

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter contains literature review and conceptual framework. Literature review contains theories and definitions which are used in this research. They are used as the basic concept of this research.

A. Literature Review

1. Sociolinguistics

Sociolinguistics is a study of language and society. According to Spolsky (1998: 3), sociolinguistics is the field that studies the relationship between language and society and between the uses of language and the social structures in which the users of language live. In line with Spolsky, Coulmas in Mark Aronoff and Janie Rees-Miller, (2001: 563) states that sociolinguistics is the empirical study of how language is used in society. He also says that sociolinguistics is an inter-disciplinary research which combines linguistics and sociological theories and methods. It has great significance to the variability of language, the multiplicity of language and language forms in society.

Language develops in society. Therefore, people in a society create their own terms to ease their communication. In other words, language is a product of society. Language develops together with the society itself. It relates to Coulmas in Mark Annof and Janie Rees-Miller (2001: 563) who

states that every language is a social product and every society constitutes itself through language.

Sociolinguistics is a study of relationship between language and society including the function of language in the society, where it is used, for whom it is used and when it is used. Holmes (1992: 1) says that sociolinguists study the relationship between language and society. They identify the social functions of language and the ways it is used to convey social meaning. They also explain why people speak differently in different social context.

Eddy : What's wrong, man?
John : The old bastard makes me crazy in the class.
 Damn!
Eddy : Hey, hushhh! He's here.
Eddy : Oh! Hope he didn't hear that.

In the conversation above, John hopes that his teacher doesn't hear his conversation. It means that, sometimes people speak differently in different situation. John's word "Bastard" is the example of informal language which is used among John's friends. "Bastard" is an informal expression of unpleasant person. They create their own words which are related to their interest, context or situation. It relates with Deumert et al (2000: 5-6). They use word "denotational". It is a term which refers to the process of conveying meaning, referring to ideas, events or entities that exist outside language. He says that language is not just denotational. People often show their social and personal background while using language. The use of language depends on one's social class, status, region, origin, gender, age group and so on. The

conversation above shows that sociolinguistics has an important role in our daily life.

Chaika (1982: 2) defines sociolinguistics as the study of how people use language in social interaction. He says that sociolinguists investigate language phenomenon in everyday life, such as how people talk to strangers as well as to their friends, family and teachers and why we speak as we do and they speak as they do. Furthermore, he also says that sociolinguistics apparently concerns with trivial matters. However, sociolinguistics is different from sociology of language. Hudson in Wardhaugh (1998: 13) describes sociolinguistics as the study of language in relation to society, whereas the sociology of language is the study of society in relation to language.

2. Language and Society

Chaika (1982: 1) states that language and society have connectivity. It is impossible to understand one without the other. She says that there is no human society which does not depend on, is not shaped by, and does not itself shape language. In the next page Chaika (1982: 2) says that social institution is maintained by language, such as law, religion, government, education until family. Furthermore, she says that language is used to reveal or conceal our personal identity, our character and our background. Paulston and Tucker (2003: 231) say that language is used as a marker of social identity and group of membership. Various aspects of language spread among the members and for any reason these features are taken as the key or characteristic of a group.

Wardhaugh (1998: 10) explains that there are several possible relationships between language and society. One of the relationships is that social structure may either influence or determine linguistics structure and/or behavior. The certain evidence which is mentioned by Wardhaugh is *age-grading* phenomenon. Children speak and behave differently than adults. The varieties of language, the ways of speaking and choices of words are in fact highly determined by certain social requirements, regional, social and gender.

Sociolinguistics focuses not only on terms of language and society, but also culture since it plays an important part in society. Therefore, society and human behavior indirectly are created by culture. Wardhaugh (1998: 215) says that the exact nature of the relationship between language and culture has fascinated people from a wide variety of backgrounds. According to Whorfian Hypothesis in Wardhaugh (1998: 216), the relationship between language and culture is that the structure of a language determines the way in which speaker of that language views the world. Furthermore, Sapir in Wardhaugh (1998: 216) acknowledges that language and culture are inextricably related to each other. So, one could not understand or appreciate one of them without other knowledge.

3. Language Variety

In this research, the researcher analyses variety of language which occurs in sport. Language variety is one of the object studies of sociolinguistics. According to Coupland (2007: 4), the definitions of sociolinguistics refer to studying language ‘in society’ or language ‘in its

social context' and some definitions focus on studying linguistic diversity or language variation. Sociolinguistics focuses on the diversity of language that happens in society.

Hudson in Wardhaugh (1998: 21) says that the variety of language is a set of linguistic items with similar distributions. The definition allows us to say that English, French, London English and English of football commentaries are varieties. Hudson and Ferguson in Wardhaugh (1998: 21) agree that variety is defined in term of a specific set of linguistic items or it is defined as human speech pattern. The variety associates with some external factors, such as geographical area or social group.

Social group is one of the factors which can cause variation. People who belong to certain group have certain language. At least, they use certain terms. Wardhaugh mentions football commentator as the one of the examples of people who use variation. Several terms, such as *goal-kick*, *penalty-kick*, and *throw-in* are commonly used in football match. People who do not belong to football may not understand the terms. The terms often make misconception when determining the intent. Hymes in Chaika (1982: 121) describes that there are two ways where speech function can be mismatched to the participants in the speech event. First, the intent is understood but not the actual word. Second, the words are understood by themselves but not the intent. The second often happens. In a certain event, such as news (sport, crime, science, etc), one often find several technical terms. The actual or literal meaning is definitely understood rather than the intent. In this case, the

technical terms refer to varieties of language. The varieties are used to ease human conversation. There are varieties of language which occur in society, such as style, register, slang, and jargon. The varieties of language are as follows:

a. Style

Holmes uses term 'style' in his book (1992: 276). It refers to language variation which reflects change in situational factors, such as addressee, setting, task, or topic. He says that style is often analyzed in scale of formality. Style is similar to register. So, some linguists describe style as 'register' variation. However, register is distinguished from style. The distinction between style and register is not always clear and many sociolinguists simply ignore it. Coupland (2007: 9) says that the term 'style' has different histories in sociolinguistics and in other fields. In sociolinguistics, style has been a very limited concept and a peripheral concern. According to Chaika (1982: 29), style refers to the selection of linguistic forms which is used to convey social artistic effects. Furthermore, Chaika (1982: 38) also states that style which is associated with a particular social occasion is called register or functional variety of speech.

b. Register

Register, according to Wardhaugh (1998: 48), is another complicating factor in study of language varieties beside style. Register is a set of language items which is associated with occupation or social groups. Every profession, such as pilot, bank manager, musician, sales clerk, and sport commentator

employ different registers. Holmes (1992: 277) says that people when talk about sporting event usually use different language. Register also involves features, such as syntactic reduction and inversion of normal word order in sentence.

Holmes (1922: 277-8), gives two examples of register of sport commentary in a baseball or cricket match. The examples are as follows.

Example 1:

- a. [it] bounced to second base
- b. [it's] a breaking ball outside
- c. [He's a] guy who's a pressure player
- d. McCatty [is] in difficulty
- e. Tucker [is] taking a few ah stuttering steps down the wicker from the bowler's end but Waugh [is] sending him back

Example 2:

- a. In comes Ghouri
- b. And all set again is Patt Haden
- c. On deck is big Dave Winfield
- d. Pete goes to right field and back for it goes Jackson

The Example 1 shows the syntactic reduction of register. The commentator often omits the subject noun or pronoun as in [a], and frequently omits the verb *be* as well as utterances [b] and [c] illustrate. *Be* in utterance [d] and [e] are omitted. Although the commentators omit them, people still get the meaning of the commentaries. Holmes says that there is no loss of meaning as a result of this syntactic reduction. The omitted elements are totally predictable in the context. In the Example 2, there are inversions of the normal word order. The commentator focuses on the action or activity.

c. Slang

Slang, according to Yule (2010: 259), is more typically used among those who are outside established higher-status group. Sometimes it is used by younger speaker. Slang consists of words or phrases. Slang is commonly used by people with close relationship in informal occasion. People usually do not use slang to stranger or in formal occasion. Yet, it is possible to use slang in formal occasion to attract audience attention or to make closeness between them. Yule says that slang is like clothing and music. It is an aspect of social life that has function like fashion, especially among adolescents. In its usage, slang contains impolite or taboo terms. Age usually influences the use of slang. The use of slang greatly differs between young and old people. Young people often use more taboo terms.

Yule gives some examples of taboo terms. The adolescents prefer to use “*awesome*”, “*rad*” and “*wicked*” rather than “*groovy*”, “*hip*” and “*super*” to refer to “*really good*”. Even, they usually use “*that’s suck*” rather than “*so bad*”.

d. Jargon

Jargon is one of language varieties. It contains technical terms. Social institutions, communities or groups engage jargon regularly. Chaika (1982: 120) defines jargons as varieties of language which are created for specific functions by people who engage in them regularly. She also says that jargon is similar to mini dialect. Both of them are used only for the activity in which

they are created. Moreover, she says that jargon develops rapidly and it depends on personal and social needs of the speakers. Jargon is one of the factors of language change.

In line with Chaika, Allan and Burridge (2006: 65) define jargon as a variety of language which is used among people who have similar interest. Yule (2010: 259) states that jargon is special technical vocabulary which is associated with a specific area of work or interest. In society, he says that jargon helps to create and maintain connections among those who called themselves as “insiders” and to exclude “outsiders.”

People often use jargon to deliver their purpose. Unconsciously, jargon is used every day in any human activity. Sport is one of the activities in which the players use jargon regularly. Several sport terms, such as *goal-kick*, *free-kick*, *penalty-kick*, *pitcher*, and *bat* are the examples of jargon. Sometimes we find them in a conversation among sport commentators or we find them in sport news. Jargon is created to fill the limitation of word or term which is difficult to be described or too long to be mentioned. However, jargon relates to a society. It is used among particular group of people. Allan and Burridge (2006: 56) describe that jargon is more than just lexical differences. They often differ grammatically, and sometimes phonologically or typographically. *Macquarie Dictionary* in Allan and Burridge (2006: 56) describes that jargon is a peculiar language to a trade, profession or other groups. Jargon is the language which is used in a spoken or written text. It relates to the particular area in which speakers share a common specialized vocabulary, habits and

expression. Jargon has an important role in social interaction. It cannot be separated from society. As a producer of language, society influences human behavior.

1) Word Formation Processes of Jargon

Yule (2010: 53) says that language is shaped by the needs of its users. Jargon is created when people find a limitation of vocabulary. People often create their own terms to ease their conversation. Sometimes, there are long terms, such as *Association of South East Asian Nations* and *Federation Internationale de Football Association* which are too long to be mentioned. People create the short form in order to ease and make economical communication. They use *abbreviation* or *acronym* form to mention the long terms. Meanwhile, not only *abbreviation* and *acronym*, they also create the short terms in some processes, such as *compounding*, *blending*, and *clipping*.

Word-formation processes have an important role to determine the processes of creating technical terms. The processes create new terms which are used by speakers who cannot convey their purpose in ordinary words. In this research, word-formation processes are used as the strategy to analyze the processes of creating the jargon. Jargon consists of words and phrases. Its usage often makes a misconception. People sometimes find two words which are combined and spoken as a single word. Morley (2000: 26) says that word is the basic unit of syntax. Compound words, such as *homerun*, *birthday* or *sunshine* are still individual units. However, the position is complicated. Some expressions are written as a single, for example, *airlock*, *air-lock*, or *air*

lock. They have different meaning. It shows that the processes of creating the jargon are influenced by word-formation processes.

Yule (2010: 52-3) gives an example of an invention of word. In 1900s, J. Murray Spangler invented a device which was called *electric suction sweeper*. It became very popular and known as *Spangler*. One day, Mr. Spangler sold his new invention to a local businessman, named Mr. William H. Hoover. Hoover Suction Sweeper Company produced the first machine called *Hoover*. Now, it's known as *vacuum cleaner* all around the world, although in Britain, people still use word *hoovering* rather than *spanglering*.

In this case, word-formation processes indirectly become the important parts of language. They play as the bridge in inventing new words. The processes can change the pattern of word and even change the meaning. Hoover is a person's name, but it is used as the name of a product. Sometimes the new word itself is only understood by particular group of people, for example, *hoover*, *spangler*, *klenex*, *kodak*, *blackbox*, etc. Moreover, if we have lack of knowledge, we cannot get the meaning. As a universal language, English also adopts some languages from other countries, such as France, Italy, German, Hindi, and Arab. Terms, such as *algebra*, *piano*, *sofa*, and *yoghurt* are borrowed from other countries.

Understanding the processes of creating jargon is very important. It is aimed to give the description and deep understanding of how a word or phrase is produced. A word or phrase can be modified and combined to get the new form of that word or phrase. The phenomenon of new word's

invention and figuration are described through the processes. Word-formation processes according to Yule (2010: 53-60) are as follows:

a) Coinage

Coinage is one of the common processes of word-formation in English. It produces new terms. One often calls something by the name of its brand, for example, *Aspirin*, *Nylon*, *Vaseline*, *Zipper*, *Kodak*, *Teflon*, *Kleenex*, and *Kevlar*. Basically, they are brands which are used as the name of its product. In some cases, the name of place or person develops as the name of a product. This kind of coinage is called *Eponym*. The common eponym, such as *Volt*, is taken from its inventor, Alesandro Volta (Italy). *Fahrenheit* is taken from its inventor, Gabriel Fahrenheit (Germany), and *Jeans* is taken from the name of city in Italy (Genoa) at which that kind of cloth was made for the first time.

b) Borrowing

One of the most common sources of new words in English is borrowing. Borrowing is a process of adopting some words from other languages. Yule says that throughout its history, English has adopted a vast number of words from other languages, including *croissant* (French), *dope* (Dutch), *lilac* (Persian), *piano* (Italian), *pretzel* (German), *sofa* (Arabic), *tattoo* (Tahitian), *tycoon* (Japanese), *yogurt* (Turkish) and *zebra* (Bantu). However, some languages also borrow English terms, such as Japan with *suupaa* or *suupaamaaketto* (supermarket) and *taipuraitaa* (typewriter). In some cases, English also directly translates literally foreign term. This kind of borrowing

is called *Calque*, for example, *wolkenkrabber* (Dutch) in English is “cloud scratcher”, and *wolkenkratzer* (Germany) in English is “cloud scraper”.

c) **Compounding**

Yule (2010: 55) says that compounding is a process of joining two separate words to produce a single form without any reduction. Sometimes the words which are joined consist of two different classes, for example, *fast* (adjective) and *food* (noun) become *fast-food*. It has new term and meaning. Another common term is *full* (adjective) and *time* (noun) become *full-time*. It also happens to the same class of word, such as *book* (noun) and *case* (noun) becomes *bookcase*, then *wall* (noun) and *paper* (noun) become *wallpaper*. One can find those terms in some fields, including advertisement and sport. Compounding commonly happens in English and German, and less common in French and Spanish.

d) **Blending**

Blending is a combination of two separate forms to produce a new single term. Yule says (2010: 55) that it is typically accomplished by taking only the beginning of one word and joining it to the end of another word, for example, *Smog*. It is a new term from *smoke* and *fog*. Then, *Brunch* is a new term from *breakfast* and *lunch*. *Infotainment* (information and entertainment), *Simulcast* (simulation- broadcast), and *Modem* (modulator-demodulator) are the other common examples of blending.

e) Clipping and Ellipsis

Clipping, according to Yule (2010: 56), occurs when a word (which has more than one syllable) is reduced to a shorter form, usually the beginning. Clipping eliminates the initial part, the last part, or both parts of the word, for example, *Fax* is the reduction from *Facsimile*. *Ad* (advertisement), *bra* (brassiere), *cab* (cabriolet), *condo* (condominium), *fan* (fanatic) and *flu* (influenza) are the common examples of clipping. People use form *Gasoline*, but sometimes they also use form *gas*.

Sometimes people must have an educational knowledge to understand the meaning of clipping form. *Gym*, *lab*, *sci*, *math*, *prof*, or *chem* are the examples of clipping which are taken from formal educational field. English speaker sometimes clip the other's names, such as *Liz*, *Ed*, *Tom*, *Mike*, *Sam*, *Sue*, *Ron* and so on. In British-English countries, such as Britain and Australia, there is a type of clipping which is called *Hypocorisms*. In this type of clipping, a multi-syllable word is reduced to a single syllable then "y" or "ie" is added in the end of that word, for example, *movie* (moving pictures) and *brekky* (breakfast). Even, they use term *Aussie* for Australian.

Clipping occurs only in word. Yet, the omission also can be found in a clause and phrase. It is called *ellipsis*. According to Morley (2000: 15), people can omit the particular elements of clause and phrase which he/she considers to be recoverable from the earlier part of the clause and phrase. Young and Fitzgerald (2006: 108) state that ellipsis is the omission of certain words or phrases. It enables speakers or writers to omit words or phrases that

can be retrieved by listeners or readers from the surrounding clause. Word *third* in baseball has several meanings. According to the context at which the speaker speaks, the word can refer to *third base*, *third baseman*, *third inning* or *third ball*. The meaning of the ellipsis part is still understood by the listener, as long as the listener understand the context.

f) Backformation

According to Yule (2010: 56), it is a type of reductions of word. It happens when a word (usually noun) is reduced to another type of words (usually verb), for example, *donate* is backformation from *donation*, *emote* is taken from *emotion*, *enthuse* from *enthusiasm*, *liaise* from *liaison* and *babysit* from *babysitter*.

g) Conversion

It can change the class of word and produces a new form of word without any reduction. Yule (2010: 57) defines that conversion is a change in the function of a word, for example, when a noun is used as a verb (without any reduction). Usually it is called as *functional shift* or *category change*. Through this process, noun can be used as verb. Word *bottle* is used as verb in *We bottled the home-brew last night*. Another common example is *water* in *We are watering the garden*. In some cases, verb also can be used as noun. Common words, such as *spy*, *guess*, and *must* are classified as verb. However, they are also can be used as noun, such as *a spy*, *a guess*, and *a must*.

Conversion also occurs in phrasal verbs, such as *to print out* and *to take over* become noun *a printout* and *a takeover*. Phrasal verb *stand up* becomes

adjective in *stand-up comedian*. Other common forms are *up* and *down*, which are used as verb in *They're going to up the price of oil* and *We downed a few beers at the chimes*. Yule (2010: 55) also says that conversion is particularly productive in modern English.

h) Acronym

According to Yule (2010: 58), acronym is new word which is formed from the initial letters of a set of mother words. They are pronounced as a new single word. It is used in particular occupation, organization and political field. Some organizations design their names in form of acronym, for example, *NATO*, *NASA*, and *UNICEF*. These examples keep their capital letters, but many acronyms simply become everyday terms, such as *laser* (light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation), *radar* (radio detecting and ranging), and *scuba* (self-contained underwater breathing apparatus). In some cases, acronym can be pronounced as its letters, such as *CD* (*Compact Disc*) and *ATM* (*Automatic Teller Machine*). This kind of acronym is called abbreviation.

i) Derivation

The most common word-formation in English is derivation. Yule (2010: 58) says that it is a process when the meaning of word changes if a number of small “*bits*” are added in the beginning or in the end of that word. Yule uses word “*bits*” which is described as *affixes*. Generally, there are three kinds of affixes. They are *prefixes*, *suffixes*, and *infixes*.

First, affixes which are added in the beginning of word called *prefix*, such as *un-*, *dis-*, *re-*, *in-/im-* and *mis-*. The simple example of prefix is *happy* becomes *unhappy* (adjective). It does not change the type of word but it changes the meaning (not happy). Second, affixes which are added in the end of word is called *suffix*, such as *-er*, *-ly*, *ism* and *-ish*. The common examples are *worker*, *finally*, *terrorism*, and *foolish*. The type of word changes following the suffixes. In some cases, one can find a word with prefix and suffix, for example, *disrespectful*. Third is *infix*. It's a type of affix that is not normally used in English, but found in some other languages. It is an affix which is incorporated inside word. Infix is often found in Bahasa Indonesia. Word *gerigi* is an example of infix in Bahasa Indonesia.

j) Multiple Processes

According to Yule (2010: 60), it is possible to trace the operation of more than one process in the creation of word. The word *snowball* is a product of compounding. It consists of *snow* and *ball*. Actually *snowball* is a noun, but it can be a verb in "Problems with the project have snowballed". The last word has changed through multiple processes of compounding and conversion.

2) Functions of jargon

According to Allan and Burridge (2006: 58), jargon is manifested in written language, for example, the form and structure of birth and death notices, parliamentary and legal documents, recipes, poems, stock-market reports, and also in spoken language, such as sport commentaries. Directly,

people use jargon to ease their activities. Allan and Burridge (2006: 58) identify two functions of jargon. The functions of jargon are as follows:

- a) to serve as a technical/specialist language for precise and economical communication, and
- b) to promote in-group solidarity and to exclude out-groupers, those who do not use the jargon.

The first function of jargon shows that jargon is used for making economical and effectiveness of communication. The technical or specialist terms, which are used in baseball, are created in term of jargon. Word *homerun* in baseball has a function to describe a certain situation. The situation is too long to be mentioned in a baseball match. Therefore, people create their own terms or jargons which belong to baseball. The second function of jargon is used to show the solidarity among those who use jargon. Usually, people who engage jargon regularly have closeness one and another. They often show their closeness and solidarity by using verbal language. The second function of jargon also shows that by using jargon people can exclude the out-groupers, those who do not use the jargon. This function is often found in military. The military jargons are used to exclude the out-groupers or enemy.

4. *Money Ball*

Money Ball was an American sport movie drama that was released in 2011. It was directed by Bennett Miller. The movie was based on Michael Lewis' (2003) non-fiction book with the same name. The film was starred by Brad Pitt, Jonah Hill, and Philip Seymour. It was a true story about Oakland

Athletics baseball team in 2002 with their general manager, Billy Bean. The film correlated to jargon since it was sport-themed film which contained baseball jargons and baseball technical terms.

Oakland Athletics was an American baseball team which played in MLB (Major League Baseball) west division. Oakland faced internal problems and financial crisis. Billy Bean (Brad Pitt) was the General Manager of the team. He was on the bewildering situation because of the departure of his stars Johnny Damon, Jason Giambi, and Jason Isringhausen. In another hand, Beane was building a competitive team for season 2002. Unfortunately, he was also bewildered by Oakland's financial policy. He faced a reality that his team, with low financial, could not compete with the other rich teams. They cannot buy talented players with their money.

At the time, Beane met Peter Brand (Jonah Hill), a young Yale economics graduated with radical ideas about players' value. He analyzed the stamina, ability statistics and players' records to get the value. He gave suggestion and consideration to Bean in recruiting new players with less money. Finally, with a big consideration, they decided to buy some low-rating players. Slow but sure, Beane tried to build his team.

One day, in a game against Kansas City Royal, Beane did not come to the ballpark. He was on the way to back home. He decided to follow the match from a radio in a gym. When he heard how well the game was going on the radio, he decided to back to the ballpark. Beane arrived in the fourth inning. Finally, the team won, on a walk-off home run by Hatteberg. Finally

Oakland had a chance to play on the playoff (in post-season). Unfortunately, the team loosed in a game against Minnesota Twins in the postseason. At the time, Bean was disappointed.

He also contacted by the owner of the Boston Red Sox, who realized that the sabermetric model was the future of baseball, and they offered him a job as their general manager. Beane rejected it, despite an offer of a \$12.5 million salary would make him as the highest-paid general manager in sport history. He stayed in Oakland, while two years later the Red Sox Boston won the 2004 World Series by using the model which was pioneered by the Oakland Athletics.

5. Related studies

This research was inspired by some related studies which were conducted before. The studies were conducted by students of English Education Department of Yogyakarta State University. They investigated sociolinguistics, especially language variety. The analysis of the related studies had some similarities. Meanwhile, they had different subject. The objectives in the related studies were also similar to this research, but they had different table of analysis and the object of the research.

The first related study was entitled *An Analysis of Military Jargon on a Video Game: Call of Duty 4 Modern Warfare* by Aditya Eko Sigit Wicaksono. This research analyzed the forms, functions, and the meaning of jargon in the video game. In collecting the data, the researcher played the video game then analyzed the jargons which were performed. The game was

about military war. The second related study was *Analysis of Computer Jargon in Macbook Users' Guide* by Laila Putri. This research also analyzed the functions and forms of jargon in *Macbook Users' Guide*. Its researcher also described the meaning and identified the type of meaning in terms of word-relation of jargon in *Macbook Users' Guide* associated with IT.

B. Conceptual Framework

This research is aimed to investigate the functions and the figuration of jargon in the film *Money Ball*. Sociolinguistics conducts this research since the study concerns with language and society. To describe and answer the problems, researcher uses Yule's explanation of word-formation processes. The word-formation processes are linked to the figuration of jargon. There are ten processes of word-formation.

First is coinage. It is a process which allows us to mention something by the name of its brand or name of its inventor, such as *Aspirin*, *Nylon*, *Vaselin*, *Teflon*, *Volt*, *Fahrenheit* and *Jeans*. Second is borrowing. It is a process of adopting word from other languages, such as *croissant* (France), *dope* (Dutch), *lilac* (Persian), *piano* (Italian), *pretzel* (German), *sofa* (Arabic), and *yoghurt* (Turkish). Third is compounding. Compounding is a process of joining two separated words to produce a single form without any reductions, for example, *fast* (adjective) and *food* (noun) become *fastfood*. Fourth is blending. It is a combination of two separated forms to produce a new single term. It is accomplished by taking only the beginning part of one word and join it with the last part of another word, for example, *smog* (from smoke and fog).

Fifth is clipping. It occurs when a word (more than one syllable) or phrase is reduced to a shorter form, for example, *facsimile* is reduced to *fax*. Sixth is backformation. It happens when a type of word (usually a noun) is reduced to a shorter form followed by the change of the type of word (usually a verb), for example *donate* is backformation from *donation*. Seventh is conversion. It can change the class of word and produces a new term of word without any reduction. Noun can be used as verb, for example, word “bottle” that is used as verb in “*we bottled the home-brew last night*”. Eighth is acronym. It’s a new word which is formed by the initial letter of set of mother words, for example, *NASA*, *NATO*, and *UNICEF*. Acronym also can be pronounced by each letter, such as *CD* from *CompactDisk*. This kind of acronym is called abbreviation. Ninth is derivation. It happens when the meaning of word changes if affixes are added in the beginning or in the end of that word. *Finally*, *unhappy*, and *foolish* are the common examples of derivation. The last one is multiple processes. It is possible to trace the operation of more than one process in the creation of word. Word “*snowball*” in *problems with the project have snowballed* has change through multiple processes of compounding and derivation. Word *snowball* above is no longer used as noun, but as a verb.

The researcher also uses Allan and Burridge explanation to classify the functions of jargon. There are two function of jargon. The first is to serve as a technical/specialist language for precise and economical communication. The second is to promote in-group solidarity and to exclude out-groupers, those who

do not use jargon. In this research, the researcher constructs a conceptual framework which is based on the literature review and theories.

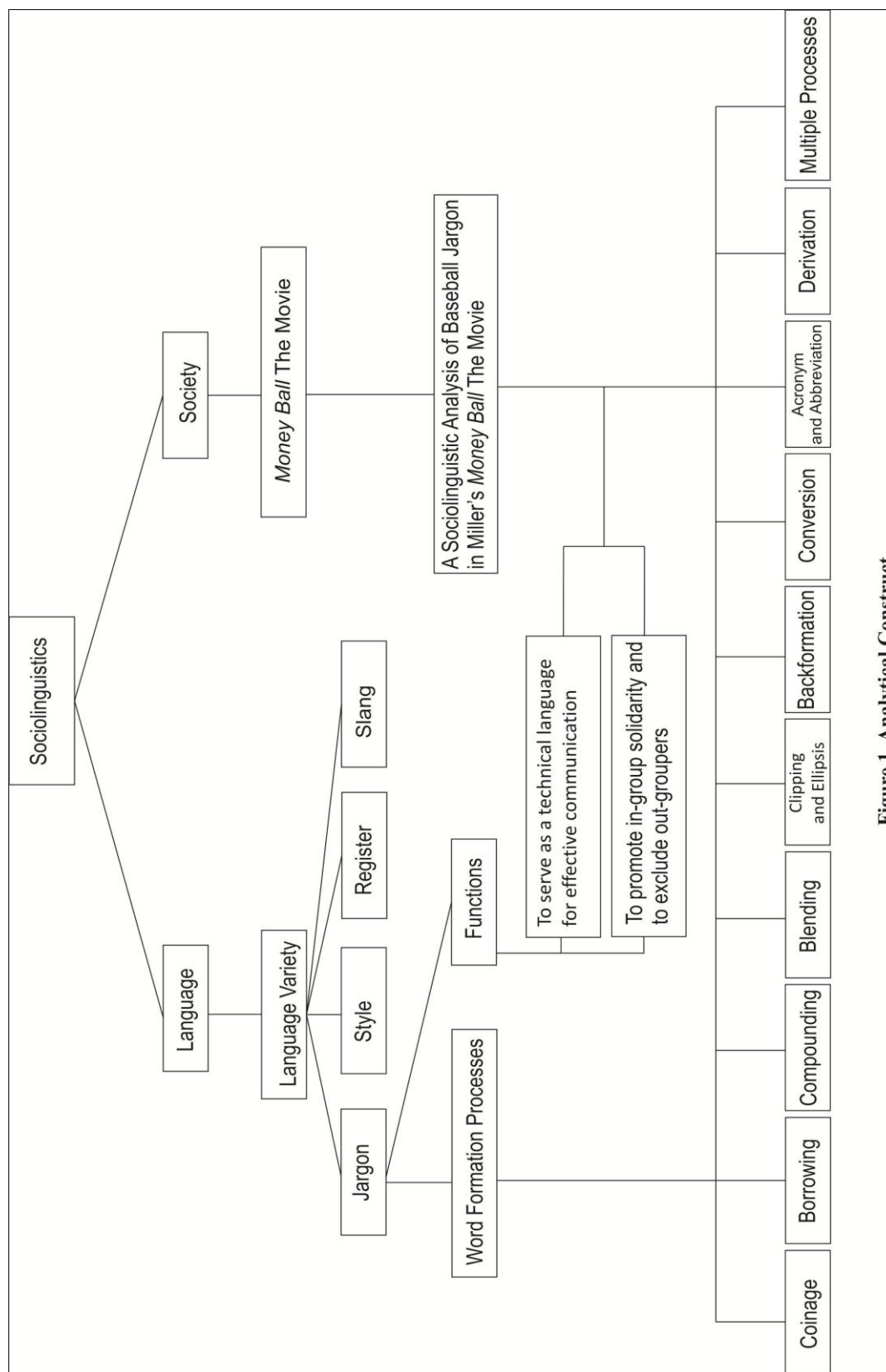


Figure 1. Analytical Construct