

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL REVIEW

A. Word

Oxford Dictionary (1991:477) defines word as written or spoken unit of language”. In line with Kennedy (2003:59), words are sometimes thought of as basic building blocks of a language. Word can be grouped into parts of speech or word classes. Word classes is a term that is commonly used nowadays by linguist to refer to what used to be called “ parts of speech”.

Delahunty and Garvey (2010:77) gathered the part of speech into two group, the lexical (a.k.a. major) word classes (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs) and the grammatical (a.k.a minor) word classes (prepositions, pronouns, articles, conjunctions).

1. The Major Parts of Speech

a. Nouns

Burton & Roberts (1997:55) said, a very traditional definition of what a noun is the name of a person, place, or thing. There are problem with this definition. For example, ‘thing’ has to be interpreted very broadly, to include substances like butter and foam (since *butter* and *foam* are nouns), abstract concepts like honesty and multiplication (since *honesty* and *multiplication* are nouns), collections of things like federations, crowds, and cutlery, and phenomena like gravity and time (for the same reason). Additionally Aarts (2001:27) said that a description like this is called a *notional definition*, because it offers a characterisation, in this case of a word class, in terms of concept of meaning. A

problem with the notional definition of nouns is that it leaves a great number of words unaccounted for, which could also be said to belong to the class of nouns, but which do not denote people, animals, things or places. These include words that denote abstract ideas or concepts (e.g. *death, sincerity, succes*), emotional states (e.g. *happines, love*), bodily sensations (e.g. *dizziness, pain*) and host of others.

Moreover Raimes (2004:81) said that there are many nouns than any other part of speech. Since nouns are of various types in English, you are constantly having to make decisions as you write. For example, you may have to decide if a noun requires a capital letter or not. You may also have to decide if a noun should be in the plural form, and if so, how to form the plural. Most important, in English, you will have to decide if a noun can be counted or not.

Here are some further examples of nouns: *January, Frankestein, Bugsy, Jessica, Java, Portsmouth, gorilla, university, jam, theory, inspector, nationalism, gremlin, joke, tactic, gallon, furniture, year, couple*. (Adopted from: Burton & Roberts, 1997:55)

b. Verbs

They are traditionally viewed as words that denote actions states of being. Verbs include words such as *eat, leave, know, be, have, own, cough* (Delahunty and Garvey, 2010:77). Additionally, Murcia and Freeman (1999:16) state that verb in morphology in English is richer than noun morphology. Four inflections that can be used with English verbs:

- 1) *-s* of third person singular present tense verbs: *Sue jogses everyday.*
- 2) *-ed* of past tense verbs: *She jogged yesterday.*
- 3) *-en* of the past participle: *He has seen the movie three times already.*
- 4) *-ing* of to the present participle: *I am teaching three courses this terms.*(Adopted from: Murcia and Freeman,1999:16)

c. Adjectives

They denote qualities and are traditionally defined as a words that modify nouns. Adjectives include words such as *old, wise, red, attractive, friendly* (Delahunty and Garvey, 2010:77). Additionally, Murcia and Freeman (1999:17) in Chalker (1984) state that adjective commonly occur between a determiner and a noun, or after *be* or other linking verbs, although they can also follow a noun. Many adjectives have no typical form, but certain derivational morphemes are associated with adjectives, such as *-able* (likeable), *-ish* (childish), *-ful* (thoughtful) and *-y* (lazy).

English adjectives do not agree in number or gender with nouns as they do in some other languages; however, some of them have inflectional morphemes for comparative and superlative forms such as *happy, happier, happiest.*

The function of adjectives is to modify or complement nouns. There are two adjective types *attributive*, which precede nouns, and *predicative* which follow linking verbs.

Attributive : *The old bucket sprang a leak*

Predicative : *He became angry at the very thought*

d. Adverbs

They are traditionally defines a a word that modify verbs, though they also modify adjectives, adverbs, and setences. Adverbs include *wisely*, *attractively*, *regretfully*, *rapidly*, *wildly*, *knowledgeably*, *frequently* (Delahunty and Garvey, 2010:78). Particularly common are adverbs of direction, location, manner, time, and frequency.

Direction : *Jim pointed there.*

Location : Isabel shops locally.

Manner : The choir sang joyfully at the ordination.

Time : *Soon Rachel will retire.*

Frequency : *We visit our friends in detroit occasionally* (Adopted from : Murcia and Freeman, 1999:18).

2. The Minor Parts of Speech

a. Pronouns

Kennedy (2003:168) defines pronouns as function words which stand in place of nouns or noun phrases. Murcia and Freeman (1999:18) explain thatthere are many different kinds of pronouns: subject (*I, you, he, she, it, we, they*), object (*me, you, him, her, it, us, them*), reflexive (*myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, themeselves*), possessive (*mine, yours, his, hers, ours, theirs*), demonstrative (*this, that, these, those*), and others. The forms within each category are distinguished by number, person (first, second, and third), gender, and in the case of demonstratives, by number, and proximity.

b. Articles

Articles always function as modifiers of the head noun in a noun phrase, and traditionally are assumed to contain only two words: the indefinite article *a(n)* and the definite article *the* (Delahunty and Garvey, 2010:208).

- 1) Use *the* when you know or assume that your listener is familiar with and thinking about the same specific thing or person you are talking about. As in “*The* sun is bright today”.
- 2) Use *the* for the second mention of an indefinite noun. As in “Yesterday I saw some dogs, *The* dogs were chasing a cat”. (Adopted from: Azar, 1999:115)

c. Prepositions

Burton and Roberts (1997:65) define prepositions as generally short words that express relations, often locational relations in space or time. In line with Murcia and Freeman (1999:19) which explain prepositions is to connect words to other parts of a sentence and have a close relationship with the word that follows, which is usually a noun. Together a preposition and a noun comprise a prepositional phrase. Prepositions are usually one word (*in, to, at*), but sometimes can be two or three (*out of, on top of*). Prepositions prototypically signal spatial relationship, but certain prepositions can also signal the grammatical category of *case*, which is often displayed in other languages through morphological means. Case depicts the role relationship between words. for example:

- 1) *Dative case*: Marge gave a donation *to* charity. (The preposition *to* marks the dative (“receiver”) function *charity*.)

- 2) *Ablative case* : The charity received a donation *from* Marge. (The preposition *from* marks the ablative (“source”) function of *Marge*.)

d. Conjunctions

Conjunctions belong to a closed class of words that have a linking function (Aarts, 2001:46). There are *coordinating conjunctions*, such as *and*, *but*, and *or*, which join elements that are grammatically equal. For example:

- 1) Marianne *and* Diane wrote this book.
- 2) Diane lives in Vermont, *but* Marianne lives in California.

And there are subordinating conjunctions, which we call *adverbial subordinators*, such as *because* and *although*, which join a subordinate clause to a main one:

- 1) It was hard to write a book together *because* they live so far apart.
- 2) *Although* Marianne and Diane live far apart, they are still friends

(Adopted from: Murcia and Freeman, 1999:19)

B. Word Formation

Because of new intentions and changes, every language is in need of new words – borrowed, derived or otherwise formed – simply because new things need new words. The human community is steadily growing and developing, just as the tool we use to communicate: Language. When new inventions and changes enter our lives, we are in the need of naming them and of course to communicate about them. Language is dynamic, it changes constantly. (Wagner 2010:3)

Richard et. Al (1990) in Rahmawati (2012) states that according to the Dictionary of applied Linguistics, word formation is the creation of a new word. In

general there are many ways in which new words are created: if there is a new thing and the language community has no word for it, there are several options to create a new one. In the past and the present, people have used a variety of methods to create new words. (Katie 2013:2)

In this research, basically the writer uses the word formation processes theories by Yule combine with others to analyze the data. Yule explores some basic processes by which new words are created. They are coinage, borrowing, compounding, blending, clipping, backformation, conversion, acronyms, derivation, and multiple processes. Here are the word formation processes.

C. Word Formation Processes

1. Acronyms

Acronyms are new words formed from the initial letters of a set of other words (Yule, 2006:57). He states that acronyms could be pronounced as single words such as:

- a. *UNESCO* ('United Nation Educational, Scientific, and Cultural'),
- b. *NATO* ('North Atlantic Treaty Organization'),
- c. *NASA* ('National Aeronautics and Space Administration')

also can be pronounced by saying each separate letter such as *CD* ('compact disk') or *VCR* ('video cassette recorder') while Wagner (2010:6) categorizes those forms as initialism. She believes that most famous word based on a shortening is the initialism *OK* whose origins are fairly argumentative. She also divides initialism into a few groups:

- a. Recursive initialism, in which the abbreviation refers to itself (*PHP-PHP hypertext preprocessor*).
- b. Pseudo-initialism, which consist of a sequence of characters that, when pronounced as intended, invoke other, longer words (*IOU – I owe you, CU – see you*). This kind of initialism is frequently seen on the internet.

Zapata (2007:8) said that, in fact some acronyms are not often read as a sequence of letter but preferably as the words they stand for, for example, e.g is read for example; *i.e.* is read *that is, namely*; *c/o* is read (*in*) *care of*, and so on.

Talk about abbreviation, according to Kridalaksana (2007a:159) in Rahmawati (2012) abbreviation is a process of putting off one or some parts of lexeme or a combination of lexemes so it becomes a new word form. Although abbreviation is largely a convention of written language, sometimes abbreviations carry over into spoken language, for example:

Written Abbreviations: cm – centimeter(s), Dr. – doctor

Spoken-Written Abbreviations: A.M. – ante meridiem [in the morning], VIP – very important person

There are two kinds of abbreviation, they are:

- a. Initialism

Initialism is a type of abbreviation formed by the initial letters of the words and read them by spelling each word, for example: UN for United Nations.

b. Acronym

Acronym is formed by taking the initial letters of some or all of the words in a phrase or title and reading them as a word, for example: NATO for North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (O'Grady and Guzman, 1996:159).

The difference between an abbreviation and an acronym is that an abbreviation is the articulated form of the original word whereas the acronym is a form of new word. For example :UNESCO, Laser, Radar are some of the acronyms whereas UK, USA, CBI are abbreviations. An acronym is pronounced as a new word signifying some concept while abbreviation is pronounced as the original word letter by letter. (Kumar, 2009)

2. Backformation

Yule said that a very specialized type of reduction process is known as backformation. Typically, a word of one type (usually noun) is reduced to form a word of another type (usually a verb) (2006:56). Quirk, Fromkin & Rodman, Richards et al (1985) in Zapata (2007:10) state that back-formation is the process by which new words are formed by the deletion of a supposed affix from an already existing word. A good example of backformation is the process whereby the noun television first came into use and then the verb *televise* was created from it. Other examples of words created by this process are :

- a. *Donate* from *donation*
- b. *Emote* from *emotion*
- c. *Enthuse* from *enthusiasm*
- d. *Babysit* from *babysitter* (Yule, 2006:54)

3. Blending

Blending involves taking two or more words, removing parts of each, and joining the residues together to create a new word whose form and meaning are taken from the source words (Delahunty and Garvey, 2010:137). However, blending is typically accomplished by taking only the beginning of one word and joining it to the end of the other word. Some examples of blending can be seen below:

- a. *Smog*, from (*smoke* + *fog*)
- b. *Motel*, from (*motor* + *hotel*)
- c. *Brunch*, from (*breakfast* + *lunch*)
- d. *Modem*, from (*modulator* + *demodulator*) (Yule, 2006:55)

4. Borrowing

Wagner describes that borrowing is the process of actually borrowing words from foreign language. It means that some new words are formed by adopting words from other languages. The English language has been borrowing words from “nearly a hundred languages in the last hundred years” (2010:6) for examples *Chorus* from (*Greek*), and *Semester* from (*German*).

The borrowed word never remains a perfect copy of its original. It is made to fit the phonological, morphological, and syntactic patterns of its new language. For example, the Spanish pronunciation of *burrito* is very different from the English pronunciation. At the very least, the two languages use different /r/s and t/s, and the plural marker {-s} is voiced in English but voiceless in Spanish (Delahunty and Garvey 2010:137).

5. Clipping

Zapata (2007:8) states that clipping is the processes whereby new words are formed by shortening other words i.e., by eliminating the initial part, the last part, or both parts, of those words. Clipped forms generally show a certain tone of informality, which is often reflected in their spelling; e.g., *showbiz* for *showbusiness*, *'cause* (*'cus* or *cos*) for *because*, *praps* for *perhaps*. Note that in some cases the spelling is adapted to suit the pronunciation of the original word, as in *mike* for *microphone*, *Mike* for *Michael*, *nark* for *narcotics*, *bike* for *bicycle*.

It means the shortening process is cutting off the beginning or the last, or both, leaving a part to stand for a whole. Allan (1986:239) divides three categories of clipping, they are:

a. Foreclipping

Foreclipping are those with the first part of the original word cut off, for example : *Burger* for *hamburger* and *Phone* for *telephone*.

b. Backclipping

Backclipping is where the tail – end of the original has been shorn off, for example : *Lab* for *laboratory* and *Demo* for *demonstration*

c. Fore-back clipping

Fore-back clipping is where the first part and the tail –end of the original has been cut off. This kind of clipping is rarest happened , for example : *Flu* for *influenza* and *Jams* for *pajamas*.

6. Coinage

According to Yule (2006:53), coinage is the invention of totally new terms. The most typical sources are invented trade names for commercial products that become general terms (usually without capital letters) for any version of that product. While Zapata (2007:10) defines coinage as the process whereby new words are created outright, either deliberately or accidentally, to fit some purpose. For example :*Kleenex*, *Teflon*, *Xerox*, etc

7. Compounding

Compounding consist its in the combination of two or more (usually free) roots to form a new word (2007:10). As Wisnicki (2007:4) in Wagner says that compounding is the process of putting words together to build a new one that “does not denote two things, but one” and that is “pronounced as one unit”. As in Zapata (2007:4), compound words can be written in three different ways:

- a. Open, i.e., with a space between the parts of the component; e.g., *toy store*, *diving board*, *flower pot*.
- b. Hyphenated, i.e., with a hyphen (-) separating the elements of the compound; e.g., *flower-pot*, *air-brake*, *she-pony*.
- c. Solid, e.g., without a space or hyphen between the component elements of the compound; e.g., *flowerpot*, *washrooms*, *pickpocket*.

Delahunty and Garvey (2010:33) point out a number of ways of approaching the study and clasiffication of compund words, the most accesible of which is to clasify them according to the part of speech of the compound and then

sub-classify the according to the part of speech of its constituent. They also display table which is based on discussion in Bauer (1983).

1) Compound nouns

- a) Noun + noun: bath towel; boy-friend; death blow
- b) Verb + noun: pickpocket; breakfast
- c) Noun + verb: nosebleed; sunshine
- d) Verb+verb : make-believe
- e) Adjective + noun: deep structure; fast-food
- f) Particle + noun: in-crowd; down-town
- g) Adverb + noun: now generation
- h) Verb + particle: cop-out; drop-out
- i) Phrase compounds: son-in-law

2) Compound verbs

- a. Noun + verb: sky-dive
- b. Adjective + verb: fine-tune
- c. Particle + verb: overbook
- d. Adjective + noun: brown-bag

3) Compound adjectives

- a. Noun + adjectives: card-carrying; chilproof
- b. Verb + adjective: fail safe
- c. Adjective + adjective: open-ended
- d. Adverb + adjective: cross-modal
- e. Particle + adjective: over-qualified

- f. Noun + noun: coffe-table
- g. Verb + noun: roll-neck
- h. Adjective + noun: red-brick; blue-collar
- i. Particle + noun: in-depth
- j. Verb + verb: go-go; make-believe
- k. Adjective/adverb + verb: high-rise
- l. verb + particle: see-through; tow-away

4) Compound adverbs

Uptightly

Cross-modally

5) Neo-classsical compounds

Astro-naut

Hydro-electric

Mechano-phobe

8. Conversion

New words can also can be created by changing a word class without derivational affixes thus, the noun *email* (electronic mail) can be used as a verb, e.g. *i'll email her*. There are many thousand of examples of words which began their life as nouns and came to be used as verbs (e.g. *comb*, *hammer*, *mother*, *microwave*, *ship*, *cash*). This process is called conversion. Other examples of conversion are when verbs come to be used as nouns (e.g. *laugh*, *run*, *drink*), or when verbs come to be used as verbs (e.g. *clean*, *clear*) (Keneddy 2003:78).

9. Derivation

According to Delahunty and Garvey (2010:129) derivation is the process of creating separate but morphologically related words. It involves one or more changes in form typically, but not always. It can involve prefixing, as in *resaw*, and suffixing, as in *sawing, sawer, sawable*. Yule (2006:57) gives some familiar examples of affixes, such *un-*, *mis-*, *pre-*, *-ful*, *-less*, *-ish*, *-ism*, and *-ness* which appear in words like *unhappy*, *misrespent*, *prejudge*, *joyful*, *careless*, *boyish*, *terrorism*, and *sadness*.

a. Prefixes

Prefixes are the affixes that have to be added to the beginning of the word (e.g. *un-*)

b. Suffixes

Suffixes are the affixes that have to be added to the end of the word (e.g. *ish*) (2006:58)

Wagner (2010) displays table as the example of prefixes and suffixes below:

Table 2.1 Examples of prefixes

Prefix	Meaning	Example
Dis-, un-, anti-, (de-)	Opposite, negative	<i>Diresespect, unsteady, antibiotic, (desposal)</i>
Ex-	Out, upward, previous	<i>Exclude, expand</i>
a-	Without, not	<i>Atheist</i>
Re-	Again, repeatedly (some exceptions)	<i>Replay (remove, remote)</i>
Non-	Absence, negation	<i>Non-smoker</i>

Adopted: Wagner (2010:4)

Table 2.2 Examples of suffixes

Suffix	Meaning	Example
-er, -or, -ar	Creates an agent noun	<i>Designer</i> (-one who designs; Finegan, 2007)
-ness, -ation, -ment	Verb-to-noun derivation	<i>Sadness, hesitation, treatment</i>
-less	Lack of	<i>Merciles</i>
-ize, -ate	Creates verbs	<i>Terrorize, hyphenate</i>
-al, -able, -ary, -full	Creates adjectives	<i>Accidental, believable, imaginary, peaceful</i>

Adopted: Wagner (2010:4)

10. Multiple Processes

Although we have concentrated on each of these word-formation processes in isolation, it is possible to trace the operation of more than one process at work in the creation of a particular word. For more example, the term *deli* seems to have become a common American English expression via a process of first borrowing *delicatessen* (from German) and then clipping that borrowed form. If someone says that *problems with the project have snowballed*, the final word can be analyzed as an example of compounding in which *snow* and *ball* were combined to form the noun *snowball*, which was then turned into a verb through conversion. (Yule 2006:58).

D. Social Media

1. Definition of Social Media

Johansson (2010) in Kaplan and Haenlin (2010:60) defines social media as “a group of Internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0, and that allow the creation and exchange of user-generated content”. Social media can take many different forms, including social networks, Internet forums, weblogs, social blogs, micro blogging, wikis, podcast, pictures, video, rating, and social bookmarking. (Johansson in Kaplan and Haeinlen,2010;Weber,2009)

Another opinion from Mayfield (2008:5), social media is best understood as a group of new kinds of online media, which share most or all of the following characteristics:

a. Participation

Social media encourages contributions and feedback from everyone who is interested. It blur the line between media and audience.

b. Openness

Most social media services are open to feedback and participation. They encourage voting, comments and the sharring information. They are rarely any barriers to accessing and making use of content-password-protected content is frowned on.

c. Conversation

Whereas tradional media is about “broadcast” (content transmitted or distributed to an audience) social media is better seen as a two-way conversation.

d. Community

Social media allows communities to form quickly and communicate effectively. Communities share common interest, such as love of photography, a political issue or a favorite TV show

e. Connectedness

Most kinds of social media thrive on their connectedness, making use of links to other sites, resources and people.

2. Basic Forms of Social Media

At this time, there are basically six kinds of social media. Note, though, that innovation and change are rife.

a. Social Networks

These sites allow people to build personal web pages and then connect with friends to share content and communication. The biggest social networks are MySpace, Facebook and Bebo (Mayfield, 2008:6). Yet, Moreau (2014) in her online article categorizing Instagram as Social networking sites along with Twitter, Google+, Youtube, LinkedIn, etc.

b. Blogs

Perhaps the best known form of social media, blogs are online journals, with entries appearing with the most recent first.

c. Wikis

These websites allow people to add content to or edit the information on them, acting as a communal document or database. The best-known wiki is

Wikipedia, the online encyclopedia which has over 2 million English language articles.

d. Podcast

Audio and video files that are available by subscription, though services like Apple iTunes.

e. Forums

Areas for online discussion, often around specific topics, and interest forums came about before the term “social media” and are a powerful and popular element of online communities.

f. Content Communities

Communities which organise and share particular kinds of content. The most popular content communities tend to form around photos (Flickr), bookmarked links (del.ici.us) and video (YouTube) (Mayfield, 2008:6).

g. Microblogging

Social networking combined with bite-sized blogging, where small amounts of content (‘updates’) are distributed online and through the mobile phone network. Twitter is the clear leader in this field (Mayfield, 2008:6).

Twitter is a microblogging service less than three years old, commands more than 41 million users as of July 2009 and is growing fast (Kwak, Lee, Park, Moon, 2010).

E. Instagram & Twitter

1. Instagram

Hu, Wang, and Kambhupati (2013) define Instagram as a relatively new form of communication where users can easily share their updates by taking photos and tweaking them using filters. Additionally, in Instagram (2013) they describe Instagram as a mobile photo (and video) capturing and sharing service, has quickly emerged as a new medium in spotlight in the recent years. It provides users an instantaneous way to capture and share their life moments with friends through a series of (filter manipulated) pictures and videos. Since its launch in October 2010, it has attracted more than 16 billion photos shared so far. Akron-Summit County Public Library (2013) shows the things that members of Instagram can, and Instagram terms as below:

- a. Upload photos to multiple social media networks instantly. (Facebook, Twitter, etc)
- b. Follow special interest group. (Fishing, Beauty, Cars, Sports, Tattoos)
- c. Follow other members such as celebrities and friends.
- d. Highlight and share important events in your life through photography.

Instagram terms :

- a. Post-Photos you share on Instagram
- b. Tagging- a link to a profile page or group of photos.
- c. Followers- people who have acces to your Instagram information.
- d. To comment.

- e. To like- a “thumbs up” or a signal that you like, approve, agree, with what someone posts.
- f. Notification- a signal that someone has or wants to interact with you.
- g. Profile page (collection of your things) set up in a timeline format.
- h. Navigation Bar: located at the bottom of your screen.

2. Twitter

Twitter, a microblogging service, has emerged as a new medium in spotlight through recent happenings. twitter users follow others or are followed. Unlike on most online social networking sites, such as Facebook or MySpace, the relationship of following and being followed requires no reciprocation. A user can follow any other user, and the user being followed need not to followback. Being a follower on Twitter means that the user receives all the messages (called *tweets*) from those the user follows ((Kwak, Lee, Park, Moon, 2010). Tweets are short, only 140 characters long, so they are easy to skim (Kingston, 2011). She also explain that the Twitter community consist of :

a. People You Follow

You define your community by following other Twitter users. You see the tweets created by everyone you follow.

b. People Who Follow You

Other people read your tweets and decide to follow you. Your followers see the tweets you send out.

F. Word-Formation Used in Social Media.

According to Hetal and Jigisha (2014) English is the globally accepted language in variation nations and professions in different varieties, but the English that has acquired a wider spectrum than all these Englishes is the English used in Social Networking Sites which has changed the scenario of English language usage due to the ease in its accessibility and the kind of flexibility language usage. The English used in Social Networking Sites like Facebook and Twitter has changed the linguistic behaviour of the people by producing a number of acronyms like BFF, FB, etc, creating new verb forms like *'to tweet'* or nouns like *'tweeple'*, or producing many compound nouns such as *'netiquette'*, or making use of prefixes like 'un' for the purpose of conveying the meaning of negation as in *'unlike a comment/update'*.

With the advent of Social Networking Sites, many new words have emerged. Many nouns have been transferred into verbs with the expansion in their utility. The word *'facebook'* is a noun – it is a name of social networking site, but the word *'facebook'* is changed from noun to verb. It is a noun as it refers to *'a thing'* and a verb as it shows *'an action, an event or a state'*. The same is the case with *'myspace'* and *'twitter'* which have become quite versatile words. When we find ourselves and others *'myspacing'* or *'tweeting'*, we find *'updating our status on that SNS'*, *'commenting'* and *'sharing our ideas on that site'*. The meaning of certain words have completely changed with their use in Social Networking Sites

In their journal they found some of Yule's theory the word-formation processes kinds used in social networking sites, such as compounding (netiquette

from net+etiquette), (frenemy from friend+enemy), acronyms (OMG-oh my god), (LOL-laugh out loud), clipping (mornin-morning), (hav-have).

Additionally, Dewi and Rivia (2013) in their journal they found six word-formation processes of colloquial words in Facebook which is part of Social media. They are borrowing, clipping, compounding, affixes, acronyms and coinage.