this type of derivational process. Like the words ‘loan’ and ‘borrowing’, the term ‘coinage’ is based on an ancient analogy between language and money. The creation of words without the use of earlier words is rare; for example, *googol*, the term for the number 1 followed by a hundred zeros or 10^{100} , introduced by the American mathematician Edward Kasner, whose 9-year-old nephew coined it when asked to think of a name for a very big number (Arens, 2008, “Neologisms”, <http://wikis.laits.utexas.edu/theory/page/neologisms>).

Dealing with the topic of the development of neologisms, new words are coined for different reasons, practical and aesthetic. New words are needed when inventions are being described. A lot of daily conditions and events call for new words or the use of existing words with new meanings.

Technical developments create a need for a lot of new words such as: “*e-mail*”, “*hacker*”, “*blog*”, “*blogging*”, and “*google*”. Also, common words like “*mouse*” have taken on different meanings as a result of technical developments.

Eponyms: are words derived from real or fictional peoples’ names. Examples of eponyms from real names include *boycott*, *teddy bear*, *Kodak*, and *cardigan*. Eponyms, besides being taken from people’s names, both real and fictional, can also come from company names, specific brand names, or chemical product trademarks. For example: *Xerox*, *Kleenex*, *Jell-O*, *Frigidaire*, *Brillo*, and *Vaseline* are now sometimes used as the generic name for different brands of these types of products. Some of these words were created from existing words: *Kleenex* from the word clean and *Jell-O* from gel (Algeo, 1991, p.82).

Many units of measurement in science and chemistry are eponyms to honor great scientists. For example: “*Volt*” comes from the Italian physicist Alessandro Volta, and “*Nicotine*” originates from the French diplomat and Scholar Jean Nicot who introduced tobacco into France (Crystal, 2003, p.155).

James Joyce’s *Finnegan’s Wake*, composed in a uniquely complex linguistic style, coined words such as *quark*. The word “*quark*” is now used to refer to an elementary particle in Physics (*Neologism*, <http://www.reference.com/browse/neologism>, 2009).

Politics is also a fruitful source of Neologisms. For example: the *Watergate* scandal producing other words like *Irangate*, and more recently

Cablegate for political scandals in the US; the morpheme “gate” being used to form a variety of neologisms. *Tea Party* meaning a protest movement against increased tax is another example of a strategy for creating a neologism. While the origin of *Tea Party* dates back to the Boston Tea Party, a protest against tax without representation, the present use of *Tea Party* has only existed since the election of the US President Barack Obama. The word *tea* has been turned into an Acronym (Taxed Enough Already). See page 13 for an additional discussion of Acronyms.

Day baseball, *silent movie*, *surface mail*, and *whole milk* are all expressions that were once redundant. In the past, all baseball games were played in daylight, all movies were silent, *electronic mail* did not exist, and *low-fat* and *skimmed milk* were not yet conceived (Crystal, 2003, p.120).

Retronym: is a new word or phrase coined for an old object or concept whose original name is no longer used under its original meaning, or is no longer unique (that is the case of *acoustic guitar*: once upon a time *guitar* used to mean this instrument, but now it can also refer to an *electric guitar*).

Neologisms tend to occur more often in cultures that are changing rapidly, and also, in situations where the easy and fast dissemination of information occur. The new terms are often created by combining existing words or by giving words new and unique suffixes or prefixes (*Neologism*, <http://www.reference.com/browse/neologism>, 2009).

At other times, however, they disappear from common use just as readily as they appeared. Whether a neologism continues as part of the language depends on many factors, probably the most important of which is

acceptance by the public. It is unusual, however, for a word to enter common use if it does not resemble another word or words in an identifiable way (Neologism, 2009).

When a word or phrase is no longer "new", it is no longer a neologism. Neologisms may take decades to become "old", though. Opinions differ on exactly how old a word must be to cease being considered a neologism; cultural acceptance probably plays a more important role than time in this regard.

Newly-created words entering a language tend to pass through **stages** that may be described as:

- ❖ -Unstable- extremely new, being proposed or being used only by a small subculture (also known as **protologisms**) e.g. Frankenfood (**n**) genetically modified food.
- ❖ -Diffused- having reached a significant frequency of use, but they have not gained widespread acceptance yet e.g. Banana Republic (**n**).
- ❖ -Stable- having gained recognizable, being in vogue, and perhaps gaining lasting acceptance e.g. Cyberspace (**n**) in the web.
- ❖ -Dated- the point where the word has ceased being novel, entered formal linguistic acceptance, and even may have passed into becoming a cliché e.g. Freelance (**n**).
- ❖ -Passé- when a neologism becomes so culturally dated that the use of it is avoided because its use is seen as being out of step with the norms of a changed cultural tradition e.g. Honk (**n**) (Neologism, 2009).

1.1.3 Diverse methods of Neologism formation

Neologisms can also be created through different methods of word formation. (Crystal, 2003, p. 131) describes at great length the compounding method of word formation):

Compounding: A compound is a unit of vocabulary, which consists of more than one lexical stem. On the surface, two (or more) lexemes appear to be present, but the parts are functioning as a single item, which has its own meaning and grammar. So, *flower-pot* does not refer to a *flower* and a *pot*, but to a single object. It is pronounced as a unit, with a single main stress, and it is used grammatically also as a unit; its plural is *flower-pots* and not *flowers-pots* (Crystal, 2003, p. 131).

The unity of *flower-pot* is also signaled by the orthography, but this is not a foolproof criterion. If the two parts are linked by a hyphen or are printed without a space as in *flowerpot*, then, there is no difficulty, but the form '*flower pot*' will also be found, and in such cases, to be sure it is a compound (and not just a sequence of two independent words).

Algeo (1991, p.7) explains that compounds are most readily classified into types based on the kind of grammatical meaning they represent. *Earthquake*, for example, can be paraphrased as "the earth quakes", and the relation of earth to quake is that of subject to verb, similarly, a *crybaby* is also subject + verb ("the baby cries"), despite its back-to-front appearance. Other examples of compounds are: *couch potato*, someone constantly slumped on a couch watching television, and *video-conferencing* (a number of people taking part in a conference or

conferences by means of video equipment rather than all meeting in one place). About 90 percent of new compounds are nouns. Adjectives and verbs account for less than 10 percent and other parts of speech are even less common. Several factors account for the preponderance of nouns.

Algeo also explains that compounds generally consist of two (occasionally more) words combined as a lexical unit. They are usually written with a space between them (*architectural barrier*), less often as one word (*blacktop*) or with a hyphen (*user-friendly*). There is, however, a good deal of variation: *toy boy* or *toy-boy*, *spaceship* or *space ship*, *product mix* or *product-mix*, *tinseltown*, *tinsel-town*, or *tinsel town*).

Suffix-like compounds: Compounds are sometimes formed according to a pattern of using a particular word in first or last position, very much like an affix. During World War II, the United States military forces were based on various locations around the world, so forms like *Aleutian-based*, *Italy-based*, *Marianas-based*, and *Saipan-based* were frequent. Common nouns were also used as the first elements of *-based* compounds: *carrier-based*, *home-based*, and *shore-based*. Although less prolific now than it was in the 1940's, the pattern still produces new forms: *reality-based* (Algeo, 1991, p.8).

Algeo (1991) mentions that other forms with similar popular suffix-like use are: *-bashing* (especially in British use: *granny-bashing*, *Paki-bashing*, *square-bashing*, and *yuppy-bashing*); the enduring *-burger* (*nutburger*, *SPAMburger*); *-buster*, which enjoyed a fad in the 1940's (*atom-buster*, *belly buster*, *blockbuster*, *crime buster*, *gangbuster*,

ghostbuster ‘an exposé of fraudulent mediums’ rather than the later ‘exorcist’, *knuckle buster*, *racket buster*, *trust-buster*, *union-buster*, and many others); *circuit* (*Borscht circuit*, *chicken-patty circuit* and *subway circuit*); *curtain* (*bamboo curtain*, *iron curtain* and *paper curtain*); *-hop* (*bed-hop*, *city-hop*, *job-hop*, *museum-hop*, *table-hop*); *-intensive* (*earnings-intensive*, *fuel-intensive*, *time-intensive*); *look* (*bare look*, *layered look*); *-mania* (*condomania*); *privilege* (*executive privilege*, *journalistic privilege*, *judicial privilege*); *-speak* (*businessspeak*, *computer-speak*, *Haigspeak*, and *Valley Girl speak*).

Prefix-like compounds: Certain other words are favored as the first element of compounds and so are prefix-like. *Bamboo* was used with the ‘native’ sense in reference to the Philippines as in *bamboo English*, *bamboo government*, and *bamboo telegraph*. Later, *bamboo English* was used for English influenced by Japanese and Korean (Bamboo English was a Japanese Pidgin-English jargon, during the Second World War between American servicemen and Japanese people in or around US military bases). *Big* has similar prefixal use in *big banking*, *big labor*, *big money*, and *big oil*. *Golden* in *golden handshake*, *golden parachute*, *golden hello*, and *golden shackle*. Other such initial elements are: *living*, *motor*, *power*, *shock*, and *sky* (Algeo, 1991, p.7).

Classical compounds: In its early history, English borrowed many compounds from Latin and Greek (although most Greek words were filtered through Latin or French, and even today new loans from Greek are generally represented in English as though they had passed through Roman mouths and hands). The English language adopted a large number of

classical compounds. In English, if someone wants to compound two words, people generally just stick them together: *self* + *rule* equals *self-rule*. In Greek, it was generally necessary to have a vowel between two compounded bases: *aut+o+nomia* that equals *autonomia*, which is borrowed as *autonomy* (Algeo, 1991, p.7).

According to Algeo, when new compounds are formed in English using morphemes from classical languages, they often combine them according to the classical pattern. So *o*'s pop up in many new words like *chemosphere* and *magnetosphere* which, otherwise, might just as well have been “chemical sphere” and “magnetic sphere”. “New Latin” and “New Greek” compounds include *Legionella pneumophila* (the bacillus of Legionare's disease), *Homo habilis* (a close relation to *Homo Sapiens*), and *zinzanthropus* (an early member of the *Erectus* family) although the Romans and Hellenes would hardly have known what to make of them.

Letter compounds: Some compounds consist of a noun and one or more letters of the alphabet. The letters often stand for words, as the *A* in *A-bomb* is for “*atom*”; thus, the word is a compound of an acronym and another word. Military use favors such letter compounds, but they are also used in other circumstances as cryptic short forms (*Q fever*, for “query” because of questions about the nature of the illness) or *euphemisms* (*F-word* and many humorous imitations of that pattern) (Algeo, 1991, p. 8).

In other cases, however, any of the letters mentioned in the previous paragraph, can have a different origin: .it may represent a point in a series, as *B-Day* (where the letter B normally stands for *birthday* but in this case it

stands for *baker* as the signaler's name (as in the second letter of the Army's phonetic alphabet) that is, the second day in a military operation. Occasionally, the letter purely reduplicates the first letter of a following noun: *H-hour*. Sometimes it is a pun: *U-Drive* for: "you drive". Although there have been no examples in Algeo's book "Among the New Words", the letter is sometimes iconic, as in *S curve* and *V neck*. In a few cases, the meaning of the letter is unknown, as in *g-string*.

Alphanumeric compounds: Some compounds are made of combinations of letters and numerals (*V-1* 'A German bomb'), sometimes of numerals alone (1080 'a rat poison'), and sometimes of letters and numerals joined with an ordinary word (*vitamin B12*). The parts may be individually significant, as in *1947N*, the name of a comet, the fourteenth (*hence, the fourteenth letter of the alphabet: N*) discovered in 1947, or they may be from an arbitrary system of classification, like *4F* as the designation for those rejected for military service during World War II. The motivation for the parts of the compound often fades from awareness, as in *20-20* 'perceptive, accurate' from the ability to see normally with both eyes at a distance of twenty feet.

Sound patterns in compounds: Sound repetition plays a part in a few compounds. At the greatest extreme of repetition, some compounds reduplicate a word: *bleep bleep*, *lurgy lurgy*, *ping-ping-pong-pong* (which puts one instance of the reduplicated word inside the other), *quad-quad*, *short shorts*, and *zero-zero* (Algeo, 1991, p.8).

Rhyme: plays a part in other word creations: *brain drain, creepie-peepie, fuddie-duddie, Hacky Sack, Ike-liker, jet set, no show, peepie-creepie, shock frock, shock jock, surround sound, tot lot, toyboy, and wait state.*

Alliteration: a sound repetition is probably at least a supporting phenomenon behind such compounds as *baby bust, belly bundle, bumble bomb, buzz bomb, chump change, death dust, and double digit* (which is more popular than the synonymous but unalliterative *double-figure*), *down and dirty, gas guzzler, glower and grin, hidden hunger, hollow hunger, lend-lease, mermaid, roid rage, sky scout, and sweepswinger.*

The assonance of the vowels (a form of alliteration) contributes to the effect of *brass hat, date rape, eager beaver, fanny pack, hit list, hot rod, jampacked, punch-drunk, and whirlybird.*

Some compounds combine sound effects: alliteration and assonance in *fanny flask, sword and sorcery, winkie-wiggling*; alliteration and consonance (the repetition of consonant sounds after the vowel) in *war-weary.*

Respelled compounds: Unconventional spelling has long been a device of trade names to make a distinctive commercial label out of an ordinary word or phrase “*Holsum*” i.e. (*Holsum bread*), and “*Bestovall*” (brand of baking ingredients). In the same line of creation is the British *Filofax* (from “file of facts”) for a loose-leaf notebook with filler pages of many kinds.

Compound phrases: Some items are new “words” in the sense that they have a single idiomatic meaning, yet look and behave as though they were phrases. Verbal idioms like *turn over* (the ball in a football game) and *rev it*

up (accelerate fully an engine: from, increase the revolutions) are such phrases of one kind. Others are prepositional phrases used adjectivally or adverbially, such as: *on the beam* and *behind the curve*. Others are complex noun phrases, like: *discrimination in reverse* or *back-to-the-basics*.

Acronymy: The term ACRONYM is used in several ways, but here it is used to designate a term made of the initial letters of the words of an expression, pronounced according to the normal rules of English orthography. An example is *scuba* ‘self-contained underwater breathing apparatus’. Some forms are either alphabetisms (abbreviations using the initial letters of the words of an expression, pronounced by the alphabetical names of the letters) or acronyms. For example, *ROK* is pronounced with letter names “are-oh-kay” when it stands for Republic of Korea, but as an orthographic word sounding like “rock” when it is used for a soldier of the *ROK* (Army of the Republic of Korea).

Many acronyms are homonyms of another word; thus, they make a pun (i.e. a humorous way of using a word or phrase so that more than one meaning is suggested) in the homonym. Frequently, the acronym is invented for the sake of the pun. Thus, the *ZIP* of *ZIP Code* is said to stand for ‘Zone Improvement Plan’, but the word was chosen to suggest that the numerical postal codes would speed up mail delivery.

Abbreviation: is the shortening of words and phrases (kilogram to kg, Imperial Chemical Industries to ICI), and a result of such shortening (M.A. for Master of Arts). Although abbreviations usually need to be concise,

convenient, and easy to remember, they do not need to be fully understood to serve their purpose.

Six conventions for writing and printing abbreviations are:

1. Capital letters and periods: I.N.S.E.A. for ‘International Society for Education through Art’.
2. Capital letters without periods: BBC for ‘British Broadcasting Corporation’.
3. Lower-case letters with periods for formulas such as: e.g. (exempli gratia) and q.v. (quod vide=which see), and without periods for acronyms that have become everyday words, such as *NATO* and *laser* (See previous page, ‘**Acronymy**’ subtitle).
4. Mixed capitals and lower case, without periods, capitals usually for lexical words, lower case for grammatical words: *DoWLT* for ‘Dictionary of World Literary Terms’; *MoMA* for ‘Museum of Modern Art’; *mRNA* for ‘messenger ribonucleic acid’; and *WiB* the organization ‘Women in Business’.
5. Internal capitals, as *DigiPulse* for ‘Digital Pulse’.
6. Hybrid forms: *B.Com.* for ‘Bachelor of Commerce’ (McArthur, 2013).

Abbreviations, one of the most noticeable features of present-day English linguistic life, would form a major part of any very complete dictionary. Often thought the use of abbreviations as modern habit can be traced back over 150 years. In the present century, though, it has been overshadowed 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. Succinctness and precision are highly valued, and abbreviations can contribute greatly to a concise style. Technological constraints may be important, as with text-messaging. Abbreviations also help to convey a sense of social identity: to use an abbreviated form is to be part of the social group jargon to which the abbreviation belongs.

Abbreviations of longer words or phrases also may become “lexicalized”. For example, *Nark* for *narcotics agent*, *tec* (or *dick*) for detective, *telly*, the British word for *television*, *prof* for professor, *piano* for *pianoforte*, and *gym* for *gymnasium* are but a few examples of such “short forms” that are now used as whole words. Other examples are *ad*, *bike*, *math*, *gas*, *bus*, and *van* (*for advertisement, bicycle, mathematics, gasoline, omnibus, and vanguard*) (Crystal, 2003, p.120).

Derivation: is the formation of a new word or inflectable stem from another word or stem. It typically occurs by the addition of an affix.

The derived word is often a different word class from the original. It may, thus, take the inflectional affixes of the new word class. In contrast to inflection, derivation is not obligatory; typically, it produces greater change of meaning, and it often changes the grammatical category of a root. Some examples of derivation are: *yuppie*, formed from *yup*, an acronym using the initial letters of the phrase “young urban professional” by adding the suffix *-ie*; *yuppiedom*, the condition of being a yuppie, formed from *yuppie* by

adding the further suffix *-dom*, *kindness* is derived from *kind*, *joyful* is derived from *joy*, *amazement* is derived from *amaze*, *speaker* is derived from *speak*, and *national* is derived from *nation* (Crystal, 2003, p. 120).

Blending: is the process of simultaneously combining and shortening. A blend is a word made by joining two or more forms but omitting at least part of one. This simple process has a number of variations, some quite complex.

As Fromkin explains, blends are compounds that are “less than” compounds. *Smog*, from *smoke*+ *fog*; *motel*, from *motor* + *hotel*; *urinalysis* from *urine* + *analysis* are examples of blends that have attained full lexical status in English. *Broasted*, from *broiled* + *roasted*, is a blend that has a limited acceptance in the language, as does Lewis Carroll’s *chortle*, from *chuckle* + *snort* (Fromkin, 1998, p. 89).

Merriam-Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary defines Portmanteaux as words or morphemes whose form and meaning are derived from a blending of two or more distinct forms such as *smog* from *smoke* and *fog*. Another example of a blend or Portmanteau word is *brunch*, from a combination of *breakfast* and *lunch*. Portmanteau is the singular form and Portmanteaux stands for the plural. (Merriam-Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary, p. 905).

In “Through the Looking Glass”, and “What Alice Found There” (1871), Lewis Carroll created the egotistical linguistic philosopher, Humpty Dumpty, dealing with the question of blends. He calls them Portmanteaux words for terms which have since then achieved some currency in linguistic studies. Crystal (2003) feels that the fragment in “Through the Looking

Glass” and “What Alice Found There” (1871) is a good example of the usage of Portmanteaux words. Two examples are: ‘*slithy*’ (slimy and lithe) and ‘*brilling*’ (bright and broiling).

‘You seem very clever at explaining words, Sir’, said Alice. ‘Would you kindly tell me the meaning of the poem called ‘Jabberwocky’? ‘Let’s hear it’, said Humpty Dumpty. ‘I can explain all the poems that ever were invented- and good many that haven’t been invented just yet.’

This sounded very hopeful, so Alice repeated the first verse:

*‘Twas brillig, and the slithy toves
Did gyre and gimble in the wabe:
All mimsy were the borogroves,
And the mome raths outgrabe .*

*‘That’s enough to begin with,
Humpty Dumpty interrupted:*

‘There are plenty of hard words there. ‘Brilling’ means four o’clock in the afternoon- the time when you begin broiling things for dinner.’

‘That’ll do very well, ’ said Alice: ‘and “slithy”? ’

‘Well, “slithy” means “lithe and slimy.” “Lithe” is the same as “active.” You see it’s like a portmanteau – there are two meanings packed up into one word.’

‘I see it now,’ Alice remarked thoughtfully: ‘and what are “toves”?’

‘Well, “toves” are something like badgers- they’re something like lizards- and they’re something like corkscrews.’

‘They must be very curious-looking creatures.’

‘They are that,’ said Humpty Dumpty: ‘also they make their nests under sundials- also they live on cheese.’

Back formation: a new word may enter the language because of an incorrect morphological analysis. For example, *peddle* was derived from *peddler* on the mistaken assumption that -er was the “agentive” suffix. The verbs *hawk*, *stroke*, *swindle*, and *edit* all came into the language as back-formations of *hawker*, *stoker*, *swindler*, and *editor*. “Language purists sometimes rail against back-formations and cite *enthuse* (from enthusiasm) as an example of language corruption, but Language is not corrupt

(although the speakers who use it may be) and many words have entered the language this way” (Fromkin, 1998, p. 87).

Borrowing: is defined as the “process by which one language uses some linguistic element from another language” (Fromkin, 1998). Borrowing is a significant source of new words. Languages are borrowers and the lexicon of any language can be divided into native and nonnative words often called loan words. A native word is one whose history or etymology can be traced back to the earliest stages of the language.

A language may borrow a word directly or indirectly. A direct borrowing means that the borrowed item is a native word in the language it is borrowed from. The native Middle French word *festa* (Modern French *fête*; the Old French was *feste*, from Latin *festa*) was directly borrowed by Middle English and has become Modern English *feast*. On the other hand, the word *algebra* was borrowed from Spanish, which in turn had borrowed it from Arabic. English borrowed *algebra* indirectly from Arabic with Spanish as an intermediary.

Some languages are heavy borrowers; Albanian has borrowed so heavily that few native words are retained. On the other hand, many American Indian languages have borrowed but lightly from their neighbors (Fromkin, 1998, p. 87).

English has borrowed extensively. Of the 20,000 words in common use, about three-fifths are borrowed. However, the figure is misleading. Of the 500 most frequently used words, only two-sevenths are borrowed, and since these “common” words are used over and over again in sentences, the

actual frequency of appearance of native words is much higher than the statistics on borrowing would lead one to believe. 'Short' words such as: *and, be, have, it, of, the, to, will, you, on, that,* and *is* are all native to English and constitute about one-fourth of the words regularly used. Thus, it is not unreasonable to suppose that more than four-fifths of the words commonly used in speaking English are native to the language (Fromkin, 1998, p. 87).

One can almost trace the history of the English-speaking people by studying the kinds of loan words which entered the language through the Norman Conquest in 1066. At that time, England was inhabited chiefly by the *Angles*, the *Saxons*, and the *Jutes*, people of Germanic origin who came to England in the fifth century A.D. and remained to eventually become the English. (The word *England* is derived from *Angles*.) Originally, the *Angles*, *Saxons*, and *Jutes* spoke Germanic dialects, from which Old English developed directly, and these contained the number of *Latin* borrowings but were, otherwise, unmixed by foreign elements. These *Germanic* tribes, who had displaced by force the earlier *Celtic* inhabitants of the islands, adopted a few *Celtic* place names, which were borrowed by Old English alongside the *Latin*, but the *Celts* were so thoroughly defeated that their language had little effect on the language of the invaders (Fromkin, 1998, p. 87).

For three centuries after the Norman Conquest, French was the language used for all affairs of State, and for most commercial, social, and cultural matters. The West Saxon literary language was abandoned, but regional varieties of English did continue to be used in the homes of the

people, in their places of worship, and even in the market places of their small villages. During these three centuries, vast numbers of French words entered English, of which these are but a few: *government, crown, prince, state, parliament, nation, jury, crime, sue, attorney, property, miracle, charity, court, virgin, saint, pray, mercy, religion, value, royal, money, and society* (Fromkin, 1998, p. 88).

In the business field, one example of a neologism that was created by borrowing from another language is “Tranche” (*The Free Dictionary* by *Farlex*), which means (literally, a slice) a portion or installment, especially of a loan or share issue; this word was borrowed from French, which literally means a slice (Farlex, <http://www.thefreedictionary.com>. Neologisms, 2012).

The following neologism examples have recently entered the English lexicon and are increasingly popping up in conversation. Many of them are born of the economic crisis; some appeared from new trends and technologies. *Carpocalypse* (noun): the financial devastation being wreaked upon the global automotive industry. *Econocide* (noun): suicide caused by or relating to a down economy, for example: stock brokers jumping out of skyscrapers. *Entrepreneur* (noun): a person who focuses on innovative entrepreneurial development within a large company. *Moziloville* (noun): the tent cities springing up across California (named for Angelo Mozilo, former Countrywide CEO). *Obamanation* (noun): used by critics of the current U.S. president to describe particularly disliked government initiatives. *Pre-privatization* (noun): A euphemism for nationalizing a company, emphasizing that the company will be returned to private control

as soon as possible. *Twitterati* (noun): the most read and most influential users of microblogging service Twitter (Vander, <http://www.forbes.com/2009/04/23/english-language-word-opinions-books-neologisms>).

Calque or Loan Translation: consists of importing the meaning of a foreign compound and assigning this meaning to a literal translation of its linguistic elements using lexical units in the receiving language. For example: *Superman*, from German *Übermensch*; loan word from German *Lehnwort*, and loan translation, from German *Lehnübersetzung*. Another type of Calque or Loan Translation is the Semantic loan or Semantic Calque; it is the borrowing of a semantic meaning from another language to assign it to a word or expression that already remains in the receiving language. The form of this word does not change, but its meaning is extended (Sevilla, 2012, p.18 <http://ocw.um.es/cc.sociales/terminologia/material-de-clase-unit-iii.pd>, 2012).

Instead of borrowing the form of a foreign word, English sometimes borrows its meaning, giving the foreign sense by appropriate words already in the language. Such borrowings called Calques or Loan Translations may exist alongside the corresponding simple loans they translate. Instances are: the French *animator*, *basket*, *fourth force*, and *new cuisine* (besides *nouvelle cuisine*); German *Fortress Europe* (beside *Festung Europa*) and *guestworker* for which the simple loan *Gastarbeiter* also exists although it is generally used only for guestworkers in Germany. In Russian, the word *apparatus* refers to bureaucracy, for which there is also the simple loan *apparat*, usually only in the context of communism (Algeo, 1991, p. 4).

Clipping: Clippings are typically formed by removing either a prefix or suffix from an existing word. Examples of clippings are *lab* from *laboratory* and *phone* from *telephone*. Clippings that correspond to an infix of a word, for example, *flu* from *influenza*, are much less common. In some cases the clipped form may contain additional graphemes or morphemes that are not part of the original word, as in *ammo*, a shortened form of *ammunition*.

Kreidler identifies a number of orthographic and phonological properties for clippings that have a tendency to be mono-syllabic and end in a consonant. He further notes that in cases where clippings do not fit these patterns, they tend to fall into a small number of other regular forms. Such insights could be used in a computational method for automatically inferring the full form of a word that is known to be a clipping, a key step towards inferring the meaning of a clipping (Kreidler, 1979, quoted in Cook, 2010, p.35).

The simplest form of shortening is by clipping an expression at the boundary between its major components (its primary morpheme boundary, therefore, *chute* from *parachute*, which loses its first element by Fore Clipping; *doctor* loses its second element by Back Clipping or Hind Clipping to become *doc*). Such clipped forms generally create a compound, but sometimes an affixed word, as in the Back Clipping or Hind Clipping of the suffix -i.e. from *yuppie* to make *yup*.

Additional instances of Fore Clipping are: (*Big*) *Bang*, (*architectural*) *barrier*, (*Smokey*) *Smokey the Bear*, and (*couch*) *potato*.

Other examples of Hind Clipping: *department* (store), *disco(theque)*, *four-channel* (sound/equipment), *jet* (-propelled plane), and *micro(wave)*. A combination of both fore and hind clipping produces *(lysergic) acid* (*diethylamide*).

Internal Clipping: A lot of shortened forms omit, not a whole main element of the initial form, but only part of one of the main elements. Thus, *parachutist* was formed from *parachute* + *-ist*, which are its main elements. In *chutist*, only part of the first element was clipped. The clipping was still at a morpheme boundary since *parachute* consists of *para+chute*, but it was not at the primary boundary within the word. Other instances of such internal clipping are: *biopic* from *bio(graphical)*, movie picture *pic(ture)*, *computeracy* from *computer (liter)acy*, *computerate* from *computer (liter)ate*, and *demoth(ball)* from *moth ball*.

Innovative Clipping: So far, forms have been clipped not at a morpheme boundary at all, but instead, at a point that does not match up to any part of the original word structure. New morphemes are created by such clipping. For example: *condominium* has the structure *con+domin-ium*; its clipping to *condo* was at no morphological boundary and so made a new word element. Other instances of such innovative clipping are: *amatrac* or *amtrack* from *am(phibious) trac(tor)*, and *Amvets* from *Am(eric)an Vet(eran)s*.

Fromkin and Rodman present other examples of clipping which are: “*ad*”, “*bike*”, “*gas*”, “*phone*”, and “*van*” (for advertisement, bicycle, gasoline, telephone, and vanguard” (Fromkin,1998, p.88).

Clipping mainly consists of the following types: Back clipping, Fore-clipping, Middle-clipping, and Complex clipping.

Back clipping or Apocopation: is the most common type, in which the beginning is retained. The unclipped original may be either a simple or a composite. Examples are: *ad* (advertisement), *cable* (cablegram), *doc* (doctor), *exam* (examination), *fax* (facsimile), *gas* (gasoline), *gym* (gymnastics, gymnasium), *memo* (memorandum), *mutt* (muttonhead), *pub* (public house), and *pop* (popular music).

Fore-clipping or Aphaeresis: It retains the final part. Examples: *chute* (parachute), *coon* (raccoon), *gator* (alligator), *phone* (telephone), *pike* (turnpike), and *varsity* (university).

Middle-clipping or Syncope: in which the middle of the word is retained. Examples are: *flu* (influenza), *jams* or *jammies* (pajamas), *polly* (apollinaris), *shrink* (head-shrinker), and *tec* (detective).

Complex clipping: clipped forms are also used in compounds. One part of the original compound most often remains intact. Examples are: *cablegram* (cable telegram), *op art* (optical art), *org-man* (organization man), and *linocut* (linoleum cut). Sometimes both halves of a compound are clipped as in *navicert* (navigation certificate). In these cases, it is difficult to know whether the resultant formation should be treated as a clipping or as a blend, for the border between the two types is not always clear.

According to Bauer (1989, p.8), the easiest way to draw the distinction is to say that those forms which retain compound stress are clipped compounds, whereas those that take simple word stress are not. By

this criterion, *Intelsat* (*International Satellite*), *midcult* (*as opposed to hi_brow culture*), *pro-am* (*a joint professional and amateur sports tournament*), *sci-fi* (*science fiction*) and *sitcom* (*situation comedy*) are all compounds made of clipping (Wikipedia, <http://en.Wikipedia.org/wiki/clippingmorphology>, 2011).

Conversion-Zero-Derivation: is usually defined as a derivational process linking lexemes of the same form but belonging to different word-classes (Bauer, 1989, p. 8).

The process of Conversion-Zero-Derivation can make lexemes change their word class without the addition of an affix. The items mainly produced in this way are nouns, adjectives, and verbs, especially the verbs which come from nouns; for example, *to bottle* and the nouns which come from verbs such as: *a doubt*. Not all the senses of a lexeme are usually carried through into the derived form; however, the noun *paper* has several meanings, such as '*newspaper*', '*wallpaper*', and '*academic article*' (Crystal, 2003, p.129).

Conversion (Kosur, 2010) is also referred to as zero derivation or null derivation with the assumption that the formal change between words results in the addition of an invisible morpheme. However, many linguists argue for a clear distinction between the word formation processes of derivation and conversion.

The most productive form of conversion in English is noun to verb conversion. The following list provides examples of verbs converted from nouns: *access- to access*, *bottle- to bottle*, *google- to google*, *host- to host*,

name- to name, bottle- to bottle, can- to can; as in the sentence: My grandmother bottled (verb) the juice and canned (verb) the pickles.

Another productive form of conversion in English is verb to noun conversion. The subsequent list provides examples of nouns converted from verbs: *to clone- clone, to experience- experience, to judge- judge, to command- command, to increase- increase, to alert- alert, and to attack- attack*, as the sentence: *The guard alerted (verb) the general to the attack (noun).* Verb to noun conversion is also referred to as Nominalization.

Conversion also occurs, although less frequently, to and from other grammatical forms. For example: adjective to verb: *'to green' (to make 'environmentally friendly')*, preposition to noun: *up, down: 'the ups and downs of life'*, conjunction to noun: *if and but: 'no ifs, ands, or buts'*, interjection to noun: *'ho ho ho': 'I love the ho, ho, hos of Christmas time'*, and adjective to noun such as: *poor- the poor, rich- the rich, sublime- the sublime* (Plag, 2002, p. 134).

1.2 Fields of study related with Neologisms

Neology: Neology is the process by which linguistics change brings forth new forms and meanings not yet encountered in a language (Guerrero, 1997, p.11) and it should be possible to study it at the level of its consequences and its results: the creation of Neologisms. This process postulates a system, a set of rules, and conditions addressing its creation, tagging, and usage.

The fact that languages change constantly can be established as the first principle of Neology over time, adapting to the circumstances and to

new needs. The second principle of Neology states that there is a ‘self-defense of languages’, slowing the rate of change in order to preserve understanding between generations, which holds language change from being too fast. The study of Neology, usually located in the field of linguistic change, should be aware of all the levels of language: the phonetic-phonological, the morpho-syntactic, and lexical semantic. The third principle is that when a language finds it necessary to convey a meaning, it either creates a word or adapts one for its purposes.

Terminology: According to Rey (1995, p.15), although the notion of ‘**term**’ is widely known, the notion of a ‘**science of terms**’ gained acceptance only in the second half of the eighteenth century. ‘**Terminologie**’(GR) appears documented in German in the writings of Christian Gottfried Schutz , a professor of the Universities of Halle and Jena (1747-1832); the adjective ‘**terminologisch**’, another form of the word, dates from 1788. From 1801 on, in English, ‘**terminology**’ begins to compete with ‘**nomenclature**’, which had come into the language in 1610.

The progressive and partial replacement of ‘nomenclature’ by ‘terminology’ implied a change of focus. This is demonstrated in the transition from ‘*name*’ (*nomen*) to ‘*term*’ (*terminus=end, limit*), defined by the Oxford English Dictionary as “that which limits the extent of anything;...each of the two things or notions which are compared, or between which some relation is apprehended or stated, in an act of thought...”.(as quoted by Rey, 1995, p. 15). The concept of a series of names within a taxonomic classification was thereby replaced by the concept of ‘a system of reciprocally defined meanings’.

Terminography: involves gathering, systematizing, and presenting terms from a specific branch of knowledge or human activity (Cabr , 1999, p.115). The relationship of lexicology to lexicography is parallel to that which exists between terminology and terminography; that is, the application of terminology that deals with special language dictionaries. Even though it is practical in nature, terminography is not an independent activity that individual specialists can deal on their own, but it is governed by a series of technical, formal, and procedural recommendations that have been internationally agreed.

Terminography must not be confused with translation. Translators need specific terminology for specialized texts, but this does not imply that they themselves must develop the terminology, nor do they have to deal with all the terms in the special subject field in question. Working in terminology does not mean translating a term from one language into another based on supposedly equivalent designations, but gathering the designations that users of a language employ to refer to a concept and ultimately, if necessary, proposing alternatives in those cases where speakers' designations are unsatisfactory. While translators are not terminographers, in daily practice, the distinction between these two groups of professionals is often blurred (Cabr , 1999, p. 116).

Terms for a special language glossary must be "collected" from real texts and not "invented" or "created" by terminologists. When specialists have to discuss a concept, they do not stop because of a lack of terminology. They always use specialized terms to express themselves, so the terms are there (Cabr , 1999, p.116).

Terminographers can always gather the terminology specialists use to communicate with each other, regardless of whether it is the most rigorous or appropriate, or whether some designations are the best way to refer to a concept or not. The fact that a specific terminology has a real presence in specialized texts, however, does not mean that it is necessarily the best one possible for a particular discipline. The absence of a certain topic in communication and specialized texts obviously implies a gap in terminology, and if detected by a terminologist, it is up to him or her to fill the gap with a neologism (Cabr , 1999, p.116).

In addition, terminography is guided by the facts that terms are indivisible units with form and content; that the form and content of terms tend towards an unambiguous relationship; that terms have a fixed place within a specific conceptual field, and without reference, the term has no specific meaning; and that concepts are related to other concepts in the specific field they together constitute (Cabr , 1999, p.117).

Lexicography: Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary defines Lexicography as the editing or making of a dictionary (Merriam- Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, Tenth Edition, 2002, p. 668).

Lexicography, according to Quijje (cited in Haensch, 2011) deals with the representation of the vocabulary of a natural language or a subset of it (a dialect, sociolect); therefore, it is a branch of Lexicology. Lexicology is the science that studies the vocabulary of a language, its structure, composition, and change, which emphasizes the applied aspects such as composition of dictionaries, but this does not reflect its concern

about the theoretical problems involved in such work. By contrast, lexicography is usually defined as "the theory of the description of dictionaries" and "coding paradigmatic and syntagmatic structure of the lexicon of a language, the orderly transmission of lexical (and grammatical) as [sic] dictionary" (Quijije, cited in Haensch, 2011).

The general language bilingual dictionary is aimed at finding equivalents for a word or phrase in another language. This type of dictionary is often bidirectional (e.g., from English to Spanish, and from Spanish to English) and is usually organized alphabetically. The theme usually consists of an isolated word and the body of the input can be split to collect several meanings or variants thereof in the form of sentences. Bilingual dictionaries do not usually offer definitions. By design, it is often assumed, erroneously, that users already know the meaning of the word; otherwise, they would consult a monolingual dictionary.

Dictionaries covering current language ought to be updated to reflect new words and new senses of existing word forms that have come into usage (Cook, 2010, p.55). Vast quantities of text are produced each day in a variety of media, including traditional publications such as newspapers and magazines as well as newer types of communication such as blogs and micro-blogs (e.g. *Twitter*). New-word lexicographers must search this text for neologisms; however, given the amount of text that must be analyzed, it is simply not feasible to manually process it all (Barnhart quoted in Cook, 2010, p.55). Therefore, automatic (or semi-automatic) methods for the identification of new words are required.

The identification of unique string neologisms is facilitated by their distinguishing orthographic form. One proposed method of searching for unique string neologisms, which should be included in a dictionary, is to identify words that are substantially more frequent in a corpus of recently produced texts than in a corpus of older texts and that are not listed in the dictionary under consideration. The identified words can then be individually examined, and if found to be appropriate, they can be included in a dictionary (O'Donovan and O'Neil quoted in Quijije, 2011). This semi-automatic method for finding new words is limited in that it can only find unique string neologisms and not new senses of word forms. The precision of such a method is also limited, as it will identify new-word candidates that have unique orthographic forms, such as jargon terms and proper nouns that, depending on the dictionary's inclusion policies, should not be included in the dictionary.

Zernik holds that neologisms that correspond to new senses of existing word forms pose even greater challenges. These neologisms are homographs, that is to say, words that are spelled like another word but that are different in origin, meaning, or pronunciation with words already recorded in a given dictionary. Such neologisms result in so-called covert lexical gaps (Zernik, 1991, quoted in Cook, p.55) which are difficult to automatically identify, as they cannot be searched for in any straightforward way. Simpson says that Lexicographers have also stressed the importance of not solely focusing on new words when updating a dictionary but also considering how established words have changed (Simpson, quoted in Cook 2007, p. 55).

CHAPTER 2

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DATA ANALYSIS

2.1 Research methodology

The methodology in this dissertation required gathering and identifying relevant American English neologisms from the business section of different newspapers such as: Bloomberg Business Week, Forbes, and The Washington Post for the period 2005-2013. The Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary (2002) was also used as an additional help. Terms encountered in the research which were not included in the Collegiate Dictionary were included in the neologisms list for the purpose of this study.

The specific internet Homepage of the different business publications was downloaded onto the screen: using the appropriate menus and issues, included within the dates specified for the research, were downloaded in turn. A similar process was used to find the market and finance sections, of that particular issue. For the purposes of this project, those sections are the best sources for neologisms in business. The possible neologisms or phrases were identified, filtering the business related words from the general context. Eventually, each tentative neologism was checked against The Merriam-Webster's Dictionary (2002) to search for entries: those not included in the dictionary and that were truly new, were incorporated into the analysis.

2.2 Criteria used for analysis

The collected neologisms were then organized in a descriptive chart that shows: their part-of-speech, meaning (identification and explanation of the significance), a dictionary entry, and an analysis of its probable formation. Then, they can be classified and categorized according to part-of-speech, frequency of use, as well as alphabetically (as per the suggestion of this dissertation's original advisor).

The analysis of these research results is based on the different categories to which neologisms belong. These criteria have been explored at length in chapter one of this dissertation. The use of these criteria is going to give this research, clear and detailed information about the formation of new words, specifically, neologisms.

2.3 Neologisms collected

(Bilingual explanation of the meaning)

| Neologism | Part of speech | Spanish Meaning | Dictionary entry | Probable formation |
|------------------------------|----------------|---|--|--|
| 1. Administrivia | Noun | Labores administrativas triviales. | Tedious and mundane organizational and administrative tasks. | Blending and clipping: Administration ‘management’ + trivia ‘insignificant trifles’. |
| 2. Abjective | Noun | Establecimiento de objetivos no alcanzables. | The process of developing goals which are completely unachievable. (For example: annual abjective setting). | Compounding: prefix ab-(away) + objective. |
| 3. ARM | Noun | Hipoteca de tasa flotante. | Acronym for Adjustable Rate Mortgage. | Acronym = adjustable-rate mortgage. |
| 4. As-reported figure | Noun | Cifra (trimestral) de resultados positivos tal como fue informada por una compañía. | The earnings that companies report each quarter. The measure of performance in one year compared to the previous year. | Ellipsis. |

| Neologism | Part of speech | Spanish Meaning | Dictionary entry | Probable formation |
|-----------------------------------|----------------|---|---|--|
| 5. Bazillion | Adjective | Un número muy grande de dimensión desconocida. | A large (usually unknown or generalized) number (usually ironic). | Invented term, used to emphasize the possible biggest and indeterminable number. |
| 6. Blogger | Noun | Bloguero. | Blogger: A person who writes blogs. | Morphological change of a noun to indicate the doer. |
| 7. Blogosphere | Noun | Blogosfera. El mundo o el dominio de los blogs, weblogs y bloggers. | The world or domain of blogs, weblogs, and bloggers. | Noun compound (Borrowing): blog + sphere. By analogy with troposphere (the atmosphere above 100000 miles asl). |
| 8. Blogiate | Verb | Bloguear. Escribir pretenciosamente en su blog. | To blogiate (write pompously) in one's blog. | Blend of blog + to exaggerate = blogiate. |
| 9. Bust-in time practices. | Noun | Ser tan falto de iniciativa, que cumplir las fechas límite requiere un esfuerzo extraordinario. | The practice of being so short-sighted that every deadline requires a major effort. | Compounding. |
| 10. Cannibalization | Verb | Canibalizar las ventas de otro producto. | Market cannibalization refers to a situation where a new product "eats up" the sales and demand of an existing product. | New use of existing word. (Borrowing). |

| Neologism | Part of speech | Spanish Meaning | Dictionary entry | Probable formation |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|--|--|--|
| 11. Cellopain | Noun | Molestia de los que le rodean a un usuario de celular. El cliente que habla a gritos en su celular. | The jerk who talks loudly and obviously on his/her cell phone in a crowd. | Compounding of a noun + noun. |
| 12. Coll-aberration | Noun | Aberración colectiva. La ocasión inusual cuando múltiples departamentos de la compañía colaboran hacia una meta. | That rare instance when teams from multiple departments work together on a common goal. | Compounding. |
| 13. Decoupling | Verb | Disociar. | Separation of two entities in terms of their relationship. | Verb compound (de + couple) in gerund form. |
| 14. Demigraphics | Noun | Demigráficos. Una presentación mal hecha en Power Point. | A half-assed job on your Power Point presentation. | Compounding of demi + graphics. |
| 15. Departmental | Noun | La tendencia de las funciones de una empresa a imitarse y desplegar comportamientos similares. | The tendency of business functions to exhibit similar behaviors, e.g.: Sales: gregarious; Marketers: disorganized; Finance: detail oriented. | Compounding of department (behavior) + departmental. |

| Neologism | Part of speech | Spanish Meaning | Dictionary entry | Probable formation |
|---------------------------------|-----------------------|---|---|--|
| 16. Downseizing | Noun | Los despidos masivos que se producen después de una adquisición hostil de una compañía por otra. | The massive layoffs that occur after a hostile takeover. | Compounding of down + seizing. |
| 17. Econocide | Noun | Suicidio causado por o relacionado con una economía en contracción; es decir, los corredores de la bolsa cometiendo suicidio por pérdidas en la misma. | Suicide caused by or relating to a down economy; that is, stock brokers jumping out of skyscrapers: when the market suffers terrible loses some brokers cannot accept the loses taken in the market and commit suicide. | Compounding of economy + suicide. |
| 18. Employee emcowerment | Noun | Las iniciativas y el entrenamiento se los presenta como vías de administrar el cambio cuando lo que pretenden es que los empleados obedezcan estrictamente. | The initiatives and training rolled-out under the guise of managing change that is really meant to get employees to toe the line. | Compounding of: employee + cowering + empowerment. |
| 19. Fact founding | Noun | Inventar datos para llenar la falta de información. | The practice of inventing new facts to fill a lack of information. | Compounding of fact + founding. |

| Neologism | Part of speech | Spanish Meaning | Dictionary entry | Probable formation |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------|---|--|---|
| 20. Gemmelsmerch | Noun | La fuerza externa que distrae a la mente de las labores en las que debería enfocarse. | The force that distracts the mind or steals it away from what it wants to do or ought to be doing. | Borrowing from German. |
| 21. Grandular | Noun | Habilidad personal de poder enfocarse simultáneamente en los detalles y en la visión estratégica. | The core competence of being both detail-oriented and strategic at the same time. | Root Creation. |
| 22. Housing bubble | Noun | Burbuja habitacional/ inmobiliaria. | Increase in housing prices fueled artificially by demand speculation and trash mortgage. | Noun compound (gerund + noun). Transposition. |
| 23. Implementation faze | Noun | Conciencia de que el diseño original solo se lo puede ejecutar después de cambios drásticos. | Realizing that the conceptual design cannot be put into effect without major re-thinking. | Compounding of implementation + faze. |
| 24. Incent | Verb | Incentivar. | To give someone an incentive. | Back-formation |
| 25. In heck | Noun | En la 'porra' (calque) / infernal (transposition). ¡Qué diablos! | What the heck. 'Heck' is a euphemism for 'hell'. | Compounding of prep + noun. |

| Neologism | Part of speech | Spanish Meaning | Dictionary entry | Probable formation |
|-----------------------------|----------------|--|--|--|
| 26. Intrapreneur | Noun | Persona que se enfoca en un desarrollo empresarial innovador desde dentro de una compañía. | A person who focuses on innovative entrepreneurial development within a company. An internal entrepreneur within a company. | Compounding of: intra- (prefix) + entrepreneur. |
| 27. Inventivize | Verb | Tratar de desarrollar incentivos no monetarios para los empleados. | An attempt at devising creative incentives, which do not involve payment for employees. | Verb formation. |
| 28. Leveraged buyout | Noun | Compra apalancada/compra financiada por terceros. | A leveraged buyout (LBO) is an acquisition (usually of a company, but it can also be single assets such as a real estate property) where the purchase price is financed through a combination of equity and debt and in which the cash flows or assets of the target are used to secure and repay the debt. | Buyout (noun from verb + adverb) (Calque/expansion). |
| 29. Logonorrhea | Noun | Un estado mental que por olvidarte el nombre de usuario o la contraseña no puedes abrir ciertos programas. | A related condition that renders you unable to use certain online accounts because you can remember neither your screen name nor your password. | Compounding of : logon (accessing a computer program) + logorrhea (a runny mouth). |

| Neologism | Part of speech | Spanish Meaning | Dictionary entry | Probable formation |
|------------------------------|-----------------------|---|---|---|
| 30. Mash-up portfolio | Noun | Programa de Portafolio electrónico con características particulares de interfaz | An electronic portfolio which allows non-technical users to drag and drop mash-up components from personal, enterprise and web sources to create, deploy, and share customized web applications. Also, used in business for meetings of experts, e.g. portfolio manager mash-up conference. | Blend of name of Mash-up + portfolio. |
| 31. Obamation | Noun | Empleado por los críticos del Presidente de los Estados Unidos Barack Obama para describir, particularmente, iniciativas gubernamentales que les disgustan. | Used by critics of the current US President Barack Obama to describe particularly disliked government initiatives. | Compounding of Obama + -tion (suffix). |
| 32. Regurgimailer | Noun | Persona que reenvía (regurgita) todo correo basura que recibe. | People who forward everyone they know everything that lands in their in-boxes. | Noun compound of to regurgitate (verb) + mailer (noun). |
| 33. Reverberon | Noun | Tipo de correo electrónico reenviado múltiples veces y a todos lados. | The kind of e-mail described in Regurgimailer, which has been forwarded endlessly and everywhere. | Noun compound of Reverb (verb) + -eron. |

| Neologism | Part of speech | Spanish Meaning | Dictionary entry | Probable formation |
|---------------------------|-----------------------|---|--|--|
| 34. Screen sucking | Noun | Quedar atrapado frente a una pantalla un tiempo improductivo. | Wasting time engaging with any screen, for instance, computer, video game, television, and Blackberry. | Compounding of screen (noun) + sucking (verb). |
| 35. Slime ball | Noun | Persona desagradable referido a un especulador en temas de negocios. | A despicable or disgusting person referring to speculators in business issues. | Noun compound of slime + ball |
| 36. Spammified | Verb | Llegar por error a la carpeta de correo no deseado (convertido en <i>spam</i>). | To end up in the spam folder by mistake. | Blend. |
| 37. Spinergies | Noun | Datos fraudulentos sobre ahorros que resultarán de una fusión o adquisición , para tratar de justificar la misma. | The phony cost savings numbers used to justify a merger or acquisition. | Compounding of spin + synergies. |
| 38. Stagflation | Noun | Estanflación. Crecimiento económico lento con alto desempleo, baja demanda de los clientes y alza de precios. | Stagflation is the combination of slow economic growth with high unemployment, low customer demand, and rising prices. | Blend of stagnation + inflation. |

| Neologism | Part of speech | Spanish Meaning | Dictionary entry | Probable formation |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|---|--|--|
| 39. Stock pickers | Noun | Inversionistas que creen que con su selección de acciones para el portafolio van a lograr resultados superiores a un índice de mercado. | Stock pickers are active investors who bet they can beat a market by picking stocks they believe will outperform an index. | Noun compound made up of stock (as in the stocks exchange) and picker (that is to say, the person who picks stocks for investment). |
| 40. Sympodium | Noun | Pseudo conferencia en la que una compañía presentará nuevas tendencias o compartirá mejores prácticas, pero en realidad sólo se trata de un foro para vender sus productos. | Pretends to be a conference on meaningful topics but really is used strictly as a forum for the company's agenda. | Compounding of symposium + podium. |
| 41. Team vynamics | Noun | Comportamiento de grupo donde todos compiten por ser el ente dominante | Group behavior wherein individuals at a meeting look for dominance. Related to vialogue. | Compounding of vying (head to head competition) + dynamics |

| Neologism | Part of speech | Spanish Meaning | Dictionary entry | Probable formation |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------|---|--|---|
| 42. Telamnesia | Noun | Condición mental que te restringe a sólo poder hablar con los contactos en tu lista de discado rápido por la inhabilidad de mantener números telefónicos en tu memoria. | A condition that restricts you to talk only to people who are in your speed-dial list because you can no longer memorize phone numbers. | Compounding of telephone + amnesia. |
| 43. The leaning organization | Noun | Formar al personal para que todos compartan la forma oficial de pensar de la compañía. | Focus on developing specific organizational capabilities so that everyone has the same skills and knowledge; thus, reinforcing the existing biases of the company. | Compounding of leaning + organization. |
| 44. Thought bleeder | Noun | Persona reconocida por su creatividad pero que ha robado las mejores ideas de sus colegas. | A person recognized for his/her creativity who has stolen all the best ideas from his colleagues. | Compounding of thought + bleeder. |
| 45. Twitterati | Noun | Los usuarios más leídos y de mayor influencia del servicio de micro- blogging de Twitter. | The most read and most influential users of micro-blogging service Twitter. | Compounding of Twitter + -ati (suffix borrowed from Italian). |

| Neologism | Part of speech | Spanish Meaning | Dictionary entry | Probable formation |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|---|--|--|
| 46. Undue diligence | Noun | Proceso de dedicarse a recolectar más información para evitar tomar una decisión. | The endless process of collecting more information in order to avoid making a decision. | Compounding of undue + diligence. |
| 47. Up-selling | Noun | Convencer al cliente que compre un producto más caro. | A sales technique whereby a seller induces the customer to purchase more expensive items, upgrades, or other add-ons in an attempt to make a more profitable sale. | Noun compound of up (adverb) + selling (gerund). |
| 48. Verbi-age | Noun | Cuando se usa terminología considerada pasada de moda, por lo que uno se siente realmente viejo. | The use of jargon or slang that makes one feel really old. | Borrowing from French.: verbier = chatter. |
| 49. Vialogue | Noun | Supuesto diálogo en el que cada parte trata de obligar a la otra parte a aceptar su punto de vista. | Supposedly, a discussion or dialogue between two parties, but really an attempt by both parties to browbeat the other into accepting his/her own point of view. | Compounding. of (one's own) view + dialogue. |

| Neologism | Part of speech | Spanish Meaning | Dictionary entry | Probable formation |
|---------------------------|-----------------------|---|--|-------------------------------------|
| 50. Viscous circle | Noun | Movimiento sin sentido y lento en dirección circular: No hacer nada y aparentar logros. | Same as vicious circle, only much, much slower. | Compounding of viscous + circle. |
| 51. Vynamics | Noun | Desempeño individual en una reunión en busca de autoridad. | Individuals' performance at a meeting looking for authority. | Compounding of vialogue + dynamics. |
| 52. YOY | Noun | Año tras año. | Comparisons that businessmen do in their business, year over year. | Acronym = year over / on year. |
| 53. WTS | Verb | Querer vender. | Want To Sell. | Acronym. |
| 54. WTT | Verb | Querer intercambiar. | Want To Trade. | Acronym |

The glossary of Neologisms presented in Annex 1 shows a synthesis of the whole list of neologisms identified in this study.

CHAPTER 3

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

3.1 Conclusions

Business neologisms are created every day because the subjects being reported present an ever-changing scenario, which stimulates the creativity of business writers. Unless students of Business English are aware of this ever-changing phenomenon, they will not be ready to fully participate in business interactions, for which they are acquiring academic knowledge and language perception.

In the search for the ‘mot juste’ (the appropriate word), the business writers always create new terms by using any of the numerous mechanisms that had been described in chapter two. This wealth of word creation makes it necessary for a scholar to gather and annotate these terms for the benefit of those who lack the background to interpret them appropriately.

Business writers in print media have a significant role in creating and spreading neologisms by using these new words in their articles. It is important to learn how these words are created because neologisms undergo certain linguistic processes, the so-called word formation processes. The task of the researcher is to determine to what structural-semantic types neologisms belong, and, in which sphere of life they are used more frequently.

The theoretical findings of the research allow putting forth the following hypothesis: mass media, specialized in business, are the perfect framework within which business neologisms are created.

Neologisms often become accepted in the everyday language. Sometimes, however, they disappear from common use, just as readily as they appeared. Whether a neologism continues as part of the language depends on many factors, probably the most important of which is public acceptance that gives the new term enough popularity to become a part of the standard language.

Acceptance by linguistic experts and incorporation into dictionaries plays an important part in the survival of neologisms.. It is unusual, however, for a neologism 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 ceases to be a neologism, it has been incorporated into the mainstream and accepted as part of the normal everyday language. In this case, "newness" ends up when the word or phrase gets a general use among the business community. Neologisms may take decades to become "old", however. Opinions differ on exactly how old a word must be to cease being considered a neologism; cultural acceptance probably plays a more important role than time in this regard.

3.2 Recommendations

The creation of an up-to-date lexicon/glossary of Neologisms will ease the understanding of these words, as they appear in the field of Business. Since no such bilingual lexicon/glossary of Neologisms is available in the PUCE Main Library, this research should prove to be a welcomed addition.

As stated earlier, in the view of the faculty members interviewed, there is a definite demand for this type of tool in the FCLL, (Faculty of Communication, Linguistics and Literature). According to them, there are numerous business-related courses in MCBIR, (Multilingual Career in International Business and International Relations) that can use this tool. Some of these courses are: ‘Reading and Writing for Business’, ‘English for International Affairs I’, ‘Public Speaking Negotiation Skills’, ‘English for International Affairs II’, ‘International Management’.

To conclude, this study shows that the original premises about the constant creations of new words and the lack of glossaries shaped this research.

- (a) Business neologisms are being created constantly;
- (b) PUCE’s Main Library does not offer glossaries of Business Neologisms.
- (c) There is need for further research to be embodied in works such as this dissertation, which would become a welcomed lexicographical addition to the resources of the PUCE.

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ANNEX 1
A MINI GLOSSARY OF NEOLOGISMS

ANNEX 1: A MINI GLOSSARY OF NEOLOGISMS

| NEOLOGISM | DEFINITION |
|---|---|
| ADMINISTRIVIA <i>n.</i> The manager doesn't have the report fixed yet because he got stuck taking care of administrivia this morning. | Tedious and mundane organizational and administrative tasks. |
| ABJECTIVE <i>n.</i> The CEO went on his annual abjective setting and the office staff started pulling their hair. | The process of developing goals which are completely unachievable. |
| ARM <i>n.</i> It's not always wise to refinance your house mortgage with an ARM plan: it can be an expensive alternative. | Acronym for adjustable-rate mortgage. |
| AS-REPORTED FIGURE <i>n.</i> The measure of performance in one year compared to the previous year. | The earnings that companies report each quarter. |
| BAZILLION <i>n.</i> After a bazillion of consultations, the matter remains unsolved. | A large (usually unknown or generalized) number (maybe ironic). |
| BLOGGER <i>n.</i> The bank will rely on bloggers who understand and identify online journals in order to spot trends and make connections. | A person who writes blogs. |
| BLOGOSPHERE <i>n.</i> Steve Jobs' return to Apple soon became part of the blogosphere. | The world or domain of blogs, weblogs, and bloggers. |
| BLOGIATE <i>v.</i> Some heads of state have been accused of blogiating. | To speak or write pompously in one's blog. |
| BUST-IN-TIME PRACTICES <i>n.</i> A sure way for a retailer to go bankrupt is to abuse of 'bust-in-time' practices. | The practice of being so short sighted that every deadline requires a major effort. |
| CANNIBILIZATION <i>v.</i> When the iPhone came to market, it cannibalized the sales of iPods. | Market cannibalization refers to a situation where a new product "eats" up the sales and demand of an existing product. |

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| CELLOPAIN <i>n.</i> Edward, who was just given a new position, went out to lunch and showed symptoms of advanced cellopain as he walked in the busy streets of New York. | The jerk who talks loudly and obliviously on his cell phone in a crowd. |
| COLL-ABERRATION <i>n.</i> The public relations team and the sales team obtained positive results by using coll-aberration. | That rare instance when teams from multiple departments communicate and work together on a common goal. |
| DECOUPLING <i>n.</i> The textile companies were merged for 2 decades, but now the Board decided to start a decoupling process. | Separation of two entities in terms of their relationship. |
| DEMIGRAPHICS <i>n.</i> There is nothing like being chewed by the boss, for your faulty demigraphics. | A half-assed job on your Power Point presentation. |
| DEPORTMENTAL <i>adj.</i> The businessman says that the finance staff sticks together, but it is just another case of deportmental behavior. | The tendency of business functions to exhibit similar behaviors, e.g. Sales: gregarious; Marketers: disorganized; Finance: detail oriented. |
| DOWNSEIZING <i>n.</i> The downseizing was so severe that the company went under the inspection of the regulator. | The massive layoffs that occur after a hostile takeover. |

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| <p>ECONOCIDE <i>n.</i> If Citigroup drops below \$3 again, I think Eric has a risk for econocide.</p> | <p>Suicide caused by or relating to a ‘down economy’ (the markets suffering terrible losses); for example, causing stock brokers to jump out of skyscrapers.</p> |
| <p>EMPLOYEE EMCOWERMENT <i>n.</i> The advertising team had a workshop in order to develop an employee emcowerment among the group.</p> | <p>The initiatives and training rolled out under the guise of managing change that are really meant to get employees to toe the line.</p> |
| <p>FACT FOUNDING <i>n.</i> The Board of Directors felt that the Auditors report was nothing more than a case of fact founding.</p> | <p>The practice of inventing new facts to fill a lack of information.</p> |
| <p>GEMMELSMERCH <i>v.</i> The world football championship game gemmelsmerch all the team.</p> | <p>The force that distracts the mind or steals it away from what it wants to do or ought to be doing.</p> |
| <p>GRANDULAR <i>adj.</i> The workshop will be useful to transform the employees into a grandular and efficient staff.</p> | <p>The core competence of being both detail-oriented and strategic at the time.</p> |
| <p>HOUSING BUBBLE <i>n.</i> The real state company has to consider the housing bubble effect in order to make a good return on investment.</p> | <p>Increase in housing prices fueled artificially by demand speculation and trash mortgage.</p> |
| <p>IMPLEMENTATION FAZE <i>n.</i> Your design needs an implementation faze before going to the assembly line.</p> | <p>Realizing that the conceptual design cannot be put into effect without major re-thinking.</p> |

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| INCENT <i>v.</i> This morning I heard a corporate governance expert asking “What do compensation policies incent managers to do?” | To give someone an incentive. |
| IN HECK <i>n.</i> The financial report was in heck because of the accountant’s mistakes. | What the heck. ‘Heck’ is a euphemism for ‘hell’. |
| INTRAPRENEUR <i>n.</i> Jill is concerned about getting laid off, so she has become a real intrapreneur, launching three new products in three months. | A person who focuses on innovative entrepreneurial development within a large company. |
| INVENTIVIZE <i>v.</i> This morning I heard a corporate-governance expert ask, “What do compensation policies Inventivize managers to accomplish?” | An attempt at devising creating incentives, which do not involve payment for employees. |
| LEVERAGED BUYOUT <i>n.</i> Warren Buffet, who was the largest stockholder of JP Morgan, bought it in a complex leveraged buyout. | An acquisition where the purchase price is financed through a combination of equity and debt in which the cash flows or assets of the target are used to secure and repay a debt. |
| LOGONORRHEA <i>n.</i> The car dealer tycoon has so much information in his laptop that his logonorrhea keeps getting worse. | A related condition that renders you unable to use certain accounts because you can remember neither your screen name nor your password. |

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| <p>MASH-UP PORTFOLIO <i>n.</i> The CEO used a mash-up portfolio in the seminar in order to create and share customized web applications.</p> | <p>An electronic portfolio which allows non-technical users to drag and drop mash-up components from personal, enterprise, and web sources to create, deploy, and share customized web applications.</p> <p>It is also used in business for meetings of experts, e.g.: portfolio manager mash-up conference.</p> |
| <p>OBAMATION <i>n.</i> Have you heard about the latest Obamation? Bailout funds for unemployed people who had made a living clubbing seals for their fur, for whom the government provided a subsidy. These were people who had gone in to polar seal herds, and used bat-sized wooden clubs to kill them, by hitting them over the head, for their furs. They lost their jobs because the state of Alaska banned seal slaughter by clubbing cubs.</p> | <p>Used by critics of President Obama, to describe particularly disliked presidential actions.</p> |
| <p>REGURGMAILER <i>n.</i> Some secretaries in their office break turn into regurgimailers.</p> | <p>People who forward everyone they know everything that lands in their in-boxes.</p> |

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| REVERBERON <i>n.</i> The manager's assistant forwarded a reverberon of messages. | The kind of e-mail described in Regurgimailer, which has been forwarded endlessly and everywhere. |
| SCREEN SUCKING <i>n.</i> The executive manager is a screen sucking man, even at home; this destroyed his marriage. | Wasting time engaging with any screen, for instance, computer, video game, television, and iPhone. |
| SLIME BALL <i>n.</i> The attorney of K-mart is a slime ball when he refers to the prices of the retailers. | A despicable or disgusting person referring to speculators in business issues. |
| SPAMMIFIED <i>v.</i> Sorry, I didn't read your message, but it got spammified. | To end up in your spam folder by mistake. |
| SPINERGIES <i>n.</i> Pete came up with a bummer: He justified the purchase on the basis of some cockeyed spinergies. | The phony cost savings numbers used to justify a merger or acquisition. |
| STAGFLATION <i>n.</i> Ecuador, after eight years of oil boom, entered into a stagflation last year due to the drop in international oil prices. | Stagflation is the combination of slow economic growth with high unemployment, low customer demand, and rising prices. |
| STOCK PICKERS <i>n.</i> Several investors are stock pickers who beat the best stocks in the market. | Stock pickers are active investors who bet they can beat a market by picking stocks they believe will outperform an index. |

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| <p>SYMPODIUM <i>n.</i> Mr. Taleb, the General Manager of the company, organized a symposium and turned it into a symposium in order to increase the company's sales.</p> | <p>Supposedly, a conference to learn new trends or share the best practices, but in reality, a forum for a company to incorporate customers.</p> |
| <p>TELAMNESIA <i>n.</i> The manager's assistant is an old lady who has worked nearly 50 years. She cannot remember phone numbers because she is suffering from telamnesia.</p> | <p>A condition that restricts you to talk only to people who are in your speed-dial list because you no longer keep phone numbers in your head.</p> |
| <p>TEAM VYNAMICS <i>n.</i> The winners of the management workshop were the members of the financial department's team because they abused Team Vynamics.</p> | <p>Group behavior wherein individuals at a meeting look for dominance. (Related to vialogue).</p> |
| <p>THOUGHT BLEEDER <i>n.</i> He was praised for his creativity but turned out to be a thought bleeder.</p> | <p>That person recognized for his/her creativity who has stolen all the best ideas from his colleagues.</p> |
| <p>THE LEANING ORGANIZATION <i>n.</i> The purpose of the coaching seminar was to transform the company in a leaning organization.</p> | <p>Focus on developing specific organizational capabilities so that everyone has the same skills and knowledge, thus, reinforcing the existing biases of the company.</p> |
| <p>TWITTERATI <i>n.</i> Speculating on Stevie Wonder's health has been very important among the Twitterati.</p> | <p>The most read and most influential users of micro-blogging service Twitter.</p> |

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| UNDUE DILIGENCE <i>n.</i> The CEO is not willing to solve the economic problem quickly. He is doing an undue diligence. | The endless process of collecting more information in order to avoid making a decision. |
| UP-SELLING <i>v.</i> He was planning on buying a Chevy, but the salesman up-sold him a Caddy. | A sales technique whereby a seller induces the customer to purchase more expensive items, upgrades, or other add-ons in an attempt to make a more profitable sale. |
| VERBI-AGE <i>n.</i> The CEO's verbi-age drove the young employees nuts. | Use of old fashioned jargon that dates the speaker as belonging to an earlier era and confuses younger listeners . |
| VIALOGUE <i>n.</i> The dialogue between the CEO's transforms in a vialogue after the report was presented to the Board. | Supposedly a discussion or dialogue between two parties, but really an attempt by both parties to browbeat the other into accepting his own point of view. |
| VISCOUS CIRCLE <i>n.</i> After consultations came and went, they ended a viscous circle when nothing new was added at every step or were no decisions were reached | When consultations come and go at an ever slowing pace and no results are ever achieved. |
| YOY <i>n.</i> The market stocks have variations YOY, that's why the Wall Street employees have to be aware. | Comparisons that businessmen do in their business, year over year. |

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| WTS v The dealer WTS the business to pay the bank's loan. | Want to sell. |
| WTT v. The company WTT some stocks with its competitors. | Want to Trade |