

## CHAPTER II

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### **2.1 Theoretical Framework**

##### **2.1.1 Jargon**

###### **2.1.1.1 Gaming Word**

Gaming words are the same as a jargon in which it is used by special activity or a group. According to Claudle (1999) Jargon is an outlandish of technical language of a particular profession, group, or trade which used by people that have a similar interest. In Airsoft Gun community, it has own jargon of the Airsoft Gun community member. In the playing a game, usually the player uses particular language to communicate with another player in the game. The particular language to communicate is gaming words. Gaming words are unique word which has been creating by the player of a particular game.

Gaming words are unique words which have been created by the players of a particular game. Gaming words are used by the player in the same game via internet connection, such as in the discussion forum (Wright et al, 2002). Gaming words are jargons used in special activity in a group.

Gaming words are based on the typology which was introduced by Wright et al (2002) is helpful to find out the information of gaming words. According to

Wright (2002), gaming words divide into several categories: (1) Creative Game Talk which used to give a name part of Airsoft Gun and changing game rules, it is used to classifying the name of part, the identity of player, and the rules in gaming field. (2) Game Conflict Talk which is use to accusing someone who cheat and for disputing, it is used to classifying complain or protest word. (3) Insult/Distancing Talk which is used to Pissed off talk/exclamations/surprise, it is used to classifying the expression of the player who angry and annoyance. (4) Performance Talk is used to discuss about Game strategy / tactical talk (what should to do and the knowledge of the map), it is used to classifying type of uniform and the type of the weapon which are used in the gaming field. (5) Game Technical / External Talk which used to talk about technical matters and request for information, it is used to classifying the accessories, the part of the weapon, and the type of the brand which all of them are the outside of the main point game of Airsoft Gun in the gaming field.

The writer recognize the gaming words based on typology and the interview, the writer has interviewed to some player who expert in this game. This interviewed is helpful to identify the gaming words in Airsoft Gun internet community forum.

### **2.1.2 Word Formation Processes by Laurie Bauer (1988)**

The writer uses Laurie Bauer's theory of word formation process, because of some reason. The various processes in which new words are built (Bauer, 1988). The writer chooses the Bauer's theory because the theory is clearer and gives better understand from another theory. Bauer's theory can be applied in the

any language because in his book there are various language used as examples. Bauer's theory divides the word formation processes into 9 process, There are : using affixes, reduplication, modification of the base, relationships with no change of form, cases involving shortening base, processes involving several lexemes, alphabet-based formation, unique morph, and suppletion.

### 2.1.2.1 Word-building Process Using Affixes

The most common way of building new words in the languages of the world is by using affixes. The commonest type of affix by far is suffixes (Bauer, 1988), According to Bauer (1988), affixes divide word-building processes using affixes into six types :

1. *Suffixes* are affixes which are added at the end of the word. Suffixes are used for all purposes in morphology (Bauer, 1988). They are used derivationally as in:

*Constitute + ion + al + ity*

2. *Prefixes* are affixes which are added at the beginning of words. Prefixes work rarer than suffixes, but prefixes work in very much the same way as suffixes. They can be used derivationally as in :

*Un + thank + ful*

(derive)      (derive)

*Re + build*

(derive) (infl)

3. *Circumfixes*. In some case, a prefix and a suffix act together to surround a base. If none of these affixes is used on its own, and the two seem to realize a single morpheme, they are sometimes classed together as a circumfixes. In German there are some cases which can be illustrated as circumfixes, where the past participle of weak verbs is made by adding a prefix *ge-* and simultaneously, a suffix *-t*. That is, the base is enclosed in affixes, none of which can occur on its own in the forms of question.

This is illustrated as below:

Film • en      ‘to film’      ge • film • t      ‘filmed’

Zeig • en      ‘to show’      ge • zeig • t      ‘shown’

\**Ge • film* etc do not occur

\**film • t* etc do not occur in this meaning but only as 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular present tense forms.

4. *Infixes* are affixes which are added in the middle of word and are called by ‘infix’. Since infixes create discontinuous bases, the rarity of a discontinuous morphs also account for the relative rarity of infixation (the use of infixes) in the languages of the world. However in other language, it can be used in better way, for exmple in Tagalog from Philipphine in the list below :

Sulat                      ‘write’

S • um • ulat            ‘wrote’

S • in • ulat            ‘was written

5. *Interfixes* are rather special kind of infixes which can be found, for example, in many of Germanic languages where there is a linking element appearing between the two elements of a compound. This can be illustrated from German words as below:

Element 1	Element 2	Compound	Gloss
Auge	Arzt	Auge • n • arzt	‘farmer’s wife’
Schwester	Paar	Schwester • n • paar	‘pair of sister’
Uhr	Kasten	Uhr • en • kasten	‘clock case’

6. *Transfixes* are another special kind of infix which involve not only discontinuous affixes but also discontinuous bases. There are affixes which occur throughout the base, and they are thus termed transfixes. Transfixes appear only in Semitic languages :

mak’tuub	‘written’	mad’ruus
	‘studied’	
mak’taba	‘bookshop’	mad’rasa
	‘school’	

ma'kaatib	'bookshops'	ma'daaris
	'schools'	

### 2.1.2.2 Reduplication

Reduplication, or using some parts of the base (which may be the entire base) more than once in the word, is far more common across languages than the rarer types of affixation illustrated above. Reduplication can also form the type of Affix. That is, part of the word which is repeated may be added to the end or the beginning of the base.

- For the example is from Afrikaans words below which show whole words being reduplicated

Amper	'nearly'	amper • amper	'very nearly
Dik	'thick'	dik • dik	'very thick'
Drie	'three'	drie • drie	'three at a time'

- Reduplicated prefixes as well as whole word reduplication; the examples are from Motu, a language of Papua New Guinea.

Tau	'man'	ta • tau	'men'
Mero	'boy'	me • mero	'boys'
		meromero	'little boys'
		memeromemero	'little boys'

- Reduplicated part is used as a suffix, the example are from the Maori

Aahua            ‘appearance’    aahua • hua            ‘resemble’

Hiikel            ‘step’            hiikei • kei            ‘hop’

Maakuu           ‘moisture’    maakuu • kuu           ‘rather moist’

Bauer (1988) stated that reduplication is frequently used iconically. By this, it means that the form of the word in some way reflects its meaning. So reduplication is frequently used to indicate plurality, intensity and repetition.

### 2.1.2.3 Word-Building by Using Modification of the Base

The most common method is to make some kind of phonological change to the base. The change may be segmental or suprasegmental, and if segmental it may affect consonant or vowels and one or more segments. The terminology surrounding the various types of change is complex, and unfortunately not always illuminating.

It changes the segment of the base in the first modification. In the examples below, a change from a voiceless fricative to a voiced fricative causes a change from noun to a verb in English :

Mouth → mouth

Sheath → sheathe

Strife → strive

Thief → thieve

Wreath → wreath

The more common is modification to a vowel sound. Such modification has a different name depends on its historical source. The result of assimilating to a following vowel (even if the later vowel has subsequently disappeared) is called *Umlaut*. Otherwise it is called *Ablaut*. Either can be referred to as a vowel mutation :

Mouse → Mice

Foot → Feet

Tooth → Teeth

Louse → lice

#### **2.1.2.4 Relationship with No Changing Form**

There are many instances to be found where, although they appear to be an inflectional or derivational relationship between two words, they have precisely the same form :

*deer (singular) → deer (plural)*

*fish (singular) → fish (plural)*

#### **2.1.2.5 Cases which Involve Shortening Bases**

- Backformation

Backformation is a form of reduction which occurs when a word loses part of itself to form another word with different class. Moreover he argues that backformed words are analogically derived by deleting a suffix (or supposed suffix). For example is the word *edit*, that derived from the word *editor* (by deleting *-or* from the base word *editor*). Bauer (1988) argues that there is one important point of backformation: no retrospect, it is invisible. It is only noticeable when the backformation word is unfamiliar. As if we cannot say the word *exhibitor* is a backformed from *exhibition*. This had led some linguists to deny that backformation has any synchronic status as a morphological process. However, we must remember that backformation continues to be synchronically used to produce new lexeme, and thus has to be included in any synchronic grammar.

- Clipping

Clipping is the process of shortening a word without changing its meaning or part of speech (Bauer, 1988). As given in the example below, clipping frequently does change the stylistic value of the word. There is no way to predict how much word that will be clipped of in clipping, nor even which end of the word that will be clipped of. Neither it is possible to say that any given syllable will definitely be retained in clipping. Some examples from English are given below :

*Binoc(ular)s*

*Binocs*

*Deli(catessen)*

*Deli*

*Op(tical)art*                      *Opart*

*Sci(ence)fi(ction)*              *Scifi*

### 2.1.2.6 Processes Which Involve Several Lexemes

#### Compounding

The formation of new lexeme by adjoining two or more lexemes is called compounding or composition. Compounds can be left as individual words, hyphenated, or even pushed together without hyphenation. Compound is very common in any language. It seems that there is no language occurring without compounds, and in many languages, compounds are the main types of new lexeme. Some random examples are given below :

*Finnish*

*Kirje + kuori*                      *letter + cover*                      ‘*envelope*’

*Huone + kalu + tehdas room + article + factory*                      ‘*furniture*  
*factory*’

### 2.1.2.7 Alphabet-Based Formation

Some ways of creating new lexemes (but they are not ways of creating new word-forms of lexemes) depend on the existence of a writing system. They are not universal, since not all languages are written. They do not clearly belong to the heading or morphology, although they are included here for the sake of

completeness. In particular, there are two types which are relevant here: blends and acronyms.

- Blends

Bauer (1988) states that blends are also called *portmanteau* words because there are two meanings which are packed up into one word. In some cases two words are simply merged where they overlap, so no information is lost, but repetition of letter combinations is avoided ; e.g. *glass + asphalt > glasphalt*, *war + orgasm > wargasm*, *slang + language > slanguage*. In most cases, however, there is no overlap, and the new word is created from parts of two other words, with no apparent principles guiding the way in which the two original words are mutilated :

*e.g. flimsy + miserable > mimsy*

*parachute + balloon > paraloon*

*hawk + dove > dawlk*

- Acronyms

Acronyms are words coined from the initial letters of words in a name, title or phrase (Bauer, 1988). They are more than just abbreviations because they are actually pronounced as new words. Bauer (1988) suggests that many acronyms may actually precede the title in which it purports to abbreviate, or at least, the title may be manipulated in order to give an

acronym which is considered suitable for the group concerned. This is particularly the case with the pressure groups for publics :

e.g. *AIDS* < *Acquired Immunity Deficiency Syndrome*

*SALT* > *Strategic Arms Limitation Talks*

Acronyms tend to merge into blend when more than one letter is taken from one syllable of the title. The examples below are taken from Indonesian.

*KOREM* < *Komando Resort Militer* < *Military Command Resort*

*KOPASSUS* < *Komando Pasukan Khusus* < *Special Forces Commands*

#### 2.1.2.8 Unique Morphs

Unique morphs are morphs that only occur in one fixed expression in the language under discussion. Occasionally unique morphs can look like potentially free morphs. Even here, the morphs are bound to this particular collocation. More frequently, there are unique morphs which look like obligatory bound morphs, e.g. *-ter* in *laughter*, *-ert* in *inert*, *luke* in *lukewarm*, *cran* in *cranberry*. Such items are sometimes called cranberry morphs.

The status of unique morphs is determined by parallelism with other morphs which are not unique. The *-ter* in *laughter* is seen to be a suffix because of parallels with things like *arrive-al*, *marri-age*, *inter-jection* which also have a

verb in first position, when the meanings are relatable, and when there are clearly repeated suffixes in parallel constructions. *Cran* is considered to be some kinds of root because of parallels with *blackberry*, *blueberry*, *snowberry*, *waxberry* and so forth. It has to be demanded parallels of a general types before analyzing a unique morphs in order to avoid analyzing a unique morph *-h* in *hear*.

### 2.1.2.9 Suppletion

Although morphologists are continually seeking regularities in the pattern of language, there comes a time when they have to admit defeat, when word-forms of what appear to be same lexeme are so different from each other that they cannot be derived by general rules at all. Suppletion is shown in English in the lexeme GOOD with the two forms *good* and *better*, and the lexeme GO with the two forms *go* and *went*.

## 2.2 Review of Related Studies

There are many studies which use the word formation theory. The study of word formation has been done by Juhamatti Kalima in her journal of “*Word Formation on Internet Gaming Forum*” (2007). Her study focusses on the most common word formation processes that generate new words to be used in an internet forum and why as well as how the new words and terms remain in active use after they are used. Finding new words and classifying them according to word formation processes that were used in creating them.

Another researcher, there is a a linguistic analysis in morphology internet gamers. Dana Driscoll, in his paper “*The Ubercool Morphology of Internet*

*Gamers: A Linguistic Analysis*” (2005) explains about the dialect and word formation processes. In his journal, he describe the standard words were determined by number of speakers and number of occurrences. Each word in the standard dialect was analyzed for morphology, multiple forms, and definition. Throughout the course of the research, it was discovered that many of the terms and phrases the gamers used were incomprehensible even in context.

Moreover, there is a study about word formation in natural language processing system. Roy J. Byrd, in his paper “*Word Formation In Natural Language Processing Systems*” (1998) explains about the word formation. In his paper, he describes word formation rules and the restrictions that govern their application. Section 3 presents a system of morphological rules based in the Linguistic results of section 2. The final section lists applications of the techniques developed in his paper.

All of the writers of the studies mentioned above use word formation processes to their analysis. Three of those studies have similarity with this study that is analyzing word formation processes. However, they are different with the focus of this study. As can be seen, Kalima (2007) focuses on the most common of word formation processes and classifying them through word formation processes, while Driscoll (2007) focuses standard words were determined by number of speakers and number of occurrences and Byrd (1998) focuses on word formation rules and the restrictions that govern their application. In this study, the writer merely focuses on word formation processes of gaming words that are related with *Airsoft Gun* wargame in discussion forum on Airsoft Gun gaming

forum site by classifying and applying based on the typology game talk according Wright (2002) and the theory of word formation processes by Laurie Bauer (1988), to analyze some pattern in the way new words are created.