A Grammar of Neologisms on Social Media: A case of Facebook and WhatsApp language in Zambia

By

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Declaration

I, Nkhata Lucy, declare that, except for the acknowledged references to other people's works, this is a representation of my own work conducted in the Department of Literature and Languages, School of Humanities and Social Sciences, University of Zambia, Lusaka under the supervision of Dr. Hambaba Jimaima.

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Abstract

Drawing on both lexical morphology and lexical semantics, the study discursively interrogates the outcome lexical items of the social media discourses and self-asserting narratives. An attempt is made to discursively examine the interplay between technology and grammar. Thus the study brings forth some morphological and semantic concerns on social media neologisms. The point of departure is the interplay between technology and word formation processes in establishing whether these outcome lexical items can be placed within the known word formation processes aptly discussed in morphology or form their own Morphological categories. Although a lot of literature exists on social media discourse in general, little is known on the grammatical concerns arising from the transformative nature of technology on language.

The study takes the view that, new words have been coined with time and social media neologisms should be seen as an outcome of the creativity of language as well as its productivity. The study problematizes lexical morphology as well as lexical semantics in the broader context of media affordances in which creativity and self-asserting narratives drive and dominate the performativity of identity and communication on social media. The premise of the theoretical concerns is on three separate components: the Word Formation Rules, the filter and the mental lexicon. We take the view that, even though most social media users may not be fully informed about the word formation processes which morphologists put forth, the shared sociocultural knowledge with which these actors come to virtual spaces is sufficient to productively transform the virtual-scape linguistically. To this end, the study shows that, though some of the neologisms created on social media conform to Word Formation Rules, others are created by 'pseudo' word formation processes.

With regard to semantic concerns about social media neologisms, the study establishes that there is no existing dictionary for the said neologisms and that social media actors themselves are able to come up with the meanings based on the shared sociocultural knowledge. This is because the neologisms in question have not yet found their way in any dictionary. Therefore, the emotional input attached to a particular neologism determines its meaning and also the sociocultural knowledge social media users share. Owing to this power accorded to social actors, the result is the potential to transform or distort the meaning, as well as the localization of some neologisms.

Key words: lexical morphology, productivity, word formation processes, lexical semantics and social media

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DEDICATION

To my beloved family, especially to my late parents, to my adorable children; Mainza, Luyando, Soniwe and Miguel, to my ally; Sledge, to my sisters; Mavis and Caroline, to someone close to my heart, someone whose heart is so big that he sacrifices a lot for others; Father Joseph and to my uncle Tony and aunt Cathy.

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List of abbreviations

ZICTA	Zambia Information and Communications Technology Authority
SNS	Social Networking Sites
WFRs	Word Formation Rules

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 General

This study attempts to discursively examine the interplay between technology and grammar, as it relates to a broader context of word formation processes. For the purpose of this study, grammar has been used to refer to morphology and semantics. Thus, the study discusses and implicates social media neologisms by gaining insight into some aspects of their morphology and semantics. To this end, the study sought to establish whether or not these neologisms can be placed within the established morphological categories akin to the English language or form their own morphological categories. The study also shows that most social media users are not fully aware of the grammatical concerns underpinning social media language, yet are able to use these neologisms consistently drawing from their shared socio-cultural knowledge and history of them. Furthermore, in order to fully exploit the meaning-making potential of the social media platform, the study also takes a semiotic perspective by analyzing emoticons, emojis and memes widely used on social media. This study finally attempts to establish whether some of these neologisms have been localized.

Therefore, Chapter one begins with the background of the study which outlines the geographical location of Zambia and the languages spoken in Zambia. It further discusses social media in Zambia and also the interplay between technology and morphology. Thereafter, the statement of the problem is given followed by the purpose of study. The objectives of the study supplemented by the questions are outlined. The two sections are then followed by the significance to validate the study and later the scope of the study. The sub section of operational definitions is given; this comprises some concepts crucial to the study.

1.1 Background of the study

1.1.1 Geographical location of Zambia

Zambia is a landlocked country located in the southern part of Africa. Depending on one's

location, Zambia is also viewed to be in the Eastern part of Africa. Some of its neighboring countries include, Zimbabwe, Malawi, Botswana, Mozambique, Namibia, among other countries. It is worth noting that the Zambian social media platforms are interlinked and accessible to other neighboring countries mentioned above. We see that many pages/platforms, on Facebook, such as 'Mwebantu' and 'Zambian Watchdog' platforms have large followings and some of these followers are of Malawian, Zimbabwean, Namibian nations, to mention a few.

1.1.2 Languages Spoken in Zambia

Zambia has ten provinces; Muchinga, Southern, Central, Eastern, Western, North Western, Northern, Luapula, Lusaka and Copperbelt provinces. The country has 73 tribes spread across the ten provinces of which each tribe claims to have its unique language. Having about 14 million inhabitants, these are spread widely across the country. Kapeya (1988) has argued that there are seven main vernacular languages on the media which represent all the 73 tribes found in Zambia; Bemba, Lozi, Kikaonde, Tonga, Chewa, Luvale and Lunda. These seven vernacular languages have official status and are distributed in the provinces as follows: Bemba (Northern, Luapula, Muchinga and the Copperbelt Provinces), Nyanja (Lusaka Province), Lozi (Western Province), Tonga and Lozi (Southern Province), and Kaonde, Luvale and Lunda (Northwestern Province), (Jimaima, 2016; Banda & Jimaima 2017).

It is crucial to mention that before the seven local languages gained their 'official' regional recognition in the post-independence Zambia, the only official language was English. Being colonized by Britain, Zambia gave an official status to English (Kashoki 1978; Jimaima 2016; Banda & Jimaima 2017; Jimaima & Banda 2019a). This therefore followed that, English was to be taught in schools, used in the media, in courts and basically as a means of communication. However, giving recognition to the seven local languages has given them some degree of recognition as official languages, and can now be used in Primary schools, in the media and also in courts.

1.2 Social media in Zambia

With the coming of technology, communication has been made easier; many people have had to do away with letter writing to communicate (cf. Blommaert 2010). Social media has introduced a

new platform for easy communication through Applications such as Facebook, WhatsApp, Instagram, Twitter and Messenger, among other platforms. These new modes of communication can be utilized 24 hours a day, making it convenient for all.

It is critical to mention that a lot of Zambians owning smart mobile phones use social media, and according to the social media Statistics in Zambia-June 2018, the social media Percentage Market Share was as follows:

Facebook	73.6%
Pinterest	13.13%
YouTube	4.79%
Twitter	4.73%
Google+	2.23%
linkedIn	0.61%

The above statistics clearly show that the mostly used social media platform is Facebook with 73.6% and the lowest being LinkedIn.

The Zambia Information and Communications Technology Authority (ZICTA) in 2016 also released a report on the Zambians who spent their time on Social Networking Sites. Their survey showed that 63% of Zambians online spent their time on Social Networking Sites. This survey was conducted in all the ten provinces, both rural and urban areas.

1.2.1 The Implications of Social Networking Sites

The introduction of these social networks has brought about new creations/new words. Aronoff (1976) has argued that new coinages may not be added to the various grammatical categories (cf. Jimaima 2016). Going strictly by the word formation rules, these grammatical categories referred to by Aronoff (1976) include prepositions, pronouns, among other grammatical categories. This therefore means that if we are to go by the word formation rules, the only classes to which new words are to be added are nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs. However, against Aronoff's (1976) theoretical position and given the fact that new creations of words are inevitable, thereby, showing

how productive language is, the current linguistic practices, such as onyedum (2012) and kubova (2010), have established that new words being coined, otherwise known as neologisms are formed according to the productive word formation rules and hence, are accepted. This therefore, follows that with time, these new coinings may find their way into the mainstream of the English language (Jimaima 2016; Jimaima & Nkhata 2017). It is crucial to note that sometimes, an already existing word may acquire a new usage and kubova (2010) alludes to an already existing word, "surf" which with the coming of technology is used to mean, 'browse the internet.'

1.2.2 Social media

Social media has been defined by Boyd and Ellison (2007) as an online public well based services that allow users to develop a personal profile, identify with other users with whom they have a connection, read and react to postings made by other users on site and send and receive messages either privately or publicly. This is done through computers or mobile cell phones.

Many people worldwide mainly use social media to communicate with friends and family, to maintain contact with people they regularly see and maintain friendships. The use of 'connection' in Boyd and Ellison's (2007) definition of social media can be traced back to Kress' (2010) on multimodal studies (cultural studies) of a shared sociocultural knowledge and history. This follows that people of the same social culture have the same way of doing things which may only be understood by that particular group because of the shared sociocultural knowledge. Collins and Third (2011), in their article "Benefits of social networking services," bring out the positive aspect of social media, which is mainly; for communication, sharing blogs, videos, photos and much more, media literacy and formal education, self-expression and strengthening of relationships (cf. Jimaima & Simungala 2019).

However, in as much as social media has laid the ground for easier communication, there are also some weaknesses that it has come with. Gunn (2016) in her article, "The Journal of social media in society," talks about the negative effects of social networking. She noted in her article that employees in work places use social networks for private reasons at work and spend a considerable amount of their working hours on the internet for personal use. In the same vein, social networks have a negative impact on students especially if misused. Its misuse can affect a student's academic

life and performance as many spend more time on Facebook or WhatsApp and many other social sites chatting with friends instead of studying.

1.2.3 Symbolic language (A semiotic Perspective)

Facebook and WhatsApp users use symbols to communicate their feelings. In this regard, semiotics is at play and Bright (1992) has defined semiotics as the study of signs and their use, focusing on the communicative mechanisms. Language has been regarded as one type of sign system as asserted by Saussure (1913) and his associates (Banda, Jimaima & Mokwena 2018/2019; Jimaima & Banda 2019b). Therefore, the use of emoticons and emojis on social media has indeed supported the assertion. On the one hand, an emoticon according to Walther (2001) is a shorthand or graphic representation of facial expressions allowing the user to express emotions and ultimate written messages with non-verbal factors. These are computer mediated communications and are meant to represent facial expressions.

On the other hand, an emoji focuses on pictographs of things such as facial expressions, holiday symbols, animals, buildings and other symbols used by social media users. In other words, unlike emoticons which purely are restricted to facial expressions, emojis go beyond that.

1.3 Statement of the problem

While literature abounds on social media discourse in general, for example, some scholars have looked at the benefits of social media, the functions and importance of social media and also the uses; there is also little literature on neologisms on social media; Mworia (2015) has done a study on, “the use of English neologisms in social media: A case of Twitter Language.” She focuses on one social site, Twitter and looks at what factors influence the production and usage of neologisms in social media. Furthermore, she also looks at the extent to which social media neologisms are effective in Kenya Context of communication. Other scholars have also looked at the effect of topic on word formation and the frequency of neologism use on internet forums and the conservatism of Emojis. However, there exists little literature on the morphological and semantic concerns as regards to whether these neologisms on social media can be placed within the realm of the English word formation processes or not. In addition, concerns also arise as to what these neologisms and symbols mean and in which context they are used. Therefore, we do not know the

grammatical concerns surrounding social media neologisms. Additionally, it is unclear whether social actions in Zambian social media context defer to localized neologisms.

1.4 Purpose of the study

The aim of the study is to grammatically analyze neologisms used on social media in Zambia by referring to WhatsApp and Facebook language.

1.5 Objectives

The following are the objectives of the study:

1) To identify frequently used social media neologisms and emoticons.
2) To establish where the meanings of social media neologisms are derived from.
3) To establish whether the neologisms used on social media can be placed within the word formation processes.
4) To establish whether there is an attempt by social media to localize the neologisms.

1.6 Research questions

To keep the research focused, the following Research questions will be used as a guide:

1) What are the frequently used social media neologisms and emoticons?
2) Where are the meanings of neologisms and emoticons used on social media derived from?
3) How can the social media neologisms be placed within the Word formation processes?
4) How can the social media neologisms be localized?

1.7 Significance of the study

Based on the vast number of people using the social media for communication, this study is crucial to investigating how the language on social media can be incorporated within the levels of linguistics. To this end, the study will benefit researchers of languages in view of language as very productive/creative as neologisms are new words that are coined.

Furthermore, the study will provide the justification of the preference of neologisms, emoticons and emojis amongst social media users over the Standard English words. With the rampant use of these neologisms and drawing from the idea of language being creative, with time, these neologisms may be accepted as Standard English Words.

The use of semiotics through emoticons and emojis to express feelings on social media has become very common. This study will therefore help language users see that language is not only about what is written in words but also includes signs and symbols.

By and large, the study will bring out some grammatical concerns that underpin social media neologisms and show that even though social actors are not fully aware of these grammatical concerns, they are still able to use these neologisms based on their shared social cultural knowledge.

1.8 Scope of the study

The study focuses on language in technology within the framework of lexical morphology and lexical semantics. In order to do this, the study investigates the use of the social media neologisms, emoticons and emojis to establish whether they can be placed within the levels of linguistics; morphology and semantics.

Social media has a very large ground of social networking sites; therefore, this study will be limited to the neologisms used on Facebook and WhatsApp in the Zambian context only.

For the population study, this study will be limited to online Facebook and WhatsApp users as they are conversant with the neologisms' applications that interface within social media users in Zambia.

1.9 Operational Definitions

The study will be informed by the following key words:

1.9.1 Morphology

In linguistics, morphology is the study of the formation of words in a given language. Morphology cannot be discussed without reference to other branches of linguistics such as syntax, phonology

and even semantics. Because of its place in linguistics, morphology is closely related to other levels of linguistic analysis

Being one level of linguistics, morphology studies the internal structure of words. Furthermore, it is also involved with the study of word formation which enables us to deduce the properties of one lexeme from another. Morphology is also concerned with the rules that govern word formation thus known as word formation rules (WFRs). These rules specify how morphemes are to be arranged in a linear order. Furthermore, between the WFRs and the mental lexicon exists a filter to block any non-lexical item and thereby showing a distinction between non-existing words and existing words.

1.9.2 Social media

Social media includes a group of software applications facilitated by the internet on computers or mobile cellphones for purposes of socializations and communications among people globally. It is also a tool for sharing and discussing information among human beings. Therefore it is a combination of technology and social interaction whose main concern is social networking. The notion of social media refers to a vast number of networking sites like Skype, My Space, Messenger, Facebook, WhatsApp, Twitter, only to mention a few.

1.9.3 Neologism

Neologisms are newly inverted words which may eventually find their way into the dictionary if they become widely accepted. These are new words in the early phase of their life cycle. Since languages are constantly faced with the necessity to adapt to the communicative needs, new words are therefore formed to serve the purpose of naming new concepts.

1.9.4 Social networking sites (SNS)

Social networking sites refer to websites that enable users to create public profiles within the website and form relationships with other users of the same website who access their profiles. These are interactive internet based applications with user-generated content. Therefore, social networking services facilitate the development of online social networks by connecting a user's profile with those of other individuals or groups.

1.9.5 Emoji

A small digital image or icon used to express an idea or emotion on social networking sites. Language does not only signify what is written down in form of words and sentences but also signs and symbols. A symbol may express a multitude of words.

1.9.6 Emoticon

An emoticon is a pictorial representation of a facial expression using punctuation marks, numbers and letters usually used to express a person's feelings or mood. Emoticons are mostly used on the social networking sites and have played a crucial role in communication. Furthermore, they offer tone and feeling through texting thus portraying specific emotions through facial gestures. Gleaning from Morphology, the concept of emoticon is a portmanteau word of the English words, emotion and icon.

1.9.7 Meme

A meme is also widely used on social media; this is an image, video or set of text that becomes popular and spreads rapidly via the internet. Derived from the Greek word mimema this entails 'something imitated'. The first meme to be used on the internet was by Dawkins (1989) and he established that an internet meme was deliberately altered by human creativity-distinguished from the pre-internet concept of a meme. He further argued that the internet memes were thus a hijacking of the original idea. By the spread of these memes on social media, they leave a print and can easily be traced and analyzed by linguists. A meme falls under the scope of semiotics as images are used for communication. These memes range from humorous images to pieces of texts used to relay an intended message. These humorous images may carry intentional misspellings so as to add to the fan but at the same time relay the information.

1.10 Organization of the dissertation

Chapter two consists of all literature reviewed in the area of neologisms and emoticons/emojis on social media. This is critical as it helps the researcher find the knowledge gap. The chapter is divided into three sections and under each section; literature is reviewed in the following order; (1) It begins by outlining some important works done on social media in general, (2) discursively

interrogates works done on neologisms in relation to social media and (3) works done on emojis and emoticons will be reviewed.

Chapter three outlines the concepts guiding the current study. This study was situated within the framework of Lexical Morphology and Lexical semantics. The chapter will also discuss productivity and the mental lexicon owing to the idea that language is creative. Firstly, the concept of productivity and its play in the coining of new words will be fully exhausted. A discussion on the mental lexicon and the filter's part in the creation of new words will follow. Finally, constraints on productivity and the interdependence of morphology and other levels of linguistics will close chapter three.

Chapter four is a detailed methodology used to collect and analyze data. The chapter begins by discussing the research design relevant to the current study and further outlines the different types of research paradigms.

Chapters five, six and seven outline Data Presentation and Analysis with regards to the study of a grammar of neologisms on social media: A case of Facebook and WhatsApp language in Zambia. The chapters each answer the research questions. Chapter five answers questions one and three; chapter six answers question two and chapter seven answers question four. Finally, chapter eight is a summary of the findings and thereafter, specific conclusions are drawn, followed by recommendation on further study.

1.11 Conclusion

This chapter introduced the study of neologisms on social media in the Zambian context. It began by outlining the background to the study after which the statement of the problem was given followed by the purpose of the study. Thereafter, objectives of the study were outlined glued to research questions meant to address the specific objectives. The significance of the study was given to validate the importance of the study. Limitations of the study then followed as the background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study and research questions had been laid at this stage.

The next chapter will carter for literature review. This consists of all literature reviewed in the area of neologisms and social media. This is critical as it helps the researcher find the knowledge gap.

It also helps the researcher establish what has been done in the line of his/her study and to what extent.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 General

While the previous chapter focused on introducing the study of the grammar of neologisms on social media, this present chapter focuses on reviewing some similar literature done on social media neologisms.

The role of literature review is to provide a theoretical background to the researcher's study as it helps one establish the links between one's current study and some similar previous works done related to the current study. It also brings clarity and focus to the research problems by broadening

the knowledge base in the researcher's area, (Cooper, 1998). Most crucially, literature review helps the researcher establish the knowledge gap. Therefore, this chapter provides a literature review by establishing the scholarly works that have been done on the neologisms on social media in general.

Social media has adopted language which is peculiar to social networking sites. As social media users interact, they form new words to enable them communicate effectively. Owing to the idea that language does evolve with time and with the introduction of technology, new words are coined every now and then to name new items or ideas. This section therefore, is a review of literature related to studies done on neologisms on social media. It begins by outlining some important works done on social media in general. Secondly, the study will further discursively interrogate works done on neologisms in relation to social media. Thirdly, works done on emojis and emoticons will be reviewed and finally, a conclusion will be drawn.

2.1. The Concept of Social Media

Understanding the concept of social media is very crucial to this study as this study focuses on neologisms used on social media. The evolution of social media has had an impact on how people do things and communicate globally. Boyd and Ellison (2007) attempt to define the concept of social media as a public well based service that allows users to develop a personal profile, identify other users with whom they have a connection, read and react to postings made by other users on site and send and receive messages either privately or publicly. It is however, important to note that social media is not only an avenue where social media users interact with friends or family, but also an avenue for advertisements by people in business.

Among scholars who have written about social media are Sponcil and Gitimu (2012) who have examined the use of social media by college students in relation to communication and self-concept. They strongly argue that sociability is an underlying theme in using social media. The methodology of their study involves data collection through the use of a questionnaire, from college students who were using social sites such as Twitter, Facebook and Email. They observed that most college students were using the above social sites for communication, maintaining friends and boosting their self-esteem.

Two other scholars, Collins and Third (2011) have done a study on the benefits of the social networking service such as Twitter and Facebook. In their academic piece, they establish the

reasons people use social networks. The study found out that communication; sharing blogs, videos, photos and much more are primary concerns for social media users. The study also establishes that media literacy, formal education and creativity are other reasons for the vast use of social media. Like Sponcil and Gitimu (2012), the two scholars focus mainly on the benefits of social media.

Another study conducted by Rey (1995) examines the negative impact social media has on students. In achieving her objectives and answering research questions, she centers her study on the comparative analysis of college students on social media versus students who are not on social media. The study shows that social media has a negative impact on students on average, as students on social media performed poorly than those students who were not. Furthermore, the study establishes that the misuse of social media affects a student's academic life and performance.

Sewe, (2014) is another scholar who discusses the concept of social media drawing more on its importance. The study shows that through the Social Networking Sites, such as Facebook, Twitter and also MySpace, people are able to communicate with strangers globally. The study also establishes that the different Social Networking Sites are modes of staying in close contact with friends and family. Furthermore, through these sites, people are able to share their views on different topics concerning Education, the Government and Agriculture, among other sectors.

While the four academic documents discussed above do discuss social media discourse, which is relevant to this study, they do not in any way discuss the grammatical concerns on social media neologisms. Furthermore, the four dwell their findings on the merits and demerits of social media and do not go into detail to analyze the social media language, which the current study dwells on. Therefore, the four studies and the current study have a common denominator, which is 'social media,' although the objectives do differ.

Furthermore, Gunn (2016) also looked at the use of social media by employees in work places. Her findings revealed that employees used social networks for private reasons at work and spent a considerable amount of their working hours on the internet for personal use. Similar to the Zambia Information Communications Technology Authority (ZICTA)'s report of 2016, it was established that employees spent most of their working hours on the internet for their personal use than they did for their work. In fact, most of them were using the free internet at work to get in touch with

their social media friends on Facebook and other related social media platforms. The implication is that the internet paid for in both public and private sectors was not used for the intended purpose, which is research.

Finally, Mingle & Adams (2015) carried out an academic study on students in Ghana to establish whether social networks benefit students or have a negative impact on them. Their findings actually show that there are both benefits and negative impacts. One of the negative impacts notably established in their paper is that students tended to misuse social media platforms, hence affecting their academic life and performance. It was observed that most of the students spent their time on social media platforms instead of actually studying. In their words, "social media platforms have turned out to be quite addictive."

It can therefore be noted that from the two studies done by Gunn (2016) and Mingle & Adams (2015), they have dwelled more on the negative impact of social media. The current study does discuss social media but dwells on the grammatical concerns regarding the language used (neologisms) on social media platforms. In as much as the two studies bring to light what social media is about and its negative impact, they do not in any way bring out some grammatical concerns underpinning social media neologisms. Therefore, the two studies are relevant to the current study on the aspect that they discuss social media and how people use it but do not further their discussion on the grammar of social media neologisms.

2.2. The Concept of Neologism on Social Media

Zimmer (1964) has pointed out that they are many words which grammar can generate, although they ought to conform to the word formation rules. These new words can be added to the various grammatical categories. The new words coined are thus referred to as neologisms and Kubova (2010) defines a neologism as "any word/set expression formed according to the productive word formation rules in English." Neologisms are as a result of developments (advancements) in social life, technology and in a few cases, culture. A few scholars have done studies on both neologisms in general and neologisms on social media.

Vogel (2017) in his academic paper of "Words Recently Coined and Blended: Analysis of New English Lexical Items", discusses and analyzes new lexical items which are coined or borrowed every year. He has argued that some of the derived, compounded and blended words have been

added to the English dictionary. However, others have not been added and neologisms on social media are an example. In his paper, he investigates how the new words have been created through some notable word formation processes of derivation, compounding and blending, among other word formation processes.

It can therefore be noted that while Vogel's (2017) study analyzes newly coined words and attempts to place them within some word formation processes, thereby critical to the current study, the study does not however bring out some other grammatical concerns regarding social media neologisms which this current study does. Vogel's (2017) study is typically a morphological analysis of neologisms. This therefore follows that although the study is similar to the current study, the focus in terms of objectives does differ.

One study by Huffman (2015) analyzes neologisms in English and establishes in his findings that neologisms are formed in twelve (12) different ways: coining, borrowing, compounding, blending, clipping, acronyms, abbreviations, back formation, conversion, scale change, paired word sounds and multiple processes. The significance of this study is to help teachers/lecturers of linguistics to effectively teach learners the word formation processes in College or University. The current study is similar to Huffman (2015); however, the difference lies in the objectives. In as much as they both look at neologisms, the current study is inclined to the morphological and semantic concerns as regards to neologisms on social media while Huffman (2015) bases his argument on the different ways involved in forming neologisms thereby focusing on only the morphological aspect.

A linguistic study done in this field by Budejovice (2014) on Word Formation Processes and Usage of internet abbreviations in English revealed that the neologisms used on social media fell into the three types of abbreviations: **Logograms**; formed by single letters which represent words based on their pronunciation, **Initialisms**; normally formed from initial letters of a phrase and finally **omissions**; which entails omitting some of the letters from a word. The process of omission can be done in two ways; one way is simply omitting the vowels from a word, for example, 'msg' for 'message' and another way is to omit some consonants, for example, 'fam' for 'family'.

Although Budejovice's (2014) study looks at the usage of internet abbreviations in English, a disparity can be drawn with the current study. While the current study aims at grammatically analyzing social media neologisms by bringing out the morphological and semantic concerns,

Budejovice's (2014) study only focuses on the morphological aspect and only discusses one word formation process of abbreviation.

Another scholar Kalima (2013) focuses his study on the effect and topic on word formation and the frequency of neologism use on internet forums. He focuses his study on internet gamers-Real Time Strategy games and how gamers use their language. The objectives of his study were: a) to establish how and where present day word formation takes place, b) establish what word formation types contribute to most English words used on social forums, c) analyze how the topic of the discussion influences the frequency of neologisms in use and finally, d) discursively interrogate the formation types used in creating the Neologism. After analyzing 331 neologisms on the internet and placing them within different word formation processes, the findings showed the following:

a) 131 fell in the category of abbreviations

b) 104 were clippings

c) 46 fell in the category of semantic shifts

d) 25 were affixes

e) 24 were compounds

f) 15 were alternative spellings

g) 14 fell under conversions

h) 12 were blends

i) 8 fell under coinages

j) 1 was a loan word "kekekekekeke"

Another similar study done on this field of social media neologisms is by Driscoll (2002). This study focuses on the use of language by internet users and how new words are coined in that particular group and medium. In Driscoll's (2002) study, it was established that out of the 72 words analyzed as data, 29 words were coinages, 24 words were clippings, 10 were acronyms, five were blends and four were compounds.

It can be noted that Kalima's (2013) and Driscoll's (2002) studies are helpful to the current study as the focus of their studies is on newly coined words (neologisms) on the internet and how they are formed. However, the difference between the two studies and the current study lie in the focus and objectives. While the two studies go purely the morphological trajectory in analyzing the neologisms, the current study goes a step further to discuss other grammatical concerns other than Morphology.

Aduda (2013) in his study focuses on neologisms and various word formation processes. He refers to the concept of neologism as broad and, thus, referring to lexical items. He further argues that neologisms are new words borrowed from other languages or dialects; new words created through morphological processes. Aduda's (2013) study is based on dholuo neologisms and their interpretation by the respective community. Therefore, in as much as Aduda's (2013) study focuses on neologisms, it differs from this current study as it is restricted to the dholuo language and not the English language. This study is based on Zambian social media neologisms, mostly English neologisms as the language is used globally.

Argenis (2007) is another scholar who studies neologisms in general by laying focus on general morphological processes involved in the formation of new words. This study establishes that there are five main morphological processes in English involved in the formation of new words. He names the processes as follows; compounding, affixation, symbolism, reduplication and suppletion. It can therefore be argued that in as much as the current study is similar to that of Argenis (2007), the difference lies in the different objectives. While the current study grammatically analyzes the neologisms on social media by discussing the two aspects of morphology and semantics, Argenis (2007) only focuses his study on the morphological processes involved in coining these new words known as neologisms.

Furthermore, Onyedum (2012) in his study focuses on social media neologisms. The scholar adopts Kubova's (2010) definition of neologism as any word/set of expression formed according to the productive word formation rules in English. Onyedum's (2012) study analyzes 70 neologisms on social media and focuses on the following social networking platforms; Facebook, Twitter, My space, YouTube, Yahoo, Messenger, and Blackberry Messenger. In addition, the study grouped the 70 neologisms into five morphological processes of blending, compounding, affixation, semantic extension and coinage.

The research study mentioned above by Onyedum (2012) focuses on neologisms and various morphological processes which are relevant to this current research. However, difference lies in its restriction to the Nigerian context and also its limitation to only one level of linguistics being Morphology. Furthermore, in as much as it also takes a semiotic perspective by analyzing emoticons and emojis, the study does not go into detail in analyzing them and there lies the difference between Onyedum's (2012) study and the current one.

Nisa (2016) discusses the word formation non-standard vocabulary on twitter statuses of Indonesia Dangdut singers. After analyzing 35 new words, the scholar came to a conclusion that the neologisms on twitter fall into five word formation processes of derivation, borrowing, blending, acronyms and clipping. On the other hand, in another study by Yasin (2015), the focus was on Malaysian users on Facebook. After analyzing a total of 20 status updates in the quest of attempting to establish the common word formation processes in 'status' on Facebook written by Malaysian young adult users. Yasin (2015) concluded that the common used word formation processes used on Twitter by Malaysian users were clipping, acronymy, blending and a few emoticons.

Both studies by Nisa (2016) and Yasin (2015) focus on neologisms brought about by technological advancement which is quite relevant to the current study. However, both studies are restricted to a particular context and one social networking site. The current study will be restricted to the Zambian context and will go further to analyze emojis and emoticons among neologisms on social media.

Another study in relation to social media neologisms is done by Mworia (2015). Her study focuses on neologisms on social media in the Kenyan context. She restricts her study to Twitter language but makes reference to Facebook and Instagram from time to time.

In achieving the objectives, Mworia's (2015) theoretical framework centers on Lexical pragmatics as it investigates the processes by which linguistically-specified (encoded) word meanings are modified in use. The study concludes that the word formation processes used in the formation of neologisms on social media are derivation, compounding, semantic transfers, clippings, acronyms, abbreviations and graphological deviation. Based on the findings, the researcher recommends that further study should be done purely on emojis and emoticons as a form of expression and communication on social media.

Like Mworia's (2015) study, the current study is similar. However, a number of differences can be drawn in terms of their focus and objectives. While the current study focuses on the neologisms used on social media with concerns to WhatsApp and Facebook in the Zambian context, Mworia (2015) concerns her study to neologisms on Twitter in the Kenyan context.

Finally, another linguistic study done on this field of neologism is an article by Jimaima & Nkhata (2017). Drawing on Lexical morphology and Lexical integrity, the focus of the study is on some reflections on the morphological and lexical aspects of the Social Media Discourse and Self-Asserting Narratives on the Zambian Online Media. The focus of Jimaima & Nkhata's (2017) study is similar to the current study in that it morphologically analyzes social media neologisms and establishes whether these neologisms can be placed within the established Word Formation Processes. Their study shows that the majority of social media creations are formed by the basic word-formation rules (WFRs) of initialism [+initial].

The study also establishes that some neologisms flout the established WFRs; this conclusion is drawn from the neologism 'LOLest' – Laugh Out Loudest. According to WFRs, an affix cannot be attached to an acronym but we see the suffix –est attached to LOL- 'Laugh Out Loud', thereby flouting the established WFRs. While Jimaima & Nkhata's (2017) study is relevant to the current study as it discusses the morphological aspect of social media neologisms. However, the current study does not only focus on the morphological aspect but also focuses on the semantic concerns regarding social media neologisms. Furthermore, an attempt is made to discuss localized forms of these neologisms, thereby drawing a difference.

2.3. The Concept of Emoticon and Emoji on Social Media

Language does not only comprise that which we can produce with the help of speech organs but also images, signs and symbols too. Bright (1992, vol 2) has asserted that semiotics is the study of signs and their use, focusing on communicative mechanisms and on the nature of knowledge and the pathways through which it is acquired. It is within semiotics that language is regarded as one type of sign system along with bodily gestures. According to Todoror (1982), the theory of semiotics can be traced back to the stoic philosophers in the 3rd C BCE. Later, we see Saussure (1913) developing the discipline of semiotics, viewing the sign as a dyadic relationship between a signifier and signified.

Social media is one platform where images, symbols and signs are vastly used to communicate feelings. These symbols, signs and images are referred to as emojis and emoticons on social media. An emoticon according to Walther (2001) is a shorthand or graphic representation of a facial expression allowing the user to express emotions and an intimate message with non-verbal factors. An emoji on the other hand is a graphic symbol that participates not only on the facial expressions but also concepts and ideas. It is worth noting that there have been some studies done on semiotics on social media emojis and emoticons.

One scholar Caleffi (2009) has done a study on the use of the hash tag on social media. In her study, she adopts Sagolla's (2009) definition of a hash tag as a string of characters possibly numerical digits preceded by the symbol #. The study analyzed 2561 hash tags on Twitter and established that the hash tag was used to mark key words/topics in a Tweet. Furthermore, a word with a symbol, # in front of it, especially on social media and blogging, is used to identify or search for a subject or interest. While Caleffi's (2009) study is relevant to the current study, a difference lies in the focus and objectives. The current study does not only focus on emojis but also neologisms on social media and grammatically analyzes them.

Stark and Crawford (2015) base their study on the emergency of the emoticon☺, otherwise, known as the 'smiley face' frequently used on social media. Attributing their study to the 1963 merger of the state Mutual Life Assurance Company, they have argued that the smiley face is the most commonly used on social media; hence need to discuss its origin. The research study above focuses on the development of one emoticon, the smiley face but does not fully discuss its usage together with other emoticons and emojis. It is helpful to the current study although it does not in any way discuss the newly coined words on social media and grammatically analyzes them. It does, however, discuss one aspect relevant to the study which is the use of one emoticon on social media- the smiley face☺.

In another study of Emoticons and emojis, Kelly (2015) investigates the understanding of emoticons and emojis in text messages. Her focus lies in determining whether or not there is a universal understanding of emoticons and emojis. Her methodology of issuing questionnaires to participants indicated through the results obtained that emoticons and emojis are interpreted differently by different users showing that there is no universal understanding of them.

While the study mentioned above by Kelly (2015) is relevant to the current study, it is limited only to the study of emoticons and emojis, thereby taking a semiotic perspective. It does not give a full account of the context in which they are used and whether they distort the meaning of a construction, as they may be misinterpreted. It does not also focus on the grammatical concerns regarding social media neologisms. Therefore, the difference between the two studies lies on the differences in the focus and objectives.

Nusrat (2016) has done a study on the psycho emotional impact on social media emojis. The study was to evaluate the potential psycho emotional impacts on the digital emojis on the instant messaging applications users. She observes among other things that out of the 97 participants she engaged in her study, 90% indicated the importance of emojis in e-messaging as having full meaning than traditional messages. The remaining 10% indicated that social media emojis have the potential to cause stress and psychological trauma as they are easily misinterpreted. Nusrat's (2016) study focuses on emojis only and their interpretation, thereby diverging from the current study's focus and objectives.

Furthermore, Channary and Kanjo (2016) focused their study on the roles of emojis in phone notifications. The aim of the study was to establish the relationship between emojis and various social network applications, including WhatsApp, Facebook and Twitter. Their findings show that emojis appear more often in social notifications than in system notifications and therefore, playing as amplifiers of messages. Their study also establishes that there is a tendency to use more positive emojis than negative ones in Twitter while the 'PENSIVE FACE' is more common on WhatsApp and Facebook notifications.

While Channary and Kanjo (2016) focused their study on emoji use on WhatsApp, Facebook and Twitter, they did not further their discussion by discussing social media neologisms and emoticons and bringing out some of the grammatical concerns underpinning them, therefore, different from the current study in terms of the objectives and focus but helpful to the current study.

Lu (2016) has done a linguistic study on the use of emojis expressing emotions, topics and ideas. His study is based on the 400 million emoji contained messages generated by more than three million users from 212 countries and regions. His findings reveal that emojis are used to tell the difference between users from different countries even without textual information. Furthermore,

he establishes that the most commonly used emoticons are 20 with the "crying with laughter" icon topping the list. Lastly, his study also shows that the 20 emoticons fell into three categories of the 'face', 'heart' and 'hand'. He therefore concludes that expressions and body do play an important role in expressing ideas.

Lastly, Stefant (2015) also has done a study on the emotional content of emojis used on Twitter. The study examines Tweets collected from 13 European languages except English. Using 83 native speakers (except English), with the aim of establishing how Twitter users use emojis and in what context. The study establishes that the sentiment of an individual Tweet can be negative, neutral or positive.

Like other studies on emojis and emoticons, the above studies by Lu (2016) and Stefant (2015) are relevant to the current study except the focus and objectives are different. While the current study focuses on morphologically and semantically analyzing neologisms used on social media with concerns to Facebook and WhatsApp, Stefant (2015) and Lu (2016) concern their study to semantically analyzing the emoticons and emojis used on Twitter but do not bring out any morphological concerns regarding them.

2.4. Conclusion

The chapter has provided a literature review of related scholarly material on neologisms on social media. The chapter helped us understand the study area by providing related in depth information. It also stimulated an understanding of the relationship between the reviewed literature and the current study. The reviewed literature was grouped into three categories; firstly, works done on social media in general which mainly discussed the importance of social media. Secondly, works done on social media neologisms and finally, the third category took a semiotic aspect by discussing works done on emojis and emoticons.

It is important to note that for each literature reviewed, the relationship between previous studies and the current study was noted to provide a knowledge gap. It was observed that the current study was similar to Jimaima and Nkhata's (2017), Onyedum's (2012) and also Mworia's (2015), thereby complementing the current study. Furthermore, it is worth noting that, while a few scholars have ventured into the study of neologisms on social media, a lot still needs to be done.

The next chapter provides a detailed theoretical and conceptual framework used to guide the study and also analyze the data collected. In so doing, the chapter will provide a comprehensive discussion on the theory of Lexical Morphology and the concept of Lexical Semantics. Both the theory and concept will be discussed in relation to the mental lexicon.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTAUL FRAMEWORK

3.0 General

The previous chapter reviewed some related literature on social media neologisms which helped us understand the study at hand and also create the knowledge gap. This chapter discusses the theory and concepts guiding the current study. This study will be situated within the framework of Lexical Morphology and Lexical semantics. This is because, Morphological theories and concepts discursively interrogate and account for speakers' competence to form and use not only real words that occur in their respective languages but also what appear to be pseudo words. Productivity and the mental lexicon thus play a crucial role in accounting for how creative language is. Furthermore, lexical semantics accounts for the meanings of lexemes and words, in this case, newly formed words, known as neologisms.

3.1 The theory of Lexical Morphology

One theoretical framework selected for this study is lexical morphology. This theory was first proposed in Pesetsky (1979), elaborated in Kiparsky (1982). Lexical morphology is a branch of morphology which investigates the processes by which words are formed. It focuses on the word formation rules that apply in morphology. To this end, we see the importance of the lexicon and filter in the formation and selection of words.

3.1.1 Word Formation Processes

Zimmer (1964) has pointed out that there are many words which a grammar can generate in a language, which accidentally and unsystematically never appear. This study focuses on social media neologisms, therefore, will analyze word formation processes at play in the creation of these neologisms. Aronoff (1981) postulates that all word formation processes are word-based. This follows that a new word is formed by applying a rule to an already existing word. For instance, from a verb 'proˈduce', we come up with a noun ''ˈproduction' and from the noun 'beauty' comes an adjective 'beautiful', among other words produced. As earlier alluded to, Morphology studies the internal structure of a word thus a discussion on word formation processes is crucial.

Some of the word formation processes include Affixation (derivation and inflection), Compounding, Conversion, Coinage, Borrowing, Blending, Clipping, Backformation, Abbreviation and Initialism. It is important to note that the morphemes used in these word formation processes are optional syntactic elements. Given the example, Kitchen versus Kitchenette, this follows that, when 'ette' is added to a word, nothing changes syntactically but there is a significant shift in meaning as 'ette' is a marker diminutive.

Morphology cannot be discussed without reference to productivity in word formation and Aronoff (1976) has argued that morphology of a language is quite significant because it is part of the grammar and trades in internal structural matters of potential-complex words of a language. However, there are constraints on what can be part of the word formation processes and because of this assertion, Word Formation Rules (WFRs) come into play. According to Aronoff (1976), a word formation rule specifies a set of words on which it can operate and every WFR specifies a unique phonological operation which is performed on the base. He further advances his argument postulating that a WFR specifies a syntactic label and sub-categorization for the resulting word as well as a semantic reading of it. This therefore entails that Word formation rules do not operate on anything less than a word, like a morpheme for example.

3.1.2 Productivity

It goes without saying that language is productive, and productivity is subject to the dimension of time. This follows that some words have been lost to the idea of historicity. We take the view that, new words have been coined with time and social media neologisms should be seen as an outcome of the creativity of language as well as productivity.

Productivity according to Baayen (1992) is the degree to which native speakers use a particular grammatical process, especially in word formation. On the other hand, Bauer (1983) argues that a word formation is productive if it can be used synchronically in the production of new forms. Lyons (1977) gives his definition of productivity as a defining property of a language allowing a native speaker to produce an infinite large number of sentences to be accounted for by the rules of grammar. Unlike the other two scholars, Baayen (1992) and Lyons (1977), Bauer (1983) does seem to give an elaborate definition of the concept of productivity which is in line with this study. Finally, Aronoff (1981) has argued that the meaning and utility of the term productivity in morphology generally identifies productivity with sheer number. What Aronoff proposes is that in comparing two Word Formation Rules (WFRs), two lists of words formed by the two WFRs should be made and added. The longer the list will be, the more productive the WFR hence.

Katamba (1993) has asserted that the concept of productivity can be linked to the idea of derivation. The applicability of word formation processes on certain bases is what makes morphology productive and language in general. Some bases have been made readily available to allow affixes while others not. From a diachronic viewpoint, some bases have become fossilized hence less productive. In this regard, productivity is subject to the dimension of time; meaning that while some words have been lost, we have new creations especially on social media. Lucinda (2005) has stated that new words constantly enter the lexicon to describe new concepts and technologies and what they mean, thereby, older words continuously fall out of use as they decrease in cultural significance considering the influence of digital technology.

Productivity entails creativity as speakers of a language require a finite number of rules to come up with a potential list of new words every now and then. This follows then that these rules are not only to be used to analyze existing words but to create new ones too. Katamba (1993) has proposed two concepts with regard to word formation: the rule governed creativity and rule bending creativity.

3.1.2.1 Rule governed creativity

This rule accounts for everything that is considered acceptable in a language. This, however, is dependent on a formalized list of affixes which are to be attached to bases. For example, the suffix –ness is known for creating de-adjectival nominalization (nominal adjectives) as follows: 'happy-happiness.' This kind of creativity is quite helpful in a way as it makes it easier to create new

words. This can be illustrated using the verb 'teach', we do know that to change the verb 'teach' to a noun, we need to use the affix –er, hence 'teach-teacher.' In the absence of such rules, one would have to come up with a much longer construction other than 'teacher', probably, "one who teaches."

It can further be argued from Aronoff's (1976) point of view that the word formation rules create ground to construct complex words on the basis of a list of morphemes available. He bases his argument on the following idea that word formation rules have an effect on the base of a word to render, based on a type of phonological, syntactic and semantic operation. This follows then that the affix added to the base of a word could affect the phonological operation of a word, it could also have an effect on the syntactic operation, that is the change in category and lastly, the meaning of that word could completely change. This view is further supported by Don (2014) who argues that affixes are lexical entries which have a phonological, syntactic and semantic characterization.

3.1.2.2 Rule bending creativity

Though not generally acceptable, the concept is prone to users of the English language today especially when it comes to language of the social media. It mostly manifests in compound, clipping and blending words which many people come up with. A vivid example of such a compound word in Zambia would be 'Zamtelligent' created from Zambia and Intelligent. Here we see the application of three rules: clipping, blending and Acronymy. Often so, rule bending creativities do not stay in the mainstream of language as they are opaque and can only be understood if there is shared knowledge of their use in contexts. Drawing on Bloomfield's (1933) argument about the mental lexicon having no rules or constraints regarding possible words which can be made, it follows then that new words can be created without necessarily adhering to the Word formation Rules.

3.1.3 Mental Lexicon

The mental lexicon is the vocabulary of language, every language is made up of words and it is because of them that changes exist in a language. Fowler (1983) asserts that the vocabulary is thus the first point of contact in the process of language change. The mental lexicon is critical to the study of neologisms. Katamba (1993: 65) asserts "neologisms are freshly coined words," therefore, the study shows interplay between morphology and the lexicon. It looks at how speakers are able to construct new words or sentences to suit the occasion. Many theories of morphology account

for the ways in which speakers of a particular language are able to form not only words available in their language but also potential words which are not used in utterances. It can be argued that most of the words that speakers use in conversations are listed in the lexicon and thus 'memorized'. However, it is also true that speakers are able to come up with a considerable list of new words as they converse at a particular time. Therefore, the lexicon is not to be viewed as a stabile list as it can incorporate new words.

Drawing on Halle's (1973) argument about the dictionary, the dictionary should not only contain actual words but also idiosyncrasies of each word, if there are any. These idiosyncrasies, Halle (1973) reminds us, include the phonological, syntactic and semantic features. We therefore, deduce from this argument that there will always be a large number of words in a language which, because of their irregularities, must be entered in the lexicon.

The mental lexicon is structured in such a way that it determines the order in which word formation processes can apply. Therefore, new words can be created based on existing words in the mental lexicon by applying certain morphological rules. In this vein, one can have an existing word like self and add a suffix -ie and come up with a whole new word. However, this is largely dependable on the accessibility of the bases to which the morphemes are to be attached.

It is worth noting that the notion of sub-categorization under the X bar theory is quite crucial to the selection of words in the mental lexicon. In this view, when a new word is entered in the lexicon, phonology, syntax and semantics play different roles. For example, Syntactically, a lexical entry for SON will be characterized by [N __] meaning the word class to which it can be attached are nouns.

Furthermore, it is worth mentioning that there are rules in the lexicon and these rules are referred to as lexical rules. Katamba (1993) has argued that the function of lexical rules is to build word structure and these rules appear on two strata in the lexicon. This therefore follows that anything in the mental lexicon is a product of lexical rules; all words created. For example, in a Noun phrase, 'The student', the word order requires that a determiner 'The' comes before the noun 'student'. In an event where one says, 'student the', the phrase becomes syntactically unsound because the sub-categorization frame in the mental lexicon tells us that a determiner comes before a noun and not vice versa. Another example would be that of a Verb Phrase, 'will come tomorrow.' The auxiliary

verb ‘will’ requires that it precedes the main verb, ‘come.’ In an event where one says, ‘come will’, syntactically, the construction becomes unsound and the mental lexicon will automatically reject that. Furthermore, once an auxiliary verb is selected from the lexicon, the filter will block all word classes that are not main verbs. This follows that instead of saying, ‘Mary will town tomorrow’; the mental lexicon will not select a noun ‘town’ but will look for a verb instead so that the construction is syntactically correct.

It is crucial to mention again that Word formation processes are rule-governed. This follows then that they are predictable and stable. For instance, each affix or base or word is pre-marked with a feature and non-words are filtered out/blocked. Following restrictions on what can be part of the word formation processes and not, in the mental lexicon exists the filter to filter out/block non-words.

3.1.4 The filter

Drawing on Katamba’s (1993) thoughts, there are constraints on the creativity of language through the use of the filter. The filter’s main task is to block the formation of non-words and in this vein; phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics are at play. The filter is the storehouse of all the idiosyncratic information pertaining to complex words which are permissible inflectional and derivational morphemes. This follows then that a filter will assign a feature [+N, -V] to prevent a verb to be formed in this context of [+N, -V]. To further this discussion, a filter may also assign a feature of [-Suffix] to prevent any suffixal material from being added to a word in the context of [-Suffix]. Lastly, a filter may assign a feature [-Lexical Insertion] in order to prevent any non-lexical item from being inserted into any syntactic structure. This rule therefore, distinguishes between potential and non-potential words.

As earlier noted the lexicon selects words and uses the filter to block non-words. Aronoff (1976) further argues that blocking may be due to the prior existence of another word with the meaning that the putative word would have. This entails therefore, that in adding the suffix –er to bases, to mean one who does something, for example; ‘teach-teacher’, ‘bank-banker’ and what not, -er can be blocked if suffixed to the verb ‘fly’ to form ‘flyer’, to mean ‘one who flies airplanes’, probably because ‘Pilot’ already exists. Furthermore, some suffixes are said to be more productive than others and Katamba (1993) asserts that where there exists two semantically similar morphemes,

one which is more productive than the other, the more productive morpheme is less susceptible to blocking than its less productive counterpart.

It is worth noting that in discussing constraints on productivity, morphology is dependent on other levels of linguistic analysis as shall be discussed. Phonology, syntax as well as semantics do play a role in blocking non- words.

Owing to the effectiveness of the filter, Katamba (1993) proposes few factors on blocking in phonology, morphology, semantics and also syntax. Morphology being the study of the structure of words entails its significance in grammar and Spencer & Zwicky (1998) have postulated that words are at the interface between phonology, syntax and semantics. Therefore, morphology is at the Centre of linguistics and linguists need to be very familiar with it. It is important to note that although morphology wasn't given its due recognition in the past and was seen to be a part of either phonology/syntax, there has been a number of important works on morphology, according to Kiefer (1973). It is worth mentioning that there are phonological, morphological, syntactic and semantic factors that lead to the blocking of new words.

3.1.4.1 Phonological factors leading to blocking

In word formation, phonological rules need to be applied and Bright (1992) defines these rules as rules with a lexical or grammatical conditioning and cites the following examples:

[1]. Singular- wife Plural- wives

In the above example, it is the plural morpheme which conditions the change of /f/ to /v/. this therefore means that phonology plays a significant role in word formation because if it did not, the plural of 'wife' would be 'wifes' and not 'wives', going by the morphology where the suffix –s is added to nouns to form the plural.

According to Stephen (1985), Morphophonology must be treated as the intersection of the sound structure of a language and its grammar. Therefore, by the use of phonological rules, some suffixes will be blocked and others permitted. In both derivation and inflection, phonological constraints are not absent as shall be discussed:

With the suffix –al forming nouns from verbs, as in the following examples:

[2]. Refuse- refusal

[3]. Arrive- arrival

Siegal (1979) argues that the suffix –al is restricted to bases with main stress on the final syllable and evidence of such an argument lies in the non-existence of nouns such as, 'abolishal' and 'examinal', among other words. It is worth noting that this restriction does not however apply to adjectives, as in 'functional', 'occasional', among the few. Therefore, this phonological blocking entails the existence of other corresponding nouns formed by attaching other suffixes. For example, phonology blocks 'abolishal' because 'abolition' already exists.

Furthermore, another rule in the formation of adverbs from other words in other word classes lies on three principles shared by Halle (1973), which he refers to as phonetic conditions. He puts forth his argument by saying that –en can only be attached to monosyllabic bases, bases ending in obstruent and as well as to adjectives only. In this vein, what Halle (1973) proposes is that to change a word from one word class to an adverb, the following are the conditions:

a) The word should be an adjective.

b) The word should be monosyllabic.

c) The word should end in obstruent: should be in the class of plosives, fricatives or affricates.

To illustrate this further, we take the word 'black' as our example. Not only is 'black' an adjective, it is also monosyllabic and ends in obstruent: plosive /k/. This follows then that –en as a suffix is sensitive and the base to which it is attached is constrained and blocked if it does not cosine to the three principles listed above. Other examples are given below to support Halle's (1973) thought:

[4]. Dark- darken

[5]. Deep- deepen

This means therefore that if –en is attached to an adjective 'long' to form 'longen', phonology will be able to block that as the adjective does not end in the obstruent. Furthermore, the blocking could be as a result of another word existing which corresponds to it. For example, 'lengthen' is used instead of 'longen'.

Comparatively, another rule requires the addition of the suffix –ly to adjectives to form an adverb, for instance, 'slow' changes to 'slowly'. However, when we have an adjective like 'timely', the addition of –ly to form 'timelyly' as an adverb will be automatically blocked. This is because anything within the domain of lexical phonology is guided by rules. One of the rules is that the base to which an affix has to be attached will have to respond to the phonology of that language. Therefore, 'timely' being an adjective cannot undergo any form of suffixation as it will be blocked; it can however, undergo a process of prefixation where a prefix such as –un is added to form a word 'untimely' which is in the same word class of adjectives.

In the principle of affixation, the creation of comparatives requires that we add the suffixes –er and –est respectively to adjectives to form the comparative and superlative forms. However, this is a rule which applies only to mono syllabic words such as 'big- bigger- biggest' or 'smart- smarter- smartest', among other mono syllabic adjectives. Other examples are given below:

[6]. Tall- taller- tallest

[7]. Small- smaller- smallest

Therefore, when affixed to bases which are disyllabic, phonology begins to play a crucial role by blocking such word formations. For example, 'important- importanter' and also 'beautiful- beautifulest.' McCathy (1981) has argued that for English verbs which reject the comparative and superlative affixes, -er and –est, there is always available a periphrasis with 'more' or 'most.' Hence, instead of 'importanter' and 'beautifulest', one opts for 'more important' and 'most beautiful.'

The formation of the past tense of verbs, using the suffixes -d and -ed are restricted to regular verbs. For example:

[8]. Move- moved

[9]. Enter- entered

Phonology needs to be applied in the formation of irregular past verbs. For example, in changing the verb 'feel' to 'felt', one is unable to say 'feeled' as phonological rules will block it, and Bright (1992) postulates that the vowel alteration in 'feel' vs 'felt' involves separate phonemes. Apart

from phonemic alterations, the need to look at the phonological structure of phonemes is vital to this discussion. Bloomfield (1939) asserts that only short vowels can occur before a velar nasal in English and there is always a restriction of English regular inflection to alveolar obstruent's /d/ and /z/ and in this regard, in the example 'sing', where /ɪ/ occurs before a velar nasal /ŋ/.

3.1.4.2 Morphological factors leading to blocking

The internal structure of the base may prevent any form of affixation to it. One of the noticeable contributing factors is its etymology; the origin of the word. This follows then that words of Latinate origin may not take up any plural in form of suffixation by the addition of a suffix –s. for instance, 'datum' as a base will reject the addition of the plural suffix –s to form 'datums', and this will be blocked as change is more internal. Therefore, 'datum' becomes 'data', showing that the internal base will have an effect on the affixes to be attached. Similarly, 'account' as a base is quite sensitive and may react once one attaches an affix that does not fall within the etymological framework. This follows that those bases that are Latinate in nature require affixes that are Latinate in nature too.

In the same vein, alluding to velar softening, the changes that occur here are within the framework of Latin and French origin and are quite predictable. For instance, the transition of the word 'electrical→electricity' involves the softening of the velar sound –cal /k/ in 'electrical' to -ci /s/ in 'electricity.' The principles governing these changes are on a basis of the origin of the bases.

3.1.4.3 Syntactic factors leading to blocking

The relationship between morphology and syntax is called morphosyntax. This interface lies in the Word Formation Rules (WFRs). According to the English American Heritage (2013), morphosyntax is the study of grammatical categories or linguistic units that have both morphological and syntactic properties. It is important to note that morphology and syntax are closely related and it is quite unusual that one can be discussed without reference to the other. This is because morphology analyzes words and syntax analyzes sentences and together account for sentence meaning systematically by combinations of formal structure features, (Bright: 1992). The morphosyntax relationship exists purely on the ground of agreement in number. In looking at its interplay, it is worth noting that a word may be altered depending on the context in which it has been used. Reference is made to the following examples:

[10]. The dog is gone vs the dogs are gone.

Here syntax plays a role in word formation or the addition of the suffix –s to nouns. This is purely dependent on which context the word is used and therefore, the addition of –s as a suffix is dependent on whether the sentence is in the plural or singular. The same can be said to verbs which have different word forms. For example:

[11]. Sing- sing, sings, singing, sang, sung.

The use of either 'sing' or 'sings' depends on whether the subject of the verb is the third person singular or not, (Katamba, 1993). Illustrated further below:

[12]. He/she/it sings (third person singular)

[13]. I/we/they/you sing (first person singular and plural, third person plural and second person singular/plural).

Syntactic rules sometimes may affect the proper parts of words and Spencer & Zwicky (1998) purport that there is a relationship between the autonomy of the syntax and the word formation processes; syntactic rules which allow for some word formations. Because of these rules, combinations of which morphemes are permissible are enumerated. Chomsky (1957) has argued that syntax takes care of grammatical sequences of morphemes in a given language.

To further discuss constraints on productivity, it is worth noting that the base to which an affix is to be attached is syntactically specified and Aronoff (1976) argues that the rule which attaches the suffix –ness operates only on adjectives, as in the following examples:

[14]. Effective- effectiveness

[15]. Dark- darkness

Therefore, when –ness is attached to other words other than adjectives, syntactic rules will block such word formations. In the same vein, it can be noted that the suffix –ee can only be applied to transitive verbs, as in the following examples:

[16]. Train- trainee

[17]. Pay- payee

When applied to ditransitive verbs, the syntactic rules will block such word formations, for example attaching –ee to a word like 'send' to form 'sendee' to mean 'someone who is sent' or to 'read' to form 'reedee,' meaning 'one who reads', will be blocked because there is already a suffix –er which is attached to the verbs discussed according to the syntactic rules

It can therefore be concluded that when we begin to discuss the interplay between syntax and morphology in relation to constraints in productivity, syntactically, a word to be formed must at least belong to a main lexical category guided by the WFR producing the word. This thought is illustrated by the following examples; -ness produces nouns while -able produces adjectives.

3.1.4.4 Semantic factors leading to blocking

Semantics is the study and representation of the meaning of language expression, (Keith, 1986). When dwelling on constraints on productivity in semantics, one needs to draw a distinction between correctness and acceptability. This is because in some cases, the meaning maybe correct but unacceptable or the meaning maybe acceptable but incorrect.

When discussing the interface between morphology and semantics in terms of constraints on productivity, Word Formation Rules (WFRs) are applied to block any incorrect form of a word. Aronoff (1976) has argued that a Word Formation Rule is coherent when the words formed by the Rule adhere closely to the meaning assigned to them by the semantic function of the rule. In comparing the suffixes –ity and –ness, one discovers the unusual difference in coherence when the derivations of negative and positive adjectives of the two are compared. Furthermore, the English prefixes –un and –non though said to refer to the 'negative' to mean, 'not', do differ. –un is said to be more productive than –non. Therefore, this shows that where an affix is productive, its semantics is too.

It can be noted that semantics may restrict the application of some morphological rules. This is clearly seen in the case of antonyms as the prefix –un only attaches to the positive adjective, (Katamba, 1993). In an instance where it is attached to the negative member, the word form is incorrect in meaning. Illustrations are shown below:

POSITIVES	NEGATIVES
unkind	unharsh
unhealthy	unsick
unalive	undie

3.2 The Concept of Lexical Semantics

This study will not only be guided by lexical morphology but also lexical semantics as this study would be incomplete without the knowledge of the meanings of the social media neologisms. This is vital as meaning pervades the whole of language and Onyedum (2012) supports this assertion by adding that, if a grammar describes a language, part of it must describe its meaning and thus the grammar must contain semantics.

Derived from lexicology and semantics, the notion of lexical semantics is concerned with the study of word meaning and not the meanings of grammatical words. Cruse (1996) has argued in his text that the study of words (lexicology) and the study of meaning (semantics) make it natural for a linguist to interpret the term 'lexical semantics' to mean word meaning. However, some scholars such as Onyedum (2012) have argued that defining lexical semantics as the study of word meaning may be misleading as the notion is accurately described as the study of lexeme meaning. She has further argued that there is a disparity between a word and a lexeme as all words are lexemes but not all lexemes are words. Katamba (1993) clearly brings out the disparity between a lexeme and a word. He looks at a lexeme as an abstract vocabulary item which exists regardless of any affixation. This means, therefore, that what appear in a dictionary are lexemes and not words. To further the discussion, lexemes are captured in capital letters and can be realized in different forms. For example, a lexeme like 'COOK' can be realized in different forms as follows; 'cooks-cooked-cooking.' In this regard, the different realizations of the lexeme are what we call words. Therefore, going by this argument, it is safe to define lexical semantics as a concept which discusses the individual meanings of words and lexemes.

Furthermore, it is concerned with the meaning of constituent lexemes regardless of their nature. Therefore, in this regard, when one is faced with a new word, the first step is to establish its

meaning, hence lays the interface between morphology and semantics. Lexical semantics is concerned with the open classes of words such as nouns, verbs, adverbs and adjectives too; the meanings of word classes are its concerns and not grammatical words such as prepositions, articles, among other grammatical words.

When discussing lexical semantics, it is critical to note that in dealing with the meaning of a lexeme or word, one needs to take into account both the 'denotative' and 'connotative' meaning of that particular lexeme or word. "Denotation is the straight forward dictionary definition of the word; it is the actual literal definition/meaning of a word while connotation is an association of a term which can also be an emotional input attached to a word thus making it figurative and suggestive," (Shabbir: 2015). Semantics, therefore, is relevant to the study as many social media users are not fully aware of the meanings of these widely used neologisms and most importantly what processes are involved in their formation. The study will mainly focus on the connotative meanings of the neologisms. This is because the neologisms in question are newly coined words which have not yet found their way in any dictionary. Therefore, the emotional input attached to a particular neologism will determine its meaning and also the sociocultural knowledge social media users share.

3.3 Conclusion

This chapter introduced the theory and concepts guiding the current study. It began by offering a background of lexical morphology, one theory crucial to this study. Thereafter, productivity and the mental lexicon were fully discussed. In doing so, the chapter helped us understand the creativity of language owing to the idea that the study is about new word coinages on social media. The chapter also helped us understand how certain word formations are constrained by the help of the filter in the mental lexicon. Furthermore, lexical semantics, as a concept guiding the study was discussed. The current study discusses the meanings of social media neologisms; therefore, lexical semantics is quite useful.

The next chapter provides a detailed methodology used to collect and analyze data. In so doing, the chapter will provide a comprehensive discussion about what research is, the research paradigms used, the research design, the data collection instruments, among other things.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY

4.0 General

This chapter provides the methodology used to collect relevant data in the quest to answer the research questions mentioned in Chapter one. In so doing, the chapter begins by outlining the research design relevant to the current study and further discusses the different types of research paradigms. In addition, the chapter finally discusses the sampling techniques, data collection instruments, data collection procedure and the data analysis procedure. Research according to Kothari (1985) is defined as a parlance in search for knowledge. He further defines it as a scientific and systematic search for pertinent information on a special topic.

The path to finding answers to the research questions is what constitutes the research methodology. According to Lynch (2000), in his lecture notes on Writing up Qualitative Research, he refers to methodology as a general term to cover whatever the researcher decides to include in the chapter where you discuss the alternative methodological approaches, justify one's chosen research method, and describe the process and participants in one's study. It is important to note that there are different types of research but this study was framed within the descriptive research design.

4.1 Research Design

A research design according to Burns and Groove (2003: 195) is "a blueprint for conducting a study with maximum control over factors that may interfere with the validity of the findings." This follows that a research design is a framework which a given research undertakes and provides the basis of the selection of an appropriate research method suitable for the given study. It serves as a guide in the data collection and analysis of a research, and Leedy (2007) has defined a research design as a plan for a study, providing the overall framework for collecting data. This involves selection of subjects, research sites and also data procedures to answer the research questions.

Based on the research questions, the study was framed within the methodological framework of the descriptive research design as it attempted to analyze, explain and describe some frequently used social media neologisms and their meanings. According to Kothari (1985), the major purpose of descriptive research is description of the state of affairs as it exists at present. Following

Kothari's (1985) definition, in this type of research, the researcher has no control of the variables as the findings are dependent on what has happened or currently happening. A good description according to Marsh (1982) must provoke the why questions of an explanatory research.

Furthermore, we can crucially note that in the current study, the why questions were asked in focus group discussions. The subjects were asked, for example, to explain why they preferred the frequent use of one neologism or emoticon over another. By employing this type of technique, there is need for the development of causal explanations. For example, one may argue that gender affects the way neologisms and emoticons are used.

Under the descriptive research design, there are two approaches: qualitative and quantitative approaches. Considering that the objectives of the current study were meant to describe and explain the data, the qualitative approach with some statistical elements was used. In context of this study, the qualitative approach was used to provide an adequate description of the feelings, experiences and opinions of the participants or data that could not be quantified. This was predicated on Miles' and Huberman's (1994) argument that the qualitative research is a better means of understanding human emotions such as rejection, powerlessness and effort since such human emotions cannot be quantified by assigning numerical values. Thus, the use of this research method in the current study helped in understanding human behavior. For instance, it helped in understanding the feelings of people about certain situations.

4.1.1. Qualitative approach

The qualitative approach aims at obtaining a detailed description on a given study. According to Neill (2007), in the qualitative approach, the researcher may not know roughly in advance what he/she is looking for and the design may only emerge as the study unfolds. This therefore, follows that the researcher is one of the data gathering instruments as he/she is expected to collect data either by desk research or going out into the field looking for answers. The data to be collected can range from words to objects as long as it is crucial to the study. In the current study, words and symbols as used on social media platforms were collected.

According to Burns and Grove (2003), a qualitative approach is a systematic subjective approach used to describe life experiences and situations to give them meaning. This approach is crucial as it is termed subjective; therefore, the researcher may get first-hand information regarding

individuals' interpretation of certain situations and events. In this regard, the researcher may collect data by using in-depth interviews and also by observation. Thus the researcher becomes part of the research actively as he/she takes his/her time in the quest of collecting data which cannot be generalized.

However, it is critical to mention that although the qualitative approach has many advantages as noted above, it also has its disadvantages and Weinreich (2009) has argued that the qualitative approach is labor intensive and time consuming. It requires one's full time commitment in collecting adequate data which will later need to be synthesized and theorized.

This type of approach produces findings by way of non-statistical procedures and thereby allows a researcher to view behavior as a natural setting. According to Kothari (1985), this approach is critical as it analyzes the various factors which motivate people to behave in a particular manner or which make people like or dislike a particular thing. It is a better means of understanding human emotions as it is concerned with individual feelings and opinions. The application of this approach in the current study of "A grammar of neologisms on social media" was an effective way of understanding how people expressed their different emotions using social media neologisms and emoticons.

Furthermore, in order to achieve the objectives, the researcher used focus group discussions to obtain data. This is because the researcher wished to get in-depth information on perceptions, insights, attitudes, experiences or even beliefs. By engaging participants in focus group interviews, the researcher wished to establish how and where the meanings of neologisms are derived and whether they have standard meaning or not.

The researcher also wished to establish how people considered an experience, idea or event. Therefore, the researcher wished to gather data based on how people used and interpreted emojis/emoticons and established whether they had standard meanings or differed from one person to the next.

4.1.1.1 Focus group discussion

It is critical to note that the notion of focus group originated in sociology and later adopted in many study areas. A focus group discussion is a form of qualitative research where eight to ten participants gather and are free to interact with other group members, as questions are asked about

their perceptions and attitudes towards a specific topic. Normally, this approach is used to gain an in-depth understanding of social issues. According to Wilson (2017), this method aims at obtaining data from a purposely selected group of individuals rather than from a statistically representative sample of a broader population. Kumar (1987) gives her own definition of a focus group discussion as a rapid assessment, semi-structured data gathering method in which a purposively selected set of participants gather to discuss issues and concerns based on the key themes drawn by the researcher/facilitator.

A focus group discussion can be regarded as a type of interview in research and Anderson (1990) has defined an interview as a specialized form of communication between people for a specific purpose associated with some agreed subject matter. In this regard therefore, the purpose of an interview is to obtain as much information on a particular topic as possible. This information is based on people's inner feelings and attitudes. The person interviewing, in this case the researcher is known as the interviewer while the person being interviewed is referred to as the interviewee.

For the current study, the researcher had 40 participants who were divided into five groups with eight participants in each; three groups were engaged in the common face-to-face single focus group discussions while two were engaged in online focus group discussions. For the common face-to-face focus group discussions, the time allocation for each group was 60 minutes. On the other hand, it was difficult to allocate time for the online focus groups as participants had different schedules and could not be online at the same time. Therefore, the discussion was dependent on the availability of the participants online which was aroused by the availability of mobile data bundles and also their time. For each focus group discussion, the researcher had the same number of 20 questions and recorded the answers that were given. The researcher wished to know how emoticons were used to express emotions and their different meanings. For a successful focus group discussion, the researcher created a friendly environment where participants were able to speak freely. Furthermore, as the moderator, the researcher stimulated the discussions with comments based on the topic at hand. This was to ensure that the participants understood the topic and participated fully.

4.1.1.2 Advantages of focus group discussions

As propounded by Krueger (1994) and Morgan (1988), a focus group discussion is comparatively easier to conduct. This seems true as the researcher will get as many answers as possible from

different participants all at once thereby giving a speed of the results, in terms of evidence of the meeting of the group. It presents an opportunity to collect as much data as possible from the group in reference to the researcher's topic. Unlike questionnaires where the participants may not give them back to the researcher or in many instances, many participants may lie, focus group discussions tend to be more effective. Furthermore, focus group discussions are comparatively cheaper than other methods, such as the collection of data through the use questionnaires.

Focus group discussions give participants opportunity to gain support/strength from each other as they respond to each other's comments. In this vain, participants are able to agree or disagree with one another, thereby, creating more data. Furthermore, by using focus group discussions, the researcher is able to get people's perceptions, attitudes and experiences regarding a certain situation. Finally, it can be noted that through the use of a focus group, a researcher is able to increase the size of the sample of the qualitative study.

4.1.1.3 Application of the focus group discussion to the current study

This current study used the single face-to-face focus group discussions, as favored by Morgan (1996) to be the Most common and classical type of focus group discussion. The study also used online focus group discussions. The latter was very efficient and effective owing to the line of study being "A grammar of neologisms on social media: A case of Facebook and WhatsApp language in Zambia."

4.1.1.4 Single face-to-face focus group

Firstly, it is crucial to make mention that apart from the participants; there should be a facilitator/researcher and recorder/observer in order to have a fruitful single focus group discussion. As Burrows and Kendal (1997) have argued, focus group discussions require a team consisting of a skilled facilitator and an assistant and the facilitator is central to the discussion in managing relationships. In the current study, both the facilitator and observer played critical roles as shall be noted below. However, both did not to express their opinions regarding the topic at hand.

4.1.1.4.1 Facilitator's role

Firstly, the facilitator had to set up a room where the focus group discussion was to take place. In so doing, chairs and tables were set in a round-like manner and a bottle of water was placed on

each table. This was done prior the discussion in one of the classrooms at one of the schools in Lusaka; Munali Girls Secondary School. The facilitator's crucial role was to make the participants understand the researcher's topic and also explain the outcomes for each focus group. In this regard, the researcher had to explain to the participants that the study was about social media neologisms and emoticons and how people interpret them. The researcher took up the facilitator role and by so doing; a rapport was created with the participants. The idea was to get the participants as comfortable as possible as they did not know each other. The researcher also made mention to the participants that there were no wrong answers in such a discussion, therefore, all members were free to participate.

Another critical role that the facilitator played in the current study was to lay the ground rules for the participants. It was important to make mention to the participants that the exercise was a voluntary one and that they had a right to pass answering any questions if they so wished. Most crucially, the facilitator assured the participants of confidentiality. The facilitator also urged the participants to refrain from talking or rather making objections while one participant took the floor.

Furthermore, the facilitator/researcher ensured that all participants were involved as Gall (1996) postulates; the facilitator in a focus group discussion should involve all participants by keeping eye contact with quiet members when asking them to respond to a question in order to encourage their response. This was to get responses from all participants in that particular group.

In order to have a successful focus group discussion, the researcher ensured that the questions that were being asked were in line with the study's objectives and research questions. The questions asked by the Facilitator were mainly focused on one topic, being the use and meanings of emoticons and neologisms on Facebook and WhatsApp. Anderson (1990) has argued that in focus group discussions, the facilitator introduces the questions one by one and these may sometimes be phrased in a mother tongue familiar to the participants. In the current study, the English language was used as a medium of expression.

The facilitator was equally careful not stray away from the topic and by all means avoided the use of leading questions. The facilitator had to begin with the most important and easy questions which were; "How often in a day are you on Facebook and WhatsApp and what do you know about Emoticons and Neologisms?" It is critical to mention that the questions stayed on track and in an

event where the participants failed to answer the question, the facilitator had to rephrase the question. To add on, in an event when there was a group member who wanted to dominate by answering all questions, the facilitator found a good way of handling that without having to criticize that member.

4.1.1.4.2 The observer's role

The facilitator had to choose a recorder/observer in advance before the discussion whose role was mainly to record the whole session and afterwards note down the most important lessons from the discussion. In this regard, the observer was the researcher's friend and workmate who was abreast with the current study, as the researcher had sat down with the observer prior the formation of focus groups to discuss the study in detail. As Krueger (1988) has noted in his article; "Focus groups: A Practical guide for applied research," that the observer should be totally familiar with the interview questions (protocol) before the group discussion begins. There is need to understand the type of information the facilitator will be seeking and as a result will concentrate on the discussion and note taking rather than figuring out whether everything will be covered.

It is important to note that the recorder also ensured that the room was quiet and most crucially tested the audio recorder to establish whether it was working well. Rice and Ezzy (1999) have added that for the analysis of data, it is important to record the discussion with accuracy and the recorder should by no means give signals to the group members about the worth of their opinions and not only note the best comments.

4.2 Study Population

Population according to Parahoo (1997) is the total number of units from which data can be collected. In this regard, population refers to all people or elements that meet the standard to be included in the study. The respondents in the current study were active social media users on Facebook and WhatsApp. These were purposively selected according to age and also gender most preferably between ages of 16 to 30 years of age as they are mostly active on social media and are more abreast with the happenings on social media. When it came to focus group discussions, the researcher mixed the participants regardless of age range. What was important was to have everyone say something about the topic at hand and feel as comfortable as possible. It is also important to make mention that while the researcher knew 40% of the participants; about 60% of the rest were total strangers.

4.3 Study Site

The study site for the current study was mainly virtual space, it is however, crucial to note that the current study used two major sources of data; primary and secondary sources. For the primary sources, the data was gleaned from the two social networking sites on social media; Facebook and WhatsApp. The data was collected in citation form as individual entries as well as discourse in form of Screen shots of chats, postings and comments by different respondents on the named sites. The secondary sources were Neologisms in the 21st Century and the A-Z of Social Media Key Terms by David Wilcox and also Jimaima & Nkhata's (2017) article on "Some reflections on the morphological and lexical aspects of the Social Media Discourse and Self-Asserting Narratives on the Zambian Online Media."

4.4 Study Sample

In Morgan's (1988) argument about participants:

The determination of who will participate in the study is a function of the purpose of the research and the need to segment people in categories should be considered. The usual demographic factors are geographical location, age, size of family, status, gender among other factors.

Since the researcher used focus group discussions to gather some additional information as an adjunct to data qualitative methods, the type of participants chosen were high school learners University/College Students and also other people who were abreast with social media language, between ages 16 and 30 years. These were later divided into groups of 8 participants with each individual group made up of mixed individuals.

The choice to use focus group discussions in this line of study over other types of interview as earlier noted was that they were quick and easy to set up. In addition, the group dynamic provided useful information that individual data collection did not provide in any way. Lastly, focus group discussions helped the researcher gain insight into a topic that was difficult to gather through other data collection means.

4.5 Data Collection Instruments

A research instrument according to Parahoo (1997) is a tool used to collect data and an instrument is a tool designed to measure knowledge attitude and skills. In this line of study, apart from using the mobile phone which the researcher used to collect data, the data collection aids included a

recorder and notebook which were used to collect data from the respondents in the focus groups. The researcher conducted these focus group discussions in person and also online. The focus groups turned out to be powerful instruments as the researcher was able to clarify unclear questions as dialogue was used, unlike the use of questionnaires. Furthermore, the use of this instrument prevented any form of biasness on the researcher's part.

4.6 Data Collection Procedure and Timeline

The researcher read participants' chats, postings and comments on Facebook and WhatsApp, furthermore, screen shots of them were gotten with the permission of social actors and finally, the collected data was analyzed in accordance to the study objectives. Furthermore, the researcher set up a permissive atmosphere to carry out focus group discussions. Firstly, ground rules were given and thereafter, set the tone for discussion. There was a facilitator to guide the group through the discussion and kept the group focused on the topics for discussion. The note taker/observer took down what each participant said. Finally, there was a technician who was responsible for the recording of the focus group discussions. Each face-to-face discussion took about 60 minutes.

4.7 Data Procedure Analysis

The data after collection was processed and analyzed according to the researcher's research plan. Kothari (1985) has argued that before data analysis, there is the process of processing, which implies editing, coding, classification and tabulation of collected data so that they are amenable to analysis. Data analysis therefore involves processes of editing, coding, classification and tabulation. Editing involves the examination of the collected data to detect the errors and make necessary correction. Coding according to Kothari (1985) refers to the process of assigning numerals or other symbols to answers so that responses can be put into a limited number of categories or classes. This therefore means that in coding, the researcher has to itemize the participants' responses for efficient analysis.

The third process of Classification requires the researcher to arrange the collected data in classes based on their similarities. This means that data exhibiting common characteristics should be placed in one class/group. Furthermore, the final process of tabulation according to Kothari (1985) is the process of summarizing raw data and displaying the same in compact form for further analysis. This means therefore, that the data collected should be arranged in rows and columns.

The collected data for the current study was organized in a manner in which the research questions were to be answered and the objectives achieved. The raw data of neologisms, emojis and emoticons was further examined to detect some errors and make corrections. Furthermore, each of the collected neologisms was analyzed to determine the word formation type and later on classified. The emoticons and also emojis had semantic properties attributed to them.

Secondly, the data collected from focus group discussions stored in an audio recorder was transcribed. Transcription takes a lot of time hence it was crucial that the process began immediately after the discussions, following Anderson's (1990) steps of first beginning with big ideas and making a list of them, considering words and context of their use, trying to examine the strength of the reactions/feelings and striking a balance between detail and conciseness. This therefore follows that the data collected was first coded by way of generating numerous lists and thereafter, the researcher was able to eliminate and subdivide the coding category.

Krueger (1994) has asserted that the analysis should be systematic, verifiable and focus on the topic of interest and with an appropriate degree of interpretation. He further adds that the results obtained from a focus group are valid if the method has been used for a problem that is adopted for investigation. In this light therefore, focus groups are said to have high validity as people are able to tell their perceptions regarding a particular topic.

Finally, the data was analyzed using the theory of Lexical Morphology and the concept of Lexical semantics. In this vein, using the concept of lexical semantics, the data was subjected to social media users who provided the meanings of the neologisms, emojis and emoticons. The theory of lexical Morphology was used to measure data against the established morphological processes by classifying it into different word formation processes.

4.8 Ethical Statement

In this study, the researcher treated the participants with respect and consent was obtained from them before participating in the study. In this line of study which requires the researcher to depend purely on online posts, chats and comments made by online users on WhatsApp and Facebook, the researcher ensured that the participants understood the nature of the research and later shared findings with them. Consent was gotten from the participants in order to use their chats or

comments in the study. Furthermore, the respondents to be used in the group interview had full knowledge of what the study was about before taking part.

4.9 Conclusion

This chapter has provided details of the methodology used in the collection of data. The chapter was divided into sub-sections; it began by discussing the research design and its application to the study. It further looked at the qualitative approach used in the collection of data and linked it to the study. The chapter also explored the concept of focus group discussion and its application to the current study was discussed in detail. It further looked at the study population, study site, study sample, data collection instruments and finally data analysis was fully discussed.

The next chapter is Data Presentation and Analysis with regards to the study of "A grammar of neologisms on social media: A case of Facebook and WhatsApp language in Zambia." The chapter will be divided into four main sections, with each section answering the research questions to the current study.

CHAPTER FIVE

PLACEMENT AND CATEGORIZATION OF NEOLOGISMS INTO POSSIBLE MORPHOLOGICAL PROCESSES

5.0 General

The previous chapter explored the methodology used in the collection and analysis of data for the current study. This was done in the quest to answer the research questions raised in the first chapter. It is important to point out from the outset that in order to avoid repetition, the presentation of the findings and discussion will be done concurrently.

This chapter provides the presentation of findings in relation to objectives one and three relating to the identification of neologisms, as well as their placement and categorization into possible morphological processes as outlined in chapter one. The current study had four objectives which were; a) To identify frequently used social media neologisms and emoticons, b) To establish where

the meanings of social media neologisms are derived from, c) To establish whether the neologisms used on social media can be placed within the word formation processes and finally d) To establish whether there is an attempt by social media to localize the neologisms within the Zambian sociocultural knowledge and histories. This chapter therefore, addresses objectives one and three only.

5.1 Identified Neologisms

In this section of the dissertation, findings relating to the identification of frequently used social media neologisms and emoticons are presented, and thereafter discussed. The Table below provides some of the neologisms used by the social media actors. They are further exploited for their meaning and morphological structure.

Table 5.1 showing some identified neologisms on social media

Item	**Expansion**	**Affixal Material**	**Possible Morphological Processes at Play**	**Word Formation Rules (WFRs)**
BAE	Before Anyone Else	Initials	Acronym/ Initialism	[+ initials]
BFF	Best Friend Forever	Initials	Acronym/Initialism	[+ initials]
BFFS	Best Friends Forever	Initials + infl- s	Acronym& Suffixation	[+ initial] [+ S]
FYI	For your information	Initials	Acronym/Initialism	[+ initial]
LOL	Laugh Out Loud	Initials	Acronym/ Initialism	[+ initial]
LOLEST	Laugh Out Loudest	Initials + infl- est	Acronym& Suffixation	[+ initial]
LMAO	Laughing My Ass Off	Initials	Acronym/ Initialism	[+ initial]

IKR	I Know Right	Initials	Acronym/ Initialism	[+initial]
BTW	By The Way	Initials	Acronym/ Initialism	[+ initial]
Hun	Honey	Clipped base	Clipping	[+ truncation]
ROTFL	Rolling On the Floor Laughing	Initials	Acronym/ Initialism	[+ initial]
XO	Hugs and Kisses	Symbols	Reduplication	[+ redup]
SMH	Shaking My Head	Initials	Acronym/ Initialism	[+ initial]
IDK	I Don't Know	Initials	Acronym/ Initialism	[+ initial]
DP	Display Picture	Initials	Acronym/ Initialism	[+ initial]
U Urs	You Yours	Clipped base + Inflection	Clipping& Suffixation	[+truncation] [+S]
IDC	I Don't Care	Initials	Acronym/ Initialism	[+ initial]
OMG	Oh My God	Initials	Acronym/ Initialism	[+ initial]
TBT	Throwback Thursday/Truth Be Told	Initials	Acronym/ Initialism	[+initial]
WTF	What The Fuck	Initials	Acronym/ initialism	[+ initial]
TTYL	Talk To You Later	Initials	Acronym/ initialism	[+ initial]
HBD	Happy Birthday	Initials	Acronym/ Initialism	[+ initial]
LMFAO	Laughing My Fucking Ass Off	Initials	Acronym/ Initialism	[+ initial]

Selfie	Self + ie	Inflection –ie	Suffixation	[Self] NP + [IE]
Friendversary	Friend Anniversary	Lexical + clipped base	Compounding/ Clipping/ Blending	[+ comp] [+ trunc] [+ blend]
Fam	Family	Clipped base	Clipping	[+ truncation]
Adobs	Adorable	Clipped base + Inflection	Clipping& suffixation	[+ truncation]
Y'all	You all	Initial + lexical	Blending	[+blend] [+ elliptical]
Wanna	I want to	Lexical	Pseudo-Elliptical construction	[+ elliptical]
Gonna	Going to	Lexical	Pseudo-Elliptical construction	[+ elliptical]
Photo bomber	Photo + bomber	Lexical + inflection	Compounding& suffixation	[+ compounding]
Bestie/besties	Best Friend/s	Clipped base	Clipping	[+ truncation]
Gal	Girl	Clipped base	Clipping	[+ truncation]

Pic	Picture	Clipped base	Clipping	[+ truncation]
Sweetie	Sweet heart	Clipped base + Inflection	Clipping	[+ truncation]
Fab	Fabulous	Clipped base	Clipping	[+ truncation]
Pliz	Please	Clipped base	Clipping	[+ truncation]
Thot	Thought	Clipped base	Clipping	[+ truncation]
WYD	What you do?	Initials	Acronym/ Initialism	[+ initial]
TBH	To Be Honest	Initials	Acronym/ Initialism	[+ initial]
WCW	Woman Crush Wednesday	Initials	Acronym/ Initialism	[+ initial]
Uk	You Know	Initials	Initialism/ Acronym	[+ initial]
Kikikikikikiki	Laughter	Repeated phonemes	Reduplication	[+ redup]
Hehehehehe	Laughter	Repeated phonemes	Reduplication	[+ redup]
Og	Original	Clipped base	Clipping	[+ truncation]
Thank u	Thank you	Clipped base	Clipping	[+ truncation]

Congrats	Congratulations	Clipped base	Clipping	[+ truncation]
Mxxm	Showing Sarcasm/ attitude of disapproval	Repeated phonemes	Reduplication (phonological)	Morphophonological
Def	Definitely	Clipped base	Clipping	[+ truncation]
Hud	How you doing?	Initials	Initialism/Acronymy	[+ initial]
Picmix	Picture mixing	Lexical+ Clipped base	Compounding Clipping Blending	[+comp] [+clip] [+blend]
AF	As Fuck	Initials	Initialism/Acronymy	[+ initial]
Faceversary	Facebook anniversary	Lexical+ clipped base	Compounding/ clipping/ Blending	[+comp] [+trunc] [+blend]
TL	Time Line	Initials	Initialism/Acronymy	[+initial]
BF	Boy Friend	Initials	Initialism/Acronymy	[+initial]

From the information presented in table 5.1 above, it is observed that, apart from initialisms/acronyms and clipped bases, other neologisms on social media result from the following word formation processes; blending, compounding, reduplication, among other word formation processes. The information can be presented by use of a pie chart in **figure 1** below:

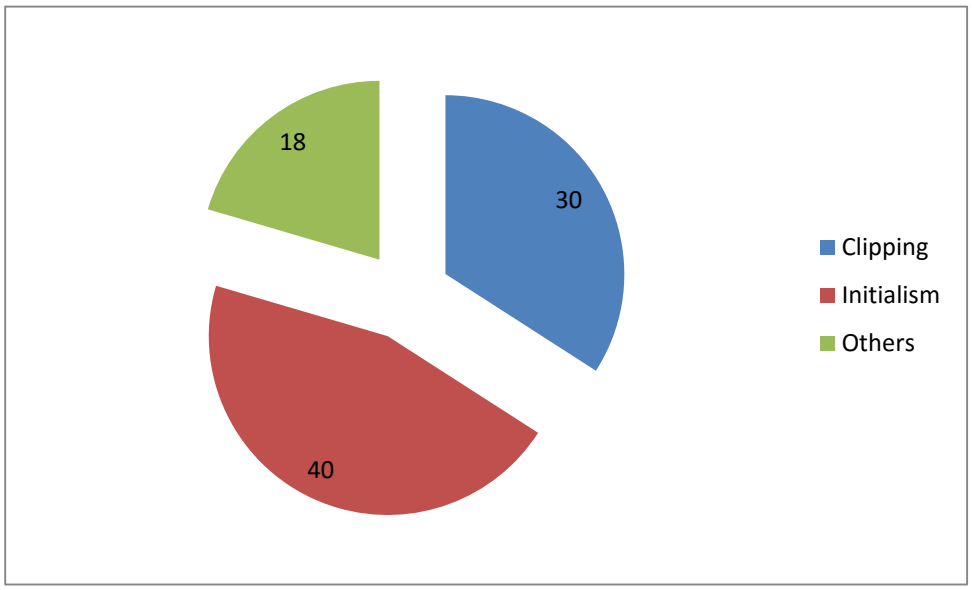


Figure 1

5.2 Initialism

Following Halle (1973), Anorof (1976) and Don (2012), the data in table 5.1 above are discussed with the hindsight of the morphological processes and word formation rules. From the foregoing therefore, it can be noted that, from the data presented above, the majority of social media neologisms are formed by the Word Formation Rules of Initialism [+Initial]/Acronym. Jimaima & Nkhata (2017) in their seminal paper asserted that one characteristic of these initialisms/acronyms is the inclusion of all word initials respective of whether a given word is grammatical or lexical. This therefore follows that given a phrase, initials of both lexical items, such as nouns, verbs, adjectives or adverbs] and grammatical words [such as articles, prepositions and even affixes] count. For illustration, in a phrase, 'Laugh out loud' all word initials are included regardless of their word class. Therefore, even the preposition 'out' in this case is just as important, hence the acronym, 'LOL.' In this regard, acronyms/ initialisms provide a way of turning a phrase into a word and that the classical acronym is also pronounced as a word, as in example [18] below:

[18]. Laugh Out Loud = LOL

[19]. I Don't Care = IDC

[20]. I Don't Know = IDK

We notice a common morphological rule application; the inclusion of grammatical words such as prepositions. In respect to the consistence with which such phenomena occur, one is persuaded to theorize that just as in sentences, grammatical words are critical to the readability of social media neologisms. Their grammatical function supersedes the mere need to uphold the grammaticality of the structured forms; they are inserted in social media neologisms to fulfill the orthographical requirement. This is apparent as one observes that neologisms are lexical items per excellence of the virtue space just as the real lexemes or words are in oral or written remediation.

In example [19] 'IDC' provides another important dimension of social media neologisms; the non-inclusion of the negation particle 'not'. The fact that social media actors understood 'IDC' to mean 'I Don't Care' rather than 'I Do care' showed that there is a shared cultural knowledge among the actors regarding the meanings of social media neologisms. The same conclusion can be drawn from [20] 'IDK'. We notice the non-inclusion of the negation particle 'not', yet the acronyms were understood to mean 'I Don't Know' rather than 'I do know'.

5.3 Clipping

In this section, neologisms which are formed by the truncation rule are presented. From the findings of the study presented in table 5.1, social media actors deployed a strategy of clipping of longer linguistic forms in order to create more convenient forms amenable to easy re-deployment in unfolding online discourses. It is such forms which the study holds that they were created by the [+truncation] rule. In main stream morphology, the truncated forms account for the word formation process known as clipping. This process involves cutting off part of a word and leaving the rest to essentially mean the same thing as the initial whole word meant. Bauer (2003) defines clipping as a process whereby a lexeme is shortened, while still returning the same meaning and still being a member of the same form class. From the Table 5.1, we focus on the following examples to illustrate the productive nature of clipping among social media actors:

[21]. Honey=hun

[22]. Fab=fabulous

Clipping may be one form of abbreviation as it involves the shortening of an existing word and letting it maintain the meaning of the whole word. We see that social media actors are economical with words hence subconsciously are able to put the word formation process of clipping in use. The idea that they are able to understand the example in [22] as 'fabulous' and not 'fabricated' draws back to the shared social cultural knowledge surrounding social media neologisms. In the same vein, the example in [21] shows how creative social media actors are; we note that 'honey' is shortened to form 'hun' and not 'hon'. We see the introduction of a new vowel instead of maintaining the vowel 'o' in the word 'honey.'

5.4 Blending

Following Marchand (1969), blends are portmanteau words formed by merging parts of the words into one word which meets the phonotactic restrictions of language. Aronoff (1981) postulates that all word formation processes are word-based. Going by Lexical Morphology, this follows that a new word is formed by applying a rule to an already existing word. From the findings presented in table 5.1, it was observed that social actors deployed the process of blending in the creation of some of the neologisms, although many may not have been aware of the rule [+blend] at play. The following are some of the blends social media actors were able to come up with:

[23]. Picture mixing=Picmix

[24]. You all=Y'all

From the examples provided above, we notice that social media actors were able create the neologisms by subconsciously deploying the word formation process of blending. We see the creativity exhibited in the formation of the blends above. In example [23], we notice the shortening of both words 'picture' and 'mixing' to come up with one word which is understood by only social actors to mean the initial. We note that the first syllables in both words are blended to come up with 'picmix.' The same analysis can be applied for example [24], we notice the blending of two words, 'you' and 'all' to come up with one, 'y'all.' The inclusion of an apostrophe in example [24] provides a dimension of social media neologisms; the punctuation at play is used to show possession or rather, 'belonging to' for example;

[25]. Mainza's cat- to mean, the cat belongs to Mainza.

However, we see in example [24] that the punctuation has not been used to show a form of possession. Perhaps, we could argue that the inclusion of the apostrophe is to drive a point home, to show that there are two words involved in the creation of the said neologism and also to help in the pronunciation.

Some scholars like Mworia (2015) have argued that blending is a combination of clipping and compounding in which words are created by the overlap of words or fragments of existing words. This assertion may be true to a certain degree as two existing words are first shortened and then stitched together to form one word as is the case for some neologisms presented in table 5.1.

5.5 Affixation

From the findings in Table 5.1, the following make the list of the process of affixation:

[26]. Self+ie=Selfie

[27]. BFF+s=BBFs

[28]. LOL+est=LOLest

Drawing on derivational morphology, Affixation is the most common type of word formation process as new words are coined from adding affixes to already existing words. Yule (2001) in his study discusses three types of affixes; prefixes which are added to the beginning of the base, infixes incorporated inside a word and finally, suffixes added to the end of a word. When we begin to talk about affixation, we refer to derivation as one of the word formation processes. Words can be derived from other words by way of adding affixes. Derivation according to Bussman (1996) is a process of adding bound morphs to already existing stems to create new words of the same or different word class. What we notice in examples [26], [27] and [28] is the process of suffixation at play. We notice that the affix, 'ie' has been added to a word to come up with a new word in [26], to mean 'getting oneself a picture'. [27], the addition of the affix 's' is to account for plurality and finally, in example [28], the addition of the affix 'est' is to account for the superlative form of the adjective 'loud' in 'Laugh out loud'.

Furthermore, Social media neologisms may be derived from already existing words and when that happens, they acquire a new meaning according to the context in which they are used. In the data presented in table 5.1, we see that very few neologisms result from the word formation process of Affixation, to be more elaborate; the process of suffixation.

5.6 Compounding

We see that in this section, neologisms formed by the process of Compounding are presented:

[29]. Photobomber- one who invades someone else's photo.

We notice that compounding is another common way of coining new words. Mworia (2015) has argued that the language of social media is made up of word combinations which form their own distinct meaning, sometimes derived from the root words or a whole new meaning. Onyedum (2012) puts forth an argument about compounds being constructed out of relatively small number of morphemes, whose meanings are well known. In this regard, social media actors have combined two distinct words, 'photo' and 'bomber' to come up with a one word hence creating new meaning. This is similar to the findings of Mworia (2015) in her study of "The use of English Neologisms on social media: A case of Twitter language in Kenya."

Compounding as a notion is informed by the lexicalist position which holds that compound words are stored as wholes in the lexicon and therefore have one semantic meaning. Lieper (2017) supports this view by adding that a compound is a final product of the word formation process, which is realized by means of composition of two or more bases of independent lexemes. For example, 'blackboard' means a board which is black. This is because in compounding, the emphasis is on mono-morphemic elements where two/more elements are conjoined.

5.7 Coinage

In this section, neologisms resulting from the process of Coinage are presented in table 5.1:

[30]. Mxxm

[31]. Pssh

Unlike the above discussed word formation processes, coinage is quite different as it requires a whole new process of creating new words without reference to other words. Examples of words created by this process are neologisms as they are deliberately created to refer to new concepts. Following, Bauer (1983), coinage is the creation of new words without reference to the existing morphological resources of language that is solely out of the sounds of the language. Because of the changes that occur in our different societies, new words are required to refer to certain concepts.

Yule (2010) has added that most coinages of new words occur in advertising and with time may find their way in our everyday language as they tend to be accepted. Some neologisms on Facebook and WhatsApp could be seen as a result. It was observed that most of these were as a result of imitation. Imitation is a notion from phonology where words are formed on the basis of the audio-visual assumption. This therefore follows that some words come as a result of the natural sounds they imitate, examples cited in [30] and [31] show some of the neologisms coined from the imitation of natural sounds. 'Mxxm' is produced by the mouth when one is irritated or rather upset and is one commonly used neologism on social media.

Going by Lexical Morphology, Zimmer (1964) has pointed out that there are many words which a grammar can generate in a language, which accidentally and unsystematically never appear. Many coinages are what we have come to call neologisms and although they are not found in the mainstream of the English language, they are vastly used by social media actors.

5. 8 Social Media Pseudo Constructions

From the data collected on social media neologisms, it was observed that certain neologisms cannot be placed within any established Word Formation Process. Similar to Jimaima and Nkhata's (2017) findings, some social media neologisms were best described as 'Pseudo- elliptical constructions' as they represent phrases without showing any structural features or constituents for phrases. Going by the established word formation processes and rules, it was observed that some of the neologisms could not squarely be placed within these word formation processes of compounding, initialism, blending, clipping and the rest. It was observed that social actors were able to communicate using these neologisms because they have a shared sociocultural knowledge. For example, it is quite unlikely for someone to know that example [32] is derived from the phrase "I'm going to" if one has no shared knowledge of what it refers to, as the process of ellipsis is at

play. We see that some words have been omitted from the phrase making it superfluous. If we were to go by the Word Formation Rules, what is derived from a phrase are Initials/Acronyms but in the examples below, what we have are elliptical constructions. From what is seen, these elliptical constructions include among others;

[32]. Gonna "I' m going to"

[33].Wanna "I want to"

[34]. Dunno "I don't know"

[35]. Itx "It is"

[36]. Kinda "Kind of"

5. 9 Social Media Onomatopoeic Constructions

Onomatopoeia is a concept in phonology and Nicholas (2011) has defined onomatopoeia as an imitative-driven transformation of a sound of nature into a word. Onomatopoeic constructions are words which imitate the natural sounds of a thing. This therefore follows that some words come as a result of the natural sounds they imitate, For example, "bang!" which came as a result of the natural sound of some sort of collision. Onyedum (2012) has argued in her works that a small number of words in English apparently owe their origin to attempts to imitate natural sounds. She further adds that frequently, the words describe noises made by animals. For instance, a cat will make the sound of 'meow' and a cow will make the sound of 'moo,' she elaborates. Therefore, 'meow' and 'moo' are onomatopoeic words, just like 'bang' is. Some social media neologisms are coined through this process of imitation. In this regard, the study established that social media actors are able to invent new ways of pronouncing words and these words normally defy lexical integrity.

Data collected also reveal that social media actors have come up with words to imitate natural sounds of laughter. For example;

[37]. Hehehehehehe

[38]. Kikikikiki

[39]. Phahahahahaha

[40]. Kekekekeke, among other pseudo onomatopoeic sounds of laughter.

Like Jimaima and Nkhata's (2017) paper, the four are best described as pseudo-onomatopoeia owing to their construction as being predicated on audio-visual effect. Furthermore, 'mxxm' and 'psssh' are also social media neologisms which fall under pseudo-onomatopoeia as they depict the sounds made by the mouth when one is irritated. In fact, this is quite common among Nigerian women; a country located in the western part of Africa.

Furthermore, it was also noted that certain neologisms such as ROTFL 'Rolling on the floor laughing', LMAO 'Laughing my ass off' and LOL (Laugh out loud) can be said to mimic this category of pseudo-onomatopoeia. These provide the said audio-visual effect to the reader. ROTFL depicts someone laughing hard to a point where one falls to the floor, because something is hilarious. In the same vein LOL and LMAO will have the same effect on the reader as the reader will picture one laughing out loud with their mouth wide open.

5. 10 Social media Pseudo-Compounds

Data collected also showed that some social media neologisms fall under the category of pseudo-compounding. Trommelen & Zonneveld (1989) define a pseudo-compound as a compound-like word where at least one of the constituents is not a free morpheme in isolation. To elaborate further, in examples [41] and [42] below, 'friend' and 'face' are actual words in the English vocabulary while 'versary' is not. In most cases, pseudo-compounds are unique and have no lexical meaning of their own and are not found in the group of functioning words. Some of these neologisms include;

[41]. Friendversary "friend and anniversary."

[42]. Faceversary "Facebook and anniversary."

These are classified as pseudo-compounds as they defy lexical integrity and do not conform to the word formation Rules of [+comp]. The two neologisms above in examples [41] and [42] could not be considered as blends as blends are portmanteau words formed by merging parts of the words

into one word which meets the phonotactic restrictions of language, according to Marchand (1969). In this regard, we have full words, 'Friend' and 'Face' and not parts of it, however, the word 'anniversary' has be clipped to come up with 'versary' which is not an actual word in the English vocabulary. From the observations made, we are for the view that the three word formation rules were at play in the creation of the two neologisms above: blending, clipping and also compounding. It does appear that a compound word was clipped and blended and therefore, it could not be placed within one established word formation process.

5.11 Morphological implications on Neologisms

From the data shown above, it can be observed that some social media neologisms flout the established Word Formation Rules (WFRs). Some of the neologisms flouting the Word Formation Rules include; LOLest "Laughing Out Loudest" and BFFs "Best Friends Forever." Going by the rule of affixation, [+Acronym] + [-Affix], an Acronym/Initialism cannot be affixed. This follows that given an Acronym; 'UN'- for 'United Nation' no prefix, suffix or infix should be added to form the following:

[43]. UNs -'United Nations', the suffix –s to account for plurality or

[44]. unUN -'un United Nations', the prefix -un to account for negation.

However, the data collected reveal that some neologisms on social media are inflected. For example, [45] below:

[45]. Lolest "Laugh out loudest"

In lexical morphology, when it comes to the ordering of the strata, there are rules on how that should be done, and Katamba (1993) proposes that each stratum of the lexicon is associated with a set of morphological rules that do the word building. Furthermore, these morphological rules should be linked to phonological rules that indicate how the structure built by morphology is to be pronounced. In the above neologism, in example [45], this follows that some WFRs are flouted as derivation operates at the second level, after a word or a phrase has been formed, that is to say; laugh out loud + est. Going by the morphological rules, if we are to apply the rule of affixation, a word or phrase has to be formed first and thereafter, an affix added to it. What we see in example

[45] is not a word but acronyms LOL plus a suffix –est. In addition, we note that in affixation of acronyms, we have this rule below:

[46]. [+Acronym] + [-Affix]

This rule therefore suggests that acronyms cannot be inflected, that is to say, [-Affix] to mean, not with an affix.

[47]. BFFs "Best Friends forever"

In the inflection of BFFs, 'Best Friends Forever', the suffix –s accounting for plurality and specifies the position the –s must occupy. In this case 'BFFs' shows that it must be affixed to the last 'F' of BFF, so that it reads; 'Best Friend Forevers' and not 'Best Friends Forever'. This is similar to what Katamba (1993) has asserted when he begins to talk about concatenative morphology. He argues that a grammar is organized in a series of hierarchical strata. Borrowing also from Halle and Mohanan (1985), the word formation rules specify how morphemes are to be arranged in sequence to form actual words. Halle and Mohanan's (1985) thought leads to the linear arrangement of morphemes. Therefore, in the broader context of linear ordering of morphemes, one should be able to account for the root and any affixes attached to it. Therefore, going by this thought, there is no end to what can be added to the root provided that the word is intelligible and does not flout the phonological rules.

Another school of thought can be seen from the point of Compounding; borrowing from the affixation of compound words, it is worth mentioning that the addition of an affix, specifically a suffix to a phrase entails that affixation as a principle is a right headed phenomenon. This follows that it is the base to the right which receives affixation. Therefore, in principle, the suffix –s should be attached to 'Friend' and not 'Forever'. 'Best Friend Forever' is a phrase; therefore, it is the head (in this case 'friend') which determines the syntactic category of the phrase by principle of percolation. In this case, the head is 'friend' which is a noun and therefore percolates upwards to the maximal projection which is the Noun phrase. This thought hence leads to the idea of inflection in number; 'BFFs' accounts for plurality in the construction but does not tell us where within the configuration the plural marker should be inserted. We take the view that inflection is an element outside word formation (in this case, 'compounding'). This therefore means that the addition of

the affix –s only happens after one has already processed the compound. In this line of thought, the addition of –s will only happen after the processing of 'Best Friend Forever.'

Furthermore, from the data presented above, it can be seen that the mental lexicon is actively at play in the formation of social media neologisms. The mental lexicon is structured in such a way that it determines the order in which word formation processes can apply. It is also actively involved in the selection of words in a particular order thus; non-words are usually blocked with the help of the filter. This is evident in the way the phrases are created, for example, most interjections are quite predictable. The word order in the neologism, OMG (Oh My God) for instance is quite predictable. Based on a shared sociocultural knowledge and history of social media actors, we are aware that when one is in shock and mentions, 'Oh,' we know that the selection from the mental selection will be 'My' and then 'God', among the plausible structures in social media discourses. For it was observed that it was unlikely for social media actors to say: 'Oh My Jesus' or Oh God My'. From the focus group discussions, it was maintained that certain phrases are rigid and can never be re-arranged. In this regard, using Halle's morphological theorization that feeds into affixal sensitivity and affixal selectivity and word selection, we are able to see how the filter in the lexicon is able to block some words from being selected to form social media tokens. This is because the mental lexicon has post-lexical rules which are concerned with phrases. In fact Katamba (1993) has put forth his argument that post-lexical rules can apply across word boundaries, to words after they have been grouped together to form phrases.

5.12 Conclusion

This chapter has addressed objectives one and three outlined in chapter one, which are; to identify frequently used social media neologisms and to establish whether social media neologisms could be placed within the established word formation processes. The chapter began by identifying and capturing the context in which each neologism is used by use of screenshots of postings and comments gleaned from Facebook and WhatsApp. It further made an attempt to place the frequently used social media neologisms into word formation processes, in form of a table.

The next chapter addresses objective two outlined in chapter one; to establish from where the meanings of neologisms and emoticons/emojis are derived.

CHAPTER SIX

MEANING MAKING ON SOCIAL MEDIA

6.0 General

In addressing the objective about the meaning making on social media platform, Chapter six defers to the social media symbolism and semiotic modes. From a semiotic point of view, it is critical to mention that it is not only language that can capture meanings but also symbols. It was observed by social media actors that they are able to use symbols, otherwise known as emoticons/emojis to express different emotions. This therefore follows that social media actors are able to come up with meanings of their frequently used emoticons/emojis.

This chapter addresses objective two, which is to establish where the meanings of neologisms and emoticons/emojis are derived from. Going by lexical semantics, the study would be incomplete without the knowledge of the meanings of the social media neologisms. This is vital as meaning pervades the whole of language, and Onyedum (2012) has supported this assertion in her study of, "A morpho-semantic analysis of neologisms", by adding that, if a grammar describes a language, part of it must describe its meaning and thus the grammar must contain semantics. In this chapter, we establish from where the meanings of social media neologisms and emoticons are derived. We also establish how social actors understand and use these neologisms and emoticons correctly.

6.1 Preliminary Discussion: The meanings of Neologisms and emoticons

From the data collected, it was observed that there is no dictionary for the neologisms and emoticons/emojis used on social media, similarly to what Onyedum (2012) discovered in her study of social media neologisms. We notice that social media actors have come up with the meanings themselves based on a shared sociocultural knowledge and history. This is also similar to what Kelly (2015) observed in her study of "the understanding of emoticons and emojis in text messages". Her focus was in determining whether or not there was a universal understanding of emoticons and emojis.

Furthermore, data also revealed that social actors preferred the use of neologisms and emoticons as it served them a lot of time in communication. Instead of having to type a phrase or sentence or long paragraph, a neologism/emoticon was sufficient to express what they were feeling at that particular time. This therefore follows that social media actors are quite economical and this thought is borrowed from Chomsky's (1993) minimalist program. The minimalist program aims at eliminating anything which is not virtually necessary. In this regard, we see that social media users are able to express their emotions in very few words possible by use of neologisms and emoticons/emojis.

The data collected also showed that some of these neologisms are actually interjections, for example;

[48]. OMG "Oh My God!"

[49]. Congrats "Congratulations!"

[50]. TGIF "Thank God It's Friday!"

[51]. HBd "Happy Birthday!"

However, it can be argued that the examples above are said to be interjections based on the assumed tone of the voice in uttering them as well as the syntactic context of their use. In analyzing these items, it is always important to contextualize them as tokens of spoken discourse realized as online conversation. Based on the foregoing, it is difficult to see that the pitch of the voice is quite high especially when uttering the phrase, "Oh My God!" In fact, its utterance in the Zambian

context is accompanied by an exaggeration of holding one's head as illustrated by this emoticon/emoji presented in **figure 2** below:

Figure 2

In expressing emotions about [49] 'Congratulations', [50] 'Thank God It's Friday' and [51] 'Happy Birthday', it was observed that the three expressions are uttered in a happy mood and show a strong emotion hence accompanied by a high pitch sound. Furthermore, interjections are critical in conveying emotion as they express feeling.

While some social media neologisms are characterized as interjections, others are interrogatives, otherwise known as questions and these include the following;

[52]. Wyd "What you doing?"/ What you do?

[53]. Hud "How are you doing?"

[54]. Hawaya "How are you?"

It is also critical to mention that some social media tokens are purely idiomatic expressions. Some of them include;

[55]. Dead for days

The above idiomatic expression in [55] is used by social media actors to react to something hilarious.

[56]. Day made

This is used to refer to a great day caused by other social media actors due to their funny posts or comments.

Furthermore, it was also observed that social media language seem to vary according to age, rank and sex: The younger generation used social media neologisms more than the older generation and the female folk were more abreast with emoticons/emojis than the male folk. This was visibly seen in the focus groups that the researcher interacted with. In fact, there were certain emoticons/emojis that were commonly used among the female folk that were not found among the male folk conversations and vice versa.

Furthermore, it can be argued from the observations made on social media conversations that depending on the age group of the social media actors, neologisms were used differently. It was seen in some conversations that that when the social media actors are of the same age group, they tend to use a lot of emoticons/emojis. Apart from that, the conversation tends to have a lot of code-switching, which entails familiarity between the interlocutors. This therefore follows that when people of the same age group are conversing, there will be some code-switching because they are familiar with each other. On the other hand, when two people of different age groups converse, there will be some social distance hence affecting the use of social media neologisms effectively.

It was also observed that teenagers seem to know a lot about social media neologisms and emoticons/emojis. This is because they spend most of their time on social media, depending on the availability of bundles. It was discovered that social media actors between ages 16 and 21 years of age are quite abreast with social media neologisms as they use them often in their communication. In fact, teenagers seem more comfortable using social media neologisms and emoticons/emojis with their peers. They actually prefer to use the Standard English language when it comes to people of a different age group. However, data reveals that there are some social media actors between the ages 22 and 30 years who are abreast with the social media neologisms and use them frequently and correctly.

It was also established that the female folk used neologisms and emoticons/emojis more than the male folk, just like social actors from the middle class society used them more than those from the high class. This was because, the middle class spend a considerably amount of time on social media comparatively. Furthermore, data collected revealed that the unemployed are more creative when it comes to social media neologisms and memes than the employed. This is because they spend a lot of time on Facebook and WhatsApp comparably. In this regard, they are able to use their creativity in the creation of neologisms and memes.

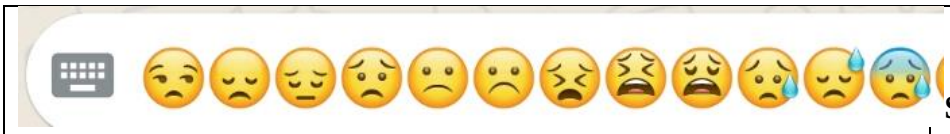
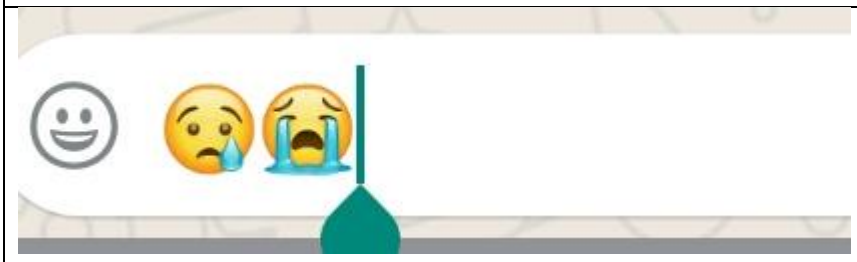
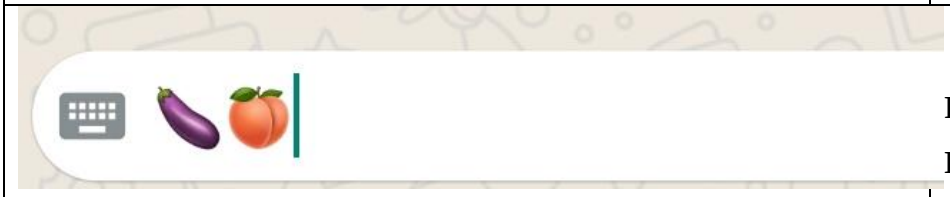
The findings discussed above can be traced back to Sociolinguistics; Georgieva (2014) in her book "Introducing Sociolinguistics," has noted that language varies. She comes up with five inferences and one of them is what she calls the "linguistic styles." Here, she argues that based on the speech styles used between participants in a conversation, listeners are capable of picking out the degree of familiarity, their ages, their ranks and many other aspects. Furthermore, Georgieva (2014) has argued that social class has a significant influence on language choice as it imposes some norms of behavior on society. Based on social distance, it clearly explains why teenagers are comfortable using neologisms among themselves.

6.2 Emoticons

This study further established that, in fact, certain social media emoticons had different shades of meaning depending on how the actors understood them.

Table 6.2 Showing synonyms of selected emoticons

EMOTICON/ EMOJI	MEANING
	**LAUGHTER**
	**HAPPINESS**
	**SHOCK**

	**SADNESS**
	**SORROW**
	**PARTS OF THE HUMAN ANATOMY**

The data presented above can be discussed from the semantic view of the relationship of synonymy. It is crucial to note that synonyms are not to be attributed to the sameness of meaning but rather similar qualities that are more important than their differences. In fact, some scholars like Lyons (1995) have argued that there are no absolute synonyms semantically as one context in use is not identical to another context. What we have according to Lyons (1995) are near synonyms and partial synonyms. To further the argument, synonymy can thus be suggested to be a matter of degree, and Cruise (1985) supports the assertion by adding that within the class of synonymy, some pairs of items are more synonymous than others thereby, bringing us to the idea of the possibility of a scale of synonymity of some sort.

It was observed from the data that although many social media actors are not fully aware of the grammatical concerns underpinning social media neologisms, they, like language users are aware subconsciously that there are different shades of meaning borne by different emoticons. In this vein, we are persuaded that social actors use their intuitions (tacit knowledge), and that they are aware subconsciously of the existence of synonyms, judging from the way they are able to use different synonyms regarding emoticons, in different contexts. We therefore, see emoticons/emojis being represented as gradable synonyms in table 6.2. The data collected showed that emoticons/emojis could be categorized according to the feelings they represent. For example, there

was not only one emoticon but different emoticons that expressed laughter or sadness or joy and because of that, we could call them gradable synonyms, as which one the social media actors chose to use was dependent on the gravity of the emotions at that particular time of conversation. This is because emoticons/emojis are able to show a level of sameness but at a graduated level. This is further elaborated below:

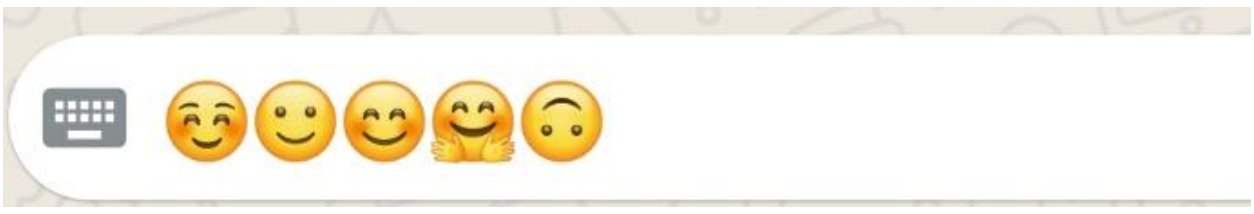
6.2.1 Emoticons expressing laughter

i ii iii iv v vi

It was observed that there are different emoticons to express laughter which are used in different contexts. It can be argued that the above are gradable synonyms of laughter and can be placed on a scale. For example, emoticons 6.2.1 (i) and 6.2.1 (ii) are used in a context when something is hilarious because in reality, there are certain people who laugh to a point where one sheds tears. In the same vein, there are people in reality who sweat as they laugh at a hilarious joke. Therefore, emoticon 6.2.1 (v) is used by social media actors to express laughter to a point where one sweats or tires and/or perspires. The above emoticons could therefore be said to be gradable synonyms of laughter.

6.2.2 Emoticons expressing happiness

i ii iii iv v



The study also reveals that there are also different ways of expressing happiness through the use of what social media actors have come to call ‘Smileys.’ It is crucial to note that at a linguistic level, we could have different levels of smile; for instance, we have smirk, grin, simper, beam, among other synonyms. Emoticon 6.2.2 (i) and (iii) can be likened to leer as it is used by social actors in a context of flattery. Data also revealed that Emoticon 6.2.2 (iv) is used by social actors to represent a happy hug. Emoticon 6.2.2 (v) can be likened to a grin as it is used in a context of fake smiling. It was observed that social actors use the different ‘Smileys’ in different contexts. Furthermore, data revealed that not only do social actors use the ‘smiley face’ in 6.2.2 (ii) when they are happy but also after a derogatory remark or to show sarcasm.

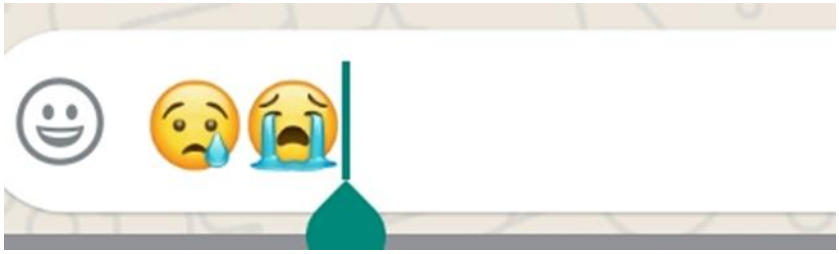
6.2.3 Emoticons expressing shock

i ii iii iv v vi vii viii

From the data presented, it is possible to say that there are different ways of expressing shock using the emoticons/emojis above. The choice on which emoticon to use is solely dependent on the context and also the gradation of shock felt by the social actor. It can also be argued that there is a disparity between shock via oral-auditory and shock via sight. For instance, it was observed that social actors used emoticon 6.2.3 (vi) to express shock via sight. The emoticon/emoji is used as a reaction, in an event when something shocking, could be a picture or anything, is posted on social media. Emoticon 6.2.3 (iv) is used to express shock via oral-auditory. The emoticon is used by social media actors to react to a shocking video/audio/recording posted on Facebook or WhatsApp. It can also be noted that emoticons 6.2.3 (iii) and (viii) are also degrees of shock and are used in a context when something seen or heard on Facebook or WhatsApp is worth “Jaw dropping.”

6.2.4 Emoticons expressing sorrow

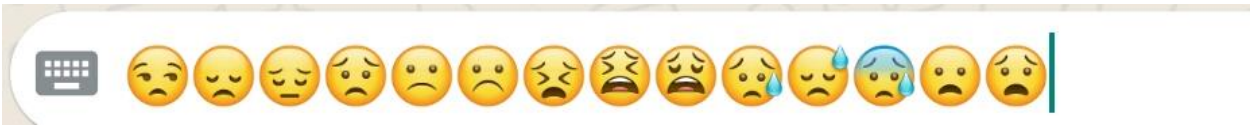
i ii



The two emoticons/emojis above are used to express sorrow/pain. Placed on a continuum, we see a graduation of pain from emoticon 6.2.4 (i) to emoticon 6.2.4 (ii). This shows that the gravity of pain is more in the latter than the former and as such social actors are able to differentiate the two. The choice on which of the two to use is solely dependent on the context and also the degree of pain/sorrow. The two are used to react to postings or comments on social media that are sorrowful as shown in the data collected.

6.2.5 Emoticons expressing sadness

i ii iii iv v vi vii viii ix x xi xii xiii xiv



It was also established that there are different degrees of sadness which is graduated, the above emoticons/emojis are associated with sadness, disappointment, disapproval and a bad mood. On social media, the choice of the emoticon used by the social media actor, in a particular context, is totally dependent on the degree of sadness, disappointment or disapproval.

6.2.6 Emoticons expressing parts of the human anatomy

i ii

The data collected also revealed that social actors use some fruits to refer to some parts of the male and female anatomy. The emojis are used mostly by teenagers among themselves to refer to the male genitalia- penis in 6.2.6 (i) and female genitalia- backside in 6.2.6 (ii) and in fact, the meanings have been attributed to their shapes. Furthermore, according to the data collected, when the two emojis 6.2.6 (i) and 6.2.6 (ii) are paired in a social media construction, it denotes 'having sexual intercourse'. In this regard, we can therefore argue that the two fruits have been repurposed to refer to human body organs and in linguistic terms, going by Bolter and Grusin (2000), means remediation as repurposing. We see that an eggplant and a peach offer new meanings on social media platforms. Banda and Jimaima (2015) have added that people draw different meanings out of the semiotic material in place as interceded by communication needs, memory, sentiments and perceptions of producers and consumers (cf. Banda et al. 2018; Banda, Jimaima & Mokwena 2019). When it comes to the meanings of emojis, we note that there is no dictionary resulting into different meanings and purposes of the said emoticons/emojis, as seen in figure 6.2.6.

From the data collected, it was also observed that many social actors are aware of the meanings of the emoticons based on what they look like. For example, they know that the emoticon presented as **figure 3** below means laughter or happiness while this emoticon in **figure 4** means sadness. This is because; the emoticons used depict a certain facial expression. The emoji in **figure 5** which depicts love/heart is easily understood because of its shape and the shared knowledge among social actors.

figure 3

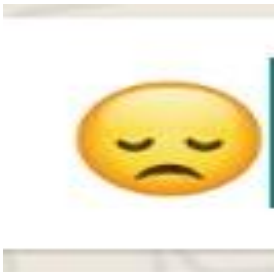


figure 4

figure 5

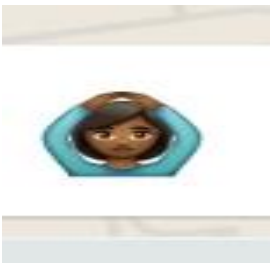


figure 6

It was also observed from the data collected that some social media emoticons and emojis have no English interpretation and social media actors choose to interpret them in their local languages. Furthermore, some emoticons carried more weight when interpreted in a local language than in

English. An example would be the emoji in **figure 6** above, which expresses a 'kind of shock' and interpreted as 'Cheii' or 'Mahweh'(oh no) or 'mayo ine' (mother me).

It was also observed from the data collected on social media tokens, that social actors preferred using emoticons/emojis over social media neologisms. For example, instead of typing LOL (Laugh Out Loud) to react to a funny posting or meme, they preferred to use the emoji in **figure 3**. When asked why that was preferred, social media actors revealed that they added more meaning and emotion to the text than neologisms. Therefore, it is true that certain emotions can best be described using symbols and not words because words are not enough.

Furthermore, from the data collected, it was revealed that it is crucial to have full knowledge of the meanings of the emoticons/emojis, as the inability to do so results in the distortion in meaning of the construction. There are instances on Facebook when social media actors have reacted with the wrong emoticon/emoji especially on a sad posting. It was discovered that some actors used an emoticon for laughter instead of one for sadness simply because they misunderstood and confused the two emoticons.

Finally, data collected showed that some emoticons were used more often than others. In fact, the data collected revealed that the most commonly used emoticon/emoji on Facebook and WhatsApp is the one expressing laughter in **figure 3,** similar to what Lu (2016) in his linguistic study established. The current study also observed that the emoticon expressing love in **figure 5** was quite common among the female folk. The emoticon denoting laughter is mainly used on memes and funny postings on Facebook and also WhatsApp. There are other emoticons that are rarely or not used at all as social media actors do not precisely know their meanings and have chosen not to gamble.

6.3 Conclusion

This chapter addressed objective two which was to establish from where the meanings of emoticons/emojis are derived. It began by giving a preliminary discussion on where the meanings of these neologisms and emoticons are derived from owing that there is no dictionary for their meanings. It further discussed the shades of meaning regarding social media emoticons; this was done in the context of synonymy.

The next chapter shows mobility and fluidity of social media tokens as there is no standard meanings for these neologisms and in fact effort has been made by social media actors to localize them.

CHAPTER SEVEN

MOBILITY AND FLUIDITY OF SOCIAL MEDIA TOKENS

7.0. General

It was observed from the data collected that social media is a ground for mobility anchored on the freedoms that social actors possess with regards to the interpretation of neologisms. Some of the neologisms, especially those placed within the word formation process of Initialism/Acronymy are seen not to have rigid capping. This is similar to formalized abbreviations in English as they too have no rigid capping. Because of such fluidity and mobility of abbreviations, social media actors capitalize on this freedom on social media and come up with different interpretations for certain neologisms and emoticons/emojis.

The data collected reveal that there is a lot of freedom on social media when it comes to the interpretation of neologisms and emoticons/emojis as semiotic assemblages (cf. Jimaima & Simungala 2019; Jimaima & Banda 2019). This is because there is no dictionary for the meanings and therefore, social actors come up with their own meanings which become generally acceptable by other social media actors. This is similar to what other scholars like Mworia (2015) and Onyedum (2012) established in their studies. Drawing on lexical semantics, the neologisms in question are newly coined words which have not yet found their way in any dictionary. Therefore, the emotional input attached to a particular neologism will determine its meaning and also the sociocultural knowledge social media users share.

Some of the neologisms that have suffered mobility and fluidity in their interpretation include LOL, WTF and BAE, among others.

7.1.1 (i)

LOL

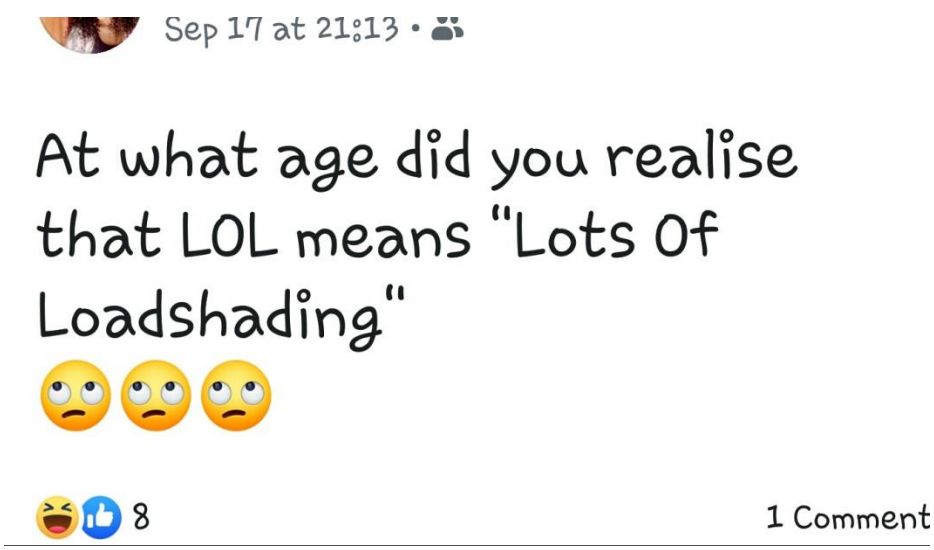
1. **LOL:** Laugh(ing) Out Loud
2. **LOL:** Lots Of Love
3. **LOL:** League of Legends
4. **LOL:** Little Old Lady
5. **LOL:** Lots Of Laughs
6. **LOL:** Labor of Love
7. **LOL:** Loads of Love
8. **LOL:** Land O' Lakes

7.1.1 (ii)

Beware

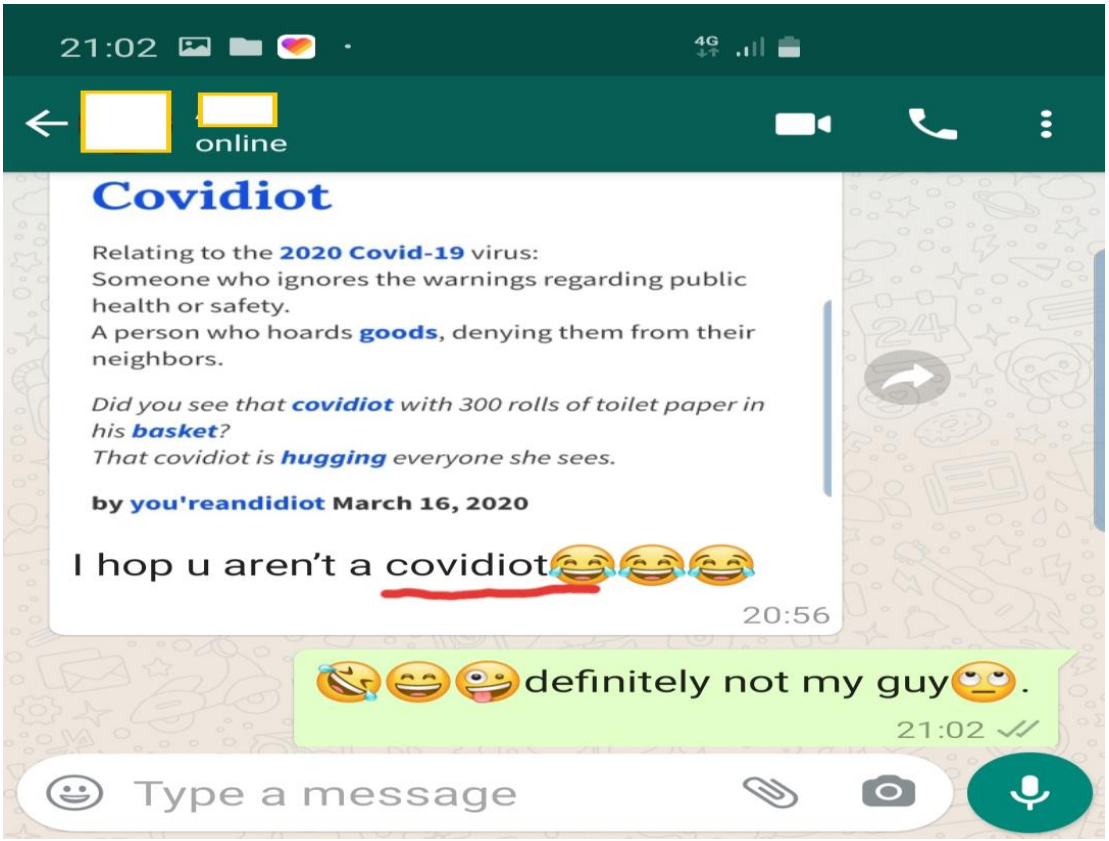
Stop using the abbreviation 'LOL'
'LOL' stands for "Lucifer our Lord'.
Satanists end their prayers by saying
'Lucifer our Lord' in short 'LOL"
Every time you type 'LOL' you are endorsing Satan.
Do not use 'LOL' ever again!
Keep Satan out of your life.
Share this advice to Christians.

7.1.1 (iii)



It was observed that LOL (Laugh Out Loud) has different interpretations as other social media actors have reconstructed it. For instance, those inclined to Christianity, at one point, from a Christian perspective, reconstructed LOL to mean 'Lucifer Our Lord', as seen in **7.1.1 (ii).** Some social media actors, however, disputed this claim arguing that it was, in fact, a group of a certain religious faith, in an attempt to discourage others from using it that came up with such an interpretation. LOL according to active social media actors refers to Laugh out Loud or Lots of Love or Loads of Love. Furthermore, we notice in **7.1.1 (iii)** that LOL has been awarded another meaning, 'Lots of Load shedding'. This is purely an act of creativity, as social actors are able to reconstruct LOL to mean 'Lots of Load shedding', based on the current happenings in Zambia where load shedding is being felt. We can therefore argue that some coinings of some of the neologisms sprout from different experiences/situations that social actors go through at a particular time. The same can be said about the neologism; **covidiot** in **7.1.2**, which has been coined resulting from the coronavirus/COVID-19 pandemic. From "COVID-19" and "idiot", social actors were able to coin the word, "covidiot." One could argue that the newly coined word can be placed within two word formation processes of clipping and blending. This therefore shows how creative/productive language is as some neologisms are created from experiences and become part of the social media vocabulary.

7.1.2



7.1.3 WTF

Furthermore, another social media neologism which has shown that there is fluidity and mobility of social media is the above neologism, WTF, initially interpreted as "What The Fuck". Data collected reveals that some social media actors, who are not comfortable with the interpretation of this particular neologism due to some religious faith and beliefs, came up with another

interpretation of "Where's The Food" as the adequate interpretation for it. This fluidity on social media entails the productivity and creativity of language.

7.1.4 BAE

Finally, the above neologism, BAE, initially interpreted as Before Anyone Else" has also been capitalized on by social media actors. We could argue perhaps that some social media actors who do not have lovers may have come up with another translation of "Black and Educated". In another argument, we are for the view that the second interpretation could have sprouted from "the black child", as a sense of pride and feel of belonging.

7.2 Identified localized forms of neologisms on social media

Owing to the freedoms and ambiguities on social media, it was observed that Zambian social media actors have localized some neologisms. This section of Chapter Seven therefore addresses the last objective outlined in Chapter one as, "to establish whether the English neologisms can be localized."

Table 7.2 showing some identified localized social media neologisms

Item	Expansion	Affixal Material	Possible Morphological Processes at Play	Word Formation Rules (WFRs)

NSS	Na Seka Sana	Initials	Initialism/Acronymy	[+initial]
YTL	Yangu Tata Lesa	Initials	Initialism/Acronymy	[+initial]
NOK	Ninaka Oanapo Kudala	Initials	Initialism/Acronymy	[+initial]
KWWF	Ku Waya Waya Fye	Initials	Initialism/Acronymy	[+initial]
NNS	Nafwa Nenseko	Initials	Initialism/Acronymy	[+initial]
Kikikikikiki/hehehehehe	Laughter	Repeated Phonemes	Reduplication	[+redup]

The data presented above reveals that some social media neologisms have been localized in two of the official languages in Zambia; Bemba and Nyanja. Among the six neologisms identified, NSS (Na Seka Sana) to mean 'Laugh Out Loud' and YTL (Yangu Tata Lesa) to mean 'Oh My God' have been coined from the two English Neologisms, LOL and OMG; this is purely seen in the data presented in table 5.1.

On the other hand, the three; NOK (Ninaka Oanapo Kudala) to mean 'I have seen it before', KWWF (Ku Waya Waya Fye) to mean 'neither here nor there' and NNS (Nafwa Nenseko) to

mean ‘dying from laughter’ have been coined with no reference to any English neologisms. Borrowing from lexical morphology, languages are constantly faced with the necessity of adapting their lexical stock to new communicative needs. This follows that new words or phrases are coined to serve the purpose of naming new concepts. Furthermore, “Kikikikikiki and hehehehehe” can be said to be localized forms of laughter. We do know that the repeated phonemes, “hahah” are used in the English Language as standard to represent laughter. In fact, the Zambian social media actors tend to overly exaggerate the combination of phonemes as a way of emphasis. While in English, laughter is captured as ‘hahah’ and not ‘hahahahahaha…..,’ in local context, the combination may be without limit as long as there is space on the page/blog, as seen by the use of dots showing ellipsis. However, Zambian social media users have come up with localized forms of laughter as shall be seen in the screenshots below in **7.3.3.**

The data also show that the localized social media neologisms are formed by the basic word-formation rule of initialism/Acronymy. This conclusion is visibly shown in the analysis of the English neologisms presented in table 7.2 above. Furthermore, like shown above, the five identified local social media neologisms are phrases purely, while one is a case of repeated phonemes.

As discussed earlier, in the quest to apply theory to data regarding the mental lexicon and its selection of words to form phrases, for interjections, once the first word is selected, the second word and third will automatically follow suit. For example, in ‘Yangu Tata Lesa’ (Oh My God!), immediately Yangu is mentioned, the mental lexicon will automatically pick Tata and not Mama. This is because God (Lesa), in the Zambian context is attributed to a male figure hence saying ‘Yangu Mama Lesa’ would seem blasphemous in the religious context. Therefore, ‘Yangu Tata Lesa’ is ideal and the mental lexicon automatically depicts that word order syntactically. Furthermore, the filter will automatically block anything which is not ‘Tata’ to be part of the phrasal interjection.

7.3 Localized social media neologisms in use

In this section of the dissertation, findings relating to the identification of frequently used localized social media neologisms and emoticons are presented, and thereafter discussed.

7.3.1 NSS

'NSS', (Na Seka Sana) as earlier noted is coined from the English neologism, 'LOL' to mean 'laugh out loud.' It was observed from the data collected that social media actors are able to come up with neologisms to suit their communicative needs and these creations arise from shared sociocultural context. In this regard, one would argue that 'NSS' has been borrowed from the English language and hence adapted to meet new communicative needs.

The thought above is borrowed from Kress (2010) who has argued that if something is borrowed, it has to have the same cultural significance of the borrowed language and should be able to meet the benefits of the moment. In this regard, 'NSS' has the same cultural significance of 'LOL'. What Zambian social media actors have done is simply to translate the English neologism, 'LOL' to one of the seven official languages of Zambia, Bemba. The two neologisms; 'NSS' and 'LOL' are the same and hence used in the same context. This is similar to what has been done to the neologism below in **7.3.2 YTL.**

Finally, it is crucial to mention that NSS, (Na Seka Sana) when placed within a word formation process falls under that of Initialism, as we see the use of Acronyms.

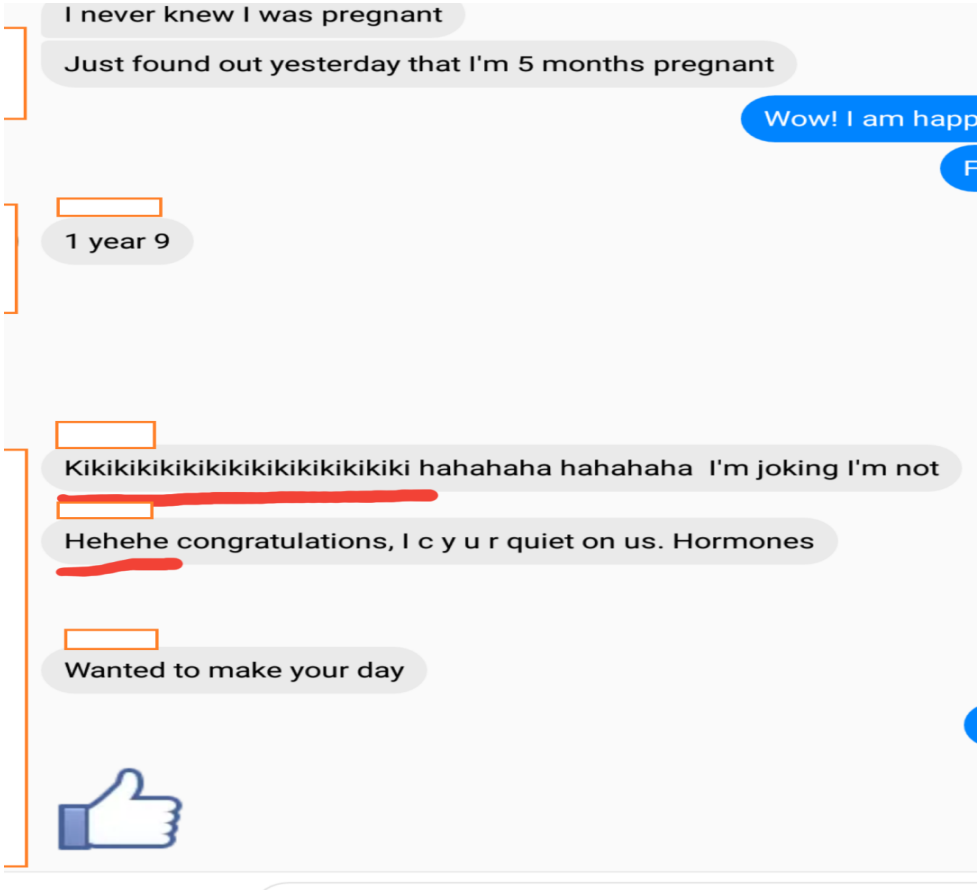
7.3.2 YTL

YTL, (Yangu Tata Lesa) is another local neologisms created by Zambian social media actors. Like NSS discussed above in **7.3.1,** this too has been adopted and adapted into one of the official languages of Zambia, Bemba. From the English Neologism, which poses as an interjection, OMG, 'Oh My God' comes the Bemba neologism YTL, 'Yangu Tata Lesa!'

We can therefore argue, going by Kress' (2010) argument that these new coinages arise from agreed social context. Therefore, the Zambian Context attaches respect to the deity and is seen as a father figure (Tata). It is for this reason that one would say, 'Yangu Tata lesa' and not 'Yangu mama Lesa' because there is already an agreed sociocultural knowledge of the deity being male and a father figure.

YTL, (Yangu Tata Lesa) just like NSS, (Na Seka Sana) is equally a case of the word formation process of initialism.

7.3.3 hehehehehehehe/kikikikikikiki



From the data collected, it can be argued that Zambian social media actors have localized forms of laughter. "Hahah" is an English standardized way of laughing; however, we see that, new coinages have been created from the English neologism. It was seen that 'kikikikiki' and 'hehehehehehe' have been adopted and adapted in the social media platforms as forms of laughter. The two local neologisms' creations are more phonological than morphological as they are merely a repetition of phonemes as shown in the above screenshot **7.3.3.**

7.3.4 Kwwf

Kwwf, (Ku waya waya fye) to mean 'neither here nor there' is another localized neologism falling into the category of the word formation process of initialism, as we see the use of Acronyms. Unlike 'NSS', 'YTL' and 'hehehehehe/kikikiki' that have a connection to English neologisms, Kwwf, (Ku waya waya fye) was coined by Zambian social media actors to serve new communicative needs. Perhaps they could not find a suitable phrase or word in English to meet the communicative benefits at that moment, hence the localized neologism; 'Kwwf' fitted right and has since been adopted.

From the findings discussed in this chapter, we take the view that, the freedoms and ambiguities on social media should be seen as an outcome of the creativity of language as well as productivity. Productivity entails creativity as speakers of a language require a finite number of rules to come

up with a potential list of new words every now and then. This follows then that these rules are not only to be used to analyze existing words but to create new ones too. We notice that, though most social actors are not aware of the rules underpinning word formation, they subconsciously are able to deploy these Word Formation Rules to come up with new words, even in their local languages.

Furthermore, we also notice that some neologisms do not conform to Word Formation Rules. Mostly, we see the rule bending creativity on social media manifest in compound, clipping and blending words which many people come up with. Often so, rule bending creativities do not stay in the mainstream of language as they are opaque and can only be understood if there is shared knowledge of their use in contexts. Drawing on Bloomfield's (1933) argument about the mental lexicon having no rules or constraints regarding possible words which can be made, it follows then that new words can be created without necessarily adhering to the Word formation Rules.

7.4 Conclusion

Based on objective four, the chapter discussed the localization of social media neologisms by social media actors on Facebook and WhatsApp. The chapter also showed mobility and fluidity of social media tokens as there is no standard meanings for these neologisms. The chapter further identified the contexts in which the local neologisms on Facebook and WhatsApp are used, in form of screen shots and for each, a preliminary discussion followed. An attempt was made to place the localized tokens into their morphological word formation process to establish whether they are created by Word Formation Rules (WFRs).

The next chapter concludes the study and offers recommendations to researchers who may wish to further the current study.

CHAPTER EIGHT

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

8.0 Conclusion

Based on the objectives and Research questions outlined in Chapter one, this section is a summary of the findings and thereafter, specific conclusions are drawn.

Going by the findings on objective one, the study confirms that Facebook and WhatsApp as social media platforms have laid a foundation for newly coined words, otherwise known as neologisms. We conclude that, new words have been coined with time and social media neologisms should be seen as an outcome of the creativity of language as well as productivity. This then follows that, the virtual-scape is productively exploited by social actors, the result of which is the ubiquitous spread of new lexical creations. The applicability of word formation processes on certain bases is what makes morphology productive and language in general. This confirmation is arrived at by the many screenshots of neologisms obtained from the two social media platforms; Facebook and WhatsApp. Productivity entails creativity, as speakers of a language require a finite number of rules to come up with a potential list of new words every now and then. This follows then that these rules are not only to be used to analyze existing words but to create new ones too, as Katamba (1993) has argued.

With regard to objective two which sought to establish from where the meanings of social media neologisms and emoticons/emojis are derived, a number of implications arise from the findings. The study established that there is no existing dictionary for the said neologisms and that social media actors themselves are able to come up with the meanings based on the shared sociocultural knowledge. This is because the neologisms in question are newly coined words which have not yet found their way in any dictionary. Therefore, the emotional input attached to a particular neologism determines its meaning and also the sociocultural knowledge social media users share. In this regard, the virtual-scape conflates different actors who, however, have shared sociocultural history by virtue of being part of the broader social media space. Thus word formation is always an on-going joint project on social media. This is similar to Jimaima and Nkhata's (2017) findings in their linguistic study.

Another major finding from the data collected also reveals that the meanings of some emoticons/emojis can easily be picked out, even by non-social media users because the shapes of the emoticons/emojis are easily attributed to emotions. We therefore conclude that despite not having full knowledge of semiotics, social media actors are subconsciously able to read and comprehend symbols.

Based on the findings on objective three, the study confirms that coinages of some social media neologisms are guided by some Word Formation Rules (WFRs). The study established that the

social media neologisms could be placed within some morphological word formation processes of Initialism, compounding, blending, and clipping, among other processes. The findings revealed that the majority of these social media creations are informed by the basic Word Formation Rules of initialism. This confirms earlier studies by Mworia (2015) and Jimaima and Nkhata (2017) who argue that the most common word formation processes deployed by social actors is Initialism, [+initial].

Another major finding was that, other neologisms flout the established Word formation processes, thus can be classified under new proposed processes of pseudo-elliptical construction, Pseudo compounding and pseudo onomatopoeia. Going by lexical morphology, with regard to word formation, two concepts devised by Katamba (1993) are critical; the rule governed creativity and rule bending creativity. From the findings on objective three, it was observed that social media actors deploy both concepts in the creation of neologisms. On one hand, the rule governed creativity accounted for everything that is considered acceptable in a language. For example, the social actors' ability to come up with Acronyms, or clips from already existing words shows that the Word formation Rules were at play. On the other hand, the rule bending creativity is what social media language is prone to. The findings revealed that the outcome of the rule bending creativity were compounds and blends vastly used by social actors on Facebook and WhatsApp.

Finally, findings on objective four show that there is a possibility by social media actors to localize some neologisms. This however, is based on the shared sociocultural knowledge by virtue of being part of the two social media platforms; Facebook and WhatsApp. Owing to the fluidity on social media, social media actors are empowered and this power is de-centered from established structures to individuals. This has potential for transformation as well as distortion of meaning. This confirms the earlier study by Jimaima and Nkhata (2017) who argue that most of the processes used to create the social media lexicon are 'Pseudo' word formation processes that have the potential to transform or distort the language practices of the late modern Zambia. Because of these freedoms on social media, the findings on objective four confirms that some social media neologisms are localized into two of the most widely spoken languages in Zambia; Bemba and Nyanja languages. This is done in a quest to promote the Zambian local languages, as well as a feel of belonging.

Overly, the conclusion from the study is that social media is productively exploited by social actors and the result is the creation of new words, otherwise known as neologisms. The meanings of these neologisms and emoticons/emojis are not found in any dictionary but social actors create them. The study also concludes that while most neologisms are created by Word Formation Rules (WFRs) and are placed within some established Word formation processes, others flout the established Word formation processes. Most of the social media neologisms are created by the Word formation process of Initialism [+initial]. This therefore means that most social media neologisms are Acronyms. Thus word formation is always an ongoing project on social media. Finally, because of the empowerment social media gives to social actors, there are a lot of freedoms in the creation, localization and interpretations of certain neologisms and emoticons/emojis. This leads to the reconstruction of some neologisms thereby transforming or distorting the meaning.

8.1 Recommendations for further Research

The study could not touch all grammatical areas on social media because of time. Social media is a wide study area and because of the inconsistency in the findings of many works, more studies need to be done. The scope of the study was limited to a grammar of neologisms on Zambian social media, the study concentrated on two social media platforms; Facebook and WhatsApp. The study did exhaust most morphological and semantic concerns regarding social media neologisms and emoticons. However, little was done to address the phonological and syntactic concerns. Thus, further research should be done on the phonology and syntax of social media neologisms.

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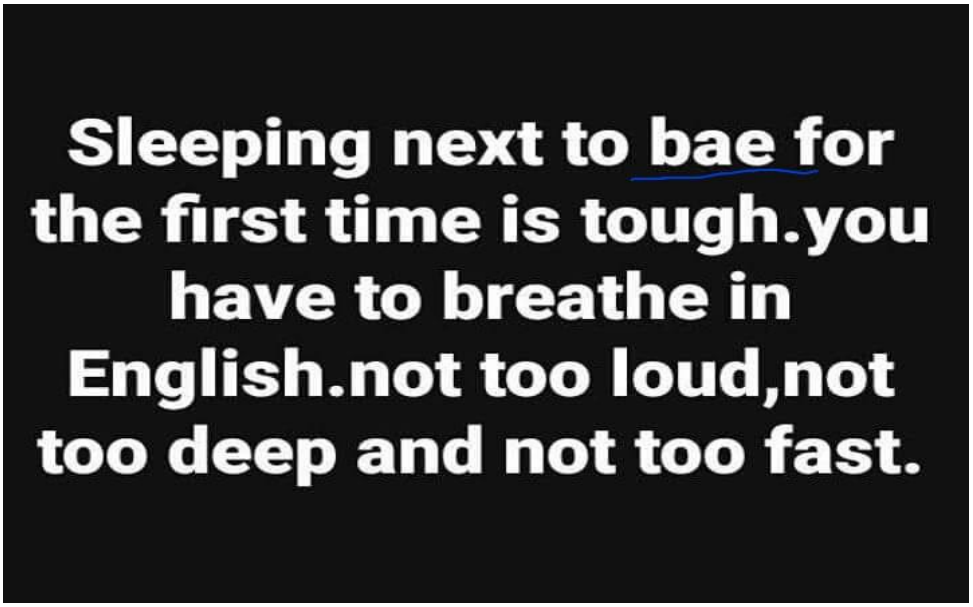
APPENDIX A

SCREEN SHOTS GLEANED FROM SOCIAL MEDIA PLATFORMS OF NEOLOGISMS IN USE

BAE


Sleeping next to bae for the first time is tough.you have to breathe in English.not too loud,not too deep and not too fast.

BFF


When my bff makes a stupid joke and I laugh for the next 30 minutes
When my bff makes a stupid joke and I laugh for the next 30 minutes

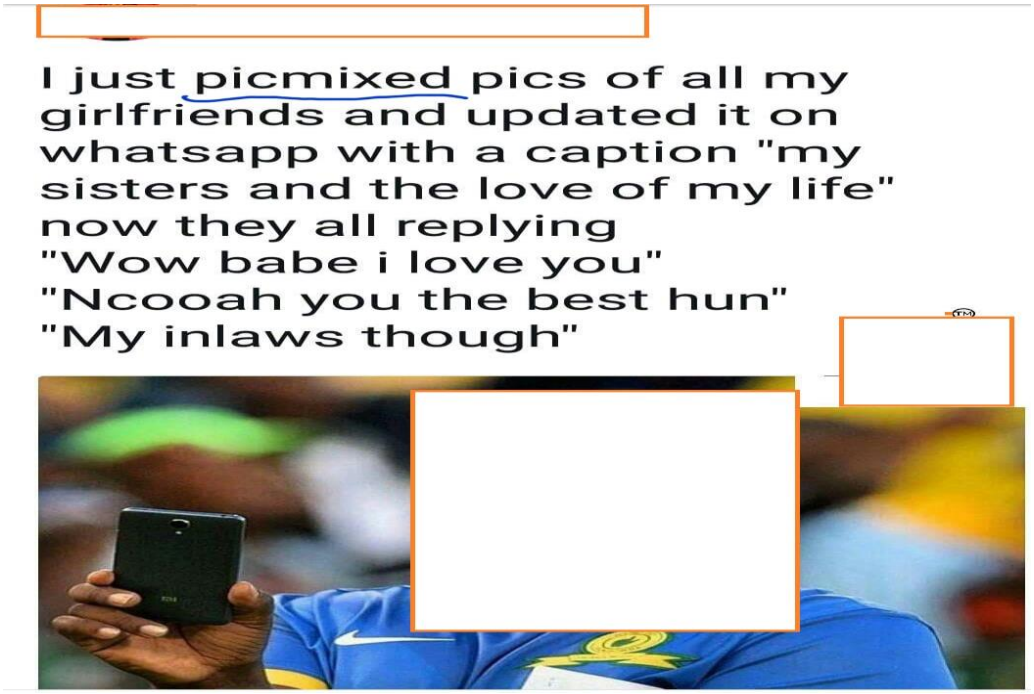
ISSA


Imagine dating a girl who posts her pictures in fashion police zambia😂😂😂😂isssa shame my guy!😂😂😂😂

Y'ALL


Y'all consider this a date?

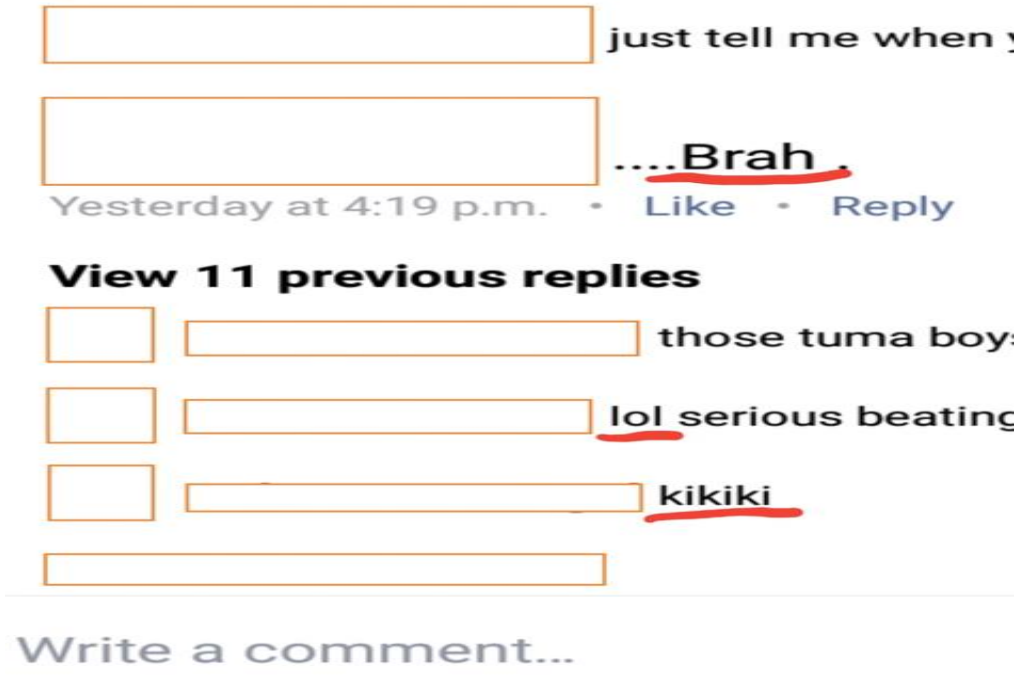
PICMIX


I just picmixed pics of all my girlfriends and updated it on whatsapp with a caption "my sisters and the love of my life" now they all replying
"Wow babe i love you"
"Ncooah you the best hun"
"My inlaws though"

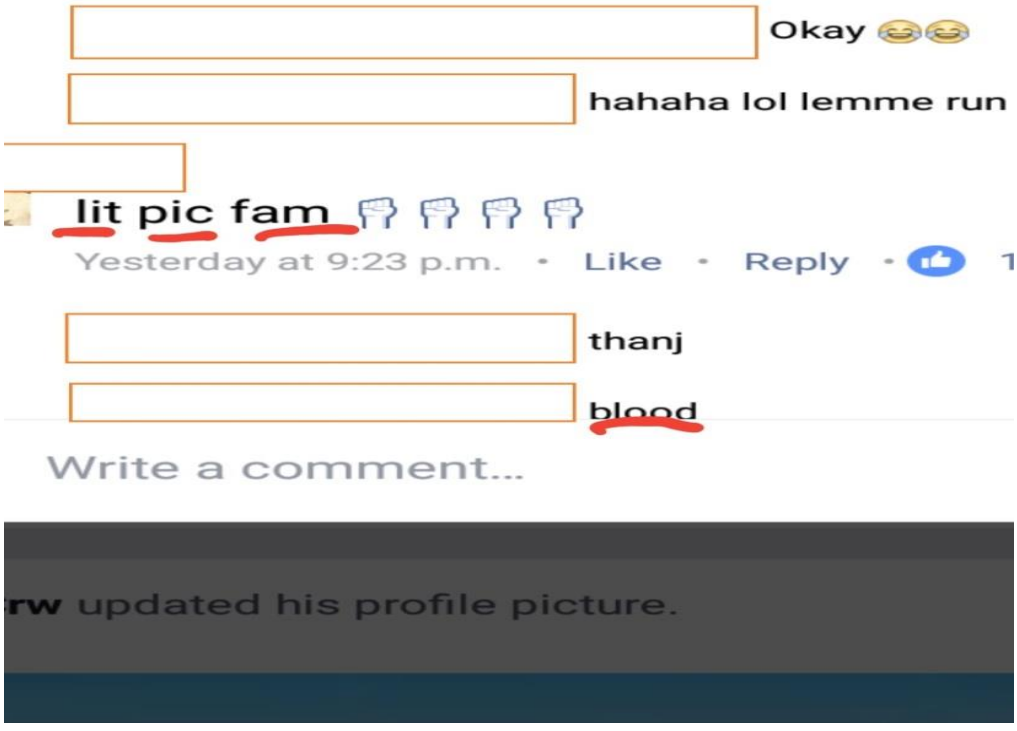
IDK


My uncle just texts me asking what does IDK mean? I said: I don't know... He said: Damn, nobody does

Brah & LOL



Lit, pic &fam



Faceversary

Pic, ur & selfies

Gotta&def

M xxm