CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter discusses some relevant theories used as a foundation to support this study. These theories are word formation process, language variety, slang, and Instagram.

2.1 Word Formation

One reason for having morphology is to form new lexemes from old ones. The process of creating a new word called as word formation process. This process is important not only to increase vocabulary but also to create a new sentence. According to Katamba (2005), word formation involves two main processes: derivation and inflection. Inflection is aroused by syntax. Inflectional processes designated a stem certain grammatical properties in order to create a grammatical word that fits into particular syntactic slot. On the other hand, derivation is not controlled by syntax; its motive is to produce lexical items. The study of word-formation is important as the study of how new complex words are constructed on the basis of other words or morphemes.

2.1.1 Derivation Process

Analyzing how the words are deployed, derivation process emerges as the primary way of acquiring new words from existing words. Derivation is lexeme formation process (Lieber, 2009). Derivation let us add new lexical items to the open word-classes of noun, adjective, verb, and adverb. According to Katamba (2005), derivation process has four classes:
A. Affixation: Suffix and Prefix

Apparently, the commonest strategy of forming words (in the sense of lexical terms) is by affixation. Affixation is the technique of adding any morphemes to the root. Affixes can be attached before or after the base. An affix that is joined after the base is called suffix while an affix that goes earlier than the base is called prefix. Katamba (2005) categorizes the affixes based on the basis of their phonological properties. There are two major classes of affixes: some are neutral while others are non-neutral in their effects. Neutral affixes have no phonological effect on the basis to which they are attached, but non-neutral somehow influence the consonant or vowel segments, or the stress location within the base to which they are attached.

a) Neutral Affix

There is no effect on the stress pattern of the base. These affixes relate to Class or Starta II affixes:

Class II suffixes: -ful, -ly, -y, -hood, -ness, -like, -less,
Class II prefixes: de-, anti-, re-, un-, sub-, semi-, non-

b) Non-Neutral Affix

There is an effect on segmental or suprasegmental structure of the base. These affixes relate to Class or Starta I affixes:

Class I suffixes: -ate, -ity, -y, -ive, -ic, -ous, -ion, -al,
Class I prefixes: sub-, pre-, de-, in-, re-, en-, be-, con-
B. Conversion

Lexical items are very often created in English, not only by affixation but also by conversion or zero derivation. This process maintains the original words; the input base shape is not changed. The word-form remains the same, but it produces a different lexical item.

There are several ways conversion works according to Katamba (2005) which are described as follows.

a) Conversion of verbs - nouns

- She microwaved her launch, (*microwaved* Verb.)
- She heated her lunch in the microwave, (*microwaved* Noun.)

b) Conversion of adjectives - noun

- The *Green* Party had political clout in the 1980s, (*Green* Adj.)
- The *Greens* had political clout in the 1980s, (*Greens* Noun.)

c) Conversion of adjectives - adverb

- This is a *hard* examination, (*hard* Adv.)
- She works *hard*, (*hard* Adv.)

C. Compound Parade

A compound is a combination of two bases, which can be words in their own right, to build a new lexical item. According to Katamba (2005), there are several types of compound which are described as follows.

a) Adjectival Compounds

A compound that forms if two or more adjectives are combined to modify the same noun.
Example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$N+Ven$</th>
<th>$Adj.+Ving$</th>
<th>$Adj.+Ven$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dust-ridden</td>
<td>long-lasting</td>
<td>high-spirited</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>heartbroken</td>
<td>good-looking</td>
<td>old-fashioned</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Ven is the past participial form of the verb. It is the verb form that ends in –ed or -en after has in, e.g. *It has fallen* or in *It has bitten.*

**b) Endocentric Compounds**

A compound contains a semantic head. A headed means that there is one of the words which is more dominant rather than the other words in the compound.

Example:

- *easychair* is a type of *chair*
- *newspaper* is a kind of *paper*
- *bookstore* is a kind of *store*

**c) Exocentric Compounds**

A compound whose meaning cannot be determined from the head (Aronoff & Fudeman, 2005).

Example:

- *Scarecrow* is an object designed to scare not only crows but all birds and it is not kind of crow
- *Redhead* is a person with red hair not kind of person who has red head

**d) Deverbal Compound Nouns**

It is a noun compound formed from verbs. Their structure is like a fragment of the sentence in which the verb is constructed with a noun (or
more accurately an NP: a noun phrase), which has a very close syntactic
and semantic relationship.

Example:

*dining room*  *drawing pen*  *timekeeper*

**D. Wishy Wishy Word**

Wishy Wishy Word or reduplication is the repetition of all or part
of a word. Katamba (2005) has stated there are two main types of
reduplication: rhyme motivated compounds and ablaut motivated
compounds. Rhyme means what implies in poetry: the vowels and any
consonants that show up after it in the last syllable are indistinguishable
while ablaut means a change in the root vowel.

a) **Rhyme Motivated Compounds**

The repetition of the bases or copying the rhyme

Example:

*super duper*  *helter-skelter*  *double trouble*

b) **Ablaut Motivated Compounds**

Copying the consonants and altering the vowel

Example:

*flim flam*  *zig zag*  *tick-tock*

**2.2 Language Variation**

Any natural language in the world exists simultaneously in several
varieties at the same time. The existence of language varieties side by side is
called language variation. Moreover, the coexisting varieties are also constantly changing in the time dimension (Varga, 2010). Languages vary in many ways. The appearance of a regional dialect and social dialect tells us essential things about languages and how they change (Wardhaugh, 2006).

According to Varga (2010), language variation has several categories based on user-related variation that will explain in the following paragraph.

**2.2.1 Dialect**

That variety of a language which is used in a certain geographical area is known as regional dialect or just dialect. Dialects can differ in vocabulary, pronunciation and even morphology and syntax.

**2.2.2 Sociolect**

A sociolect is a variety of languages used by people in the same sociocultural position. It frequently occurs that one of the regional varieties gains social political priority over the others and will become the standard variety (or prestige variety). This standard variety is no longer restricted to the geographical area, but rather a social dialect.

**2.2.3 Pidgin**

Pidgin is commonly the simplified version of a European language, containing features of one or more local languages, used for occasional communication between people without a common language, in West Africa or in the Far East. For example, Melanesian Pidgin English (called *Tok Pisin*) is used in Australian New Guinea and the nearby islands.
2.2.4 Creole

When a pidgin turns into community’s language, it is called a creole. For instance, in Jamaica, in addition to Standard English, there exist several kinds of Creole English.

2.2.5 Child Language and Gender Difference

These varieties of language assign to the age and sex of the language user. However, such features are not systematic enough to arrange clearly recognizable varieties. For instance, although one can notice a few features inclined to occur more often in the language of female speakers than in the language of male speakers (and vice versa), it would be unjustified to separate feminine and masculine varieties of English.

2.2.6 Style

This is conditioned by the speaker relative social status and attitude towards their interlocutors (e.g. they can talk to equals, to people in higher or lower social strata, they may talk to someone who they have never seen before, etc.). We are able to recognize sentences which are clearly formal or informal in this kind of language variation. Formal style is usually impersonal and polite, for example public speeches and serious writing. In contrast, informal or colloquial language characterizes private and informal conversations. For instance is slang language. Slang can be described as very informal language, which may include the utilize of nonstandard features.
2.2.7 Register

It is a variety of language used by the speaker in particular circumstances. Each area of interest, activity, occupation is linked to a special vocabulary, and it is primarily these vocabulary differences that underlie the different registers, for instance the register in the barista field, like *forth* or *foam*, *cupping*, and *solo*.

2.3 Slang

Slang is the terminology used to describe a variety of languages with an informal vocabulary that is frequently faddy (Katamba, 2005). Slang is a major source of new words often with a very limited life expectancy. Some slang expressions are related to specific groups of people, so we can distinguish e.g. army slang, school slang, etc., to this extent slang is partly user-related (Varga, 2010). Slang is neither a jargon nor a register. Slang is a part of language variation style which defines as informal language. Meanwhile, jargon is one of the original derogatory terms for a pidgin and, register is the language variations used to accelerate communication within certain groups (Wardhaugh, 2006).

2.3.1 Kind of Slang

According to Mattiello (2005), there are two kinds of slang language:

a) Specific Slang

Specific slang is a language used by speakers to reveal their membership of a group and to establish solidarity or closeness with other members of the group. It is often used by speakers to initiate their own
identity, including aspects such as social status and geographical belonging, or even age, education, occupation, lifestyle and special interest. For example *cooker* (‘a person who makes methamphetamine’), *mad hatter* (‘someone who sells drugs and other illegal substances’) and *pill on deck* (‘waiting’) belong to the vocabulary of drug addicts and drug dealers.

b) General Slang

General slang is a language intentionally used by speakers to break with the standard language and to alternate the level of conversation towards formality. For example, items like *benvy* (‘an alcoholic drink’), *caff* (‘a café’) and *fiver* (‘a five-pound bank note’) are much more likely to get established as informal or colloquial English.

2.3.2 The Reason for Using Slang Language

There are a number of reasons for the use of slang language, according to Turunen (2016):

a) As a secret language

According to Burridge (as cited in Turunen, 2016), one of the purposes of using slang is to exclude outsiders and not to let them recognize what the insiders are talking about or planning.

b) To make communication easier

Slang words are highly used in daily communication. These words which are informal make many people utilize it in term to make it easier.
c) **To make it friendlier**

Quirk et al. (as cited in Turunen, 2016) another motive why slangy language may additionally be used is the speaker's indifferent attitude towards what the listener might think of the speaker's language use. Because the more polite or impersonal attitude, the speaker has towards the hearer and the topic, the more formal his/her choice of words and grammar will be. The opposite is also true: the speaker's friendlier attitude towards the hearer would result in less formal language and grammar.

### 2.4 Instagram

Instagram, a social media app, is getting to be progressively well known becoming for business and communication tool (Lavoie, 2015). Originally launched in 2010, Instagram is a mobile photo-sharing application. From the company’s website, Instagram has over 400 million active monthly users who shared over 40 billion pictures, with an average of 3.5 billion daily likes for more than 80 million photos shared daily on the site (Instagram, 2016). The official Instagram application is available on mobile operating systems such as Apple’s iOS and Google’s Android (Lee et al, 2015).

#### 2.4.1 The Feature of Instagram

Take from the official website, https://help.instagram.com/ the application of Instagram has some features that user can use.
A. Explore

A tab inside the app that shows popular photos. The photos are automatically selected based on things like the people you follow or the posts you like.

B. Photographic Filters

Instagram offers a number of photographic filters that users can apply to make their photos have a different effect.

For example:

- Brannan: Increases contrast and exposure and adds a metallic tint
- Earlybird: Gives photographs an older look with a sepia tint and warm temperature

To give a filter to your photo or video, swipe left or right after taking it. You can also tap the following creative tools at the top of the screen like emoji or sticker.

C. Video

Initially a purely photo-sharing service, Instagram introduced 15-second video sharing in June 2013. In March 2016, the 15-second video limit was increased to 60 seconds. In addition, you can not take or upload videos from a desktop computer; it is just available using a smartphone.

D. IGTV

IG TV is a vertical video application launched by Instagram in June 2018. IGTV allows uploads of up to 10 minutes in length with a file
size of up to 650 MB. The maximum file size for videos up to 60 minutes is 3.6 GB. Before you can post videos to IGTV, firstly you need to create a channel.

**E. Instagram Direct**

In December 2013, Instagram announced Instagram Direct, a feature that lets users interact through private messaging. Users who follow each other can send private messages with photos and videos. When users receive a private message from someone they don't follow, the message is marked as pending and the user must accept to see it.

**F. Instagram Stories**

In August 2016, Instagram launched Instagram Stories, a feature that allows users to take photos, add effects and layers, and add them to their Instagram story. Images uploaded to a user's story expire after 24 hours. You can add stories as highlights to make it always appear in your profile.