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Adding to the Inventory: Coining new Sindhi Words by Integrating the Techniques of Lexicographic Neologism and Word-Formation Rules

Abstract:

Languages change due to multiple factors (Campbell, 1994). This change can take three orientations: constructive, destructive, or both orientations simultaneously. The domain of this research lies in the decay of languages. There are multiple reasons why speakers of a certain language stop using a language one being, they may no longer find expression in their own language. The poor functioning of language authorities, and absence of developmental research can further aggravate the problem multifold. Neologism offers a solution to that problem. By creating new words, equivalents can be provided and can be left subject to the use of the community. When community itself does not feel the drive to bring in new words, it becomes imperative for the linguists and literary figures to save their language. Morphological word formation rules offer a great help in that direction (Stein, 1973; Bauer, 1983; Štekauer, 2000; Plag, 2018). By using them coupled with lexicographic neologism, one can create new words.

Key words: Language Change, Language Development, Neologism, Lexicography, Morphology, Word Formation, Language Endangerment

Introduction:

Language change is an inevitable process (Rajarajeswari & Mohana, 2013). Divergent and convergent changes keep taking place in languages all over the world (Barber, 1972). Language change can be developmental or destructive, or both at the same time. To gauge that, various parameters can be taken as the basis. Most of these parameter or reasons are non-linguistic (Swadesh, 1948). For example, increase or decrease in the number of speakers (Annamalai, 2014), expression, use, etc. Campbell (1994) has given a long list of reasons due to which languages die included in which are social and political reasons. One of the factors to see the development or decay of a language is to assess the generation of new words or obsoletion of existing words. There is considerable support for this view in "Dissipation Model"

(Schilling-Estes and Wolfram, 1999) which expresses language loss in terms of loss of structures and a decrease in use of a language. A language may die when it does not have its speakers, or it does not become an instrument of expression for its speakers. This stance is supported by the "Pidginization Model". Dressler and Wodak-Leodolter (1977) come to an agreement that the way pidginization process culminates into obsoleting of a language especially in terms of its vocabulary and use, many languages may be at a loss that way. Therefore, the importance of lexical items or vocabulary cannot be denied when it comes to the survival of a language.

The inclusion of new words or the exclusion of existing words is a critical process for any language (see Petersen, et al. 2012). In the case of the English language, there has been a constant increase in the number of words and its dictionaries have only been growing (Rets, 2016). But this upward growth has not been at no cost. Other languages have had to suffer as a result especially the languages of those regions which once remained a periphery of British Raj (Nesterenko, et al. 2015). English works there as a gatekeeper to success (Pennycook, 2001). Coupled with the functioning of global capitalism is the English language, English has become one of the most important instrumental languages and lingua francas of the world (Graddol, 1997; Crystal, 2006). Languages in South Asia, too, are endangered. Cardoso (2014, p.1) has described the vulnerable linguistic ecology of sub-continent; drawing UNESCO's *Atlas of the World's Languages in Danger,* it is told that 171 languages in India and 28 languages in Pakistan are in the domain of linguistic endangerment. According to Ethnologue, there are 70 plus languages in Pakistan. Now, 28 of them are already endangered. Other major languages also suffer a loss on various linguistic levels (Simons &Fennig, 2018). For example, Baart (2003) says that despite having a big number of speakers, the Punjabi language faces a sheer pressure and negative attitudes from its own speakers who prefer to speak Urdu and English rather than Punjabi. Most alarming, in many urban centers, Punjabi families do not pass on their language to their upcoming generations. Khokhlova (2014, p.19) has also spoken about 'intellectual loss' in the Punjabi language. The case with Sindhi is a little different. It is generally considered the most developed language of Pakistan after Urdu. But, the policies from governments supporting English and Urdu affect the Sindhi language adversely (Pathan, et al. 2018). Along with that, in urban settings, it suffers language loss due to a preference for English and Urdu. There are two simultaneous destructive trends in this loss among others: existing words are fading away from use; two, new English words often do not have an alternative in local languages. Later is the scope of this research.

The research takes place in the context of Sindh, a province of Pakistan. Sindhi language has been a major language of Indus valley since ages and has survived various epochs of suppression. For example, after the Aryan invasion around 12th century BC, Sindhi took a heavy blow from the language of the invaders, and the religious scripts or Vedic books were written in Sanskrit. After the invasion of Muhammad Bin Qasim in the 8th century, once again Arabic became the official language, and Sindhi had a secondary place. In the era of Mughal governors in the 16th and 17th centuries, Persian was the official language; in successive dynasties of Kalhoras and Talpurs 18th and 19th centuries (Chandomal, 1994; Sheedai, 2004; Qudsi, 2004 Sheedai, 2006; Zardari, 2006; Naumal, 2004; Baloch, 2008), Seriaki and Persian were the official languages; after Charles Napier's invasion of Sindh in 1843 AD (Cole, 2006; Napier, 2006), English became the official language but later on Sindhi was developed by Lord Frere in 1850's. The timeline given above shows that Sindhi, despite its secondary place in society for many centuries held its ground and survived successfully. But, in the aftermath of partition of India, and later on the rise of globalization, English has had drastic effects on other cultures and languages all over the world (Phillipson, 1992; Muhlhausler, 1996; Canagarajah, 1999; Skutnabb-Kangas, 2001; Phillipson, 2009) and that includes the languages in Pakistan (Baart, 2003; Khokhlova, 2014) as well.

The major setback to local languages can come in the form of frequent code-mixing and code-switching of English (Dorian, 1989; Negro, 2004). While the research continues to highlight that attitude of locals, especially the students, is positive and additive towards learning English (Soomro, 2016; Muhammad, 2016; Khalid, 2016), languages in Pakistan continue to suffer adversely. This fact does not come to fore due to lack of research and interest in that area. Any loss in language may happen due to bilingualism (Janse, 2003), and may start from the level of lexicons and then, later on, it enters the domains of syntax and grammar. Code-mixing happens on the lexical level and this phenomenon has been intensively studied in Pakistan (see Mushtaq, 2012; Parveen & Aslam, 2013; Ehsan & Aziz, 2014; Chughtai, et al., 2016; Fareed, et al., 2016; and others). The trend shows that a heavy shift of lexical choices has taken place from local languages to English. In this scenario, the lack of lexical alternatives aggravates the problem and the subtractive attitudes towards local languages may increase. Providing with a new bank of words may help the language in that regard. Thus, this study aims at creating new words using the techniques of lexicographic neologism.

Literature Review and Theoretical Framework

Neologism plays an integral role in the emerging sciences, research, and inventing ventures where hundreds of new phenomena require to be tagged and named, and thanks to the neologism, it provides for this requirement (Ismagulova, et al., 2015). However, neologism does not have any coherent or clear-cut definition (Janssen, n.d.; Liu & Liu, 2014). Likewise, Rey (1995) says that neologism is defined more in the context of its criteria to select a word as a neologism and that the process does not have any furnished, full and final objective criteria. In this context, many researchers, lexicographers, and specialists have tried to define this term their way. But despite its relatively confused terminology or definition, its importance cannot be denied.

Looked at generally, neologism can be classified into two broad groups. I would like to name these two groups as following and after them, I present a dual-definition of neologism model:

Derived from Convention
- The first group consists of those words which already exist in the language by the virtue of conventions made by community, and later that word or expression is so commonly used that it catches the attention of lexicographers or linguists who then check for its availability in different corpora or linguistic resources and upon its non-availability enter it into the same. This process is bottom-up in its nature.

Devised as Novel
- The second group consists of those words which have not existed before, or at least their new function has not existed before. This kind of neologism does not base itself in the convention, there is none, in fact, rather this process calls for the efforts from lexicographers, innovators, or researchers to invent new words using various techniques of word formation. This term is top-down in nature.

Various researchers have defined neologism in terms of either of these groups. There is enough literature to support this claim. Following are the definitions for each group:

Bolganbaev (1988) has defined neologism in terms of pre-existing words that are yet to enter the official sources such as dictionaries or thesauri.

The study conducted by Liu & Liu (2014) is a fine example of this kind of neologism in which they came across 210 neologism on the internet and found out their formation process. Shuxin (1990) says that the word which was created by convention and which secured widespread acceptance among communities can be termed as a neologism. Dahlberg et al. (2009) take the same orientation of neologism while studying the neologism extracted from the internet. Likewise, there are a number of studies which have the same orientation as this (Fang & Sun, 2006; Casado &Llamazares, 2015; Zheng, 2015; Rumsiene, 2009; Moghadam &Sedhigi, 2012; Creese, 2017)

Describing the ways neologism can be classified, Ismagulova, et al. (2015) say that it can be classified in terms of the invention of new words using various techniques of word formation. Similarly, Plag (2002) defines this process as the creation of new words in a given time frame. Similarly, Newmark (1988) defines neologism as the invention of new words or invention of new sense for existing words. An interesting study in this regard is done by Hawke (2018) who has studied the efforts put in by Welsh lexicographers in earlier centuries to create new words through different word formation techniques including borrowing. This particular provides precedents for the current study. Yet another study, from Raadik&Tuulik (2018), points to the phenomenon of devising new words from lexicographers in Estonia. However, the inclusion of these words into mainstream dictionaries and language resources is subject to political and social elements (Kull, 1972).

A review of contents of various journals of lexicography and results of search engines like Google Scholar showed that comparatively far more studies were undertaken to identify, review or examine the neologism derived from convention rather than the one as a result of devising as novel.

Table 1: Dual-Definition of Neologism Model

Derived from Convention	Devised as Novel
Bottom-up process	Top-down process
Initiated and popularized by common people	Initiated by language experts, linguists, lexicographers, etc., and popularity subject to acceptance from people

More frequent process	Less frequent process
Words exist in the society first, they are formalized later on	They are created by individuals first, and later on they are embedded in authentic resources of language
Informal process	Formal process
Born with the collective intelligence of society having no well-planned construction	Born by the efforts of individuals with pre-planned objective construction
Word formation processes are used implicitly	Word formation processes are utilized explicitly

Lexical gaps are the main reasons why there is a need for neologism in a language. Janssen (n.d.) has explained the difference between lexicographic neologism and corpus-based neologism. In the former, existing words are compared with the word lists in dictionaries and then they are termed as neologism in case of their absence in the same; while in the later, word is compared with existing corpora of language. But he calls these two types as insufficient and proposes a third method, a hybrid method which involves both lexicographic and corpus-based procedures to make the search robust. However, this still is a bottom-up approach and no corpora of Sindhi language exists. In this scenario, the only feasible option that remains is to create equivalent words for those English words for which we do not have a one-word substitution.

These lexical gaps can be filled by introducing new words or bringing in neologism. This task calls for the utilization of word-formation processes. Either bottom-up or top down, in either forms of neologism, word-formation processes are involved albeit implicitly or explicitly, or more appropriately, consciously or unconsciously. A word is a bilateral entity which has a form and a meaning (Saussure, 1959). In the current study, the concept, or the signified already exists, what it lacks is the indigenous signifier, a local name giving which is the ultimate goal of this study.

The area of word formation has been extensively researched upon. Various theories have been proposed in this area since the second half of the twentieth century. The debate between Marchand (1960) and Lees (1966) marked the importance of compound words in the field of word formation; a detailed account of compounding has also been presented by Bauer (1998),

Giegerich (2009), Lieber (2009), and others. Along with their works, one of the seminal developments in the study of words was the theory of lexicalism proposed and developed after Chomsky's (1957) *Syntactic Structures,* in which he hinted at discreteness of lexicon from the syntax. The idea was later on developed by researchers like Halle (1973) and Aronoff (1976). This resulted in the realization of the importance of the independence of lexicon which had been lost in the immediate aftermath of generative grammar. In such seminal research works,processes like compounding, blending, prefixation, suffixation, were explained in detail. In the same era, emerged a linguist from Eastern Europe named Dokulil (1962) who proposed the onomasiological theory of word formation which was based on naming objects based on onomasiological categories of quality, relevance, action, etc. This theory primarily deals with the role of mental consciousness while naming any objects by humans. Horecky's (1994) multilevel model was another major advancement in the onomasiological theory of word formation. The cognitive and community-based aspect of this theory was further proposed by Štekauer (1998) who discarded all traditional ways of word formation in his model and proposed an independent and uniform naming method of word formation which had different semantic and onomasiological levels. The current study, also taking inspiration from onomasiological word-formation techniques, tries to create words in the Sindhi language. However, the same difference of collective/conventional formation and novelty/devising by a single lexicographer comes to fore. This study takes things from a top-downapproach and tries to propose new words in the Sindhi language for phenomena, objects, and ideas in English which do not find their equivalents in the former.

It should be made clear that for every language, there is a different set of word formation processes. For example, Nir (1993) has studied modern Hebrew word formation; Adams (1973) and Plag (2003) and others have studied English word-formation. Aronoff and Fudeman (2011) suggest that linguists have been too engrossed into drawing similarities and differences among languages to a level that sometimes they take out trivial parallels and differences, and that linguistic inquiry needs to be flexible. On the similar lines, therefore, a language can have its own methods of word-formation. However, this study adapts Plag's (2003) model as the basis for word formation. First, he distinguishes between inflection and derivation. The former connects some bound morphemes to free ones that do not change the word class of the root word; however, in derivation, the word class of the root word or the meaning itself may change. Within derivation, there are two further processes: affixation and non-affixation. Affixation contains

prefixation, suffixation, infixation. And the non-affixation contains blending, truncation, and conversion. Plag makes it clear that he has treated truncation and clipping as separate processes, but like in other publications, we will also treat them as similar processes. In addition to that, the concepts of initial, medial and final clipping has also been considered in this study. Plag has treated back-formation on the schema-based model, but this study will use the process on its traditional suffix-deletion process. However, compounding as always has been treated as a distinct word formation process which presumes compounding of two free morphemes to create new lexeme. Finally, coinage of words does not need any formal model, it can be safely proposed that wherever, a lexicographer or researcher feels short of word-formation processes, s/he is forced to coin a new word based on his/her creativity (Fang & Sun, 2007).

Methodology and Analysis

As extensively discussed in the literature review, there is no single objective criterion for selection or production of neologism (Rey, 1995). However, a morphological method of word-formation process offers valuable help in creating new words. The only difference between this research and mainstream research is that of derivation and devising. This research is exploratory and innovative in nature as it aims at contributing new lexicons to the Sindhi language. This is primarily a qualitative research that used lexicographical neologism method and later on word-formation processes for the creation of new words. Schierholtz (2015, p.326) defines qualitative methods in terms of linguistics as "...procedures in which data measurable in numbers are primarily not collected (e.g. linguistic descriptions and explanations), and in which new insights are obtained from critical hermeneutical work, e.g. by the processes of comprehension and interpretation." It is also stated further that the knowledge and experience of a lexicographer or a researcher can also be used in this kind of research. This research endeavor is fundamental in nature as opposed to applied research. According to Saunders et al. (2012) fundamental research attempts to expand knowledge in any given field, however, its results may later be utilized or applied in the relevant situations.

This is the first objective, research-based venture into devising neologism in the Sindhi language to the best of my knowledge. The inherent obscurity in the criteria for neologism generally leaves the room open for researchers to propose and create their own methods according to their context and need.

Words for this study were collected by contemplation and discussion with speakers of Sindhi language. After days of deliberation, a list of 200 English words was prepared primarily. On the second stage, the words were checked in Oxford English-Sindhi Dictionary (2010) for confirming the presence/absence of their equivalents in the Sindhi language. After this analysis, 51 words were ousted from the list as they had their equivalents in Sindhi but were mostly out of use which in turn can be a source of another research endeavor: probing into why such words have gone so rare in everyday language use. There are no corpora of Sindhi language available online or offline, therefore, corpus-based neologism was impossible to be undertaken in this context. Since Sindhi is a grammatically gendered language, therefore an additional column for the mentioning of gender of proposed words is also given. IPA symbols used for transcription of proposed Sindhi words are as taken from the official website of *Sindhi Language Authority,* a government-run institution for the development of Sindhi language (http://learn.sindhila.edu.pk/alphabets/ipl).

Having done that, using word formation processes, new and novel equivalents were produced. Following are the vertical categories in which data have been presented:

1. English words
2. Proposed Sindhi equivalent
3. IPA pronunciation
4. Word formation process used
5. Gender of the word

It is possible that at many instances, this study may make use of neoclassical word formation which is defined in Bauer et al. (2013) as making use of or tailoring some words from a classical language to form a new word.

No.	English	Sindhi	Phonological transcription	Word Formation Rule Used	Gender
1.	Good morning	صبح بخير	/subuhbekʰer/	Borrowing	Masculine
2.	Good afternoon	وچين سلام	/vitʃiːnsəlaːm/	Compounding	Feminine
3.	Good evening	سانجهه بخير	/saːnɟʰbekʰer/	Compounding	Feminine

Table 2: Proposed inventory of neologisms

4.	Good night	رات بخير	/ra:tbekʰer/	Compounding	Feminine
5.	Computer	ڳڻالو	/ɟəŋa:lɔ/	Blending	Masculine
6.	Fridge	ٹارڻي	/ʈʰa:rŋi/	Suffixation	Feminine
7.	Challan	پرسيد	/bʰərsi:d/	Blending	Feminine
8.	Phone	آوزالو	/a:wa:za:lɔ/	Blending	Masculine
9.	Internet	چار	/ʃa:r/	Conversion	Feminine
10.	Laptop	هنجالو	/həɟa:lɔ/	Blending	Masculine
11.	Charger	نِگل	/nɪgʊl/	Coinage	Masculine
12.	3D	ٹه رخو	/ʈ(r)ɪ rʊxɔ/	Compounding	M/F
13.	Wiper	ءُگهڻو	/ʊgʰŋɔ/	Suffixation	Masculine
14.	Diaper	كجهل	/kʊɟʰəl/	Prefixation	Masculine
15.	File	بِلارَ	/bɪla:r/	Coinage	Feminine
16.	Tape solution	كونر پڻي	/xəʊnrpəʈi/	Compounding	Feminine
17.	Stapler	ٹاكڻي	/ʈa:kŋi/	Suffixation	Feminine
18.	Punch machine	ڳِلكڻي	/ɟilxɪŋi/	Blending	Feminine
19.	Gumstick	كونر ڈكي	/xəʊnrɖiki/	Compounding	Feminine
20.	Showcase	ويكاٹ	/wexa:ʈ/	Suffixation	Masculine
21.	Application (App)	لِگار	/liga:r/	Coinage	Feminine
22.	Mobile	رابطالو	/ra:bʈa:lɔ/	Blending	Masculine
23.	Cooler	ٹدارو	/tʰədʰa:rɔ/	Suffixation	Masculine
24.	Dispenser	ٹدڻو	/tʰədʰŋɔ/	Suffixation	Masculine

25.	Air-conditioner	ہیراندي	/hi:ra:ndi/	Blending	Feminine
26.	Motorcycle	قِیرالو (به قِیتٖي)	/ɓəpʰi:tʰipʰera:lɔ/	Compounding / Blending	Masculine
27.	Highlighter	نشاندو	/nɪʃa:ndɔ/	Suffixation	Masculine
28.	Thumb pin	آگر ٹاچٖي	/a:ɳʊɽʈa:cɳi/	Compounding	Feminine
29.	Handsfree	نهٖي بډٖي	/nɪhətʰi: ɓʊdʰɳi:/	Compounding	Feminine
30.	Cryptography	ڳجهاریات	/ɠʊɟʰa:rja:t/	Suffixation	Feminine
31.	Sanitizer	صافاڻو	/sa:fa:ɳɔ/	Blending	Masculine
32.	Link	ڪڙي	/kəɽi:/	Conversion	Feminine
33.	Email	برخط	/bərxət/	Blending	Masculine
34.	Cubicle	ڪعبفتر	/ka:bəftər/	Blending	Masculine
35.	Puncture	ٹُونبَ	/ʈu:nbʰ/	Infixation	Feminine
36.	Marker	لکڻو	/lixɳɔ/	Suffixation	Masculine
37.	Desktop	میزو	/mezɔ/	Suffixation	Masculine
38.	Scanner	عڪسالو	/ʔksa:lɔ/	Blending	Masculine
39.	Photocopy	نقالو	/nəqa:lɔ/	Blending	Masculine
40.	Printer	چاپڻو	/cʰa:pɳɔ/	Suffixation	Masculine
41.	Bench	ویهڻٖي	/wehɳi:/	Suffixation	Feminine
42.	Switch	جَنوڙو	/ɟəʈɔɽɔ/	Coinage	Masculine
43.	Sneaker	نرُوتو	/nəru:tɔ/	Blending	Masculine
44.	Cartography	نَقشیات	/nəqʃjɪa:t/	Suffixation	Feminine
45.	Saver	بچت بلف	/bəcətbelf/	Compounding	Masculine

46.	Keyboard	بٹڼ تختي	/bəʈəŋtəxti:/	Compounding	Feminine
47.	Mouse	گهمٹو	/gʰʊmŋɔ/	Suffixation	Masculine
48.	Showpiece	نمائشو	/nʊmaɪʃɔ/	Suffixation	Masculine
49.	Tiles	ٹکرسري	/ʈʰɪkərsɪri:/	Compounding	Feminine
50.	Biscuit	نانڑو	/na:nɽɔ/	Suffixation	Masculine
51.	Cake	مدبو*	/mədbɔ/	Coinage	Masculine
52.	Tie	ڳلتار	/ɟəlta:r/	Blending	Feminine
53.	Card	سافس*	/sa:fɪs/	Coinage	Masculine
54.	Disposable	عارضيتو	/ʔa:rzetɔ/	Suffixation	Masculine
55.	Weekend	هفتي انت	/həfteənt/	Compounding	Masculine
56.	Website	جار پتو	/ʃa:rpetɔ/	Compounding	Masculine
57.	Cartoon	خاکو	/xa:kɔ/	Conversion	Masculine
58.	Fresco	آب نقاشي	/a:bnɪqa:ʃi:/	Compounding	Feminine
59.	Gallery	نمائش گاه	/nʊmaɪʃ ga:h/	Compounding	Feminine
60.	Graph	ليکائتي جدول	/li:kaɪti: ɟədwəl/	Compounding	Feminine
61.	Mural	پٹ نقاشي	/bʰɪtnɪqa:ʃi:/	Compounding	Feminine
62.	Glass	شربو	/ʃərbɔ/	Neoclassical borrowing from Arabic	Masculine
63.	Hotpot	گرموٹو	/gərmu:ŋɔ/	Blending	Masculine
64.	Antiseptic	گهاوَ بچائٹو	/gʰa:wəbəcaɪŋɔ/	Compounding	Masculine
65.	Brake	روکيڼڑو	/rɔkɪəɽɔ/	Suffixation	Masculine

66.	Clutch	آجلو	/aːɻlɔ/	Blending	Masculine
67.	Pump	هواتو	/həwaːtɔ/	Suffixation	Masculine
68.	Rim	قْیتَّ چکرو	/pʰiːʈʰcəkrɔ/	Compounding	Masculine
69.	Bonnet	چاپْڑ	/cʰaːpʊɽ/	Conversion	Masculine
70.	Capacitor	سگهالو	/səgʰaːlɔ/	Blending	Masculine
71.	Valve	وهض	/wəhəz/	Coinage	Masculine
72.	Fuse	فتیلو	/fətiːlɔ/	Neoclassical borrowing from Arabic	Masculine
73.	Cut out	کتّو	/kəʈŋɔ/	Suffixation	Masculine
74.	Dashboard	حفاظيو	/hɪfaːzɪjɔ/	Suffixation	Masculine
75.	Chalk	چونو قلم	/cuːnɔqələm/	Compounding	Masculine
76.	Circuit	برقستو	/bərqəstɔ/	Blending	Masculine
77.	Pastry	شیریني	/ʃiːriːniː/	Neoclassical borrowing from Persian	Feminine
78.	Software	نرم زار	/nərəmzaːr/	Coinage, blending	Masculine
79.	Hardware	سخت زار	/sext zaːr/	Coinage, blending	Masculine
80.	Presentation	پیش زار	/peʃ zaːr/	Coinage, blending	Masculine
81.	Powerpoint	برق پیش	/bərq peʃ/	Compounding	Feminine
82.	Amplifier	واڈزار	/waːdʰzaːr/	Blending	Masculine
83.	Loudspeaker	بلندگو	/bʊləndgu/	Neoclassical borrowing from Persian	Masculine
84.	Tear garter	ٹیرا گارا	/ʈiːraː gaːraː/	Coinage	Masculine

85.	Shutter	بندڻو	/bəndŋɔ/	Suffixation	Masculine
86.	Geyser	گرمابو	/gərma:bɔ/	Blending	Masculine
87.	Custard	محلب	/mʊhəlɪb/	Neoclassical borrowing from Turkish	Masculine
88.	Roll	پروٽي	/bʰərɔʈi:/	Blending	Feminine
89.	Hotel	قطام	/qəta:m/	Blending	Masculine
90.	Flat	عمود گاهه	/ʊmu:dga:h/	Compounding	Masculine
91.	Toll plaza	ڏل ناڪو	/dʰəlna:kɔ/	Compounding	Masculine
92.	Flyover	چِير پُل	/cʰəpərpʊl/	Compounding	Feminine
93.	Loco Shed	ريل مرمت گهر	/relmərmətgʰər/	Compounding	Masculine
94.	Plastic	پلٽڪ	/pəltək/	Coinage	Masculine
95.	Garage	مرمت خانو	/mərmətxa:nɔ/	Conversion	Masculine
96.	Gas	جاس	/ɟa:s/	Coinage	Feminine
97.	Beaker	ويڪلي	/wekli:/	Blending	Feminine
98.	Exhaust fan	چمني پکو	/cɪmni: pəxɔ/	Compounding	Masculine
99.	Motor	قيرالو	/pʰera:lɔ/	Blending	Masculine
100.	Bank	دولت گهر	/dɔlətgʰər/	Compounding	Masculine
101.	Blood bank	رت زخيرو	/rətzəxi:rɔ/	Compounding	Masculine
102.	Heater	حرارو	/həra:rɔ/	Suffixation	Masculine
103.	Oven	تتاڻو	/təta:ŋɔ/	Blending	Masculine
104.	Toaster	ٽوشاڻو	/ʈɔʃa:ŋɔ/	Suffixation	Masculine

105.	Juicer	عرق زار	/ʔrqza:r/	Blending	Masculine
106.	Pressure Cooker	دباوړي	/dəɓa:wri:/	Suffixation	Feminine
107.	Entrepreneur	انترپاري	/əntərpa:ri:/	Coinage	M/F
108.	Internship	سکياکاري	/sıxja:ka:ri:/	Compounding	Feminine
109.	Internee	سېکاټ	/sexa:ʈ/	Conversion	M/F
110.	Librarian	کتبوالو	/kʊtʊbwa:lɔ/	Blending	M/F
111.	Pharmacist	دوافروش	/dəwa:fərəʃ/	Compounding	M/F
112.	Pilot	هواران	/həwa:ra:n/	Suffixation	M/F
113.	Meridian	مستقل عقّاک	/mʊstəqɪlʔʊpʰa:k/	Compounding, blending	Feminine
114.	Bailout	ناڼي ټېک	/na:ŋeʈek/	Compounding	Feminine
115.	Carburetor	باڤ زار	/ɓa:pʰza:r/	Blending	Masculine
116.	Company	تجارو	/təɟa:rɔ/	Suffixation	Masculine
117.	Traffic	گانْش	/ga:ɖɪʃ/	Suffixation	Feminine
118.	Tile	فرشي	/fərʃi:/	Suffixation	Feminine
119.	Generator	پيدازار	/peda:za:r/	Blending	Masculine
120.	March	څورَ	/ʤɔrə/	Conversion	Feminine
121.	Marketing	علم مندیات	/ɪlmemənɖɪja:t/	Compounding, suffixation	Masculine
122.	Supply chain	پيداورچ	/peda:wərcʰ/	Blending	Feminine
123.	Projector	وېک زار	/wexəza:r/	Blending	Masculine
124.	Troubleshooter	دُرُستو	/dʊrʊstər/	Suffixation	Masculine

125.	Surreal	مافوق الحقیقت	/maːfuːqʊlhəqiːqət/	Blending	None
126.	Emoticon	اظهار خاکو	/ɪzhaːrxaːkɔ/	Compounding	Masculine
127.	Montessori	فطري تدریس	/fɪtriː tədriːs/	Compounding	Feminine
128.	Kindergarten	باغ طفل	/baːɣetɪfɪl/	Compounding	Masculine
129.	College	اعلي ثانوي	/aːlaː śaːnwiː/	Compounding	Feminine
130.	Vitamin	مرکوب	/mərkuːb/	Infixation	Masculine
131.	Crossword	اکر چوکڑي	/əxərcɔkʈiː/	Compounding	Feminine
132.	Insulin	متوازي مادو	/mʊtəwaːziː maːdɔ/	Compounding	Masculine
133.	Sociopath	سماجي مريض	/səmaːɻiː məriːz/	Compounding	M/F
134.	Online	مربوط	/mərbuːt/	Conversion	M/F
135.	T-shirt	قميضي	/qəmiːzi/	Suffixation	Feminine
136.	Offline	غير مربوط	/ɣermərbuːt/	Prefixation, conversion	M/F
137.	Community	مجمم	/mʊɻəməm/	Coinage	Masculine
138.	Notepad	ياد-بُکڑي	/jaːdbʊkʈiː/	Compounding	Feminine
139.	Quantum	ورچ-توانائي	/wɪrcʰtəwaːnaɪ/	Compounding	Feminine
140.	Tuning	سُرواؤ	/sʊrwaʊ/	Blending	Masculine
141.	Worksheet	مشق-بِټي	/məʃqpəʈiː/	Compounding	Feminine
142.	Dinner-set	ثانوڳر	/tʰaːnwəɠər/	Suffixation	Masculine
143.	Caffeine	چُستي	/cʊstiː/	Conversion	Feminine
144.	Technocrat	تکنیک پرست	/təkniːkpərəst/	Compounding	M/F

145.	Archive	قديماويز	/qədi:ma:wa:z/	Blending	Masculine
146.	Video	هلکس	/hələks/	Blending	Masculine
147.	Voicemail	سماخط	/səma:xt/	Blending	Masculine
148.	Unfriend (v)	غيرڠ	/ɣerəŋ/	Suffixation	None
149.	Microphone	کچاٽو	/kʊca:ŋɔ	Suffixation	Masculine

Conclusion

   Neologism is a term referred to as fuzzy and obscure. This research work proposed a two-way model to make a precise definition of neologism: derived from convention and devised as novel. Sindhi language, like other South Asian languages, is exposed to a threat of language loss. Due to code-mixing and an increased interest in the English language, Sindhi lexicons are fast being replaced with English words, alongside, new words are not being created for ever-pouring new English words. This research took this problem as an impulse and attempted to invent Sindhi words for 149 English words through lexicographic neologism and word-formation techniques. The research is open to criticism and improvements, and it calls for further such work in the domain.

Implications

   This research is potentially important for the development of Sindhi language in general. In times when local languages face the issue of degeneration, a research like this may prove to be a wake-up call to preserve this language. Besides, the new list of words can be used by many institutions in society: Sindhi newspapers, magazines, and news channels are often at a loss of words whenever they describe trendy things; textbooks in Sindhi often do not find words for many English terms; people, in general, tend to switch to English when they do not find equivalents in their mother tongue for various objects and phenomena. The research has the potential to benefit language in all those areas. Alongside, Sindhi dictionaries will have a systematic resource for its addition. Moreover, a number of words are used interchangeably in Urdu, Sindhi, Saraiki and other local languages of Pakistan; new words in Sindhi have the potential to provide a vocabulary to other languages from this new inventory. This research sets the door open for future research in this domain and in other languages besides Sindhi. To the best of my knowledge, this work is peculiar and novel in the context of Sindh and Pakistan. I intend to grow this list more and advance it to a more robust resource.

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