

Descriptions of Register Variations in the Morpho-Syntax of Text Messaging among Redeemer's University Young Students

Adebola Adebileje

Redeemer's University, Mowe, Ogun State, Nigeria

ABSTRACT

This paper investigates the use of different registers in the syntax of text messaging among young undergraduates of the Redeemer's University. Specifically, the study examines the internal structure of words (morphology) and how words are put together to form text messages (syntax). Theoretical frameworks for the study rely on Biber et al (1999) register variation methodology that uses corpora to explore linguistic variations and Coupland's Sociolinguistic theory because syntactic aspects of text messages are influenced by social factors. Syntactic analysis of data is based on Crystal (2006) model. Some morpho-syntactic features are selected from one hundred and twenty two text messages written by young students of ages 16 and 24. Their frequency and distribution are examined to determine how they vary across register. The study reveals that young students' choice of morphemes to build syntax is largely sourced from logograms, symbols (figures), phonics, the Nigerian Pidgin English and relevant mother tongues.

Keywords: Register variation, Morpho-syntax, Text Messaging, SMS

1. INTRODUCTION

Text messaging has been described as the exchange of brief written messages between mobile phones and portable devices over cellular networks. It has also become a more common way for teenagers to communicate as found in the Redeemer's university. The term 'text messaging' however, varies from one region to another. For instance, in North America, text message is referred to as text or texto, it is called SMS in the United Kingdom, and most of Europe, and TMS in the Middle East, Asia, and Australia. In Nigeria, students exchange text messages for chatting on everyday life information, messages on class assignments, entertainment news, football match scores, dating and a host of others. Some examples of text messages are: *Slip tyt kk* (sleep tight ok); *I'll c u latr* (I'll see you later); *Pls I'm busy now tty l8tr* (please I'm busy now talk to you later); *Gd a.m.* (Good morning), *Wotz up?*, *Sup?!* (What is happening?); etc. It should be noted here that some common lexemes are constructed with varied morphemes. For instance, *Gd a.m./Gd morn*; *latr/l8r*; *wotz up/sup*, *you/u/ū*, e.t.c. This paper thus, focuses on analyzing the variations in the morphosyntax of young students' text messaging.

Students have various reasons for using text messaging of short language forms to craft instant messages because SMS is significantly cheaper than placing a phone call to another mobile phone. SMS's abbreviated, simplified nature is an unstructured language that violates the standard rules of the English language. But, its communication allows for a reasonable use of syntactic and lexical short forms, which save character space, or touches of the handset keys, as compared with using the full forms of words (Doring, 2002). Thurlow (2003) and Baron (2005) therefore broadly define text messaging as an asynchronous text based technology facilitating discourse with simple sentence structures for fast and easy communication.

Several researches have emerged on the positive and negative impacts of text messaging on various aspects of social life, including the academic work of students. However, the present work focuses on the morpho-syntax of text messaging among young adults in Redeemer's University by analyzing and describing the variations in the morpho-syntax of their text messaging.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Text message (TM) simply refers to the use of abbreviations, logograms, figures that may not necessarily be universally accepted. In other words, text messaging varies and reflects users' idiosyncrasies. This type of communication does not usually follow any language pattern, standards, rules, spellings, syntax or otherwise. Ong'onda (2009) believes that text messaging reflects language change and innovation in language and that variation within text messaging depends on the particular use of SMS. Texting is so widespread, especially among undergraduates that some linguists now strongly believe that it as an emergent language register in its own right. Some linguists are of the view that text messaging may negatively affect students' grasp of grammar. However others do not agree with this view and argued that each generation has its own jargon but English grammar has never been affected not so much as to change it.

Crystal (2008), a renowned Linguistics Professor and author of the book entitled *Txtng: The Gr8 Db8* presented a most comprehensive description of SMS text messaging. His description of text messaging was summarized in six main points as cited by Dansieh (2011):

- (1) In a typical text message, less than 10% of the words are abbreviated;
- (2) Abbreviating has been in use for decades, and thus is not a new language;
- (3) Children and adults alike use text language, the latter being more likely to do so;
- (4) Students do not habitually use abbreviations in their homework and examinations;
- (5) Before people can text, they must first know how to spell. Texting can therefore not be a cause of bad spelling;

(6) Since texting provides people with the opportunity of engaging with the language through reading and writing, it improves people's literacy.

Crystal, examines the linguistic conventions used in these separate media and how they differ from not only real life speech and traditional forms of writing, but also how they differ from each other, recognizing that the language of chat groups is not the only 'genre' of the internet.

New standards of grammar have come into play via personal email and text messages. Conciseness is appreciated for both these formats, and traditional spelling is often acceptably transformed to save space and time. Bush (2005) asserts that text messaging thus does not always follow the standard rules of English grammar and Ong'onda, Matu and Oketch, (2010) corroborate that text messaging is a reserved communication style which enables users to "rebel against the standard rules of English language".

A study conducted by Ong'onda, Matu and Oloo (2011) among Kenyan youths revealed that text messages are compressed through omissions, abbreviations and contractions. Consequently, they foresee many new linguistic variations of language beyond syntax emerging and incorporating new technology. Also, language invariably will continue to be adapted to meet the demands of new situations.

Texting, like all forms of word processing, is likely to have a long term effect on the ability of students to write longhand (cursive writing), but this may not be its only impact. A number of studies indicate that the proliferation of messaging among students is detrimental to the way that their formal writing is constructed. A 2007 report from Ireland's State Examination Commission noted that text messaging "seems to pose a threat to traditional conventions in writing." Based on a survey of exam responses, the Commission noted that students "often rely on short sentences, simple tenses, and a limited vocabulary." This may be as much due to a decline in reading as it is to messaging, but the mirroring of text type syntax under exam conditions should be a cause for alarm.

Text messaging as complex as it looks requires mutual comprehension among users. Thus, to understand text messaging, morphemes need to be recognized and their meanings accessed. Also, relevant background knowledge needs to be connected in order to make relevant interpretations to generate intended information. However the process of comprehending normal reading can be adapted for understanding text messaging.

As a characterization of the reading process, the NLS introduced the searchlights model, shown in Figure 1. Four strategies ('searchlights') are involved in comprehending a reading passage. The four strategies can be adapted for text messaging:

1. Phonics (sound and spelling): fast and automatic phonic decoding.
2. Word recognition and graphic knowledge: the recognition of whole words and word parts, particularly morphemes, to make sense of and complete phonic blending.
3. Grammatical knowledge: predictions from knowledge of syntax to make sense of strings of words, identify sense-making, syntactic boundaries in sentences and read with fluency and expression appropriate to the text.
4. Knowledge of context: predictions from context to aid comprehension.

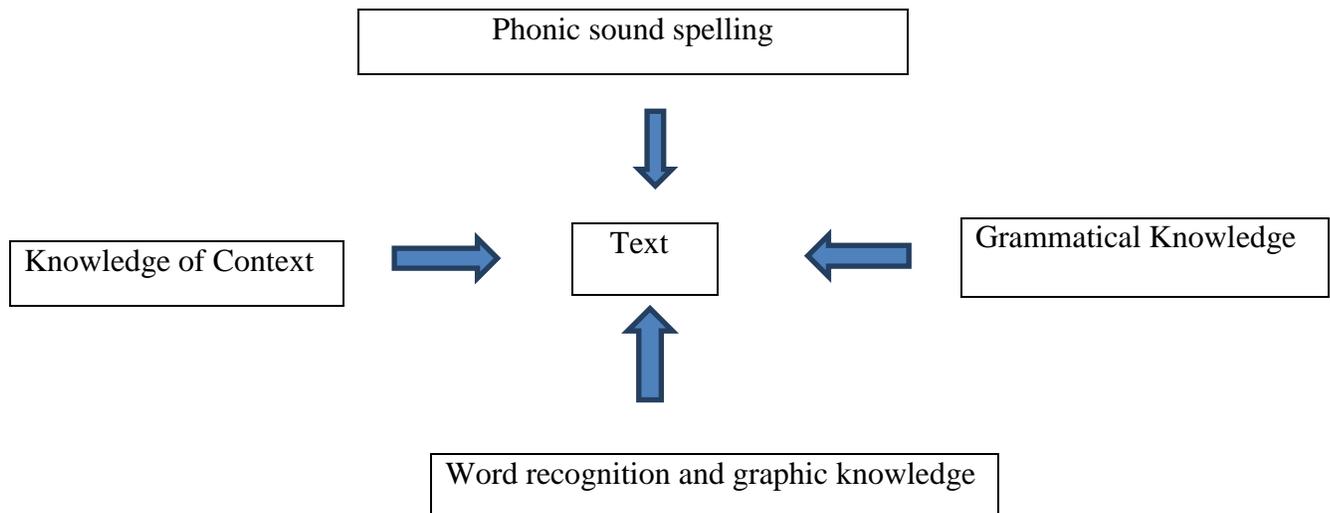


Figure 1: The searchlights model of text reading (DfES, 1988).

2.1 Register Features

Biber (1995) describes register variation as "a comprehensive linguistic analysis of a register which requires consideration of a representative selection of linguistic features. Analyses of these register features are necessarily quantitative, because the associated register distinctions are based on differences in the relative distribution of linguistic features." He further states that:

Register features are core lexical and grammatical characteristics found to some extent in almost all texts and registers. . . .Any linguistic feature having a functional or conventional association can be distributed in a way that distinguishes among registers. Such features come from many linguistic classes, including: phonological features (pauses, intonation patterns), tense and aspect markers, pronouns and pro-verbs, questions, nominal forms (nouns, nominalizations, gerunds), passive constructions, dependent clauses (complement clauses, relative clauses, adverbial subordination), prepositional phrases, adjectives, adverbs, measures of lexical specificity (once-occurring words, type-token ratio), lexical classes (hedges, emphatics, discourse particles, stance markers), modals, specialized verb classes (speech act verbs, mental process verbs), reduced forms (contractions, *that*-deletions), co-ordination, negation, and grammatical devices for structuring information (clefts, extraposition) (Biber, 1995).

2.2 Morpho-syntax

Morphosyntax can be described as incorporating linguistic strategies and operations to represent syntactic features via morphological marking as opposed to merely combinatorial or syntactic strategies. Operations in morphosyntax involve a relation between one linguistic form and another that correlates with a conventionalized meaning distinction. The process shows a relationship that is ordered from simpler to more complex forms. For instance, from the root (simplest form) to which becomes complex by the formal operation of adding one or all of prefix, suffix, stress shift or adding overt operation (zero morpheme).

The explanation of morphology can be regarded as words being decomposed into smaller meaningful elements that linguists call morphemes. A morpheme is the smallest linguistic unit that has meaning or a grammatical function e.g. *car-s*, *re-consider*, *over-general-iz-ation*, etc. Some morphemes can be realized in more than one way, i.e. a morpheme can have different forms in different environments. The variants of a morpheme are called allomorphs. Examples:

1. dog-[z] (the plural morpheme –s is realized as /z/ because of /g/)
2. cat-[s] (the plural morpheme –s is realized as /s/ because of /t/)
3. bush-[iz] the plural morpheme –s is realized as /iz/ because of / /

This means that the form of a morpheme is based on its pronunciation because the spelling is irrelevant. Morphemes can be classified into the following categories:

Content morpheme vs. function morphemes

Content: Nouns (N), Verbs (V), Adjectives (ADJ), Adverbs (ADV). These are referred to as “Open Class”

Function: Pronouns, Determiners, Prepositions, bound morpheme. These are referred to as “Closed Class”

Affixes: prefixes, suffixes, infixes, circumfixes are the forms of affixes found in languages but only prefixes and suffixes are commonly found in the English language. Prefixes precede the root word while suffixes complete or end the root word e.g.

un-happy	un (prefix) happy (root word)
de-compose	de (prefix) compose (root word)
dog-s	s (suffix) dog (root word)
read-able	able (suffix) (root word)

Derivation vs. inflection

1. Derivational morphemes can change the category of a word e.g.

free (ADJ) > freedom (N) derivation

kill (V) > killer (N) derivation

category (N) > categorize (V) derivation

talk (V) > talked (V) inflection

2. Derivational morphemes are less productive than inflectional morphemes (e.g. –hood

occurs with half a dozen words in English while –ed is attached to almost every noun).

3. Derivational morphemes tend to have more concrete meanings than inflectional morphemes.

4. Derivational morphemes occur closer to the stem than inflectional morphemes e.g.

Expect+ation (derivational morpheme)+s (inflectional morpheme).

English has 8 inflectional suffixes:

3rd person singular	<i>wa<u>its</u></i>
past tense	<i>wa<u>ited</u></i>
progressive	<i>wa<u>iting</u></i>
past participle	<i>ea<u>ten</u></i>
plural	<i>ca<u>rs</u></i>
possessive	<i>Pe<u>ter's</u></i>
comparative	<i>fa<u>ster</u></i>
superlative	<i>fa<u>stest</u></i>

The core function of morphology is based on the frame work of linguistic operations to fit items to produce messages. For instance, at the lexical level, selected lexemes could be modified according to prefix, suffix (morphological), to produce periphrastic results, that is, combined lexical items.

Syntax is the study of the principles and processes by which sentences are constructed in particular languages. Syntactic investigation of a given language has as its goal the construction of a grammar that can be viewed as a device of some sort for producing the sentences of the language under analysis (Chomsky, 1971).

Miller (2002) explains that “many kinds of spoken language have a syntax that is very different from the syntax of formal writing. It is essential to understand that the differences exist not because spoken language is a degradation of written language but because any written language, whether English or Chinese, results from centuries of development and elaboration by a small number of users. In spite of the huge prestige enjoyed by written language in any literate society, spoken language is primary in several major respects”.

Therefore, morpho-syntax encompasses linguistic strategies and operations to represent syntactic features via morphological marking as opposed to merely combinatorial or syntactic strategies. Morpho-syntax operates in a relation between one linguistic form and another that correlates

with a conventionalized meaning distinction. There is a basic distinction in language studies between morphology (which is primarily concerned with the internal structures of words) and syntax (which is primarily concerned with the ways in which words are put together in sentences).

The study analyses the variations in how students arrange morphemes to form words for the purpose of text messaging.

3. Methodology

In order to analyze young students’ text messaging at the level of morpho-syntax, the data gathered for the study were examined to identify common terms used by students. Some of these were listed and then the various forms (variants) in which these common terms were expressed were tabled accordingly. Relating the morpho-syntactic analysis presented here with the data collected for the study revealed that young undergraduates have peculiarities or idiosyncrasies in their use of text messaging. For instance, in writing the structure ‘what is up or what is happening, there are variations; while some use the morpheme /s/ in the contraction ‘sup?’ for ‘what’s up?’ some use the allomorph /z/ as in ‘zup?’ and some use ‘watzup’, still, some use ‘wetin dey hapn’. Also, variations occur in writing the phrase ‘good morning’ such as ‘gud morning’, ‘gud morn’n’, ‘a.m’, ‘gd mrng’ ‘mowng’. For the sentence, ‘I will see you tomorrow’ text message versions include ‘I’ll c u tmrw’, ‘c u 2mr’, ‘see u 2mrw’, ‘si u 2mao’ etc.

Table 1: Common Structures and their Variations as Used by Young Students in Redeemer’s University

S/N	STRUCTURES	VARIATIONS	ANALYSIS
1.	See you later.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. C u latr. 2. See u l8tr. 3. Si u later. 4. C yu l8ter. 5. We go c. 6. C u lerra. 	The choice of alphabet ‘c’ and ‘u’ for the morphemes <i>see</i> and <i>you</i> is noticed but variations occur here as ‘c’ has allomorphs <i>see</i> , and <i>si</i> . The choice of the letter ‘c’ implies morphophonemic relations in syntax. Also, the morpheme ‘u’ has an allomorph ‘yu’. The word <i>later</i> is produced in different variations: <i>latr</i> , <i>l8tr</i> , <i>later</i> , <i>lerra</i> and <i>l8ter</i> . Note the use of figure 8 which brings phonology to fore in morphology (morphophonemic).
2.	Are you at home?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. A u @ home? 2. R u @ hme? 3. Ar u at hme? 4. R’ U @ ome? 	The morpheme ‘are’ has variations of: <i>a</i> , <i>r</i> , <i>ar</i> and <i>r’</i> while the morpheme ‘at’ has the allomorph @. In the same vein, the morpheme ‘home’ has the variants <i>hme</i> , and <i>ome</i> . The choice of phonemes to represent words is apparent to save time and space.
3.	I will see you tomorrow.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I will c u tmrw. 2. C u 2mr. 	Some variations delete “ <i>I will</i> ” from the original expression possibly to

		3. See u 2mrw. 4. Si u 2mao. 5. C yah 2mao. 6. C yhu 2mrw.	conserve space and time. Also, the morpheme ‘tomorrow’ has many variants: <i>tmrw</i> , <i>2mr</i> , <i>2mrw</i> , and <i>2mao</i> .
4.	Good morning.	1. Gud mornin. 2. Gud morn’n. 3. a.m. 4. Gd mrng. 5. Mowng. 6. Gud a.m.	Both morphemes ‘good’ and ‘morning’ have variants of register as noticed in this data. While the phoneme /ŋ/ and a.m. are used in one of the variants of ‘morning’; ‘gd’, ‘gud’ are used for good.
5.	Take care of yourself.	1. Takia of urself. 2. Takie ov urself. 3. Tek kia of yourself. 4. Tek kia of u. 5. Takia of ursef. 6. tkia.	The morpheme ‘care’ has the following variants: <i>kia</i> , <i>kie</i> , and ‘take’ has <i>tak</i> , <i>tek</i> , <i>tk</i> , while ‘yourself’ has <i>urself</i> , <i>u</i> , <i>ursef</i> as variants.
	I’ll meet you there.	1. I’ll mit u dere. 2. I’l mt u dia. 3. Ai mt yhu dere.	The morphemes ‘meet’, ‘you’, and ‘there’, have the following variants respectively: <i>mit</i> , <i>mt</i> ; <i>u</i> , <i>yhu</i> ; <i>dere</i> , <i>dia</i> . The phrase ‘I’ll’ has <i>I’l</i> and <i>Ai</i> as variants.
7.	Talk to you later.	1. Ttyl. 2. Tulk 2 u l8tr. 3. Talk 2 yhu l.	‘Talk’ has the variants <i>t</i> , <i>tulk</i> ; ‘to’ has the variant <i>2</i> ; ‘you’ has the variants <i>u</i> , and <i>yhu</i> and ‘later’ has <i>l8tr</i> and <i>l</i> .
8.	Be right back.	1. Brb. 2. B rt bk. 3. Be ryt bk. 4. Be rait bac.	The morpheme ‘right’ has variants of register such as <i>r</i> , <i>rt</i> , <i>ryt</i> , <i>rait</i> while the morpheme ‘back’ has the variants <i>b</i> , <i>bk</i> , <i>bac</i> .
9.	I wish you a happy birthday.	1. I wish yhu hapy buffdae. 2. I wish u hapi bufday. 3. I wish u HBD. 4. Wish yhu Hbd. 5. Wsh u hapy b-day.	The phrase ‘happy birthday’ has various registers such as <i>hapy buffdae</i> , <i>hapi bufday</i> , <i>HBD</i> , <i>Hbd</i> , <i>hapy b-day</i> .
10.	What’s up?	1. Watzup. 2. Sup? 3. Wotz up? 4. Wassup? 5. Wats up? 6. Xup?	The phrase ‘What’s up’ is written as the following: <i>watz up</i> , <i>sup</i> , <i>wotz</i> , <i>wassup</i> , <i>wats</i> , and <i>Xup</i> .
11.	I’m at home lots of love.	1. Im at my crib lol. 2. Am @ my ause luv. 3. Im @ home lotz ov	The morpheme ‘home’ has <i>crib</i> , <i>ause</i> , <i>om</i> , <i>haus</i> as variants while the phrase ‘I’m’ has <i>Im</i> , <i>am</i> , <i>’m</i> , and <i>I</i> as variants

		<p>luv. 4. ‘m @ om loz uv love, 5. I dey haus much luv.</p>	<p>in register. Also ‘at’ has @ as variant and ‘lots of love’ has <i>lol</i>, <i>luv</i>, <i>lotz ov luv</i>, <i>loz uv love</i> and <i>much luv</i> as variants.</p>
12.	Goodnight and sweet dreams.	<p>1. Gdnyt n swt drnz. 2. Gudnite ‘n’ swit drimz. 3. Gdp.m nd swt drimz. 4. Ghudnyt n swt drnz.</p>	<p>The phrase ‘goodnight’ is written as <i>gdnyt</i>, <i>gudnite</i>, <i>gdp.m</i>, <i>ghudnyt</i> while ‘sweet dreams’ is written as <i>swt drnz</i>, and <i>swit drimz</i>. ‘And’ has the variants <i>n</i> and <i>nd</i>.</p>
13.	Are you coming to school today?	<p>1. re you comin 2 skool 2day? 2. R u cmin 2 skul 2dy? 3. Ar u comn 2 skl 2dei? 4. U dey com skl 2day? 5. R u cmj 2 skl 2dy?</p>	<p>Inflected morpheme ‘coming’ has <i>comin</i>, <i>cmin</i>, <i>comn</i>, <i>cmj</i> as variants. ‘School’ has <i>skool</i>, <i>skul</i>, and <i>skl</i>. ‘Today’ has <i>2day</i>, <i>2dy</i>, <i>2dei</i>.</p>
14.	How are you?	<p>1. Aw r u? 2. Hw r u? 3. Hw ar u? 4. Hwz u? 5. How u dey? 6. Hw re u? 7. How fa? 8. Aw far? 9. Hw are u? 10. Aws u?</p>	<p>The morpheme ‘how’ is written as <i>aw</i>, <i>hw</i>, <i>hwz</i>, <i>aw</i>, <i>aws</i> and ‘are’ is written as <i>r</i>, <i>ar</i>, <i>re</i>.</p>
15.	He submitted his assignment late.	<p>1. He submtd his assign l8. 2. He sbmtd hs asignmt leit. 3. He slbmtd his assignmnt l8.</p>	<p>The inflected morpheme ‘submitted’ has the variants <i>submtd</i>, <i>sbmtd</i>, <i>slmtd</i>. ‘Assignment’ has <i>assign</i>, <i>asignmt</i>, and <i>asignmnt</i> and ‘late’ has <i>l8</i>, and <i>leit</i>.</p>
16.	The lecture has been cancelled.	<p>1. <u>D</u> lecture hs bn kansld. 2. D lektur s bn cancl. 3. d lecture has bn cancl.</p>	<p>Determiner ‘the’ has <u>D</u>, <i>D</i>, <i>d</i> as variants, ‘lecture’ has <i>lektur</i> as a variant, ‘cancelled’ has <i>kansld</i>, and <i>cancl</i> as variants.</p>
17.	Thanks, I am very grateful.	<p>1. Thanks am very gr8fl. 2. Tnz m veri grtfl.</p>	<p>The morpheme ‘thanks’ has <i>tnz</i>, <i>tnx</i>, <i>tnks</i>, <i>tenks</i>, <i>thx</i>, <i>10qs</i> as variants and ‘grateful’ has <i>gr8fl</i>, <i>grtfl</i>, <i>gr8ful</i>,</p>

		3. Tnx am very gr8ful. 4. Tnks am very grtfl. 5. Tenks Im very gr8tfl. 6. Thx I'm very greiftfl. 7.10qs Im very grtfl.	<i>gr8ttfl</i> , and <i>greiftfl</i> .
18.	Of course I have friends.	1. avks I've frends. 2. ofcaz I v frendz. 3. ofkAZ I ve frndz. 4. ofkors I hv frnds.	The phrase 'of course' is written as <i>avks</i> , <i>ofcaz</i> , <i>ofkAZ</i> , and <i>ofkors</i> while the morpheme 'friends' has the variants <i>frends</i> , <i>frendz</i> , <i>frndz</i> , and <i>frnds</i> .
19.	Lecturer is in class come right away.	1. Lekturə n kls cm rite away. 2. Lecturer n cls cum ryt awai. 3. Lecturer 's n cls kAm rait əwei.	'Lecturer' has the variant <i>lekturə</i> , and 'class' has <i>cls</i> , <i>cls</i> . The morpheme 'come' is written as <i>cm</i> , <i>cum</i> , <i>kAm</i> , while 'right' has <i>rite</i> , <i>ryt</i> , and <i>rait</i> as variants.
20.	I really need to get a phone.	1. Ai rili nd 2 gt a fone. 2. I rili nid 2 gt ə fon. 3. I realy nd to gt a fone. 4. I rilli nd 2 gt a phone.	Inflected morpheme 'really' has the variants <i>rili</i> , <i>realy</i> , and <i>rilli</i> . 'Phone' is written as <i>fon</i> , <i>fone</i> while 'need' has <i>nd</i> , and <i>nid</i> .

4. Discussion

From the analyses presented, one can easily deduce that text messaging is a different media from formal writing and speaking and there is no rule guiding the use of text messaging. In other words, text messaging has its own syntax differently from the conventional English syntax (Miller, 2000). Also, usage is informed by many sources such as figures, symbols, phonics and pidgin (NPE) which could be as a result of the informality involved in text messaging among youth who use text messaging as a form of socialization. These findings corroborate Crystal's observation when he submits that:

The linguistic conventions used in these separate media and how they differ from not only real life speech and traditional forms of writing, but also how they differ from each other, recognizing that the language of chat groups is not the only 'genre' of the internet (Crystal, 2008).

Idiosyncratic forms of writing text messages could reveal some linguistic information about the writer. A student from the sciences may tend towards using figures and symbols more than one from the humanities, especially language, who uses phonics more in his/her text messaging.

Also, spellings may reveal a little about one's L1 as many English words are written with Yoruba spellings being the predominant L1 of the subjects used.

As much as this form of writing is easy, fast and does not consume a lot of space (economical), caution should however be applied on its use so that it does not extend to formal form of writing. It is interesting to note that as diverse as the forms of text messaging are, students do have mutual intelligibility of the different forms. Could this really be an emergent language register in its own right?

REFERENCES

1. Baron, N. (2005). Discourse structures in instant messaging: The case of utterance breaks in instant messaging. In S. Herring (Ed.), *Computer Mediated Conversation*, Creskill NJ:Hampton Press.
2. Biber, D. (1995). *Dimensions of Register Variation: A Cross-Linguistic Comparison*. Cambridge University Press.
3. Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., Conrad, S., & Finegan, E. (Eds.). (1999). *Grammar of Spoken and Written English*. London: Longman.
4. Bush, C. (2005). Language beyond the text: txt msgs 4 a new gn8rn. *The Journal of New Media & Culture*, 3(2). <http://www.ibiblio.org/nmediac/summer2005/text.html>. Retrieved 8th April, 2013.
5. Carvin, A. (2006). Should Schools Teach SMS Text Messaging? Retrieved online from www.pbs.org/teachers/...now/2006/.../do_students_need_to_learn_text.ht... 10th April, 2013.
6. Chomsky, N. (1971). *Syntactic Structures*. Mouton.
7. Crystal, D. (2006). *Language and the internet*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
8. Crystal, D. (2008). *Txtng: The Gr8 Db8*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
9. Dansieh, S. A. (2011). SMS Texting and Its Potential Impacts on Students' Written Communication Skills. *International Journal of English Linguistics* Vol. 1, No. 2.
10. Doring, N. (2002). Abbreviations and acronyms in SMS communication. Available at: <http://www.nicola-doering.de/>. Retrieved on 8th April, 2013.
11. Lamb, R. (2013). How cell phones are affecting writing standards. Retrieved from www.helium.com › ... › *Secondary School* › *Secondary School Issues* 12th April, 2013.
12. Miller, J. (2002). *An Introduction to English Syntax*. Edinburgh University Press.

13. Nation, K. and Angell, P. (2006). Learning to read and learning to comprehend. *London Review of Education*. Vol. 4, No. 1, pp. 77–87.
14. Ong'onda, N. A, Matu, P. M & Oketch, O. (2010). Kenyan electronic communication: Implication of text messaging on social interaction. *US-China Foreign Language*, 8(9), 1-13.
15. Ong'onda, N. A., Matu, P. M & Oketch, O. (2010). Punctuation as a sociolinguistic variable in text messages. *Sino-US English Teaching*, 7(9), 42-47.
16. Ong'onda, N. A., Matu P. M., & P.A. Oloo. (2011). Syntactic Aspects in Text Messaging. *World Journal of English Language* Vol . 1, No. 1. Retrieved from www.sciedu.ca/wjel on 8th April, 2013.
17. Thurlow, C. (2003). Generation Txt? The sociolinguistics of young people's text messaging. *Discourse Analysis Online*, 1(1).<http://extra.shu.ac.uk/daol/articles/v1/n1/a3/thurlow2002003-paper.html>
18. Quick, A. (NA). The Importance of English Grammar. Retrieved from. http://www.ehow.com/about_6609703_importance-english-grammar.html#ixzz2Pgg2d3Gu. on 5th April, 2013.