



INSTITUTIONEN FÖR
SPRÅK OCH LITTERATURER

LIFE IN ISOLATION

A Corpus-Based Study of the Use of the Word
Element /so during the Covid-19 Pandemic

Tove Nilsson

Essay/Degree Project:	15 hp
Program or/and course:	EN1321, In-Depth Course in English, Linguistic Research Project
Level:	First cycle
Term/year:	Vt/2021
Supervisor:	Anna-Lena Fredriksson
Examiner:	Gunnar Bergh
Report nr:	

Abstract

Title: *Life in Isolation: A Corpus-Based Study of Word-Formation during the Covid-19 Pandemic*

Author: Tove Nilsson

Supervisor: Anna-Lena Fredriksson

Abstract: The aim of the present study is to investigate frequencies and semantic usages of the word element *iso* in a corpus of newspapers and magazines related to COVID-19, the so called the Coronavirus Corpus. The coronavirus pandemic has led to many new words and expressions and it is thus of interest to examine how often such neologisms are used, as well as what they might communicate semantically. This is a case study with mixed methods of both quantitative and qualitative methods. The word element *iso* was collected from the Coronavirus corpus and analysed by frequency in different word-formation processes and by text source. Wierzbicka's (1986) analytical framework of derivatives was used to conduct a semantic analysis of words and expressions. The findings reveal a strong correlation of usage between newspapers and magazines. However, the most common word-formation process is compounding and the high numbers of types in this category indicate great versatility of the word element. The semantic analysis revealed that *iso* is mainly used when talking of mutually understood topics.

Keywords: blending, clipping, compounding, coronavirus corpus, Covid-19, English word-formation, neologisms, semantics, vocabulary

TABLE OF CONTENTS

1. Introduction.....	1
2. Background.....	3
2.1. Main Word-Formation Processes	3
2.1.1. Compounding.....	4
2.1.2 Clipping	6
2.1.3 Blending.....	6
2.2 Covid-19 Vocabulary.....	7
2.3 Word-Formation and Semantic Categories	9
3. Aims, Material and Method	11
3.1 Aims.....	11
3.2 Material	11
3.3 Methods.....	12
3.3.1 Collecting the Material	12
3.3.2 Analysing the Material	13
4. Results and Discussion	14
4.1 Frequency, Text Source and Part of Speech.....	14
4.2 Semantic Analysis of <i>Iso</i> Word-Forms	16
4.2.1 Compounding.....	16
4.2.2 Clipping	21
4.2.3 Blending.....	23
5. Summary and Conclusions	24
References	26
Appendix	29

1. Introduction

Often in times of crisis, new and unusual words are formed. War has previously been a great source for new words to form (e.g. Dalzell, 2014; Dickson, 2011). However, the Covid-19 pandemic has been an extraordinarily creative time for forming new words, so called neologisms. For example, the compounds *boomer remover*, referring to the greater death among older people (Lillo, 2020) and *iso cut*, referring to a haircut you got during self-isolation. The blend *covidiot* (*covid+idiot*) was dubbed *People's Choice Macquarie Dictionary COVID Word of the Year 2020* in Australia. A majority of the new words are not of a medical character; however, old medical terms such as *asymptomatic* and *self-isolation* have re-emerged. New words are regularly formed on social media such as Twitter and in online newspapers and magazines which, because of the wide accessibility these mediums provide, has increased their popularity substantially (Roig–Marín, 2020). Some new words become established, while some disappear when the need for them is no longer there (e.g. Bauer, 1983). It is impossible to know today which Covid-19 words will become established and which will cease to be used.

Many new Covid-19 words are clippings and blends, such as *corona* (*coronavirus*), *locktail* (*lockdown+cocktail*) and *covidivorce* (*covid+divorce*) (Roig–Marín, 2020). Clipped words do not necessarily change meaning, instead, the new word-form adds familiarity to the subject and creates group belonging (Jamet, 2009; McAndrew, 1992; Simpson, 2008; Wierzbicka, 1986). Blends, on the other hand, often fill a gap in the vocabulary and obtains its own meaning, which is not always understood outside of its context (Bauer, 1983; Yule, 2010). Some word-formation processes are more productive than others; blending and compounding are regarded as highly productive, while clipping and borrowing are less productive (Bauer, 1983; Plag, 2003). There are a number of different word-formation processes that can be investigated in regards to Covid-19 vocabulary. We can also investigate for example, the frequency of usage of a word, and in what context it is used, thereby learn more about the social process of word-formation.

To analyse the context in which a word is used, we can use semantic categories. Sorting one or several words into groups can further an understanding of a context. Wierzbicka (1986) classifies diminutives into two groups based on how important a certain subject is to the speaker. In short, these groups are categorized as: objects or actions being downgraded in importance and talking of mutually understood topics (explained further in Section 2.3). These

categories are similar to McAndrew's (1992) *lovable* and *unlovable* diminutives. Lovables represent something positive and familiar, while Unlovables represent something negative, i.e., contempt, carelessness, excess etc. Such categories can be useful in a semantic analysis of Covid-19 words.

Because of the great influx of new words in a rather short time frame, the frequency of usage and semantic meaning of these pandemic words is relatively unresearched. Using the Coronavirus corpus, a large collection of Covid-19 related articles sourced from newspapers and magazine from English speaking countries, the focus of the present study is the specific word element *iso* (short for *self-isolation*) which occurs in Covid-19 related texts. It is not to be confused by other words or abbreviations where *iso* is used, such as *isogloss* (the geographic boundary of a certain linguistic feature), a prefix in chemistry meaning *combining form*, *ISO* as a reference to the sensitivity of a camera's sensors, or as an abbreviation for *International Standard Organisation* or *Imperial Service Order*. Because of its versatility in producing new word-forms during the Covid-19 pandemic¹, *iso* was dubbed *Word of the Year 2020* by the Australian National Dictionary Centre². Here, *iso* is a morpheme which can occur on its own (1) or as part of a larger word in a compound (2) or a blend (3):

(1) *Many suffered through **iso**; some flourished.* (CORONA:20-12-31 AU, thecourier.com.au)³

(2) *We got an **iso puppy*** (CORONA:20-10-10 AU, www.afr.com)

(3) *Ben Affleck and Ana de Armas, are still in the honeymoon phase of **their isolationship**.* (CORONA:20-07-31 US, www.vulture.com)

Because of the word element's versatility, the semantic meaning might be different depending on the context in which it is used. This study aims to investigate how *iso* is used in newspapers and magazines, with a special interest on word frequencies and semantic categorization.

This paper is organised as follows. Section 2, provides a detailed background of the topic of Covid-19 vocabulary together with previous research on word-formation processes and theoretical background of semantic categories. Section 3 introduces aims, material and methodology, followed by Section 4 which presents and discusses the results of the present study. Finally, Section 5 provides a summary and conclusions of the present study.

¹ <https://www.abc.net.au/news/2020-11-17/iso-is-the-australian-word-of-the-year-dictionary/12890260>

² <https://slll.cass.anu.edu.au/centres/andc/news/2020-word-year>

³ Examples from the Coronavirus Corpus (<https://www.english-corpora.org/corona/>). The parenthesis refers to text code provided by the Coronavirus Corpus, the date the token was published online, a country code and the website of origin or name of newspaper/magazine.

Country codes: AU – Australia, GB – Great Britain, NZ – New Zealand, PH – the Philippines, CA - Canada)

2. Background

The following section consists of three parts. Section 2.1. presents major word-formation processes discussed in the literature. The second half of this section is divided into three subsections examining specific word-formation processes: compounding in Section 2.1.1., clipping in Section 2.1.2 and blending in Section 2.1.3. After that, Section 2.2. examines Covid-19 vocabulary through recent research. And finally, Section 2.3 discusses how word-formation relates to semantic categories.

2.1. Main Word-Formation Processes

Plag (2003) defines new word-formation as “the study of the ways in which new complex words are built on the basis of other words or morphemes” (2003:13). As will be discussed in detail in the following sections, there are a number of word-formation processes. Figure 1 illustrates where word-formation processes are placed within morphology. In processes such as blending and compounding, new words are formed by either affixation (*isolationship*) or by combining two or more roots (*isobar*). A root is a unit of meaning which cannot be analysed into further morphemes, i.e., iso and bar.

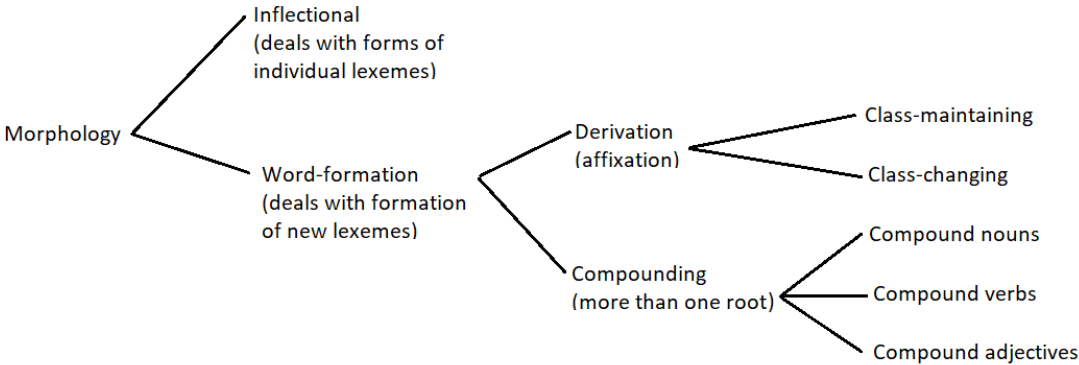


Figure 1 - Subdivisions of morphology (Bauer, 1983:34)

However, the lines between the sub-divisions are not always clear. The divide between derivation and compounding is particularly unclear due to the diachronic change of an element from lexeme to suffix or suffix to lexeme (Bauer, 1983). *Iso* is an example of an element which change from a lexeme (in clipping and compounding) to a prefix (blending) depending on the word-formation process.

Due to the regularity of the different word-formation processes, the English language can be quite productive in forming neologisms (Plag, 2003; Yule, 2010). The simplest word-formation process is borrowing (Yule, 2010); when a word is adopted from another language, such as *dope* (Dutch) or *yoghurt* (Turkish). A subclass of borrowing is loan-translation, here a word or expression is borrowed from another language and then translated. The Italian word *grattacielo* (meaning scrape-sky) is a loan-translation from the English word *skyscraper*, which in turn is a compound.

Compounding and blending are seen as highly productive word-formation processes (e.g. Bauer, 1983; Plag, 2003; Yule, 2010). A compound consists of two or more words joined together to create one single form. For example, the words *sky* and *scrape* form *skyscraper* (the derivational morpheme *-er* forms it into a noun). Blending is another process where two words are joined. Here, two words are reduced so only the beginning or end of each word is used, for example *breakfast* and *lunch* creating the word *brunch*. The process of reduction is also present in clipping, occurring in multisyllabic words, such as *advertisement* > *ad* or *influenza* > *flu*. This is also common in English names, such as *Tom* and *Sue*.

In addition to shortening and combining words, there is the process of conversion, the process of changing word class (e.g. Plag, 2003). A conversion can occur in many ways: noun to verb (*a bottle* > *to bottle*), verb to adjective (*to empty* > *empty*), compound nouns to adjectives (*the well-fed* > *well-fed*) etc. A not so common process is coinage, which means that a new term is invented (e.g. Yule, 2010). It derives from trade names for commercial products such as *google* and *xerox*.

The most common process in the English language is derivation. Affixes are used in order to either change the category of a stem, or to add meaning. A prefix placed in front of a word, *unhappy*, changes the meaning of the stem. A suffix placed at the end of a word, *careless*, changes the category.

2.1.1. Compounding

Compounding is a very versatile and common process in the English language. Two separate words are joined to produce one single form, and thereby creating a new meaning (e.g. Bauer, 1983:234). However, a compound can consist of more than two words, as in *university student*

thesis or *university student committee member* (Plag, 2003:133). For simplicity, this section will focus on compounds made of two words.

Most compounds in English have a structure called *modifier-head*, meaning the first word in a compound modifies the second, the head (Plag, 2003:146). A modifier can be a root, word or phrase, while the head is either a root or a word (Bauer, 1983; Plag, 2003). The head, often occurring on the right-hand side of a compound, is regarded as the most important linguistic unit in the compound. Semantically, this means that the entity which denotes the compound is a subset of the entity which denotes the head (Plag, 2003). Looking at the compound *knee-deep*, *knee* tells us how deep the water is and therefore modifies the head *deep*. The head decides what syntactic and semantic form the compound carries. Compounds are classified into three groups: nominal compounds, (*bookcase*), adjectival compounds (*good-looking*), and verbal compounds (*proof-read*). So, if the head is an adjective, the compound is an adjective, and so on. The same applies if the head is a count noun (*soda can*). Thus, if the compound is pluralized the head takes the final *-s* (*soda cans*). This structure is schematized in the following formula (Plag, 2003:137):

- a. $[XY]_{\gamma}$
- b. $X = \{\text{root, word, phrase}\}$
 $Y = \{\text{root, word}\}$
 $\gamma = \text{grammatical properties inherited from } Y$

Figure 2 – Binary template for compounds (Plag, 2003:137)

A way to interpret a compound is to examine the semantics of a head. Nominal compounds such as *bookcase* and *soda can* are endocentric compounds (Plag, 2003:145), meaning they are noun-noun compounds which denote a subclass of the referent of the head. Hence, a *bookcase* is a kind of case and a *soda can* is a kind of can. In other words, the semantic head is inside the compound. Conversely, exocentric compounds are nominal compounds which refer to people, such as *lowlife* and *hothead*. In an exocentric compound the semantic head is outside the compound. Because of the right-head rule in compounding described above, exocentric compounds are nouns and not adjectives. Another term for these types of compounds is possessive compounds because “they denote an entity that is characterized (sometimes metaphorically) by the property expressed by the compound” (Plag, 2003:146). Hence, a

hothead is someone who possesses a hot head and a *lowlife* is someone who possesses a low life.

2.1.2 Clipping

Clipping is the process of shortening a multisyllabic word to a mono- or disyllabic word (e.g. Bauer, 1983:233; Yule, 2010:56). Few might know that *bra* is short for *brassiere*, or that the meaning of *fax* is *facsimile*. (Yule, 2010). While the process of clipping can sometimes be unpredictable, it is routinely the end of a multisyllabic word that is sacrificed (Bauer, 1983:233). Thus, the process is based on the first part of the word, alternatively on the stressed syllable, creating *ad* < *advertisement* and *iso* < *isolation* (Plag, 2003:121). It can also be used in compounds, as in *op art* < *optical art*. The process usually starts in casual speech as a way to express knowledge with a certain topic (e.g. Plag, 2003:121; Yule, 2010:56). Although not directly stated in the literature, the overall pattern indicates that the process of clipping mainly applies to nouns.

2.1.3 Blending

While compounds and clippings are considered predictable (Yule, 2010:55), blends can be unpredictable (c.f. Bauer, 1983:234). Blending is similar to compounding in that two forms are united to create one new single form. However, it is usually accomplished by joining the beginning of one word with the ending of another (e.g. Bauer, 1983; Plag, 2003; Yule, 2010), as in *smoke* and *fog* creating *smog*. Bauer (1983) points out that typical blends are those where “the etymological root of the word is only clear when specifically explained” (1983:234). Both base words in a blend must be semantically related and of the same syntactic category, usually nouns. In the case of *smog*, it is both *smoke* and *fog*. However, some blends are rather existing compounds shortened to form a new word (c.f. Plag, 2003:122), such as *motel* (*motor* + *hotel*). The first element modifies the second element. Hence, a *motel* is a type of *hotel*.

Roig-Marín (2020:1) mentions the process of loanblending which is when a blend is borrowed and later translated. For example, *covidivorce* (*covid* + *divorce*) translated into the Spanish blend *covidivorcio*.

In order to analyse language from a perspective of word-formation, there are several models of semantic categories. In Section 2.3, two analytical frameworks developed by Wierzbicka (1986) and McAndrew (1992) are discussed.

2.2 Covid-19 Vocabulary

The word element *iso* and other Covid-19 related vocabulary have been amply reported on in the media (e.g. Dunham, 2020; Lawson, 2020; Sussex, 2020). Sussex⁴ (2020) argues that: “...diminutives [related to Covid-19] serve an important purpose. They de-demonise threatening words. Without reducing the level of the words’ threat, the diminutives imply: this is something we can get our minds around and manage” (paragraph 8). This view is supported by Thorne⁵ (2020), stating: “it can help the public make sense of the unfolding crisis, but it may also increase levels of stress and confusion if people can't keep up” (paragraph 2). Together, they confirm the general opinions that new word-formation semantically communicate familiarity, something which will be further discussed in Section 2.3.

One of few academic publications on Covid-19 vocabulary is Roig-Marín’s (2020) brief survey on coroneologism, a term for new words arising during the Covid-19 pandemic. The survey specifically discusses news’ and social media’s role in creating and spreading new vocabulary. Apart from mentioning some blends that have formed, she also points out how many new pandemic words have been adopted by other countries in Europe. For example, *covidiot* (a person who ignores public health advice) and *covidivoces* (divorce during quarantine) in French and Spanish newspapers. These words are sometimes translated into so called loanblends (Roig–Marín, 2020), thus creating *covidivorcio* and *cividiota* in Spanish. Twitter users and journalists are particularly skilful at coining words, further noting that many of them come “from the laity rather than from medical professional” (Roig–Marín, 2020:1). Although her short survey lacks any clear explanation to why these words have been created, she successfully demonstrates the widespread phenomena of new word-formation in the last year.

The editors of *English Today* (‘Editorial’, 2020), commented on the word *iso*, noting the popular practice of the hashtag *#iso* across several social media platforms and the creative

⁴ <http://theconversation.com/rona-iso-quazza-words-of-the-year-speak-to-our-australian-take-on-covid-150949>

⁵ <https://www.kcl.ac.uk/news/coronaspeak-the-language-of-covid-19-goes-viral>

freedom the word element provides. They predict this new coroneologism is here to stay in the English language, at least for some time. Conversely, Asif et al. (2020) and Al-Salman et al. (2021) point out that, although many new words have appeared in 2020, those used in the outbreak of the pandemic were not new but relatively uncommon. However, Asif et al. (2020) observe that most neologisms used on social media during the pandemic are nouns, verbs and adjectives, noting that “neologisms present colorful portrayals of various societies and cultures, but they don’t exist in our[sic] own” (2020:14). Furthermore, the study finds a resistance towards developing target language neologisms, pointing out that Covid-19 vocabulary has had wide diversity between countries and cultures.

As a continuation on the research of Asif et al. (2020), Akut (2020) analysed the morphological structures of Covid-19 vocabulary, with special focus on textual analysis, in order to determine morphological processes. The research demonstrates that compounding, blending and affixation are frequently used morphological processes, results which are also present in a research by Bolotina (2020). Al-Salman et al. (2021) notes that dual word-formation processes in the forms of compounding and affixation (*lockdowners*), blending and affixation (*quaranteams*), and clipping and compounding (*ronadobbing*) exist in Covid-19 vocabulary. Moreover, a majority of the neologisms are content words, specifically nouns and verbs (Akut, 2020). Nouns such as *Covid-19* and *coronials* are common creations, and verbs such as *covexit* and *zombombing* are frequently used. Akut (2020) suggests that these new terms appeared so that we could put a name on a specific thing or experience, or to describe activities we do during the pandemic. She mentions that “any new situation or phenomenon requires specific terms to refer to the actions or experiences of the people” (Akut, 2020:4). Thus, reflecting the present state of social situations established by the Covid-19 pandemic. An opinion reflecting the statement previously mentioned by Sussex (2020).

Focusing on synonyms for *Covid-19* on the social media platform Twitter, Lillo (2020) found that a majority of synonyms were used in humorously irreverent or disparaging ways; however, there were also a substantial amount of examples which vilified elderly as ideal victims of the disease and Chinese people as evil perpetrators. In either way, Lillo found the boundaries to be fuzzy and sometimes overlapping. It is, therefore, not possible to generalise his findings. Some synonyms in the study were formed by the process of clipping (e.g., *coviddy* and *rona*), while a few examples were blends (e.g., *wumonia* and *wuflenza*). Interestingly, by analysing the data using semantic categories, the study was able to discern some communicative

meanings for the synonyms. For example, by referring to the coronavirus as *the big C*, it becomes less scary and more familiar, while *Chinese bug* is used as a rebuke towards Chinese people. While some studies have examined coronelogoism in general, only Lillo's (2020) research is found to survey one specific Covid-19 word in media.

2.3 Word-Formation and Semantic Categories

This section discusses word-formation processes from a semantic point of view. There is a consensus among linguistic researchers that neologisms carry underlining semantic meaning (e.g. Plag, 2003; Roig-Marín, 2020; Wierzbicka, 1986). The present study analyses the material in terms of semantic categories using Wierzbicka's (1986) model for semantic analysis.

A semantic analysis can be conducted by examining 'semantic units'. A semantic unit is either a morpheme such as the final *-ie* in *footie*, or a word, phrase or clause (Lehrer, 1974). Wierzbicka's (1986) analytical framework divides derivatives into two categories depending on what message they communicate. The categories are as follows: i) representing objects or actions being downgraded in importance and ii) representing words used when talking of mutually understood topics. Wierzbicka's (1986) model is based on two semantic units, in particular the *-ie* and *-o* derivatives, thus its main focus is on hypocoristics, a type of clipping common in Australian English.

Wierzbicka's (1986) first category, labelled 'depricatives', is used to downgrade the importance of a topic or an action. This category of words, which frequently carry an *-ie* ending, is differentiated from traditional derivatives with the same morphological ending, e.g. baby-talk. In Australian English, a *mozzie* (mosquito) is not the same as a *fishie* (fish). The former is a depricative, an abbreviation + suffix, and is used among adults. The latter is simply baby-talk. To better understand the differences between depricatives and diminutives there are a set of objectives for each category. The objectives for the category of depricatives are:

-ie (e.g., *mozzie*); when objects or actions are downgraded in importance:

I don't think of it as of a big thing
I assume you and I think of such things in the same way
talking about it to you I feel in a good mood

Figure 3 – The first category (and its objectives) of the analytical framework of diminutives by Wierzbicka (1986:360).

Conversely, the objectives for diminutives such as baby-talk (e.g., *fishie*), which is not commonly used in conversations between adults, are: “I think of it as of something small, talking about it to you I feel good feelings (towards you) of the kind one feels towards small children” (Wierzbicka, 1986:360). Therefore, according to Wierzbicka, there is an important distinction between common diminutives and what she calls deprecatives. Deprecatives are casually used by adults in conversation with other adults. When using a deprecative, the speaker communicates endearment and familiarity with the topic.

Wierzbicka (1986) defines the second category as ‘household words’. Here, derivatives commonly carry the morphological *-o* ending, such as *lesbo* (*lesbian*) and *spazzo* (*idiot < spastic*). This category is used for talking of mutually understood topics, thus, communicating some kind of familiarity with the word or expression. It conveys toughness, informality, good humour, and anti-intellectualism. The objectives for this category are:

-o (e.g., *lesbo*); when talking of mutually understood topics

I don't think of it as of something special

I am used to it

I assume that you think of it in the same way

talking about it I don't want to use long words (as people who think of it as something special do)

Figure 4 – The second category (and its objectives) of the analytical framework of diminutives by Wierzbicka (1986:362).

This means that words such as *spazzo* and *lesbo* are not used as a way to minimize them (cf. *mozzie* in Figure 3), but rather to express familiarity with the topic. The shortening of words is not due to laziness, but is rather a way to communicate informality and belonging to a certain group. Wierzbicka (1986:368) concludes that using semantic metalanguage, such as the model presented above, is a viable analytical tool in understanding culture and language. According to her, sharper analytical tools are vital for a ‘safer’ semantic analysis.

McAndrew (1992) has developed a similar set of categories. His semantic categories are labelled ‘lovables’ (diminutives) and ‘unlovables’ (pejoratives). In this categorisation, friendly and familiar diminutives carry an *-ie* ending, while pejoratives carry an *-o* ending, denoting “clumsiness, roughness, ugliness, contempt, laziness, carelessness and excess” (McAndrew, 1992:174). Lovables are defined similarly to Wierzbicka’s (1986) first category (Figure 3). However, the unlovables are pejoratives according to McAndrew (1992), thus posing the two categories against each other. Here the term *lesbo* is used in a derogative way

towards lesbians, pointing out that it can be regarded as swearing, i.e., *bloody lesbian*. Additionally, he believes that the process of shortening a word is due to laziness, rather than a sense of group belonging.

Semantic categories such as Wierzbicka's (1986) and McAndrew's (1992) can be integral in further understanding the context in which a new word or expression is used.

3. Aims, Material and Method

The following three sections present the aims, material and methods used in this study. Section 3.1 outlines the aims, Section 3.2 describes the material used in the study, and Section 3.3 states the methods as well as describes the collection and analysis of material.

3.1 Aims

Words such as *isobar*, *iso baking* and *isolationship* (all describing activities or situations experienced during self-isolation) have been used on social media, in newspapers and magazines. The aim of the present study is to further any understanding of this new word element by conducting a case study using these research questions:

- To what frequency is the word element *iso* used in blending, compounding and clipping?
- What part of speech is *iso*?
- In what text sources is *iso* present?
- What semantic categories does *iso* fall into?

3.2 Material

Material for the present study was collected from the newly established Coronavirus corpus (Davies, 2019). As a subcategory of the NOW (News on the Web) corpus, it is updated daily and continuously collects articles related to Covid-19 and the pandemic using a set of target words. Examples of newspapers and magazines from the corpus are Sydney Morning Herald, The Guardian, Forbes, Mamamia, Teen Vogue and TMZ. The articles are sourced on the internet from 20 English-speaking countries and the corpus grows by about 60 million words per month. The last day of retrieving data for this study was March 31, 2021 and at that point in time the corpus had approximately 940 million words.

Users of the corpus are able to search for frequencies of words and phrases such as *quarantine* and *flatten the curve*, look at collocates to examine what is being said about a certain topic and compare between different time periods. Users can also create own lists of occurrences to be analysed manually. This corpus is “designed to be the definitive record of the social, cultural, and economic impact of the coronavirus (COVID-19) in 2020 and beyond” (Davies, 2019). It can thus be considered a corpus which represents what people are saying in online newspapers and magazines regarding Covid-19.

3.3 Methods

This is a study which uses a mixed method of quantitative and qualitative procedures. It is quantitative because data was collected using the Coronavirus Corpus and later analysed by frequency. The qualitative method was used when analysing parts of speech and semantic categories. Section 3.3.1 outlines the collection of material. Section 3.3.2 describes analytical methods.

3.3.1 Collecting the Material

The material was collected in a stepwise manner. Step one was to search the corpus for the word *iso*. This generated a concordance list of approximately 1500 occurrences. Many of the occurrences in the list showed to be either the abbreviation for *International Organization for Standardization*, or *ISO* in the context of photography. These occurrences were irrelevant for the present study and had to be excluded. Step two was therefore a semi-automated search in the corpus where I manually collected occurrences of the word element *iso* meaning *self-isolation*. The interface of the corpus allowed me to use search tags for part of speech so I searched for *iso* followed by the word class tags NOUN, ADJECTIVE and VERB, as well as *iso* preceded by the word class tags NOUN, ADJECTIVE, VERB and PREPOSITION. When relevant occurrences were identified, they were manually categorized into groups of word-formation processes: compounding and clipping. Step three was to use the search term *iso**. This generated a concordance list of approximately 800 different words in which *iso* was the initial word particle. The list included words such as *ISO15189* (a type of standard) *isopropyl* (a type of alcohol) and *isomer* (a type of molecules) which were not relevant and therefore excluded in the manual collection. When relevant occurrences were identified, they were categorized into groups of word-formation processes: compounds and blends. At the

completion of the manual search, a total of 318 tokens and 124 types of words had been identified.

Every effort possible has been made to assure that the final collection of material includes every occurrence of *iso* meaning *self-isolation* present in the Coronavirus corpus. However, due to the semi-automated searches conducted, some occurrences might have been missed.

3.3.2 Analysing the Material

In order to successfully analyse frequencies, and to answer the research questions posed in the introduction, all occurrences were itemized by text source and part of speech.

Each occurrence in the category of compounds was manually itemized by text source: newspaper and magazine. Some occurrences in the corpus appeared on websites⁶ which are not newspapers or magazines; however, these websites have a formal context and was therefore categorized as newspaper. Next, the occurrences were divided by part of speech. Finally, each compound pair was counted and divided into semantic groups. Each occurrence in the category of clippings was manually itemized by text source: newspaper and magazine. Next, the occurrences were divided by parts of speech. Finally, the occurrences were divided into semantic groups. Each occurrence in the category of blends was itemized by text source: newspaper and magazine. Next, the occurrences were divided by parts of speech. Finally, the occurrences were divided into semantic groups.

The semantic analysis was conducted using Wierzbicka's (1986) analytical framework. For the process of compounding, each compound was manually itemized, based on the head of the compound, into one of four different semantic groups inspired by Yule (2010). Each group was then analysed to determine if it belonged to either semantic category developed by Wierzbicka (1986). For the process of clipping and blending, each individual token was analysed in regards to the analytical framework.

⁶ E.g. www.linkedin.com and www.pursuit.unimelb.edu.au

4. Results and Discussion

The results are presented and discussed in three sections. Section 4.1 discusses the research questions regarding frequency, text source and part of speech. Section 4.2 examines the possibility of categorizing *iso* using Wierzbicka's (1986) semantic categories by providing a detailed examination of compounds, clippings and blends.

4.1 Frequency, Text Source and Part of Speech

In a corpus compiled of approximately 940 million words at the time of this study, March 2021, there are 318 tokens of the word element *iso*, meaning isolation, in the context of Covid-19. A list of types and frequencies are provided in the appendix. Table 1 provides an overview of the number of tokens of *iso* in the Coronavirus Corpus.

To what frequency is the word element iso used in blending, compounding and clipping?

It is apparent from Table 1 that compounding, for example *iso-party*, is the dominating word-formation process. A total of 182 tokens (119 types) appeared in the corpus. It is followed by 120 tokens of clipping, usually describing living in self-isolation, e.g., *in iso* (meaning *in self-isolation*). Blending, such as *isoscriptions* (*isolation+subscriptions*), is represented by 16 tokens (4 types). The most surprising aspect of the data is in the low number of blends compared to other word-formation processes since previous research has shown blending to be a common word-formation process during the Covid-19 pandemic (c.f. Akut, 2020; Bolotina, 2020; Lillo, 2020). Hence, there were some expectations of blending being a prominent aspect in the collected data. However, if we look at Table 1, the raw data indicates stronger preferences in using the word element *iso* in processes of compounding and clipping.

In what text sources is iso present?

Table 1 also provides a breakdown of *iso* according to text source as provided by the Coronavirus Corpus. What is interesting here is the equal division between magazines and newspapers. Looking at the relative frequencies, compounding represents 57% of the occurrences in newspapers and magazines, followed by clipping with 38%. Blending represents 5% in either category. However, the way the word element is used within the two text sources

differ somewhat. For example, many clippings used in newspapers are from reporting articles discussing neologisms during the pandemic. A typical example is:

(4) ...*iso*, short for isolation, is being used as the prefix with everything. (CORONA:20-07-15 AU, adnews.com.au)

This can be explained by the fact that *iso* was dubbed *Word of the Year 2020* in Australia and therefore garnered a substantial amount of attention in the Australian news. Conversely, a majority of clippings in magazines are from editorial articles using the clipped version of isolation, as in this example:

(5) *So anyway, how's your iso going?* (CORONA:20-04-10 AU, pedestrian.tv)

Table 1: Raw numbers and relative frequencies of *iso* according to word-formation processes in different text sources.

Word-formation process	Newspaper		Magazine		All sources	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Compound	109	57	73	57	182	57
Clipping	71	38	49	38	120	38
Blend	10	5	6	5	16	5
Total	190	100	128	100	318	100

Note. Sourced from the Coronavirus Corpus, <https://www.english-corpora.org/corona/>

What part of speech is iso?

Analysing *iso* in terms of part of speech, it is evident that almost all occurrences are nouns independent of word-formation process. In Table 2, occurrences of *iso* are divided by word-formation and word class. Looking at compounding first, *iso* is the modifier to the head. Using Plag's (2003) template presented in Section 2.1.1, *iso* is a root and thus takes the place of [X]. Accordingly, *iso* communicates that something occurs in self-isolation. Table 2 indicates that the most common type is compound nouns (noun+noun), as in *iso cut*, and *iso-party*. Also present in the data are some compound adjectives (noun+adjective), as in *iso-crafting* and *iso-friendly*, and a few compound verbs (noun+verb) such as *iso-dancing*, *isodating* and *isolearn*. A small number of compounds consisted of more than two words, such as *iso-rescue dog*, *iso-drinking behaviours* and *iso-cooking show*, nevertheless, *iso* functions as a modifier also in these compounds.

Table 2: Raw numbers of iso, divided by word-formation and word class.

Part of speech	Compound	Clipping	Blend
Noun Noun	154		
Noun Adjective	18		
Noun Adjective Noun	6		
Noun Verb	4		
Noun		119	16
Adjective		1	
Total	182	120	16

Note. Sourced from the Coronavirus Corpus, <https://www.english-corpora.org/corona/>

Let us now look at the process of clipping. As with compounding, *iso* functions as a noun in a majority of clippings that occurred in the data. This concurs with the observation made in the literature, that the process of clipping is more commonly used on nouns. The majority of tokens were utilized in the context of *being in iso* or describing time *during iso*. The single example of clipping used on an adjective is “*he felt so iso*” which is a clipping of *self-isolated* and not *self-isolation*. Turning to the process of blending, the data confirms the theory discussed in Section 2.1.3. about blends mostly being made up by, and functioning as, nouns. The table demonstrates that all occurrences of blends can be classified as nouns, such as in *isolationship* (*isolation+relationship*).

4.2 Semantic Analysis of Iso Word-Forms

This section deals with the three word-formation processes in separate sections. Section 4.2.1 examines the semantic categorization of compounding. Section 4.2.2 explores the semantic analysis of clipping. Section 4.2.3 provides a brief semantic analysis of blending. The analyses of each word-formation process is conducted in relation to Wierzbicka’s (1986) two categories as presented in Section 2.3: i) objects or actions are downgraded in importance (Figure 3) and ii) talking of mutually understood topics (Figure 4).

4.2.1 Compounding

During the quantitative analysis of compounding, it was apparent that every compound present in the data had *iso* as the modifier to the head. After examining the heads, four larger semantic

groups, inspired by Yule (2010:133), were identified: action, experiencer/agent, object, and location. Each group contains smaller subgroups:

Action (activities performed by one or several persons during self-isolation)

Social interactions
Activity during self-isolation
Appearance
Health and fitness

Experiencer/Agent (the writer's experience of living in self-isolation, including mood)

Mood
Family and/or life in general
Describing time

Object (e.g. definition of things and people)

Medical
Definition of an object
Idiom
Person

Location (definition of places)

A place

The lines between the groups are at times fuzzy and individual compounds in one subgroup might belong to two or more groups. There is also the possibility that more groups may exist. However, this categorization aided the semantic analysis of individual compounds. I will now present an analysis of each semantic group.

Action

In this group, *iso* is used to talk about social interactions, activities, appearances, and health and fitness. The word element is used to place the topic in the context of self-isolation. When using *iso*, the most popular topic is talking about social interactions. Most of the occurrences are of a similar type. A typical example is:

(6) ...gather your friends online and throw an *iso-party*. (CORONA:20-07-28 AU, mumbrella.com.au)

To compensate for the lack of in-person social interactions, parties via the video conferencing program Zoom are organized. *Iso-party* can be translated to 'a party while in isolation'. *Iso* places it in a specific context and can add familiarity to the topic. This conclusion is based on

Wierzbicka's analytical framework which states in Figure 4 that a speaker does not want to use the long word if they consider a topic to be familiar.

Other social interactions include talks of friends and dating, for example:

(7) *...need something else to do while having arvo drinks with your **iso buddies**.*

(CORONA:20-04-16 AU, pedestrian.tv)

(8) *I found I wasn't alone in my struggle with **iso-dating**.* (CORONA:20-07-01 CA, VICE)

An *iso buddy* can be both person (8) and pet, both describe a specific friend or companion you spend time with during self-isolation. As example (8) indicate, increased restrictions around in-person social interactions also affect those looking for a partner. A translation of *iso-dating* can be 'dating while in isolation'.

Another popular topic in this semantic group is activities during self-isolation. Most common activities seem to be *iso baking* and *iso cooking*. However, apart from being food oriented while sitting at home, people are also *iso-drinking* and *iso-dancing*. This might be related to the topic of health and fitness which focuses on *iso kilos*, *iso diets* and *iso workouts* referring to extra weight gain due to lack of exercise during self-isolation. It is also popular to use *iso* when describing appearances:

(9) *why not talk about a bad self-inflicted haircut as an **iso cut*** (CORONA:20-12-15 AU, westernadvocate.com.au)

(10) *...at least for this pandemic, I was not going to win the **isobeard** competition.*

(CORONA:20-06-10 AU, watoday.com.au)

The way example (9) is constructed, it suggests a new word for a now common condition. This indicates that *iso* is used according to Wierzbicka's (1986) second category as presented in Figure 4. Example (10) refers to a group of men growing beards while in isolation. The use of *competition* in relation to *isobeard* shows how typical an *isobeard* is since you usually cannot compete unless there are opponents. These examples of *iso* compounds can be categorized as 'household words', as in Figure 4, which according to Wierzbicka (1986) denotes topics of mutual understanding.

By using the word element *iso* in these contexts, the writer signals that they do not see self-isolation as something special. In other words, they are used to the situation. It appears that, compounds referring to actions follows Wierzbicka's (1986) second semantic category (Figure 4) and are primarily used when talking of mutually understood topics. Thus, the writer is

communicating that such activities and conditions are common knowledge. Furthermore, when the writer is using the abbreviated form of *isolation*, they assume the reader understands the context.

Experience/Agent

In the group of Experiencer/Agent, compounds are mainly used for expressing feelings of life in self-isolation, especially on topics such as family, life and mood. The most frequently used compounds in any subgroup are *iso life* and *iso-lives*. A typical example is:

(11) *Only a small handful of people would truly say they're nailing iso life.*

(CORONA:20-04-30 AU, mamamia.com.au)

This type of compound often focuses on time. It can focus on the unknown consequences of an isolated lifestyle. It can also be used to describe the process of life in self-isolation (11). There are occurrences which discuss how successful isolated life is, or struggles that might exist.

Another subgroup within Experience/Agent is Mood. It can be difficult living in self-isolation, so, majority of mood words are negative. An example is:

(12) *a bottle a day keeps the iso boredom away* (CORONA:20-04-30 AU, pursuit.unimelb.edu.au)

A possible explanation for using *iso boredom* can be laziness. The writer prefers that over saying *boredom caused by living in self-isolation*. Another explanation can be that the writer is so used to the topic, and assumes others are too, that there is no need for explanation. Hence, the compound communicates mutually understood topics between writer and reader.

Similar to the group of Action, compounds in this semantic group uses *iso* to put a feeling or experience within the context of self-isolation. The compounding significantly reduces the number of words needed to express a specific situation or feeling. One reason the writer is able to reduce the number of words is because both speaker and reader is used to the topic. Thus, a conclusion can be made that compounds belonging to this group should be categorized into Wierzbicka's (1986) second category as presented in Figure 4.

Object

This semantic group is a small but diverse collection of compounds. It may include descriptions of items (13) and people (14), used within a medical context (15), and in idioms (16):

- (13) *Is your iso playlist in dire need of refreshment?* (CORONA:20-04-18 NZ, thespinoff.co.nz)
- (14) *the peer policing of iso-shamers* (CORONA:20-04-27 AU, qt.com.au)
- (15) *...step-down iso facility for COVID-19 cases* (CORONA:20-05-18 PH, tiebreakertimes.com.ph)
- (16) *the light at the end of the iso tunnel* (CORONA:20-09-02 AU, mumbrella.com.au)

This group demonstrates the great variety of usage of *iso*. Most compounds analysed in the present study are endocentric; hence, the semantic meaning is inside the compounds, for example (13) which is a playlist created during self-isolation. However, compounds describing people are exocentric compounds. Thus, *iso-shamers* (14) is a noun, describing people who shame others for not isolating themselves. Finally, only four types of compounds were identified within a medical context: *iso facility*, *iso wipes*, *isopod* and *iso unit*. The most common type is *iso facility/iso facilities* (15). This could indicate that *iso* is used more social communication rather than medical. Furthermore, *iso facility* is an example of a compound which belongs to more than one semantic group, namely Location. As a final example indicating the great versatility of *iso* is the idiom used in (16).

Examples from this group again demonstrate how *iso* is used to put things in the context of self-isolation. An argument can be made saying compounds describing objects are usually not being downgraded in importance, rather, they communicate mutually understood topics and therefore belong to Wierzbicka's (1986) second category as presented in Figure 4. Another requirement for this category is a preference for using shortened words. For example, *iso-shamers* (14) reduces word numbers significantly, and communicates context faster, than saying 'peer policing by people who shames others for not isolating themselves'.

Location

This is the smallest of the four groups, only including two types: *isobar* and *isodesk*. Although, these words can be categorized as objects, the context provided indicate they are generally not referred to as such. Instead, they are places in which we spend time during self-isolation. An example sentence from the data showing both *isodesk* and *isobar* is:

- (17) *The isodesk (or is that the isobar) is where many of us are currently spending our days.* (CORONA:20-05-13 AU, adnews.com.au)

An *isodesk* is a makeshift workplace created for working from home, which makes it easy to understand what an *isobar* is; a homemade bar for that *iso-party* you might organise later. As with words from other groups, these compounds are used for expressing mutually understood topics.

An additional compound not yet discussed which can be considered for this group is *iso-bubble*, placed in Action under the subgroup Social interactions. However, it was deemed to carry more social connotations than being a definition of a specific location.

To summarise, *iso* as the modifier in a compound places the topic within a context of self-isolation. The sample sentences from the data indicate that the modifier creates comradery and an understanding that everyone is in a similar situation. Furthermore, the semantic analysis imply that a majority of compounds are used to communicate mutually understood topics. Three of the four objectives in Wierzbicka's (1986) second category are considered to be met: that the writer is used to the topic, they assume others think of it in the same way and that talking about it they do not want to use the long word. However, that analysis can conclude that there is not enough context to discern if a person considers the topic unimportant. Therefore, no conclusion can be drawn whether this objective can be met. None the less, it is rather evident that *iso* is used to communicate that the writer is used to the subject. They often assume that others think of the subject the same way as they do and maybe most importantly, they probably do not want to use long words or phrases. As the examples above demonstrate, the words are treated as household words, rather than Unlovables as outlined by McAndrew (1992) framework.

4.2.2 Clipping

This next section analyses the possibility to categorise *iso* as clippings based on Wierzbicka's (1986) analytical framework. While compounds have more distinctive semantic groups with little overlapping, clippings are somewhat fuzzier. For the purpose of this semantic analysis, occurrences in which the term *iso* is reported on in newspapers have been disregarded (i.e., *And iso, short for isolation, is being used as the prefix with everything*). *Iso* is simply short for 'isolation' or 'self-isolation', thus, generally communicating semantic meanings surrounding life in isolation. The mood communicated is often frustration or discontent with the current living situation. Some typical examples are:

- (18) *Worn down by being stuck in iso* ... (CORONA:20-12-10 AU, watoday.com.au)

(19) *Serious **iso** was tough the first time...* (CORONA:20-06-29 AU, honey.nine.com.au)

(20) *I hated going into **iso**, and I'm gonna hate coming out of it.* (CORONA:20-04-29 AU, pedestrian.tv)

Iso can be preceded by adjectives such as *stuck* (18) and *bored*, and a verb such as *hate* (20), or followed by *tough* (19) and other expressions of difficulties. Because *iso* is shortened, the sample sentences indicate that *iso* is treated as a household word. The writer therefore shows that they are used to the subject and assumes others regard it in similar ways.

Apart from being associated with different moods, *iso* is frequently used when talking about activities performed while in isolation. For example:

(21) *One of my favourite things to do in iso is bake* (CORONA:20-10-13 AU, mamamia.com.au)

(22) *...you can kick off a Certificate IV in Youth Work while in iso.* (CORONA:20-05-07 AU pedestrian.tv)

As with compounding, popular activities to describe while using *iso* is baking (21), as well as cooking and appearances. The mood is usually positive in these contexts. Here, *iso* might communicate one of several things: familiarity with a situation, giving inspiration to others (22), or comradery by sharing experiences while in self-isolation (21). The examples indicate that the writer regards *iso* as a mutually understood topic, based on the fact that they clip the word. The conclusion is made following Wierzbicka's (1986) analytical framework as presented in Section 2.3.

Moving on, the mood surrounding the subject of health and fitness is generally negative. However, the process of clipping is again used to communicate familiarity with the subject. Typical examples are:

(23) *I think anyone with a fear of weight gain would find **iso** challenging...*

(CORONA:20-05-22 AU, mamamia.com.au)

(24) *The longer we're in **iso**, the more I have struggled with binge eating.*

(CORONA:20-05-22 AU, mamamia.com.au)

The use of subjects (*anyone* and *we're*) in (23) and (24) strengthens the notion of mutually understood topics. Moreover, the use of *would* in (23) can indicate that the writer assumes others regard the topic in a similar way.

To summarise, while examining the sample sentences above, a conclusion that a main reason for clipping *isolation* is to show familiarity with the topic at hand is probable. Discounting any occurrences reporting on the word-formation in newspapers, *iso* as a clipped word is more often used in informal contexts. This is in accordance with previous research regarding pandemic words from this particular word-formation process (Al-Salman et al., 2021; Lillo, 2020; Roig–Marín, 2020). By using the clipped version, it is likely the writer assumes others think of the topic the same way as they do. This can create comradery and a notion of a mutually understood topic. Additionally, the writer likely wants to avoid using the multisyllabic word due to laziness. Hence, the analysis indicate that *iso*, through the process of clipping, is regarded as a household word and therefore belong to the second category of Wierzbicka’s (1986) analytical framework as presented in Figure 4.

4.2.3 Blending

From the collected material, only four types (16 frequencies) were produced through the process of blending, found in in the appendix. The blend *isolationship* (*isolation+relationship*) is the type of blend which is made up by a compound and then shortened to form a new word. Thus, *isolationship* is a type of relationship (in this case, one started online while living in self-isolation). It can be used similarly to the compounds *iso date* and *iso-dating*. A typical example from the data is:

(25) *Now that you can have people over, those isolationships are set to become IRL relationships.* (CORONA:20-04-29 AU, pedestrian.tv)

When semantically analysing this blend from the perspective of Wierzbicka (1986), it can be concluded that the writer assumes others think of the topic in similar ways as they do. Furthermore, the adjective *those* can indicate that *isolationships* are common, hence pointing to a mutually understood topic between writer and reader. Additionally, assumptions can be made that the writer uses the blend as a way to save time from saying ‘relationships that you started during self-isolation’. Therefore, it is probable that this blend qualifies for the second category of the analytical framework by Wierzbicka (1986) as presented in Figure 4.

Isolaid is the name of an online music festival from 2020. This word is an example of a blend which has semantic units that can be difficult to understand, in fact, it might even be a compound. The first word derives from *isolation*, but the second word can be either *aid*, *laid* or

id. Because the textual context provided by the corpus is limited, a full analysis of this blend is proven difficult. If *Isolaid* is a shortened compound turned into a blend, the second word should be *id*. However, the full form of *id* is unknown. If instead it is a compound, the second word should be *aid* or *laid*. However, clipping *isolation* > *isol* (and then adding *aid* or *laid*) contends the general opinion that the stressed syllable in a word indicates where the word is clipped. Furthermore, a blend comprised of *iso+laid* seem to have little to do with music festivals and therefore irrelevant to the context. Due to the many uncertainties surrounding the word *Isolaid*, a semantic analysis is deemed impossible at this stage.

Finally, the blend *isoscriptions* (*isolation+subscription*) is the subject of increased subscriptions of streaming video services during lockdown. The word only appears twice in the corpus, and from the context provided is impossible to categorize it in either semantic category.

To summarise, blending is highly infrequent in the data albeit being a productive word-formation process for other Covid-19 related neologisms. One reason might be the context from which the corpus is collected. It can be assumed that blends utilizing *iso* might be more commonplace on social media platforms, such as Twitter. Due to the low number of types, the low individual frequency of each type and difficulties analysing the data, it is not possible to draw any general conclusions on a possible semantic categorization of blending using the word element *iso*.

5. Summary and Conclusions

The purpose of the present study was to determine frequency of usage of the word element *iso* in different word-formation processes. Additionally, the aim was to determine possible semantic categorisation of *iso*. Data extracted from the Coronavirus Corpus was counted and then semantically analysed using an analytical framework by Wierzbicka (1986). The analytical framework categorises words into two groups: i) objects or actions being downgraded in importance and ii) talking of mutually understood topics. Each word-formation process was individually analysed to determine whether it belonged in either category.

To summarise the results, we can conclude that within the context of Covid-19, *iso* communicates the meaning of self-isolation. Firstly, a quantitative analysis which counted the frequencies of the tokens indicated that compounding was the preferred word-formation process, followed by clipping and blending. Although blending is generally considered a productive word-formation process, the study shows it to be uncommon for the word element

iso. Additionally, the relative numbers reported in regards to the text sources show an even division between newspapers and magazines. Furthermore, the analysis on part of speech show that *iso* functions as a noun, apart from one instance in which it functions as an adjective, in the form of clipping. In compounds, *iso* modifies the head, placing the word within the context of self-isolation, most are endocentric.

Secondly, the semantic analysis revealed that *iso* is generally used in conversations of mutually understood topics, thus belonging to Wierzbicka's (1986) second category. The writer often signals that they are used to the topic and thereby assume others think of it the same way as they do. This establishes *iso* as a household word, hence, the writer abstains from using the long word.

An aspect of the present study which may have affected the results is personal interpretation. Semantic analyses are always subject to personal interpretation and the categorisation performed in this study is based on one person's opinion. On the other hand, this encourages more studies on *iso* as more interpretations would broaden the understanding of the topic. Furthermore, it would be of interest to look at other coroneologisms in detail to further understand their specific usage in text and what possible semantic meaning they may carry.

REFERENCES

- Akut, K. B. (2020). Morphological Analysis of the Neologisms during the COVID-19 Pandemic. *International Journal of English Language Studies*, 2(3), 01–07. <https://doi.org/10.32996/ijels.2020.2.3.11>
- Al-Salman, S., Saleh, A.-C., Haider, A. S., & C, X. A. (2021). COVID-19 trending neologisms and word formation processes in English. *Russian Journal of Linguistics*, 25(1), 24–42. <https://doi.org/10.22363/2687-0088-2021-25-1-24-42>
- Asif, M., Zhiyong, D., Iram, A., & Nisar, M. (2020). *Linguistic Analysis of Neologism Related to Coronavirus (COVID-19)* (SSRN Scholarly Paper ID 3608585). Social Science Research Network. <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3608585>
- Bauer, L. (1983). *English word-formation*. Cambridge University Press.
- Bolotina, E. A. (2020). *Covid-Neologisms in the English-Speaking Media and the Means of Their Word Formation*. 24–29.
- Coronavirus infects Australian language as 2020 word of the year named*. (2020, November 17). <https://www.abc.net.au/news/2020-11-17/iso-is-the-australian-word-of-the-year-dictionary/12890260>
- Dalzell, T. (2014). *Vietnam War Slang: A Dictionary on Historical Principles*. Routledge.
- Davies, M. (2019). *Coronavirus Corpus*. English-Corpora.Org. <https://www.english-corpora.org/corona/>
- Dickson, P. (2011). *War Slang: American Fighting Words & Phrases Since the Civil War*. Courier Corporation.
- Dunham, J. (2020, April 23). ‘Coronadodge,’ ‘isobar,’ and ‘zumped’: Linguist catalogues more than 1K words from pandemic. Coronavirus.

- <https://www.ctvnews.ca/health/coronavirus/coronadodge-isobar-and-zumped-linguist-catalogues-more-than-1k-words-from-pandemic-1.4908434>
- Editorial. (2020). *English Today*, 36(4), 1–2. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0266078420000516>
- From Anti-Buddies To Quarantini, 11 New Words That 2020 Gave Us—Covid-lingo!* (2020, August 12). The Economic Times.
<https://economictimes.indiatimes.com/magazines/panache/from-anti-buddies-to-quarantini-11-new-words-that-2020-gave-us/covid-lingo/slideshow/79624673.cms>
- Jamet, D. (2009). A morphophonological approach to clipping in English. Can the study of clipping be formalized? *Lexis. Journal in English Lexicology*, HS 1, Article HS 1. <https://doi.org/10.4000/lexis.884>
- Lawson, R. (2020, April 28). *Coronavirus has led to an explosion of new words and phrases – and that helps us cope*. The Conversation. <http://theconversation.com/coronavirus-has-led-to-an-explosion-of-new-words-and-phrases-and-that-helps-us-cope-136909>
- Lehrer, A. (1974). *Semantic fields and lexical structure*. North-Holland Publ. Co. [u.a.].
- Lillo, A. (2020). COVID-19, the beer flu; or, the disease of many names. *Lebende Sprachen*, 65(2), 411–438. <https://doi.org/10.1515/les-2020-0021>
- McAndrew, A. (1992). Hosties and Garbos: A Look behind Diminutives and Pejoratives in Australian English. *Language and Civilization: A Concerted Profusion of Essays and Studies in Honour of Otto Hietsch: L&C*, 1, 166–184.
- Plag, I. (2003). *Word-Formation in English*. Cambridge University Press.
- Roig–Marín, A. (2020). English-based coroneologisms: A short survey of our Covid-19-related vocabulary. *English Today*, 1–3. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0266078420000255>
- Simpson, J. (2008). Hypocoristics in Australian English. In *The Pacific and Australasia* (p. 618). Mouton de Gruyter.

- Sussex, R. (2020, November 29). 'Rona', 'iso', 'quazza'—*Words of the year speak to our Australian take on COVID*. The Conversation. <http://theconversation.com/rona-iso-quazza-words-of-the-year-speak-to-our-australian-take-on-covid-150949>
- Thorne, T. (2020, April 16). #CORONASPEAK – *the language of Covid-19 goes viral*. <https://www.kcl.ac.uk/news/coronaspeak-the-language-of-covid-19-goes-viral>
- Wierzbicka, A. (1986). Does language reflect culture? Evidence from Australian English*. *Language in Society*, 15(3), 349–373. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0047404500011805>
- Yule, G. (2010). *Study of Language*. Cambridge University Press.

Appendix

Types of *iso* words and their frequencies extracted from the Coronavirus Corpus,

March 31, 2021

Compounding (in alphabetical order)

Type	Frequency	Type	Frequency	Type	Frequency
iso activities	1	iso-drinking	2	iso-partner	1
iso animations	1	iso-driven	1	iso partners	2
iso babies	1	iso downtime	1	iso-parties	2
iso baking	3	iso-entertainment	1	iso-party	6
iso-baking	2	iso era	1	iso period	2
iso bar	2	iso-exercise	1	iso playlist	1
isobar	2	iso facilities	1	isopod	3
isobear	1	iso facility	3	ISO-PODs	1
iso beards	1	iso fashion	4	iso-poetry	1
ISO-benefit	1	iso fatigue	2	iso-project	1
iso birthday	1	iso fit	1	iso puppy	2
iso birthday party pack	1	iso fix	1	iso purchase	1
iso blessing	1	iso-free	2	iso quality of life	1
iso blues	1	iso friend	1	iso-rage	2
iso boredom	2	iso-friendly	1	iso recipes	1
iso-break	2	Iso-Fuelled	1	iso-related worries	2
Iso-brows	1	iso gold	2	iso-rescue dog	2
iso-bubble	2	iso-hair	1	iso-rules	1
iso buddies	2	iso haircuts	3	iso s/o	1
iso-buddies	1	iso-hobbies	1	iso selves	1
iso buddy	1	iso-hobby	1	iso sex	1
iso burnout	2	iso-induced	1	iso-shamers	1
iso-challenges	2	iso initiative	1	iso shutdown	1
iso-convert	1	iso interns	1	iso-situations	1
iso cooking	1	iso journey	1	iso skin	2
iso-cooking	3	iso kilos	3	iso-style	1
iso-cooks	1	iso-latte	1	iso standards	1
iso-crafting	1	isolearn	1	iso stories	2
iso-creative	1	iso life	7	iso-tantrums	1
iso crush	1	iso-life	2	iso thaw drinks	1
iso cut	6	iso-linked	1	iso time	1
iso-dancing	1	iso-lit	1	iso trends	1
isodate	1	iso lives	2	iso tunnel	1
iso-date	1	iso-lives	2	iso-uniform	1
iso dates	1	iso lockdowns	1	iso unit	1
isodating	1	iso-loungewear	1	iso virtual Friday night drinks	1
iso-dating	1	iso mission	1	iso-weary	1
iso decision	2	isomate	3	iso-wipes	1
isodesk	2	isonation	3	iso workouts	2
iso diets	2	iso-packs	1		

Blending (in alphabetical order)

<u>Type</u>	<u>Frequency</u>
Isolaid	7
Isolationship	4
Isolationships	3
Isoscriptions	2