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## **Internet as life-line communication channels in 2020 coronavirus pandemic**

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## INTRODUCTION

**The relevance of the research topic** is that the global pandemic of COVID-19 has changed the mechanisms of information exchange. The basis for understanding these changes is the analysis of the stages of the communication model as a system of social interaction. The communicative process begins first of all with the research of the communicator's needs, which, in the conditions of bans on social activity, shifted the emphasis of his perception of personal boundaries [18]. Such social interaction absorbed external factors and gave them a new contextual meaning [12, p. 60 – 63]. Thus, during remote work and training, family members are unwittingly involved in intra-organizational communication, and employees can witness everyone's private life.

The phenomenon of communication was studied by D. Barlow, H. D. Lasswell, B. Mills, V. Rizun, and others.

Various features of the Internet communication were studied by such linguists as A. Danko-Sliptsova, A. Dosenko (general characteristics of the Internet communication), P. Maritenenko, P. Winterhoff-Spurk (psychological features of the Internet communication), and others.

D. Crystal, A. Dosenko, and other linguists studied various the Internet communication channels. Also, social networks were analyzed by L. Buffardi, W. Campbell, M. Clayfield, A. Joinson, V. Kosenza, M. Melnyk, T. Pempek, A. Yevdokiia, S. Yermolaiev, Y. Zalizniak, and others.

Peculiarities of the Internet communication during the pandemic were studied by D. Dolbneva, L. Graf-Vlachy, O. Hovera, O. Khalabudenko, O. Lysenko, P. Martynenko, Yu. Plakhtii, S. Sun, S. X. Zhang, and others.

Since the practical part of the thesis examines the peculiarities of the functioning of pandemic neologisms in communication channels, the literature where neologisms were studied was also investigated. English neologisms were studied by J. Algeo, O. Dzyubina, V. Hladka, Zh. Kolois, medical neologisms were

analyzed by T. Alegre, K. Herget, I. Kucherenko, A. Lytvynenko, O. Petrova, T. Shundel, N. Rask, M Rouleau, and others.

**The object of the research** is communication channels during the coronavirus pandemic.

**The subject of the research** is linguistic aspects of communication channels during the coronavirus pandemic (on the example of the Facebook social network).

**The purpose of the study** is to theoretically investigate and practically analyze the linguistic aspects of communication channels during the coronavirus pandemic (on the example of the Facebook social network).

**Objectives of the study.**

1. To determine the general features of communication channels in the Internet.

2. To analyze characteristics of the Internet discourse.

3. To consider factors contributing to the difficulty of communication during a pandemic.

4. To analyze characteristics of the main English communication channels in 2020 coronavirus pandemic.

5. To investigate the main neologisms of Covid 2019 used in communication channels in 2020 coronavirus pandemic: semantic aspect

6. To perform an analysis of structure and morphology of Covid 2019 neologisms in the Internet communications.

**The research material** was 125 neologisms that functioned on Facebook during the pandemic.

**Research methods.** Linguistic analogy was used to analyze linguistic phenomena, in particular, communication phenomena. The classification was used to analyze neologisms on various grounds. The synthesis was used to support the conclusions of scientists and own research results. Quantitative analysis was used to calculate the obtained data. Graphical analysis was used to visualize the obtained research results.

**Structure of work.**

The thesis consists of an introduction, two parts, which are divided into subsections, referencies and appendices.

# CHAPTER 1

## THEORETICAL ASPECTS OF THE RESEARCH

### 1.1 Characteristics of the Internet discourse

Researchers of the Internet communication pay great attention to the specificity of the Internet language, which is most pronounced in the forms of communication in it: e-mail, chats, forums, blogs, social networks. Since these forms of communication owe their emergence to the Internet itself, it is quite logical that they reflect the specifics of the Internet broadcasting. We agree with I. Zalizniak that they synthesize spoken and written speech [6].

P. Winterhoff-Spurk, analyzing the texts posted within network resources, comes to the conclusion that the Internet texts “have a pronounced tendency to oralization – a tendency towards oral speech, which can be traced, in particular, at the level of the address position as one of the elements of the text. <...> At the same time, appeals in the Internet text have such characteristics that are not inherent in them in oral and written language, taken separately. All this speaks of the special nature of the Internet text as a new form of language existence” [1, c. 257-258]. The term “written colloquial language” is defined as a peculiar mixture of written literary and oral colloquial language [1, c. 7-9].

A. Danko-Sliptsova says that “... on the Internet, a new, “written-spoken” type of conversational speech is forming, in which statements belonging to the sphere of oral conversation are recorded in writing” [3, c. 84]. One cannot but agree with this statement: speech on the Internet, possessing the features of oral speech (a large number of emotional and evaluative elements, repetitions, the absence of multi-units complex sentences, adjective and adverbial inflections, the linear character of unfolding in time [5, c. 101-108]) is issued in writing [4, c. 149].

As V. Kosientsa points out, the statement that spoken language is realized orally has not been fully true in recent decades. The inaccuracy lies in the fact that the messages exchanged by users when communicating on the Internet have all the

features of oral communication – unpreparedness, linear nature, which leads to both economy and redundancy of language means, the direct nature of the speech act. At the same time, this method of interaction remains written [7].

The first serious attempt to investigate the problems of spoken language on the Internet can be considered the works of Professor D. Crystal, the founder of the Internet linguistics, which, in his opinion, should study a large number of problems, both purely linguistic issues, and various applied, sociolinguistic, and educational aspects. D. Crystal devotes a significant part of his work to issues of the functioning of spoken language in written form [17, p. 20-23].

Despite the fact that “in the resources of the Global Network, oral and written communication situations are combined into one” [7], communication within the framework of certain network resources may have a greater orientation towards some one type of speech – oral or written. So, for example, communication within the framework of chats and messengers is often most focused on oral communication. Researchers associate this with the fact that “domestic virtual discourse” takes place on similar network resources [10, c. 222], which combines features of unmediated everyday communication and features of "virtual discourse" in the form of emoticons, hyperlinks, computer slang, etc.

D. Crystal draws attention to a number of key differences between oral and written speech [17, p. 70-89] (Appendix 1).

Differences showed in Appendix 1 can be explained by the specifics of the communicative space itself. First of all, it is worth noting the relatively shorter time interval between messages during communication, which significantly speeds up communication, as well as the orientation of such network resources specifically for casual communication. Communication by e-mail is characterized by a greater focus on the norms of written speech, which is also a consequence of the special conditions of communication. The user has relatively more time to think about the text than when communicating in a chat, the environment itself is more oriented towards the written form of communication. Before the advent of the Internet, spontaneous speech was manifested primarily in its oral form. On the

Internet, however, spontaneous spoken language remains recorded in written form. Therefore, all language and speech errors are also recorded in writing. Communication by e-mail is more acceptable for official communication than communication in the framework of messengers or chats. When operating within the framework of the Internet, the actual institutional discourse undergoes minimal changes.

At the same time, if communication participants have the opportunity to choose a network resource for communication (for example, a social network or e-mail), then the choice will depend on the goals of communication.

Focusing on a certain type of communication does not at all mean that within the framework of one discourse, features of a non-specific type of speech cannot be used. In this case, we are dealing with another manifestation of the synthetic nature of the Internet broadcasting. Thus, in order to ensure greater effectiveness of communication and achieve the rhetorical goal of the statement, the author can create and use, for example, within the framework of the chat, the texts of scientific discourse (although this communicative space is characterized by a focus on everyday discourse (oral speech respectively)).

In conclusion, the characteristics of Internet discourse include a high degree of interactivity, informality, and a mix of written and oral language elements. The use of multimedia elements, such as images, videos, and emojis, is also common. Medical communication on the Internet is a rapidly growing area, with a range of resources and genres that enable both professional and non-professional communication. The use of specialized medical vocabulary and abbreviations can pose challenges for understanding, but the use of communication technologies and social media platforms can enhance the effectiveness and accessibility of medical communication.

## 1.2 General features of communication channels on the Internet

The classic model of the communicative process involves certain stages. The author of this model is the American political scientist H. D. Lasswell [21]: the communicator forms a message taking into account the needs and expectations of the target audience, chooses channels and tools, encodes his message; communication receives and decodes information. So Lasswell's model assumes that the path of information from the communicator to the recipient is formed according to the SMCRE formula: WHO (source) acts as a communicator, WHAT (message) he broadcasts, through WHICH CHANNEL, to WHOM (recipient) and with WHAT EFFECT. The model is used as a fixed structure in all types of internal and external communications [2, c. 267].

Communication channel on the Internet is a rather broad and comprehensive concept. It is most often associated with the concept of "social network", although this concept was initially unrelated to the Internet communications, and was introduced into scientific circulation in 1954 by the Manchester School sociologist J. Barnes [15].

In the Internet space, a social network is an interactive multi-user website whose content is populated by network members. Users of social networks have certain principles of their implementation as individuals. For example, the participant himself decides whether to join the community. Each member of the social network personally determines the degree of his activity, positions himself, chooses a circle of interests, builds contacts. User activity is characterized by the products it presents to other members of the network, starting with the created personal profile, and then – messages, voices, lists of friends. We are also witnessing the emergence of unprecedented types of cultural behavior, particularly in the field of self-expression: personal pages on the Internet are an example of a very original phenomenon, where the unexpected use of the Internet to meet social and cultural functions that were not foreseen by web developers. Thus, the Internet users become not only recipients and custodians of information, but also active participants in this new culture of the information century. [19].

The most popular platforms of social networks, where marketers are looking for “influencers”, are Instagram, Youtube, Facebook and Twitter.

**Instagram** is very influential platform. The largest part of the audience is women (both among the influenza viruses themselves and their subscribers). The platform is very beautiful and aesthetic with all its visual content, a lot of vivid photos and short videos, but equally important: 56% of insta bloggers have their own brand (or products), which they actively promote (19/34 cases).

Among these 34 researched insta-bloggers of different genres, the most popular and therefore universal categories are fashion / clothing (40 mentions), beauty (23 mentions). Then follows technology (including IT), travel, sports / fitness (10 mentions each), and also food (9). All other categories are mentioned less than 3-4 times. Categories IT / tech and Fashion are the most versatile, as they are actively advertised by both men and women of all genres [20].

Bloggers of beauty categories, fashion, lifestyle (lifestyle) most often advertise cosmetics / clothing; “Bloggers-travellers” – tourist services; fitness bloggers – sports trainings, clothes and special adaptations for trainings; pets feeds – pet products.

**YouTube** also is very influential platform. It should be noted that YouTube provides a large selection of content for men: computer games (gamers are leaders of many charts), sports, technology.

80% of the total number of analyzed top Youtube bloggers (16/20) has their own products, which they advertise. In half the cases, it is a brand / collection of clothes (8/16) [20]. In addition to clothing, it can be your own online platform, books, electronic devices, cosmetics, podcasts, training / nutrition programs, culinary brands or songs.

As for the format, in most cases the advertisement is placed in the description for the video. Sometimes bloggers can also mention this in the video itself (pre-roll / mid-roll / post-roll + description) or display the brand logo at the end of the video. But most often they just leave a link for the video without mentioning it. Some bloggers tend to focus on affiliate marketing. Working with

Amazon and other platforms, they receive a commission for advertising the products of these platforms.

The most universal categories (typical for bloggers of different genres) – clothing / fashion, technology / IT and beauty. Beauty bloggers mostly advertise cosmetic products, gamers – games / computer equipment, fashion bloggers – clothes and accessories, fitness bloggers – fitness programs and special sports devices. At the same time, the categories of fashion and IT / technology are found among all infusions.

In addition, there are bloggers who have managed to combine several categories and created a unique cocktail “on trial” to their subscribers. For example, food blogger Rosanna Pansino combined the categories of "food" and "computer games" (two of her personal interests). She actively practices the production of cakes and other confectionery products in the field of popular computer games.

Some bloggers use **Facebook** to influence marketing, but often as an additional platform. Thus, most of their advertising posts are reposts from the main social networks (Instagram and YouTube). Nevertheless, Facebook is widely used by some well-known personalities. For example, the world-famous football star Cristiano Ronaldo, who has 120 million subscribers [19].

Very soon all bloggers will start using Facebook more actively, because here there are more and more useful functions for advertisers, and the social network itself is developing with unprecedented power [22, p. 227].

The format of advertising posts in Facebook is in most cases text posts (usually with the image of the blogger and the products that he advertises). Sometimes it can be a video with a link to a product / service in the description. The most popular categories among the analyzed bloggers are fashion and beauty.

According to some marketing sources, **Twitter** has a powerful influence on consumer behavior. But this only applies to celebrities. Many of the successful celebrities often use influence marketing, and subscribers listen to them and even copy the behavior of their favorite star. When it comes to “ordinary” bloggers –

unfortunately, neither they nor their audience are active on Twitter. Even bloggers who are popular and influential, for example, in Instagram, behave quite differently on Twitter. Their activity is close to zero. They may have several million or hundreds of thousands of subscribers, but not more than 10-30 likes / retweets [20]. Almost in all cases, their posts on Twitter – this is not targeted advertising, but rather personal recommendations / tips somewhere to go or buy something.

To summarize, it should be noted that more and more companies are “being introduced” into the marketing of influence these days, and this is not surprising. It develops and spreads around the world. This provides great opportunities for both bloggers and brands.

In conclusion, communication channels on the Internet have a number of general features that distinguish them from traditional forms of communication. These features include the ability to reach a large audience quickly and easily, the use of multimedia elements such as images and videos, and the possibility of anonymous or pseudonymous communication. However, the Internet also presents certain challenges and risks, such as the spread of misinformation and the potential for cyberbullying. Understanding the general features of communication channels on the Internet is important for effective communication and responsible online behavior.

### **1.3 Factors contributing to the difficulty of communication during a pandemic on medical topics**

In modern science, the main psychological features of communication on medical topics, as well as the linguistic features of medical texts, have been studied quite deeply [14]. During such communication, sometimes there is an adjustment (in some cases, a change) of the picture of the world of a potential person, aimed at solving specific problems related to the treatment process of a particular disease.

Communication on medical topics and communication during a pandemic have some points of contact in the strategy and tactics of their implementation, but they are dictated by different pragmatic attitudes.

The specificity of the Internet communication during a pandemic is that its participants can be both specialists in the medical field (addressees and addressees) and non-specialists (patients, patients, clients and just the general public).

The special semantic space of the Internet communication during the pandemic arose due to the specifics of the structural organization of the Institute of Medicine and requires a certain discursive strategy that optimizes the process of information transmission. Medical discourse (actually scientific, popular science, scientific and business) can cause both written (social media post, blog, article, etc.) and oral text (video blog, audio recording of a lecture, etc.) in social networks. The strategies of each of these discourses will be different.

If we talk about discourse strategies, the product of which is an oral text, in particular, in video blogs, then the definition of a discursive strategy as “the choice of a certain line of speech behavior in a specific situation in the interests of achieving communication goals” is appropriate here [16, c. 4]. The strategies of this type of medical discourse are determined by the goal of professional communication – the provision of qualified medical care – and rarely exist "in their pure form". Their interpenetration and fusion is a characteristic feature of medical discourse.

Due to the dominant position of the doctor in communication with the patient, his speech thinking strategies prevail over the corresponding strategies of the patient. Among the speech strategies of medical discourse in linguistics, main and auxiliary ones are distinguished. The main strategies include predicting (taking an anamnesis), treating (prescribing), recommending, explaining, diagnosing. Supporting strategies include pragmatic, conversational, and rhetorical. The essential features of pragmatic strategies that distinguish them from dialogic and rhetorical strategies are that such strategies do not provide the patient with medical

information. “Contact strategy” and “request strategy” differ in that the former facilitate contact (phatic remarks, greetings, appeals).

While professional communication in the medical sphere involves the use of specific discourse strategies aimed at achieving communication goals, non-professional communication in the same sphere is often characterized by a different set of strategies that may not necessarily focus on the provision of qualified medical care. Non-professional communication in the medical sphere may take various forms, including informal conversations between friends and family members about health-related issues, social media posts about personal experiences with illness or medical treatment, and online forums where patients can share their stories and seek advice from others.

Unlike professional communication, non-professional communication in the medical sphere is not bound by the strict conventions of medical terminology and may involve a wide range of linguistic and communicative strategies. For example, non-professional communication may include the use of colloquial language, personal anecdotes, and emotional appeals, which may not be appropriate or effective in professional contexts.

One important aspect of non-professional communication in the medical sphere is the role of the patient's voice. In contrast to professional communication, where the doctor's speech thinking strategies often prevail over the patient's, non-professional communication may provide a space for patients to express their own perspectives, experiences, and feelings about their health and medical treatment. This can be particularly valuable for patients who feel marginalized or unheard in professional settings.

In non-professional communication, patients may use a variety of discourse strategies to achieve their communication goals. For example, patients may use storytelling as a way to convey their experiences and emotions related to their illness or medical treatment. Storytelling can help patients create a sense of coherence and meaning out of their experiences, as well as facilitate social connection and empathy with others who have gone through similar experiences.

Another common strategy used in non-professional communication is the sharing of information and advice. Patients may share information about their medical conditions, treatments, and experiences with different healthcare providers as a way to inform and empower others who are going through similar situations. However, it is important to note that this type of advice is often based on personal experiences rather than medical expertise and should not be taken as professional medical advice.

Finally, non-professional communication in the medical sphere may also involve the use of humor and irony as a way to cope with the challenges of illness and medical treatment. Humor can serve as a way to alleviate stress and anxiety, create a sense of solidarity with others who are going through similar experiences, and challenge dominant narratives about illness and disability.

Overall, non-professional communication in the medical sphere is a rich and complex area of discourse that encompasses a wide range of communicative strategies and goals. While it may differ from professional communication in terms of its linguistic and communicative conventions, non-professional communication can play an important role in empowering patients, facilitating social connection and empathy, and challenging dominant narratives about health and illness.

The Internet communication strategies during a pandemic are implemented using a specific set of speech and behavioural (specialized and non-specialized) tactics that have an emotional impact on a person. The choice of a certain tactic and its effectiveness depend on professional goals and communication situations, on the type of person and the general culture of the interlocutors.

The most common tactics are dating tactics, accusation tactics and tactics of maintaining emotional balance, tactics of psychological regulation of the state, comfort, complaints and threats. Other speech-tactical tactics are general (non-specialized) for at least two medical discourse strategies. These are the tactics of rapprochement, persuasion, creation of long-term plans, self-presentation, asking for specific information, explanations, forming a train of thought, presenting mandatory success, cooperation, compliment, silence, evaluation. In the process of

verbal communication, in order to increase efficiency, it is possible to observe the use of several tactics at the same time.

In the Internet communication during the pandemic, arising from the written text, strategies are aimed at convincing the addressee of the truth of the proposed new scientific knowledge.

For example, the contributor, aiming to explain the importance of a healthy lifestyle, realizes this in the process of consistently using such speech acts as a call for physical education, hardening, proper nutrition, increased stress and activity in movement.

The dynamics of social life, changing priorities, reevaluation of values – all this contributes to the emergence of new communicative problems, the solution of which is the task not only of psychology and sociology, but also of linguistics. Therefore, the study of the Internet communication during the pandemic involves all aspects of this field of communication, taking into account the stereotypes of language behaviour that arose due to the structural organization of the Institute of Medicine itself

Different vocabulary is used when communicating online during a pandemic. Since communication is informal, special attention should be paid to professional medical slang and jargon. Many slangisms go beyond purely informal communication and complement common language. And very often they meet in social networks, when professionals communicate with each other. The slang of medical discourse is both broader and narrower than medical slang. In our opinion, it includes the slang not only of groups of doctors, but also of groups of teachers, assistants and everyone related to treatment and similar processes. On the other hand, by lexical groups in this slang, it is advisable to highlight only those that are directly or indirectly related to treatment. Lexical units of medical discourse slang borrowed from the professional jargon of doctors, pharmacists, nurses, etc., are stable over time. Such lexical units can be classified as context-free slangisms.

But despite some experience in researching English medical slang, new medical slangisms appear every day, which can be tracked, in particular in electronic dictionaries [26].

Medical terminology is a system that combines the terms of pharmaceutical and biological disciplines, where a significant number of them are of foreign origin (mainly Greek and Latin). Modern medical terminology is a macro-terminological system and its content is diverse [13; 8]:

- morphological formations and processes characteristic of the human body in normal and pathological conditions at various stages of its development;
- diseases and pathological conditions;
- forms of course and signs of diseases, causative agents and carriers of diseases;
- surgical operations;
- organizational forms of providing medical and preventive care to the population;
- devices, instruments, tools and other technical means, etc.

Since the medical vocabulary was formed on the basis of classical languages (Greek, Latin), in the English language in special texts there is a huge range of use of Latin terms along with the equivalent functioning of their English equivalents. For example, *cranium* (L.) ‘skull’, *femur* (L.) ‘hip bone’ etc. At the same time, some borrowings from Latin are so embedded in the English language that they function without a corresponding English equivalent: *labial fraenum*, *maxillary sinus* etc. [13, c. 191].

One should also focus on a wide variety of abbreviations, abbreviations in the speech of medical professionals or in medical texts: *WHL* – *within normal limit*, *CV drugs* – *cardiovascular* ‘body weight’, *p.o.* – *per oral* ‘through mouth’, *P.* – *pulse* etc.

Many abbreviations and abbreviations refer to the names of drugs, diseases, dosage and administration of drugs, appointment of doctors by junior and middle medical personnel. On the one hand, it complicates the perception of information,

but on the other hand, it saves time on the pronunciation of a unit where a number of important information is encoded.

Medical communication is a complex field that requires a deep understanding of medical terminology, abbreviations, and discourse strategies. The use of Latin terms and abbreviations in medical texts and conversations can pose significant challenges for both medical professionals and patients.

The medical vocabulary is based on classical languages such as Greek and Latin. As a result, medical texts contain a vast array of Latin terms that may not have an equivalent in English. Some borrowings from Latin are so embedded in the English language that they function without a corresponding English equivalent. This creates a language barrier for patients who may not be familiar with medical terminology.

Moreover, the use of abbreviations and acronyms in medical texts and conversations is a common practice. While it saves time on the pronunciation of a unit, it can also complicate the perception of information for patients. The abbreviations may refer to the names of drugs, diseases, dosage, and administration of drugs, appointment of doctors by junior and middle medical personnel. Patients may not understand the abbreviations used, leading to misunderstandings and potential harm.

Medical communication is also complex due to the dominance of medical professionals in communication with patients. The speech thinking strategies of medical professionals tend to prevail over the corresponding strategies of the patient. Among the speech strategies of medical discourse, main and auxiliary ones are distinguished. The main strategies include predicting (taking an anamnesis), treating (prescribing), recommending, explaining, and diagnosing. Supporting strategies include pragmatic, conversational, and rhetorical. The essential features of pragmatic strategies that distinguish them from dialogic and rhetorical strategies are that such strategies do not provide the patient with medical information.

The complexity of medical communication is further amplified by the changing nature of communication in the digital age. The emergence of the internet

has led to the expansion of written colloquial language and the synthetic features of written and spoken speech. In the framework of internet communication, the synthetic nature of their areas of application continues to form and shape its distinctive features.

To overcome the challenges of medical communication, it is essential for medical professionals to take a patient-centered approach and use clear and simple language when communicating with patients. They should also avoid the overuse of abbreviations and acronyms and provide explanations when using them. Moreover, medical professionals should be aware of cultural and linguistic differences when communicating with patients from diverse backgrounds.

In conclusion, medical communication is a complex field that requires a deep understanding of medical terminology, abbreviations, and discourse strategies. The use of Latin terms and abbreviations in medical texts and conversations can pose significant challenges for both medical professionals and patients. The dominance of medical professionals in communication with patients further amplifies the complexity of medical communication. With the changing nature of communication in the digital age, medical professionals must be aware of the challenges and take a patient-centered approach to overcome them.

## **Conclusions to Chapter 1**

Traditionally, oral speech was understood as an oral form of conversational style, which is an informal, personally addressed communication, the addressee of which is a specific person, as a rule, well known to the addressee. But thanks to the Internet, the range of written implementations of the conversational style has expanded significantly. Among the Internet resources and the Internet genres, a group stood out where the degree of casualness of communication and the share of conversational elements were the highest. These are chats, blogs, forums, the Internet correspondence, the Internet conferences, instant messaging, social

networks. Therefore, the term “written colloquial language” appeared, which is defined as a kind of mixture of written literary and oral colloquial language.

In the framework of the Internet communication, one can observe not only the synthetic features of written and spoken speech, but also the synthetic nature of their areas of application. The Internet broadcasting continues to form and shape its distinctive features.

In conclusion, this research provides a theoretical foundation for understanding the unique characteristics of communication on the Internet, particularly in the medical context.

The first subsection highlights the specific features of the Internet discourse, which combines the characteristics of written and spoken language, and demonstrates the prevalence of written colloquial language in online communication.

The second subsection focuses on the general features of communication channels on the Internet and highlights their advantages, such as accessibility, convenience, and speed. However, it also notes the challenges of nonverbal communication and the potential for misinterpretation in online communication.

The third subsection discusses the factors contributing to the difficulty of communication during a pandemic on medical topics, such as the overload of medical information, the presence of misinformation and the need for social distancing measures. It emphasizes the importance of clear and accurate communication by medical professionals to address these challenges.

Overall, this research underscores the complexity of medical communication on the Internet and the need for medical professionals to adapt their communication strategies to effectively communicate with patients and the public during a pandemic. It highlights the importance of clear and accurate information, active listening, and effective nonverbal communication in online medical communication.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **ANALYSIS OF COMMUNICATION CHANNELS IN 2020**

#### **CORONAVIRUS PANDEMIC**

#### **2.1 Characteristics of the main English communication channels in 2020 coronavirus pandemic**

During the COVID-19 pandemic, the stages of the classic model of the communication process, authored by the American political scientist H. Lasswell, remained unchanged [21]: the communicator forms a message taking into account the needs and expectations of the target audience, chooses channels and tools, encodes his message; communication receives and decodes information. A separate stage of the communicative model is the analysis of feedback from the target audience.

At the beginning of the lockdown, the communicator found himself at the epicentre of a communication crisis, when Lasswell's model itself remained unchanged, but its individual elements required a new understanding and prompt response to the transition to online communication. The primary task facing communicator is to get into the information flow of the communication. The linear path of information turns into a complex pyramid when communication becomes a transmitter of a message for subsequent communications. There has been a shift in the use of offline (or traditional) channels and tools to online ones. This became an impetus for the development of visual techniques and ways of attracting attention, the creation of which requires mastering new skills in design, graphics and psychology. Given the specifics of communication in social isolation, the communicator's psychological perception of the received message occurs under the influence of leaders of public opinion who are authoritative for him and/or any other environment, with the representatives of which the communicator's attitudes (social attitudes) coincide. This is subjective noise for decoding the content of the received information. The share of objective noise, in particular technical noise,

also increased. The result of the study was the systematization of these complicating factors of communication at various stages of interaction between the communicators.

Taking into account the features of informing the external (all social groups that influence the state of affairs of the communicator) and internal (staff) audience—makes it possible to make a decision about the further communicative process, at each stage of which complicating factors can be singled out and summarized. Forming a portrait of the target audience requires an understanding that under the conditions of a pandemic, any modern person finds himself in an unfamiliar isolated space and loses the ability to separate rational information from fakes. Instead, they have a growing trust in social networks, which give them the opportunity to create their own comfortable “information bubble”. This complicates the work of the communicator: the search for such leaders of public opinion whom his communicator trusts is added to his tasks. Thus, the communicative process receives two levels of addressees: at the first level, they are influencers, who at the second level are themselves a channel of information transmission. In the pre-epidemic period, the channels and tools for transmitting information to both groups of target audiences differed significantly. So, mostly offline tools were used in working with the internal audience [2, p. 269].

During the pandemic, the situation changed: on the one hand, communication with staff went online, and on the other hand, expenses for the services of engaged specialists decreased. As a result, it became necessary for full-time communicators to quickly master such communication channels as:

- social networks,
- websites,
- online educational and production platforms, using content visualization tools, video lectures, virtual meetings, online event broadcasts [9].

Increased usage during quarantine by the target audience of the Internet [2, p. 270] complicates the process of encoding information. In contrast to the offline mechanisms of choosing words and symbols, the methods of attracting and

retaining attention in online messages are text headlines, video appeals, the Internet comics, and the Internet memes. Decoding of the content of the received information is accompanied by obstacles – noises [11], which are objective and subjective. Under the conditions of the pandemic, the influence of subjective noises based on the desire of the communicator to receive only those messages and through those the Internet channels that emotionally satisfy him has increased.

Another complicating factor of social communication at this stage is the increase in technical noise: permanent or temporary lack of access to online tools makes it impossible to receive a message from the communicator. The results of the analysis of these obstacles become the basis for choosing channels and tools for further communication with the target audience.

In conclusion, the COVID-19 pandemic has significantly affected the way medical information is communicated in English-speaking countries. In 2020, the main communication channels for medical information were online news portals, social media platforms, and official government websites. These channels allowed for the rapid dissemination of information to a large audience, but also presented challenges such as misinformation, overload of information, and difficulty reaching vulnerable populations.

Despite these challenges, it is clear that the use of technology and the Internet for medical communication will continue to be an important part of healthcare in the future. Therefore, it is important to develop effective strategies for managing information dissemination on digital platforms and ensuring that accurate and reliable information reaches those who need it most.

Overall, the pandemic has highlighted the importance of clear and effective medical communication, as well as the need for further research into the best ways to communicate health information in a rapidly changing digital landscape. As we move forward, it will be crucial to adapt to new technologies and communication channels, while maintaining a focus on patient-centered care and effective communication with all stakeholders in the healthcare system.

## **2.2 Neologisms of Covid 2019 used in communication channels in 2020 coronavirus pandemic: semantic aspect**

There are several principles of formation of neologisms in the English language.

1. A word that already exists in the language can acquire a new meaning based on the similarity of a newly defined phenomenon with an already known phenomenon.

2. The word is borrowed from another language together with meaning or separately to denote another phenomenon in English society.

3. A new word was created to name new realities according to standard models of word formation from morphemes existing in the English language.

The study showed that the creation of neologisms regarding COVID-19 occurs with the help of the following methods.

Neologisms used on the Facebook platform during the pandemic were investigated, 125 words and collocations (Appendices 2, 4). The analysis showed that all studied neologism nominations can be divided into several lexical and semantic groups and subgroups.

1. Neologisms naming diseases and their causative agents.

1.1. Neologisms naming diseases.

1.2. Neologisms naming causative agents of diseases (pathogens).

1.3. Neologisms nominating symptoms and syndromes.

1.4. Neologisms that designate the method of transmission of the disease.

2. Neologisms nominating medication.

3. Neologisms denoting medical response to COVID-19

4. Neologisms nominating actions, phenomena and their characteristics related to the social impact of COVID-19.

**1. Neologisms naming diseases and their causative agents.** 40% of neologisms. Among them, 16% of neologisms nominating diseases, in particular: *Coronavirus disease 2019* ‘гостра респіраторна хвороба, яку спричинює

коронавірус SARS-CoV-2', *COVID-19* 'гостра респіраторна хвороба, яку спричинює коронавірус SARS-CoV-2', *Novel Coronavirus Pneumonia* 'нова коронавірусна пневмонія', *NCP* 'нова коронавірусна пневмонія'; 16% of neologisms that designate pathogens, in particular: *2019-nCoV* 'новий коронавірус 2019', *SARS-CoV-2* одноланцюговий РНК-вмісний штам виду SARSr-CoV роду бетакоронавірусів, що вперше був виявлений 2019 р.', *2019 novel Coronavirus* 'новий коронавірус 2019', *Wuhan seafood market pneumonia virus* вірус пневмонії на ринку морепродуктів Уханя'; 4% of neologisms naming symptoms and syndromes, in particular: *SARS* 'тяжкий гострий респіраторний синдром'; 4% of neologisms denoting the method of disease transmission, in particular: *human-to-human* 'від людини до людини'.

**2. Neologisms nominating medication.** 8% of neologisms were found, in particular: *Recombinant Novel Coronavirus (2019-nCoV) Vaccine (Adenovirus Vector)* 'рекомбінантна нова коронавірусна вакцина аденовірусного вектору', *nCoV-19 vaccine* 'нова коронавірусна вакцина'.

**3. Neologisms denoting the medical response to COVID-19.** Neologisms of this group were found in 16%, in particular: *SOLIDARITY* 'клінічне дослідження лікарських засобів', *COVID-19 Solidarity Response Fund* 'Фонд реагування на солідарність COVID-19', *lockdown* 'екстрений протокол дій, який забороняє людям вільно входити або залишати певну зону', *PPE - Personal protective equipment* 'засіб індивідуального захисту'.

**4. Neologisms nominating actions, phenomena and their characteristics related to the social impact of COVID-19.**

Neologisms of this group were found in 36%, in particular: *infodemic* 'такий, що має надлишок інформації про проблему, що наносить шкоду її розв'язанню', *Infodemic management* 'управління шкідливим надлишком інформації про проблему', *Infodemiology* 'нова область наукових досліджень, яка зосереджена на скануванні Інтернету на вміст, пов'язаний зі здоров'ям, який сприяє користувач, з кінцевою метою покращення здоров'я населення', *WFH - Work From Home* 'робота з дому у дистанційному режимі', *social*

*distancing* ‘дотримання дистанції між особами у 2 м’, *self-isolation* ‘добровільне рішення людини про обмеження безпосередніх контактів із іншими особами, перебування у приміщенні’, *self-quarantine* ‘добровільне рішення людини про обмеження безпосередніх контактів із іншими особами, перебування у приміщенні’, *non-essential* ‘такий, що не має істотного значення <для того, щоб виходити з будинку>’, *postpone* ‘відкладання <нетермінових справ, пов’язаних із виходом з будинку>’. These lexemes became neologisms due to neosemantization (acquiring a new meaning).

A quantitative analysis was conducted to determine the frequency of neologism nominations in various lexical and semantic groups. The results of the analysis are shown in Appendix 3.

From Appendix 23 we can conclude that the neologisms of the lexical and semantic groups “Neologisms naming diseases and their causative agents” (40%) and “Neologisms nominating actions, phenomena and their characteristics related to the social impact of COVID-19” (36 %) are the most common in the analyzed material. Neologisms of the lexical-semantic group “Neologisms denoting the medical response to COVID-19” have an average frequency (16%). And the neologisms of the group “Neologisms nominating medication” turned out to be the least common (8 %).

In conclusion, the Covid-19 pandemic has led to the emergence of numerous neologisms in the English language, many of which have been widely used in various communication channels. These neologisms not only reflect the current situation but also carry a wide range of emotions, attitudes, and values related to the pandemic. The study of neologisms related to Covid-19 provides insights into the dynamic nature of language and the role of language in shaping and reflecting societal responses to the pandemic.

The semantic analysis of Covid-19 neologisms has revealed that these terms are highly associated with negative emotions, fear, and uncertainty. The use of terms such as "pandemic," "quarantine," "lockdown," and "isolation" highlights the severity of the situation and the need for strict measures to control the spread of the

virus. However, other terms such as "essential worker," "frontline worker," and "caremongering" reflect the positive aspects of the pandemic, including the bravery and dedication of those working to combat it and the spirit of solidarity and support in the community.

Overall, the neologisms of Covid-19 have enriched the English language with new terms that reflect the challenges and experiences of the pandemic. The study of these terms not only provides insights into the language use during the pandemic but also sheds light on the linguistic creativity and adaptability of speakers in response to crises.

### 2.3 Structure and morphology of Covid 2019 neologisms used in the Internet communications

As for the structure of the investigated nominative neologisms, among them there are both single-unit and multi-units, formed according to different models.

1. 64% of all neologisms were found in the studied material of **single-unit** nominative neologisms. Of them, 28% were formed by an abbreviation, in particular: *COVID-19* 'гостра респіраторна хвороба, яку спричинює коронавірус SARS-CoV-2', *2019-nCoV* 'новий коронавірус 2019', *SARS-CoV-2* 'одноланцюговий РНК-вмісний штам виду SARSr-CoV роду бетакоронавірусів, що вперше був виявлений 2019 р.', *SARS* - *Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome* 'тяжкий гострий респіраторний синдром', *NCP* - *Novel Coronavirus Pneumonia* 'нова коронавірусна пневмонія', *WFH* – *Work From Home* 'робота з дому у дистанційному режимі', *PPE* - *Personal Protective Equipment* 'засіб індивідуального захисту'; 24% of nominations are nouns, in particular: *Infodemiology* 'нова область наукових досліджень, яка зосереджена на скануванні Інтернету на вміст, пов'язаний зі здоров'ям, який сприяє користувач, з кінцевою метою покращення здоров'я населення', *SOLIDARITY* 'клінічне дослідження лікарських засобів', *self-isolation* 'добровільне рішення людини про обмеження безпосередніх контактів із іншими особами,

перебування у приміщенні’, *self-quarantine* ‘добровільне рішення людини про обмеження безпосередніх контактів із іншими особами, перебування у приміщенні’, *lockdown* ‘екстрений протокол дій, який забороняє людям вільно входити або залишати певну зону’, *postpone* ‘відкладання <нетермінових справ, пов’язаних із виходом з будинку>’; 8% were adjectives, in particular: *Infodemic* ‘такий, що має надлишок інформації про проблему, що наносить шкоду її розв’язанню’, *non-essential* ‘такий, що не має істотного значення <для того, щоб виходити з будинку>’; 4% – adverbs, in particular: *human-to-human* ‘від людини до людини’. For example: *the virus is transmitted human-to-human*.

**2. Two-component** neologisms make up 12%. Of them, 4% were formed according to the “abbreviation + noun” model: *nCoV-19 vaccine* ‘нова коронавірусна вакціна’; 8% is formed according to the “adjective + noun” model: *Infodemic management* ‘управління шкідливим надлишком інформації про проблему’, *social distancing* ‘дотримання дистанції між особами у 2 м’,

**3. 12% of three-component** neologisms were found. Of them, 4% were formed according to the “adjective + adjective + noun” model: *Novel Coronavirus Pneumonia* ‘нова коронавірусна пневмонія’, 4% is formed according to the model “adjective + noun + numeral”: *Coronavirus disease 2019* ‘гостра респіраторна хвороба, яку спричинює коронавірус SARS-CoV-2’; 4% is formed according to the model “numeral + adjective + noun”: *2019 novel Coronavirus* ‘новий коронавірус 2019’.

**4. Multi-clusters ntologisms** (12%). 4% of **four-component** neologisms were found. They are formed according to the model “abbreviation + adjective + adjective + noun”: *COVID-19 Solidarity Response Fund* ‘Фонд реагування на солідарність COVID-19’. 4% of **five-component** neologisms were found. They are formed according to the model “adjective + adjective + adjective + adjective + noun”: *Wuhan seafood market pneumonia virus* ‘вірус пневмонії на ринку морепродуктів Уханя’. Six-component neologisms were not found in the actual material. 4% of **seven-component** neologisms were found. They are formed

according to the model “adjective + adjective + adjective + abbreviation + noun + adjective + noun”: *Recombinant Novel Coronavirus (2019-nCoV) Vaccine (Adenovirus Vector)* ‘рекомбінантна нова коронавірусна вакцина аденовірусного вектору’.

A quantitative analysis was conducted to determine the frequency of nominative neologisms of different structures. The results of the analysis are shown in Appendix 5.

From Appendix 5. we can conclude that the most common among the analyzed neologisms are one-component nominations and abbreviations, their number was almost two-thirds (64%) of all analyzed units. According to the partial linguistic criterion, nouns dominate among them. There are also adjectives and adverbs. No verbs were found. Average prevalence is shown by two- and three-component nominative neologisms (12% each), formed according to different models. Multi-cluster neologisms (with four, five and seven components) were not frequent (4% each).

## I. Affixation

Affixation is considered a productive way of word formation. At the same time, this method turned out to be not too productive for the formation of studied nominative neologisms. Together, 13% of the studied terms were formed by affixation. The following techniques were used:

**1.1 Prefixal** (4%), in particular, the following prefixes and prefixoids were used:

1.1.1 The formation of nouns (3%):

*aero-* with meaning ‘що має відношення до повітря або авіації’ (1%):  
*aero**haptics*,

For example: *The coronavirus pandemic has changed the student experience. The holograms use 'aero****haptics****', which creates feelings of touch with simple jets of air.*

*hyper-* with meaning ‘понад’(1%): *hyperpop*,

For example: *The world of **hyperpop** expanded during the COVID-19 pandemic, allowing artists cooped up with a computer to try whatever sounded interesting*

*poly-* with meaning ‘багато’ (1%): *polywork*.

For example: *View highlights people in the Worked on COVID-19 webst community are highlighting on **Polywork**.*

*self* – with meaning ‘само’: *self-isolation* ‘добровільне рішення людини про обмеження безпосередніх контактів із іншими особами, перебування у приміщенні’.

1.1.2 The formation of adjectives (1%):

*demi-* with meaning ‘напів’ (1%): *demi-fine*.

So, we can conclude that neologisms-nouns, less often adjectives, are formed by the prefixal method in the studied material.

1.2. **Suffixal** (8%), in particular, the following suffixes and suffixoids were used.

1.2.1 The formation of nouns (5%), in particular:

*-ing* (1%): *flipping*,

For example: *The **flipping** of COVID cases (vaxxed vs unvaxxed) just happened in ON.*

*-ware* with meaning ‘частина програмного забезпечення’ (2%): *killware, tattleware*.

For example: *As hybrid and remote work become more commonplace — spurred on by the COVID-19 pandemic — more employers are turning to employee monitoring software, also known as **tattleware** or bossware.*

*-er* (1%): *midweeker*.

У тому числі було знайдено іменник, утворений за допомогою двох суфіксів:

*-or, -ism* (1%): *invasivorism*.

For example: *The idea of eating invasive species — **invasivorism***

1.2.2 The formation of adjectives (1%), in particular:

-*an* (1%): *planetarian*.

For example: *The first activity of the COVID-19 Task Force was to issue a survey to understand the current situation that **planetarians** were facing*

1.2.3 The formation of verbs (2%), in particular:

-*ment* with meaning результату дії (1%): *returnment*,

-*graphy* with meaning ‘створення зображення’ (1%): *tappigraphy*.

So, we can conclude that the suffix method in the researched material creates mostly nouns, less often adjectives and least often verbs. The suffixoid *ware* with meaning ‘частина програмного забезпечення’ was the most common in the studied material.

1.3. **Suffixal and prefixal** (1%).

This method was used in the analyzed material when creating a noun *nanolearning*. Here, the prefix *nano-* is used to indicate the coefficient  $10^{-9}$  and the suffix *-ing*.

Thus, we can conclude that when creating neologisms by the affixal method in the analyzed material, the suffixal method prevails, the prefixal method is less common, and in isolated cases – the prefix-suffix method.

## II. Compounding.

**Compounding** is a traditional way of creating neologisms. For example, *lockdown* ‘екстрений протокол дій, який забороняє людям вільно входити або залишати певну зону’ is made up of two English components: lock + down. The studied material showed that in the formation of neologisms there is actual word formation (formation of composite words), as well as the formation of neologisms-phrases. Together, these methods sent 50%.

2.1 Let's first consider actual word formation (formation of composites) (8%). Among them, nouns and adjectives were found.

Formation of neologisms-nouns (7%) was carried out according to the following models:

- two-component models (6%):

N+A (noun + adjective) (1%): *flockdown*,

N+N (noun + noun) (3%): *foodprint, wallball, petfishing*.

A+N (adjective + noun) (2%): *overemployment, greenhushing*.

- three-component model (1%):

N+Prep+N (noun + preposition + noun): *cradle-to-career*.

The formation of neologisms-adjectives (1%) was carried out according to the A+A (adjective + adjective) model (1%), in particular: *supercold*.

So, we can conclude that word formation in the studied material mainly forms nouns, and adjectives are formed in isolated cases. Nouns are usually formed from two components, less often from three. N+N turned out to be the most frequent model of formation of neologisms-nouns.

2.2 Consider the peculiarities of the formation of word combinations-neologisms (43%).

Two-component word combinations (42%) were formed according to the following models:

A+N (adjective + noun), 12%, in particular: *blue food; bounceback wardrobe; circular fashion; cyber mercenary; probiotic architecture; social hangover; space anaemia; spatial audio; the elastic generation; the great resignation; unconscious reducer; vertical drinking;*

P+N (participle + noun), 1%, in particular: *broken plan;*

N+N (noun + noun), 28%, in particular: *business shower; carbon pawprint; climate tech; cosy crime; cyan shopper; dad thriller; dial artist; dragon man; drone soccer; energy island; fire cloud; heat day; immunity debt; kindness economy; moon tree; moon water; nature prescription; neck mess; ocean vinyl; peace tourism; pivot space; planet placement; pollution lockdown; porch piracy; shellfish hotel; smog tower; vaccine envy; vaccine nationalism;*

V+N (verb + noun), 1%, in particular: *ask gap*.

The three-component word combination (1%) was formed according to the model N+Prep+N (noun + preposition + noun), in particular: *the internet of senses*.

Thus, we can conclude that among the investigated neologisms-word combinations two-component word combinations absolutely prevail, three-

component word combinations are used in isolated cases, and no multi-units clusters were found. Among two-component word combinations, the most frequent model is N+N (noun + noun).

### III. Shorting (reduction).

In the studied material, such ways of reducing neologisms as creation of acronyms and abbreviations and telescoping (blending) were found. Many medical terms are abbreviated, for example, *COVID-19* ‘гостра респіраторна хвороба, яку спричинює коронавірус SARS-CoV-2’, *SARS-CoV-2* ‘одноланцюговий РНК-вмісний штам виду SARSr-CoV роду бетакоронавірусів, що вперше був виявлений 2019 р.’ Together, all methods of reduction accounted for 26%.

3.1 Consider the **formation of acronyms and abbreviations** (4%). All acronyms and abbreviations in the research material function as nouns. All of them were created from three components. In particular, the following models were used:

A+A+N (adjective + adjective + noun) (1%): *DAO* ‘decentralized autonomous organization’,

N+Prep+N (noun + preposition + noun) (1%): *FONO* ‘fear of normal’,

N+Prep+G (noun + preposition + gerund) (2%): *FORO* ‘fear of running out’, *HOGO* ‘hassle of going out’.

So, we can conclude that in general, acronyms and abbreviations are not frequent among abbreviations, they mainly consist of three components, among them the N+Prep+G model (noun + preposition + gerund) prevails.

### 3.2 Consider **telescoping**.

Telescoping is a way of word formation in which a new word appears by combining truncated words in another fusion or two truncated word bases. For example, *infodemic* ‘такий, що має надлішок інформації про проблему, що наносить шкоду її розв’язанню’ is concluded by shortening two English components: information + epidemic.

**3.2.1 Telescoping-adjective** (1%) is formed according to the A+A model (adjective + adjective), in particular: *swicy*, is formed from words *sweet+spicy*.

**3.2.2 Noun telescopingisms** (21%) were formed according to the following models:

A+N (adjective + noun), 7%, for example: *carnisplorer*, is formed from words *carnivorous+explorer*; *finfluencer*, is formed from words *financial+influencer*; *flexcation*, is formed from words *flexible+vacation*; *greenflation*, is formed from words *green+inflation*; *holistorexia*, is formed from words *holistic+anorexia*; *resimercial*, is formed from words *residential+commercial*; *soonicorn*, is formed from words *soon+unicorn*;

G+N (gerund + noun), 1%, in particular: *volunteercation*, is formed from words *volunteering+vacation*;

N+A (noun + adjective), 1%, in particular: *pingdemic*, is formed from words *ping+pandemic*;

N+N (noun + noun), 12%, for example: *cardening*, is formed from words *car+gardening*; *digi-dog*, is formed from words *digit+dog*; *docuality*, is formed from words *documentary+reality*; *emoticonomy*, is formed from words *emotion+economy*; *flurona*, is formed from words *flu+corona*; *hortpreneur*, is formed from words *horticulture+entrepreneur*; *hycean*, is formed from words *hydrogen+ocean*; *seaganism*, is formed from words *sea+veganism*; *tourdrobe*, is formed from words *tour+wardrobe*; *wish-cycling*, is formed from words *wish+recycling*; *zoomer*, is formed from words *Generation Z+boomer*.

Thus, it can be concluded that among telescopingisms nouns absolutely prevail, and adjectives occur in isolated cases. The most frequent model of the formation of telescopingisms-nouns is N+N (noun + noun), and the model A+N (adjective + noun) is also frequent.

**IV. Conversion** (1%). Conversion is understood as a way of forming words without special affixes. For example: *to postpone* ‘відкласти’ also functions as a noun *postpone* ‘відкладання <нетермінових справ, пов’язаних із виходом з будинку>’. In the above example, one can see the conversion by type: *to postpone*

(V) → *a postpone* (N). The noun *glitch* (from the verb) was also formed by conversion.

For example: *Adding to democratic stall in the region, the pandemic motivated the **postpone** of some local and national elections.*

### **Unproductive ways**

Borrowing, neo-semanticization, conversion, as well as various variants of combined word formation were found among non-productive ways of creating medical vocabulary.

**V. Borrowing** (1%). Few neologisms were found in the analyzed material. We can name a few, formed by tracing paper from the Chinese language, in particular: *Novel Coronavirus Pneumonia* ‘нова коронавірусна пневмонія’, *Wuhan seafood market pneumonia virus* ‘вірус пневмонії на ринку морепродуктів Уханя’. A neologism-noun borrowed from French was also found *aire*.

### **VI. Neosemanticization** (1%).

Semantic neologisms are well-known old words from the active stock of the English language that have acquired a new meaning or connotation of meaning.

For example, using an abbreviation *WFH* (Work from Home) ‘робота з дому у дистанційному режимі’ was first noted in 1995, but this acronym was known to few before it became a way of life for many of the people in 2020 and this way of working became actively advised by the WHO. Abbreviation *PPE* (Personal protective equipment) ‘засоби індивідуального захисту’ dates back to 1977, but previously it had limited use in the field of emergency response professionals.

The concept *social distancing*, first used in 1957, originally nominated a type of interpersonal relationship and really had the meaning of "social distance" in the sense of less communication with undesirable persons, it was used in social psychology. Now that phrase has meaning ‘дотримання дистанції між особами у 2 м’, that is, it nominates keeping a physical distance between oneself and others to avoid infection.

Some semantic neologisms are concepts that were formed during previous epidemics and pandemics and were not used for a long time, but have now become updated with somewhat new semantics. This is a modern concept *self-quarantine* ‘добровільне рішення людини про обмеження безпосередніх контактів із іншими особами; перебування у приміщенні’ was used as *self-quarantined* in 1878 to describe the actions of the villagers of Eyam in the 17th century, who isolated themselves to prevent a second wave of bubonic plague from spreading to the surrounding villages.

Semantic neologism *earthing* ‘річ для вуха’, ‘навушник’ had a primary meaning ‘заземлення’. acquired a new semantic meaning thanks to the language game.

For example: *I have a problem with my Oakleys, in that it squeezes the temples, and it also pinches my ears. I need to find something with thinner earthings.*

## **VII. Ways of combined word and collocation formation (8%).**

Combined methods of formation of neologisms were also found. For example, *infodemiology* ‘нова область наукових досліджень, яка зосереджена на скануванні Інтернету на вміст, пов’язаний зі здоров’ям, який сприяє користувач, з кінцевою метою покращення здоров’я населення’. This term was formed by adding the suffix *-logy* to the neologism *infodemic*, opened by telescoping, to denote a scientific discipline. This term was coined by the Canadian researcher H. Eisenbach. Eisenbach defines infoepidemiology as a new field of scientific research that focuses on scanning the Internet for user-contributed health-related content with the ultimate goal of improving public health.

**7.1 Creation of a word combination + truncation (2%),** for example, according to the model:

N+N (noun + noun):

- *panic master's*. Here there was a truncation of the phrase “master’s degree”;

For example: *Thousands of students are applying to study “panic master's” courses after getting no response to their job applications in the shrinking .*

- *vitamin S*. Here there was a truncation of the word *social*.

For example: *It is because they need Vitamin Social Contact, or Vitamin S. Interdependence theory describes three basic features of situations:*

**7.2 Creation of word combination + affixation** Creation of word combination + affixation (3%). Phrases were created according to the following models:

A+N (adjective + noun) *clean inboxer*. Word *inboxer* is formed with a suffix *-er*.

N+V (noun + verb): *graternity leave*. Word *graternity* is formed with a suffix *-ity*.

N+N (noun + noun): *queenager*. Word *queenager* is formed with a suffix *-er*.

**7.3 Creation of a phrase + abbreviation** (1%), in particular, according to the model: A+ N(A+N): *epidermal VR* ‘virtual reality’.

**7.4 Creating a phrase + acronym** (1%), in particular, according to the model: A+ N(A+N): *affective AI* ‘artificial intelligence’.

**7.5 Telescoping + affixation** (1%), in particular: *silvfluencer*. Telescoping was created from words *silver+fluency* with the addition of suffix *-er*.

A quantitative analysis was conducted to determine the frequency of use of different word-formation models when creating neologisms. The results of the analysis are shown in the diagram in Appendix 6.

From Appendix 6 we can conclude that the most productive way of word formation of neologisms in the field of medicine in the studied material is word formation. The number of such examples was half (50%) of all analyzed neologisms. Among word formation, the formation of composite words and formation of neologism phrases are found, while neologism phrases are predominant (43%).

Shortening occurs with average frequency (26%), among which we highlight the creation of acronyms and telescoping (blending). Telescoping turned out to be a more productive method of reduction (22%).

Affixation (13%) occurs most rarely among the productive methods of word formation. Here, the most frequent use was suffixation (8%).

As for non-productive ways of word formation, they occurred in isolated cases (1% each), in particular, these are borrowing, conversion and neo-semanticization. In addition, 5 combined methods of word formation were found (8% in total), mostly single, the most frequent among them was the combination of techniques “word formation + affixation” (3%).

In conclusion, the neologisms of Covid 2019 used in Internet communication during the 2020 coronavirus pandemic exhibit certain characteristics in terms of their structure and morphology. They are typically composed of two or more morphemes, including prefixes, roots, and suffixes. The prefixes and suffixes are often derived from Greek and Latin, which reflects the origins of medical terminology. The neologisms also often incorporate acronyms and abbreviations, such as COVID, SARS-CoV-2, and PPE.

The structure and morphology of these neologisms serve an important function in communication, allowing for concise and precise descriptions of the virus, its symptoms, and the measures taken to prevent its spread. They also highlight the interdisciplinary nature of the response to the pandemic, as medical terminology intersects with political, economic, and social language. The widespread adoption of these neologisms in the Internet communication during the pandemic underscores the dynamic nature of language and its ability to adapt to new situations and contexts.

## **Conclusions to Chapter 2**

The lexical and semantic analysis of nominative neologisms regarding COVID-19 made it possible to determine that in the analyzed material the most

widespread are neologisms of the lexical and semantic groups “Neologisms naming diseases and their causative agents” (40%) and “Neologisms nominating actions, phenomena and their characteristics related to the social impact of COVID-19” (36%). Neologisms of the lexical-semantic group “Neologisms denoting the medical response to COVID-19” have an average frequency (16%). And neologisms from the group “Neologisms nominating medication” (8%) turned out to be the least common.

The structural analysis of nominative neologisms regarding COVID-19 showed that the most common among the analyzed neologisms are one-component nominations and abbreviations, their number was almost two-thirds (64%) of all analyzed units. According to the partial linguistic criterion, nouns dominate among them. There are also adjectives and adverbs. No verbs were found. Average prevalence is shown by two- and three-component nominative neologisms (12% each), formed according to different models. Multi-cluster neologisms (with four, five and seven components) were not frequent (4% each).

By origin, these are semantic neologisms; loan; neologisms, as well as those formed through word formation – conversion, word formation, affixation and reduction (in particular, abbreviations and telescoping). The most productive way of word formation of neologisms in the field of medicine in the studied material is word formation. The number of such examples was half (50%) of all analyzed neologisms. Among word formation, the formation of composite words and formation of neologism phrases are found, while neologism phrases are predominant (43%). Shorting occurs with average frequency (26%), among which we highlight the creation of acronyms and telescoping (blending). Telescoping turned out to be a more productive method of reduction (22%). Affixation (13%) occurs most rarely among the productive methods of word formation. Here, the most frequent use was suffixation (8%). As for non-productive ways of word formation, they occurred in isolated cases (1% each), in particular, these are borrowing, conversion and neo-semanticization. In addition, 5 combined methods of word formation were found (8% in total), mostly single, the most frequent

among them was the combination of techniques “word formation + affixation”  
(3%)

## CONCLUSIONS

Traditionally, oral speech was understood as an oral form of conversational style, which is an informal, personally addressed communication, the addressee of which is a specific person, as a rule, well known to the addressee. But thanks to the Internet, the range of written implementations of the conversational style has expanded significantly. Among the Internet resources and the Internet genres, a group stood out where the degree of casualness of communication and the share of conversational elements were the highest. These are chats, blogs, forums, the Internet correspondence, the Internet conferences, instant messaging, social networks. Therefore, the term “written colloquial language” appeared, which is defined as a kind of mixture of written literary and oral colloquial language.

In the framework of the Internet communication, one can observe not only the synthetic features of written and spoken speech, but also the synthetic nature of their areas of application. The Internet broadcasting continues to form and shape its distinctive features.

The lexical and semantic analysis of nominative neologisms regarding COVID-19 made it possible to determine that in the analyzed material the most widespread are neologisms of the lexical and semantic groups “Neologisms naming diseases and their causative agents” (40%) and “Neologisms nominating actions, phenomena and their characteristics related to the social impact of COVID-19” (36%). Neologisms of the lexical-semantic group “Neologisms denoting the medical response to COVID-19” have an average frequency (16%). And neologisms from the group “Neologisms nominating medication” (8%) turned out to be the least common.

The structural analysis of nominative neologisms regarding COVID-19 showed that the most common among the analyzed neologisms are one-component nominations and abbreviations, their number was almost two-thirds (64%) of all analyzed units. According to the partial linguistic criterion, nouns dominate among them. There are also adjectives and adverbs. No verbs were found. Average

prevalence is shown by two- and three-component nominative neologisms (12% each), formed according to different models. Multi-cluster neologisms (with four, five and seven components) were not frequent (4% each). By origin, these are semantic neologisms; loan; neologisms, as well as those formed through word formation – conversion, word formation, affixation and reduction (in particular, abbreviations and telescoping). The most productive way of word formation of neologisms in the field of medicine in the studied material is word formation. The number of such examples was half (50%) of all analyzed neologisms. Among word formation, the formation of composite words and formation of neologism phrases are found, while neologism phrases are predominant (43%). Shorting occurs with average frequency (26%), among which we highlight the creation of acronyms and telescoping (blending). Telescoping turned out to be a more productive method of reduction (22%). Affixation (13%) occurs most rarely among the productive methods of word formation. Here, the most frequent use was suffixation (8%). As for non-productive ways of word formation, they occurred in isolated cases (1% each), in particular, these are borrowing, conversion and neo-semanticization. In addition, 5 combined methods of word formation were found (8% in total), mostly single, the most frequent among them was the combination of techniques “word formation + affixation” (3%).

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### **Source of illustrative material**

Facebook. <https://www.facebook.com>

## APPENDICES

### Appendix 1

#### Differences between oral and written speech according to D. Crystal

No	Oral speech	Written speech
1	Oral speech is dynamic and related to time. It involves direct interaction between the speaker and the listener, and each utterance of the speaker, as a rule, has a specific addressee.	Written speech is static and more related to space.
2	There are no time gaps between production and perception of spoken speech. Each utterance of the speaker is immediately perceived by the listener. As a result, the speaker usually does not have the opportunity to carefully consider each utterance.	There is always a pause between the production and reception of written speech. In addition, the writer, in most cases, addresses a significant number of readers, and he has the opportunity to carefully consider the content and form of what is written
3	Speakers usually communicate face to face	The writer is usually distant from the reader and often has no idea who the reader is.  There is no direct contact between the one who writes and the one who reads
4	Oral speech has a number of lexical, grammatical and phonetic features (colloquial vocabulary, incomplete sentences, etc.)	The written language has a number of syntactic and grammatical features, a number of colloquial words are almost never used in oral speech.
5	Mistakes that occur during oral	Errors that occur during written speech

<b>No</b>	<b>Oral speech</b>	<b>Written speech</b>
	speech cannot be corrected.	are usually corrected.
6	A unique feature of oral speech is intonation (tempo of speech, rhythm, pauses, etc.)	A unique feature of written communication is its graphic design.

## Appendix 2

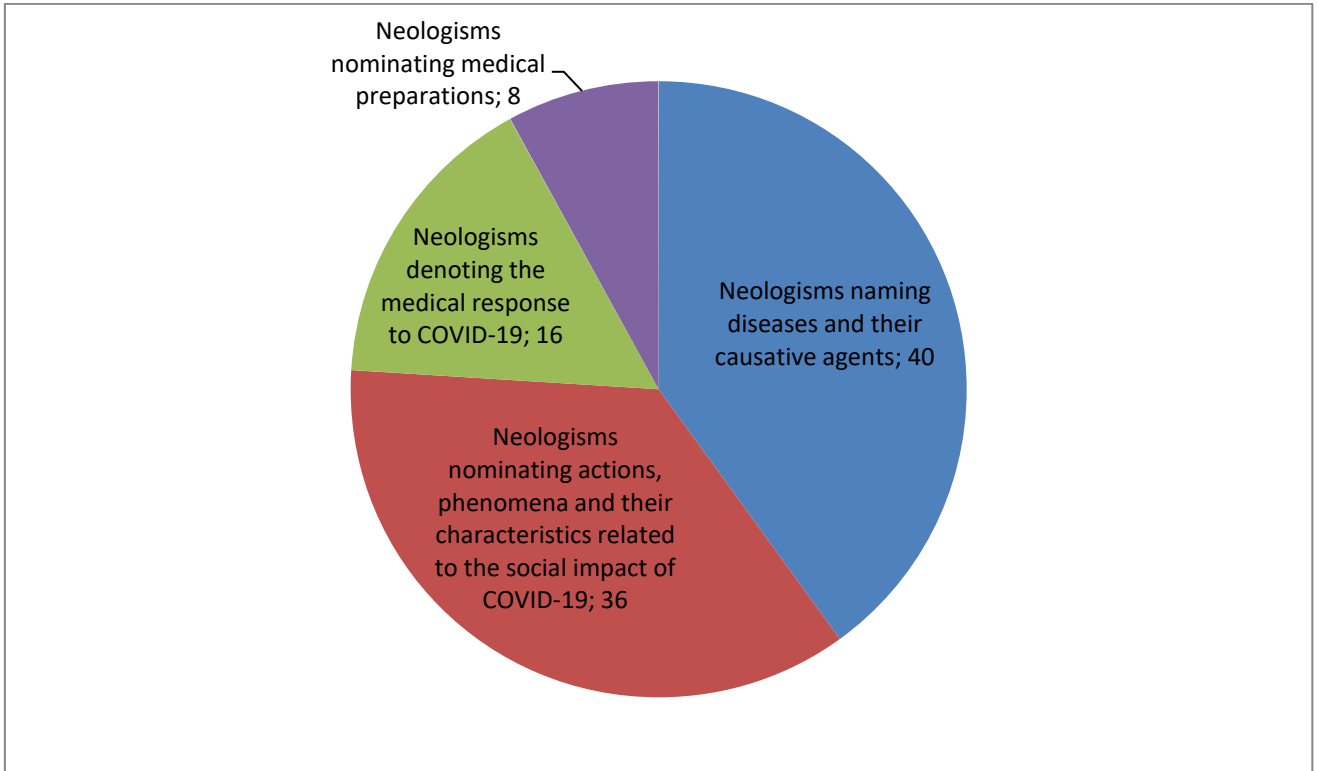
## Classification of neologisms by lexical and semantic groups

№	Неологізм	Значення
1.	Infodemic	‘такий, що має надлишок інформації про проблему, що наносить шкоду її розв’язанню’
2.	Infodemic management	‘управління шкідливим надлишком інформації про проблему’
3.	Infodemiology	‘нова область наукових досліджень, яка зосереджена на скануванні Інтернету на вміст, пов’язаний зі здоров’ям, який сприяє користувач, з кінцевою метою покращення здоров’я населення’
4.	Coronavirus disease 2019	‘гостра респіраторна хвороба, яку спричинює коронавірус SARS-CoV-2’
5.	COVID-19	‘гостра респіраторна хвороба, яку спричинює коронавірус SARS-CoV-2’
6.	2019-nCoV	‘новий коронавірус 2019’
7.	SARS-CoV-2	‘одноланцюговий РНК-вмісний штам виду SARSr-CoV роду бетакоронавірусів, що вперше був виявлений 2019 р.’
8.	SARS	‘тяжкий гострий респіраторний синдром’
9.	Novel Coronavirus Pneumonia	‘нова коронавірусна пневмонія’
10.	NCP	‘нова коронавірусна пневмонія’
11.	2019 novel Coronavirus	‘новий коронавірус 2019’
12.	Wuhan seafood market pneumonia virus	‘вірус пневмонії на ринку морепродуктів Уханя’
13.	Recombinant Novel Coronavirus (2019-nCoV) Vaccine (Adenovirus Vector)	‘рекомбінантна нова коронавірусна вакцина аденовірусного вектору’
14.	SOLIDARITY	‘клінічне дослідження лікарських засобів’

15.	COVID-19 Solidarity Response Fund	‘Фонд реагування на солідарність COVID-19’
16.	nCoV-19 vaccine	‘нова коронавірусна вакціна’
17.	WFH	‘робота з дому у дистанційному режимі’
18.	social distancing	‘дотримання дистанції між особами у 2 м’
19.	self-isolation	‘добровільне рішення людини про обмеження безпосередніх контактів із іншими особами, перебування у приміщенні’
20.	self-quarantine	‘добровільне рішення людини про обмеження безпосередніх контактів із іншими особами, перебування у приміщенні’
21.	lockdown	‘екстрений протокол дій, який забороняє людям вільно входити або залишати певну зону’
22.	non-essential	‘такий, що не має істотного значення <для того, щоб виходити з будинку>’
23.	postpone	‘відкладання <нетермінових справ, пов’язаних із виходом з будинку>’
24.	PPE	‘засіб індивідуального захисту’
25.	human-to-human	‘від людини до людини’

**Appendix 3**

**Distribution of nominative neologisms regarding COVID-19 by lexical and semantic groups, %**



## Appendix 4

## Structural and morphological classification of neologisms

	Term	Lexical length	Part of speech model	Word-formulation type	Semantics of affixes
1.	Aerohaptics	1	N	Derivative	Aero-
2.	Affective AI (artificial intelligence)	2	A+N (A+N)	Phrase (word & acronym)	-
3.	Aire	1	N	Borrowing (French)	-
4.	Ask gap	2	V+N	Phrase	-
5.	Blue food	2	A+N	Phrase	-
6.	Bounceback wardrobe	2	A+N	Phrase	-
7.	Broken plan	2	P+N	Phrase	-
8.	Business shower	2	N+N	Phrase	-er
9.	Carbon pawprint	2	N+N	Phrase	-
10.	Cardening	1	N (N+N)	Blend (car+gardening)	-ing
11.	Carnisplorer	1	N (A+N)	Blend (carnivorous+explorer)	-er
12.	Circular fashion	2	A+N	Phrase	-
13.	Clean inboxer	2	A+N	Phrase & Derivative	-er
14.	Climate tech	2	N+N	Phrase	-
15.	Cosy crime	2	N+N	Phrase	-
16.	Cradle-to-	1	N	Compound word	-

	career		(N+Prep+N )		
17.	Cyan shopper	2	N+N	Phrase	-er
18.	Cyber mercenary	2	A+N	Phrase	-
19.	Dad Thriller	2	N+N	Phrase	-er
20.	DAO (decentralized autonomous organization)	1	N (A+A+N)	Acronym	-ed
21.	Demi-fine	1	A	Derivative	Demi-
22.	Dial artist	2	N+N	Phrase	-ist
23.	Digi-dog	1	N (N+N)	Blend (digit+dog)	-
24.	Docuality	1	N (N+N)	Blend (documentary+reality)	-
25.	Dragon man	2	N+N	Phrase	-
26.	Drone soccer	2	N+N	Phrase	-
27.	Earthing	1	N	Resemantization	-
28.	Emoticonomy	1	N (N+N)	Blend (emotion+ecomony)	-
29.	Energy island	2	N+N	Phrase	-
30.	Epidermal VR (virtual reality)	2	A+ N (A+N)	Phrase (word & abbreviation)	-
31.	Finfluencer	1	N (A+N)	Blend (financial+influencer)	-er
32.	Fire cloud	2	N+N	Phrase	-
33.	Flexcation	1	N (A+N)	Blend (flexible+vacation)	-
34.	Flipping	1	N	Derivative	-ing

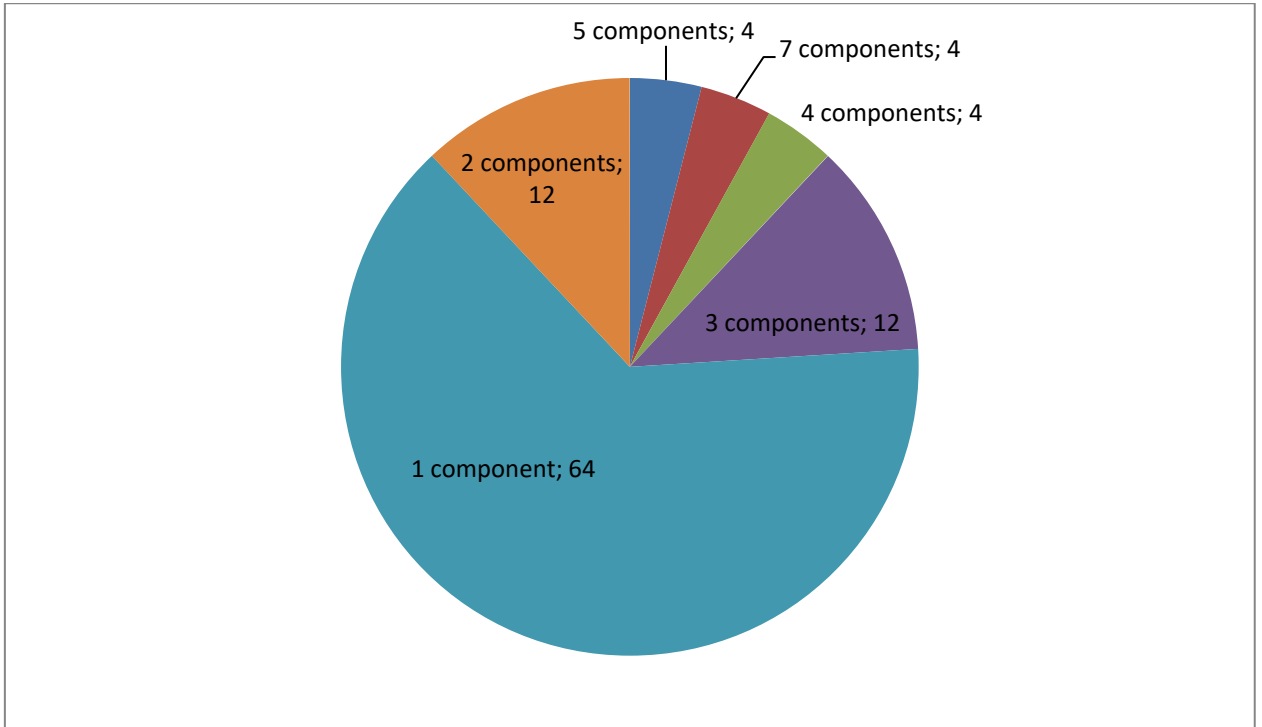
35.	Flockdown	1	N (N+A)	Compound word	-
36.	Flurona	1	N (N+N)	Blend (flu+corona)	-
37.	FONO (fear of normal)	1	N (N+Prep+A)	Acronym	-
38.	Foodprint	2	N+N	Compound word	-
39.	FORO (fear of running out)	1	N (N+Prep+G)	Acronym	-ing
40.	Glitch	1	N	Conversion V	-
41.	Graternity leave	2	N+V	Phrase (word & Derivative)	-ity
42.	Greenflation	1	N (A+N)	Blend (green+inflation)	-
43.	Greenhushing	1	N (A+N)	Compound word	-ing
44.	Heat day	2	N+N	Phrase	-
45.	HOGO (hassle of going out)	1	N (N+Prep+G)	Acronym	-
46.	Holistorexia	1	N (A+N)	Blend (holistic+anorexia)	-
47.	Hortpreneur	1	N (N+N)	Blend (horticulture+entrepreneur)	-
48.	Hycean	1	N (N+N)	Blend (hydrogen+ocean)	-
49.	Hyperpop	1	N	Derivative	Hyper-
50.	Immunity debt	2	N+N	Phrase	-
51.	Invasivorism	1	N	Derivative	-or, -ism
52.	Killware	1	N	Derivative	-ware
53.	Kindness	2	N+N	Phrase	-

	economy				
54.	Midweeker	1	N	Derivative	-er
55.	Moon tree	2	N+N	Phrase	-
56.	Moon water	2	N+N	Phrase	-
57.	Nanolearning	1	N	Derivative	Nano-, -ing
58.	Nature prescription	2	N+N	Phrase	-ion
59.	Neck mess	2	N+N	Phrase	-
60.	Ocean vinyl	2	N+N	Phrase	-
61.	Overemploy ment	2	A+N	Compound word	-ment
62.	Panic master's	2	N+N	Phrase & Clipping (master's degree)	-
63.	Peace tourism	2	N+N	Phrase	-ism
64.	Petfishing	1	N (N+N)	Compound word	-ing
65.	Pingdemic	1	N (N+A)	Blend (ping+pandemic)	-
66.	Pivot space	2	N+N	Phrase	-
67.	Planet placement	2	N+N	Phrase	-ment
68.	Planetarian	1	A	Derivative	-an
69.	Pollution lockdown	2	N+N	Phrase	-
70.	Polywork	1	N	Derivative	Poly-
71.	Porch piracy	2	N+N	Phrase	-
72.	Probiotic architecture	2	A+N	Phrase	-
73.	Queenager	1	N (N+N)	Compound word & Derivative	-er

74.	Resimercial	1	N (A+N)	Blend (residential+commercial)	-ial
75.	Returnment	1	V	Derivative	-ment
76.	Seaganism	1	N (N+N)	Blend (sea+veganism)	-ism
77.	Shellfish hotel	2	N+N	Phrase	-
78.	Silvfluencer	1	N (A+N)	Blend (silver+fluency) & Derivative	-er
79.	Smog tower	2	N+N	Phrase	-
80.	Social hangover	2	A+N	Phrase	-er
81.	Soonicorn	1	N (A+N)	Blend (soon+unicorn)	-
82.	Space anaemia	2	A+N	Phrase	-
83.	Spatial audio	2	A+N	Phrase	-
84.	Supercold	1	A (A+A)	Compound word	-
85.	Swicy	1	A (A+A)	Blend (sweet+spicy)	-
86.	Tappigraphy	1	V	Derivative	-graphy
87.	Tattleware	1	N	Derivative	-ware
88.	The Elastic Generation	2	A+N	Phrase	-
89.	The Great Resignation	2	A+N	Phrase	-
90.	The internet of senses	3	N+Prep+N	Phrase	-
91.	Tourdrobe	1	N (N+N)	Blend (tour+wardrobe)	-
92.	Unconscious reducer	2	A+N	Phrase	-er
93.	Vaccine envy	2	N+N	Phrase	-

94.	Vaccine nationalism	2	N+N	Phrase	-ism
95.	Vertical drinking	2	A+N	Phrase	-ing
96.	Vitamin S	2	N+N	Phrase & Clipping (social)	-
97.	Volunteercati on	1	N (G+N)	Blend (voluntering+vacation)	-ion
98.	Wallball	1	N (N+N)	Compound word	-
99.	Wish-cycling	1	N (N+N)	Blend (wish+recycling)	-ing
100	Zoomer	1	N (N+N)	Blend (Generation Z+boomer)	-er

**Distribution of nominative neologisms regarding COVID-19 by structure, %**



**Appendix 6**

**Frequency of functioning of neologism word-formation methods, %**

