

MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH

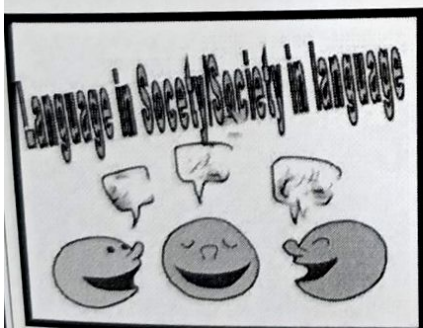


UNIVERSITY CENTRE "SALHI AHMED" NAAMA
INSTITUTE OF LETTRES AND LANGUAGES
DEPARTEMENT OF ENGLISH

SOCIOLINGUISTICS

MASTER 1 SOCIOLINGUISTICS

Author: Dr. Hayat BAGUI



Academic Year: 2024-2025

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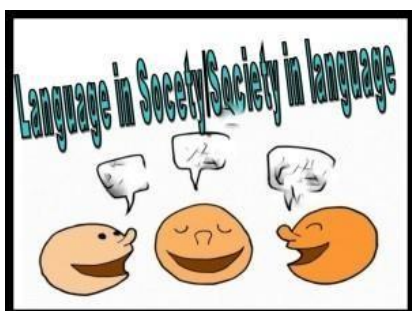


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Objectives and Learning Outcomes of the Course

This pedagogical handout is mainly designed for first year master English language students. It presents all what concerns the field of sociolinguistics. It starts with a brief overview about linguistics and its theories; leading to sociolinguistics. Then, it tackles basically the chief concern of sociolinguistics; i.e., its emergence, definition, aims, approaches, the main concepts of this discipline, as well as the various social parameters that may lead to language variation. It ends-up with some language contact phenomena which will be examined in details in the next year (Master 2). It covers the syllabus of the first semester of their academic year.

At the end of the semester, students will be able to demonstrate a broad understanding of the significant sociolinguistic concepts. They should be also acquainted with the crucial social factors and their relation with linguistic diversity. Therefore, this present teaching manual is intended to help the learners at developing their linguistic awareness of the accurate language use in different social contexts.

Hence, the teacher will introduce the syllabus of the module so as to give students the opportunity to prepare the course before its presentation in the classroom. By the end of each lecture, students will be given a quote to be analyzed or commented in addition to other tasks such as presentations when it seems necessary. Then, they will gradually learn how to 'discuss' a quote in long essays that must contain distinct sociolinguists' views.

Introduction

Language is one of the most salient elements in people's life and culture. It is used to attain a set of social goals. It has, then, a social function. Therefore, sociolinguistics is used as a branch that attempts to study the relation between language and society; between language use and the social structures of its users. It seeks also at uncovering the correlation between social and linguistic variables.

The overall aim of sociolinguistics is to describe language in an objective way based on observations and to examine the correlation between linguistic and social phenomena; investigating, hence, the mechanism of linguistic diversity. This diversity is, in fact, the effect of distinct social attributes from social classes, age, gender, to ethnicity on the linguistic structures within various speech communities yielding different varieties of language or language varieties.

UNIT ONE

Sociolinguistics: A General Overview



William Labov

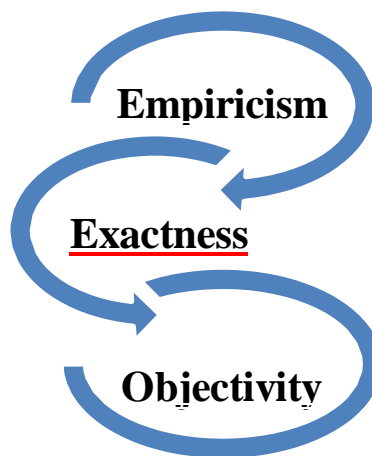


Peter Trudgill

1. Defining the Scope of Linguistic Inquiry

1.1. What is Linguistics?

The term linguistics refers to the **scientific** study of language. It aims at describing the nature underlying the language system.



- ❖ **Empiricism:** Linguist's investigation should rely on experiment and observation.
- ❖ **Exactness:** Any linguistic theory should be valid, correct, and exact.
- ❖ **Objectivity:** Linguist's judgment should be impartial and far from subjectivity.

1.2. How did scholars study language?

1.2.1. Traditional Language Studies (TLS)

- They primarily focus on making rules about how people out to write.

- Studying only grammar; using atlases and books.
- They neglect the oral form.
- Language is prescriptive.
- Limit the scope of language study on the basis of subjective judgments.

1.2.2. Modern Linguistics

- It came in the early part of 20th C as a reaction against the short coming of TLS.
- It describes how language works not how it should work.
- Language is descriptive.
- It aims at establishing a workable theory and applying theoretical considerations to a description and analysis of these levels.
- The pioneering is the linguist Ferdinand De Saussure (1916) who set up a comprehensive theoretical framework for the description of language. He set up many dichotomies:

✚ ***Langue Vs Parole:*** Langue is the abstract linguistic system shared by all members of a speech community whereas parole refers to the actualized language of an individual.

✚ ***Synchronic Vs Diachronic:*** Synchronic study is the description of the language at a specific stage of its development while diachronic one deals with the historical language development through time.

✚ ***Syntagmatic Vs Paradigmatic:*** The former (called also ***co- occurrence***) means the combination of elements to form a longer unit while the latter (known as ***substitutability***) refers to the replacement of one element with another at a given place.

In the same sense, Chomsky advocated, in his most explicit statement of the categoricity axiom, that **“linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker listener in a completely homogeneous speech community” (1965:3).** Chomsky also distinguished between linguistic competence and linguistic performance. He refers to linguistic competence as the linguistic knowledge that a native speaker possesses; i.e., every speaker has a grammar located in his mind, that is innate or born with which enables him/her to arrange the elements of a sentence of grammatically correct forms whereas linguistic performance displays the use of that competence in real situations.

Yet, all these formal theories either by the structuralists as De Saussure (traditional structural school) or transformationalists as Chomsky (transformational-generative grammar school) insisted on studying language in abstraction from real life; i.e., society; assuming that the social context should be neglected and put aside. By the end of the 19th C, some linguists have interested on the social nature of language and attempted at showing the necessity of social factors in theorizing.

2. The scope of Sociolinguistics

2.1. Emergence of Sociolinguistics

A wide spread of interest in sociolinguistics has occurred in the late 1960's and early 1970's particularly with the advent of **William Labov** in the United States and, later on in the United Kingdom by **Peter John Trudgill**. Dell Hymes' theory is considered as a bridge between linguistics and sociolinguistics. Besides, modern dialectologists' interest in studying language variation and change in the complexities of large urban areas pushes many scholars to study language in its real social context. Consequently, sociolinguistics is put as a branch that attempts to study the relationship between language and society. Accordingly, Hudson (1996:4) defines sociolinguistics as **"the study of language in relation to society"**. Moreover, David Crystal (1985:260) says that:

Sociolinguistics studies the ways in which language interacts with society. It is the study of the way in which language's structure changes in response to its different social functions, and the definitions of what these functions are.

William Labov is regarded as a pioneer researcher in sociolinguistics through his work *"The social stratification of English in New York City (1966)"*. He (1972:261) claims that **"Every linguist recognizes that language is a social fact, but not everyone puts an equal emphasis on that fact"**.

Hence, the goal of sociolinguistics is to describe language in an objective way and to examine the correlation between linguistic structures and social variables which leads to language variability.

2.2. Social Variables Vs Linguistic Variables

Linguistic Variables

According to Wardhaugh (2006:143), a linguistic variable is **“a linguistic ítem which has identifiable variants”**. He refers to the example of the words ‘*singing*’ and ‘*fishing*’ which can be pronounced as ‘*singin*’ and ‘*fishin*’. The final sound /N/ in these two words is termed a linguistic variable. This variable has two variants which are: [N] in ‘*singing*’ or ‘*fishing*’ and [n] in ‘*singin*’ or ‘*fishin*’. Chambers and Trudgill (2004:50) point out that:

A linguistic unit with two or more variants involved in co variation with other social and/ or linguistic variables. Linguistic variables can often be regarded as socially different but linguistically equivalent ways of doing or saying the same thing, and occur at all levels of linguistic analysis.

That is to say, any variable may have different variants and all the variants carry the same meaning. Language is, then, affected by many social factors.

✚ Social Variables

Social variables can be termed also '*social factors*', '*social parameters*', or '*social structures*'. Language changes according to these social variables such as:

✚ **Age:** Language used by young people is different from that of adults.

✚ **Gender:** Women seem to be more prestigious in language than man.

✚ **Social Class:** People from high classes use a language different from that of middle or low classes.

✚ **Ethnicity:** People of various ethnic groups tend to speak differently.

In addition to other factors like: level of education, occupation, and topic discussed

2.3. Aims and Interests of Sociolinguistics

- Exploring **why** people speak differently.
- Identifying the **social functions** of language.
- Examining the **way** language is **used** to **convey** social meanings.

2.4. Components of Sociolinguistics

- **Society** : Any group of people who live together for a certain purpose.
- **Language** : The members of a particular society speak.
- **Social** : How and where the members of a society interact and communicate

2.5. Approaches in Sociolinguistics

2.5.1. Micro-sociolinguistics or sociolinguistics

- It refers to the analysis in which the emphasis is on language of individuals,
- It influences the way people talk and how language varieties and patterns of use correlate with social attributes such as *class, gender* and *age* (Coulmas, 1997:2).
- In a simplistic term, micro-sociolinguistics explores the ways in which society influences a speaker's idiolect.
- The specific language of a person - and how people communicate with one another in line with different social variables/factors.
- In micro-sociolinguistics, the emphasis is on **language**.

2.5.2. Macro-sociolinguistics /sociology of language

- Macro-sociolinguistics is more sociological
- It studies attitudes towards the functional distribution of speech forms in society; bilingualism and its resulting phenomena: language shift, language maintenance, replacement, and interaction of speech communities.

- It focuses on the entire gamut of topics related to the social organization of language behaviour; involving not only language usage but also language attitudes, overt behaviour towards language and towards language users. Fishman (1972:45)
- It focuses more on society as a whole in relation to language.
- In short, in macro-sociolinguistics, the emphasis is on **society**.

Activity One: State if the following statements are True or False

1. Linguistics is the scientific study of language that relies on observation and experiment.
2. Exactness in linguistic theory means a theory must be normative and prescribe how people should speak.
3. Traditional Language Studies (TLS) place strong emphasis on oral language and spoken performance.
4. Modern (descriptive) linguistics aims to describe how language is used rather than how it should be used.
5. Saussure's *langue* refers to the abstract, shared system of a speech community; *parole* refers to individual speech.
6. Synchronic study describes language change over historical time, while diachronic study analyzes language at a single point in time.
7. Syntagmatic relations concern the sequential combination of elements; paradigmatic relations concern substitutability.
8. Chomsky's distinction: competence = internalized knowledge of language; performance = actual language use.
9. Sociolinguistics studies language independently of social factors and variations.
10. Age, gender and social class are examples of social variables that can correlate with linguistic variation.

Activity Two:

- ❖ How do prescriptive (traditional) and descriptive (modern) approaches to language influence classroom teaching objectives and assessment?
- ❖ Evaluate Saussure's *langue/parole* and Chomsky's *competence/performance*—which pair is more useful for applied linguistics (e.g., language teaching) and why?
- ❖ Discuss three social variables (age, gender, social class or ethnicity). How might each specifically affect phonology, lexis or pragmatics in a local speech community?
- ❖ Compare micro-sociolinguistics and macro-sociolinguistics in research design: what kinds of data, methods and research questions suit each approach?

Activity Two:

To what extent should sociolinguistic variation be integrated into language curricula (ESP or general English)? What are the pedagogical benefits and potential challenges?

Correction of Activity One

1. Linguistics is the scientific study of language that relies on observation and experiment. **True**
2. Exactness in linguistic theory means a theory must be normative and prescribe how people should speak. **False**
3. Traditional Language Studies (TLS) place strong emphasis on oral language and spoken performance. **False**
4. Modern (descriptive) linguistics aims to describe how language is used rather than how it should be used. **True**
5. Saussure's *langue* refers to the abstract, shared system of a speech community; *parole* refers to individual speech. **True**
6. Synchronic study describes language change over historical time, while diachronic study analyzes language at a single point in time. **False**
7. Syntagmatic relations concern the sequential combination of elements; paradigmatic relations concern substitutability. **True**
8. Chomsky's distinction: competence = internalized knowledge of language; performance = actual language use. **True**
9. Sociolinguistics studies language independently of social factors and variations. **False**
10. Age, gender and social class are examples of social variables that can correlate with linguistic variation. **True**

UNIT TWO

Fundamental Concepts in Sociolinguistics

In order to work in the field of sociolinguistic, it is of great importance to understand well its basic concepts and be able to distinguish between them and use them appropriately.

1. Language Vs Dialect

1.1. Language Definition

Defining language is, in fact, not an easy task. It is a very complicated issue as it has been studied by distinct disciplines and in widely contrasting ways. The American anthropo-linguist *Edward Sapir* (1921:8)¹ emphasizes, in his famous definition of the term language, on the notion that language is human property when he says that **“language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions, and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols”**. In the same vein, Bloch and Trager (1942:5)², in their linguistic analysis, claim that **“language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group co-operates”**. They treat language as a system of arbitrary meaningful conventional symbols; i.e., speech sounds by which messages are transmitted. Thus, language is a significant tool of communication and the principle instrument for strengthening relationships.

Language is one of the most salient elements in human life. It is used to attain a set of social aims. Language is, then, considered as the key that conducts an effective social interaction. This is why, many linguists have felt the interest in its relationship with the social structures. Formal linguists only take account of the structure of language whereas sociolinguists emphasize more on the connection

¹ Quoted in Lyons (1981:3).

² Quoted in Lyons (1981:4).

between language use and the social structures of its users. Hence, language and social interaction is an interdisciplinary approach to studying the everyday behaviours and details that make up the complexities and multi-functionality of human communication (Fitch, K. L. 2005: xv).

1.2. Dialect Definition

The term dialect was first coined in 1577 from *dialectus*, a Latin word to mean "way of speaking". Many definitions have been put forward about the concept dialect and all of them focus on the notion that a dialect is regarded as a variety of a given language. Strictly speaking, a dialect is a subdivision of a particular language; for example, the Algerian dialect of Arabic and the Cockney of English.

Various subject specialists endeavour to define this sociolinguistic concept. A dialect, on the light of Trudgill (1992:23) is: **“a variety of language which differs grammatically, phonologically and lexically from other varieties and which is associated with a particular social class or status group”**. This definition describes the term dialect as a sub-variety of language and it consists of two important elements. The first element refers to the fact that dialects are different in terms of three levels which are: grammar, phonology, and lexis while the second part explains the differentiation between regional and social dialects. For example, in Algeria, there are many dialects in terms of different regions such as: Naama Algerian Arabic, Tlemcen Algerian Arabic, Saida Algerian Arabic, Oran Algerian Arabic, and Algiers Algerian Arabic with each dialect having its own characteristics. The uvular /q/ is pronounced as /q/ in Algiers, as /g/ in Oran and Naama, and as / / in Tlemcen. Broadly speaking, dialects imply the use of a variety of language in a given society in one region or another. Just as everybody belongs to a given area, everybody speaks

a particular dialect or a specific idiolect³ since each speaker possesses a given social and a particular background.

1.3. What is the difference between Language and Dialect?

The difference between language and dialect is one of the most wondering and complicated issues among theorists as it is dependent on a matrix of inter-related factors such as historical development, standardization, the speakers' attitudes, and social networks.

1.3.1. Haugen's View

In his comparison between the two concepts, Einar Haugen (1966:23) states that “**X is a dialect of language Y or Y has the dialects X and Z (never, for example, Y is a language of dialect X)**”. Haugen, thus, clarifies that language is the super-ordinate variety that can be used without reference to dialects whereas dialects are subdivisions of a particular language; i.e., dialects usually perceived as varieties of a language and felt to be meaningless unless there is a language to which they can be said to belong.

1.3.2. Hudson's View

The terms language and dialect are, in fact, generally regarded as non-technical notions by scholars as the division between them is rather fuzzy, but in popular usage, laymen infer that these terms refer to actual entities that are obviously distinguishable. Hudson, in his analysis, has distinguished between the concepts in terms of size and

³ Idiolect refers to the individual's speech.

prestige. For this edifice, Hudson (1996:32) elucidates that “a variety called a language contains more items than one called a dialect”. He (idem) adds “whether some variety is called a language, or a dialect depends on how much prestige one thinks it has, and for most people this is a clear cut matter, which depends on whether it is used in formal writing”. According to him, language is larger in size and more prestigious than a dialect. Admittedly, this fact can be noticed, for instance, with most Algerian individuals who see Modern Standard Arabic as the most ‘prestigious’, ‘correct’ and ‘pure’ variety for religious, literary and cultural reasons, while their colloquial and regional dialects are regarded as ‘non-prestigious’, ‘general’ or ‘common’ dialects used for day-to-day interaction. The difference between the two varieties can be summarized in the table below:

Table01: Language Vs Dialect		
	Language	Dialect
Status	Super-ordinate/high	Subordinate/low (rustic form of language)
Formality and Use	Formal	Informal
Standardization	Standard/codified	Non-standard
Size	Language is larger than a dialect	
Prestige	Language is more prestigious than a dialect	

As a matter of fact, one may deduce that there are no universally accepted criteria to characterize language and to distinguish it from dialect. Although a number of rough measures exist, which sometimes render contradictory results, any distinction is therefore a subjective one. For avoiding all bias and prejudice in sociolinguistics studies, sociolinguists suggest the use of the neutral term 'variety' to refer to any identifiable kind of language as **"...it does not carry the usual implications associated with words like 'language' and 'dialect' and covers the most diverse situations"** as asserted by Duranti (1997:71). Holmes, in his part, says that the term variety **"is linguistically neutral and covers all the different realizations of the abstract concept 'language' in different social contexts"**. Those realizations, in general, can give our listeners clues about our origins, status and the social context, in particular, can reflect our speech.

2. Dialect Continuum

The concept **'*dialect continuum*'** means a chain of varieties in a certain geographical area. In other words, a set of dialects can be described in terms of dialect continuum. Those dialects, though may be separated by an isogloss, are mutually intelligible as shown in the figure below:

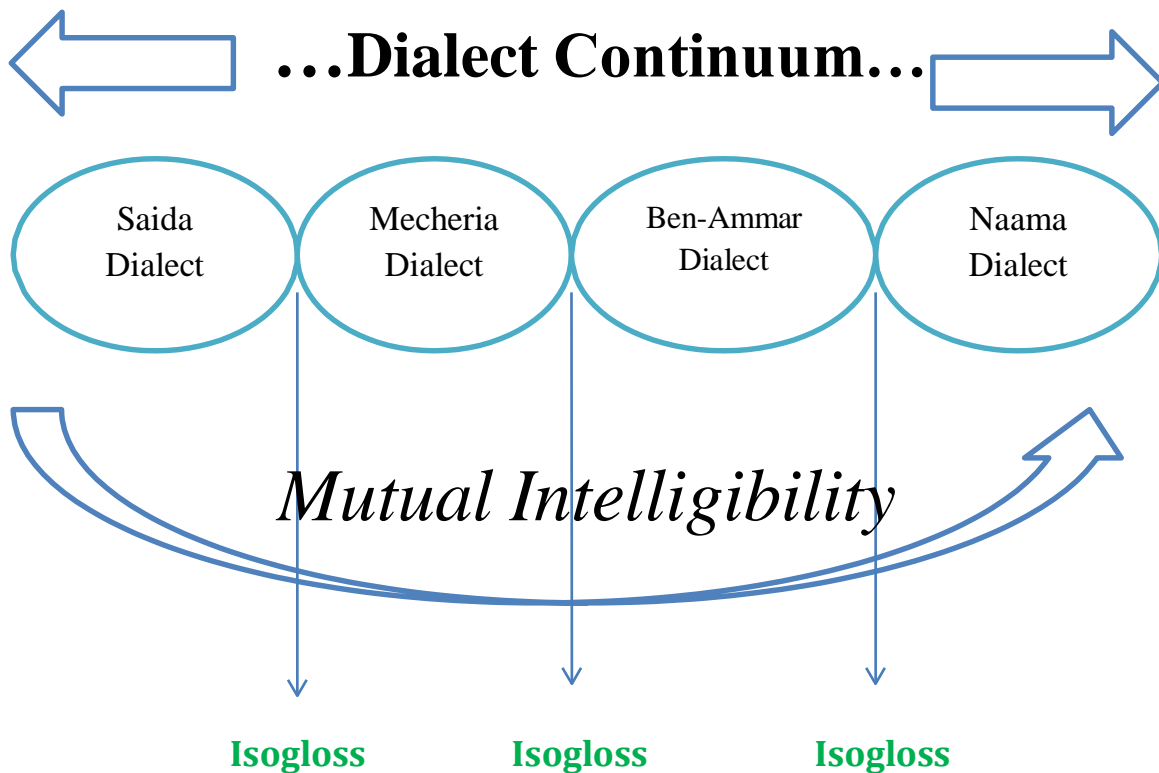


Figure 01: Distribution of dialects in terms of dialect continuum

Isogloss: a term that refers to the boundary lines that mark the areas in which certain dialect words are used. An isogloss can be a river, a mountain,...etc like *Djebel Antar* which separates between Mecheria and Ben Ammar. Speakers of both regions can understand each other; i.e.,there is a mutual intelligibility between them.

3. Speech Varieties (Regional and Social dialects)

Dialects can be either regional or social. Accordingly, Crystal (1997:114) argues that a dialect is “a regionally or socially distinctive variety of language”.

3.1. Regional Dialects

□ A regional dialect can be simply defined as a form of language spoken in a particular geographical area. In other words, it is a variety associated with a given regional place such as: Bechar dialect, Tlemcen dialect, Constantine or Algiers dialects, etc. All these are considered as regional dialects since each region has its own dialect and each dialect has its own characteristics as well. Dialects, in fact, tend to differ from one another the more distant and isolated they are geographically. They can be also called '*geographical dialects*'. For example, the phrase 'he said to me' is pronounced as /*Öalli*/ in Tlemcen, as: /*qalli* / in Algiers, /*galli* / in Bechar, or as /*kalli*/ in some other regions carrying various accents as in Ghazaouet speech community. At the lexical level, there are also many differences. The verb / *asri*/ / which means '*hurry up*' is termed as: / *zem*/ in Tlemcen, / **F awel**/ in Algiers, or /**zrab**/ in Naama speech community.

3.2. Social Dialects

Social dialects can be also called '*Sociolects*'. They are used to refer to variation in speech associated with various social groups or classes which are different from the regional ones. In this vein, Yule(1985:24) claims that that "**social dialects are varieties of language used by groups defined according to class, education, age, sex and a number of other social parameters**". Moreover, Wardhaugh (2006:49) suggests that social dialects "**are related to a variety of factors, the principal ones apparently being social class, religion, and ethnicity**". Apparently, sociolects refer to certain language varieties which are spoken by specific social groups. These social groups can be, in fact, conditioned by different social attributes such as: age, gender, social class, ethnicity, religion, occupation, education, and cultural background. In each region, a set of sociolects can be found. Students at the English

department use a specific social dialect different from that of students of the Islamic department. Within the same department, for instance, other groups can be formed in terms of gender [males Vs females], age [young Vs old], or social class [high, middle, low]. Furthermore, Hudson (1996:42) explains that **“a speaker may be more similar in language to people from the same social group in a different area than to people from a different social group in the same area”**. Regarding the two departments, English language students from Naama are more similar to English language students from Algiers rather than to students from the same region ‘Naama’ but of a different department like the Islamic one since they form two distinct social groups. To distinguish between the two dialects, Romaine (2000:2) points out that **“social dialects say who we are, and regional dialects where we come from”**.

4. Styles & Registers

Within a given dialect, one may have various styles and registers.

4.1. Styles

Different styles can be adopted depending on the setting: **formal** or **informal**, **careful** or **casual**. The level of formality can be associated with a set of factors such as: type of occasion, social differences, age, gender, writing, or speaking; though sometimes it may be hard to characterize different levels of style. For this edifice, Wardhaugh (2006:51) states that **“ceremonial occasions almost invariably require very formal speech, public lectures somewhat less formal, casual conversation quite informal, and conversations between intimates on matters of little importance may be extremely informal and casual”**.

4.2. Registers

Registers can be seen as sets of vocabulary items related to specific occupational or social groups such as: footballers, doctors, or policemen. They can be termed *“functional Varieties”*. Ferguson (1994:20) argues that **“People participating in recurrent communication situations tend to develop similar vocabularies and similar features of intonation”**. Besides, Crystal (1991:295) says that a register is **“a variety of language defined according to its use in social situations”**. That is to say, registers refer to varieties according to use in contrast to dialects which indicate varieties according to use. Strictly speaking, a dialect can show *“who (or what) we are”* whilst a register denotes *“what we are doing”*.

5. Jargon

Jargon is the language used by people who work in a particular area. It is associated with a given activity, group, or event. It can be the technical language, for instance, the language used in a specific profession such as: *medical jargon, nautical jargon, etc.*

6. Accent

Accent is a certain form of a language used by a subgroup of speakers and which is defined by phonological features. People, for example, can speak the same dialect but at the same time using different accents. All Algerians use Algerian Arabic as a dialect. Differences in pronunciation; however, reveal their different accents. In Oran, the uvular /q/ is pronounced as /g/ while as a glottal stop /ʔ/ in Tlemcen or as /K/ in Nedroma. These can be considered as three different accents. Accents are, in fact, distinguished in terms of pronunciation like the drop or use of /r/ as in RP accent of English.

7. Language Standardization

7.1. Language Standardization Definition

Language standardization is the process by which a vernacular in a community becomes the standard language form. This carries implicit elements of **prestige** (whereby the standard language is valued more highly than others), **stability**, and **common usage**. Alternative variations are either eliminated and/or stigmatized.

7.2. Steps of Language Standardization

Haugen (1964) suggests a four-stage model for the development of language standardization:

1/ Selection: A particular variety must have been selected as the one to be developed into a standard language. It may be an existing variety, such as the one used in an important political or commercial centre, or it could be an amalgam of various varieties. The choice is a matter of great social and political importance, as the chosen variety necessarily gains **prestige** and the people who already speak it share in this prestige, or it may be also the language of those with money, power, and influence within the community. In some cases, the selected variety has been one with no native speakers at all, for instance, **Classical Hebrew** in Israel.

2/ Codification: The selected variety has to be fixed by putting down grammar rules. Some agencies such as *an academy* must have written dictionaries and grammar books to 'fix' the variety

so that everyone agrees on what is correct. In this respect, Trudgill (1992:17) puts forward that codification is:

The process whereby a variety of language, often as part of a standardization process, acquires publicly recognized and fixed form, in which norms are laid down for 'correct' usage as far as grammar, vocabulary, spelling and maybe pronunciation are concerned[...] the results of codification are usually enshrined in dictionaries and grammar books, as well as, sometimes, in government publications.

3/ Elaboration of Function: It must be possible to use the selected variety in all the functions associated with central government and with writing: for example, in **Parliament** and **law courts**, in educational and scientific **documents** of all kinds and, of course, in various forms of **literature**. This may require extra linguistic items to be added to the variety; especially technical words, but it is also necessary to develop new conventions for using existing forms; i.e., how to formulate questions, how to write formal letters and so on.

4/Acceptance: The variety has to be accepted by the relevant population as the variety of the community-usually, in fact, as the national language. Once this happened, the standard language serves as a strong unifying force for the state, as a symbol of its **independence** of other states (assuming that its standard is unique and not shared with others), and as a marker of its difference from other states.

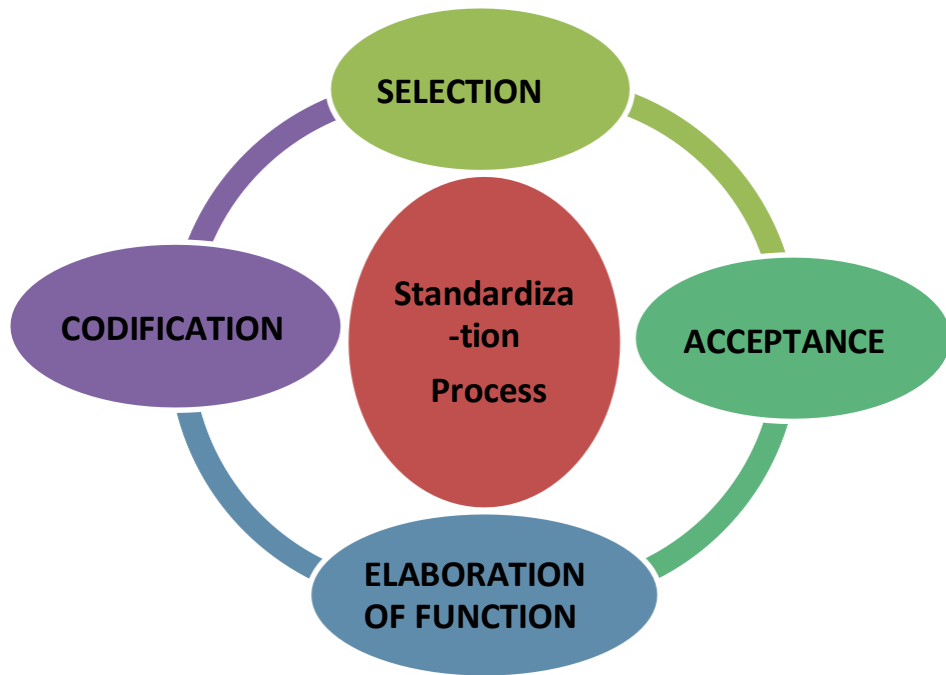


Figure 02: Steps of Standardization Process

8. Communicative Competence

8.1. Definition

The term 'communicative competence' was introduced by the American Anthropological linguist Dell Hymes (1971) by analogy with Chomsky's linguistic competence. Dell Hymes stresses on the idea that in addition to our knowledge of grammar, we need to be communicatively competent for successful communication. A language user should use language not only correctly but also appropriately. The expression //addama /llaho /aZrakom/, for example, cannot be used in a marriage.

Though the expression is correct grammatically, but the marriage is not its

appropriate social context. This is why, Hymes, in his well-known quotation (1972: 277) clarifies that,

[...] a normal child acquires knowledge of sentences not only as grammatical, but also as appropriate. He or she acquires competence as to when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner. In short, a child becomes able to accomplish a repertoire of speech acts, to take part in speech events, and to evaluate their accomplishment by others.

Communicative competence refers basically to how well someone is able to communicate with other. This simple idea is regarded as having three (03) essential steps which are:

- *Planning communication*: someone is able to **think** about communication.
- *Understanding how to communicate*: **When** to speak, **when not**, **where**, **where not**, and with **whom**?
- *Being able to communicate*: the **actual** process of **communication** **appropriately**.

8.1. Components of Communicative Competence

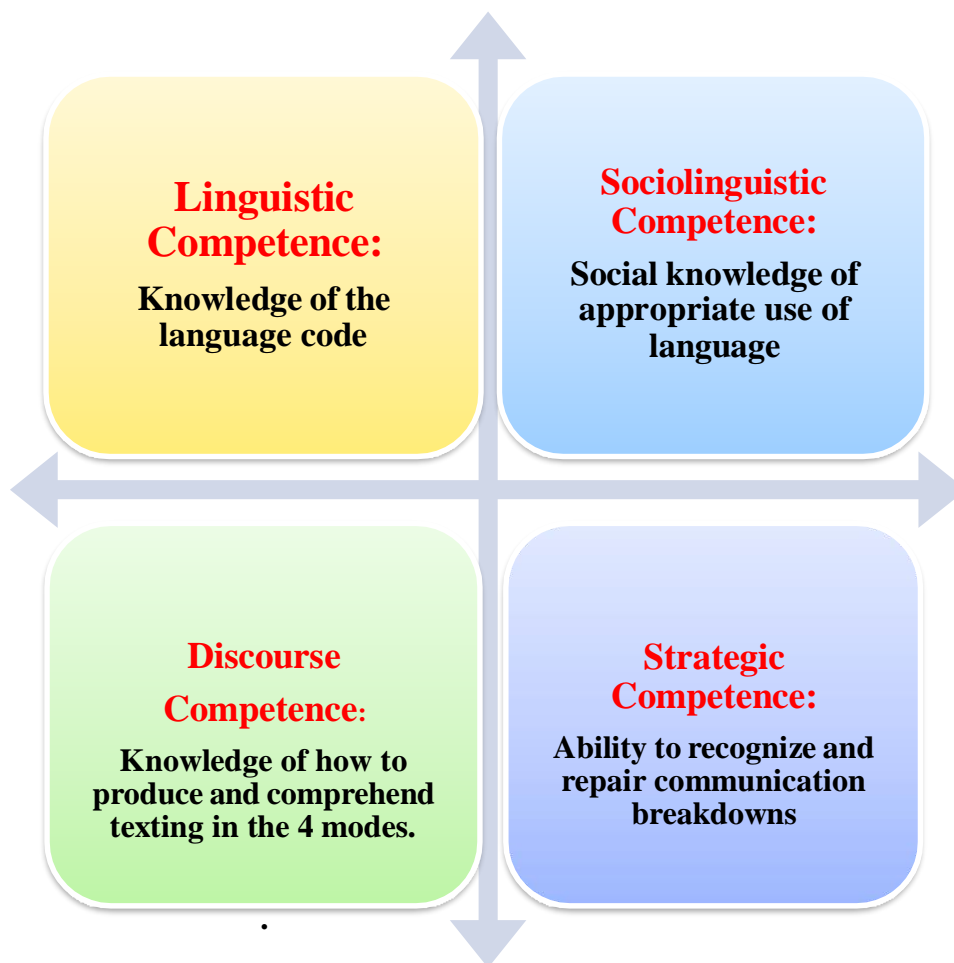
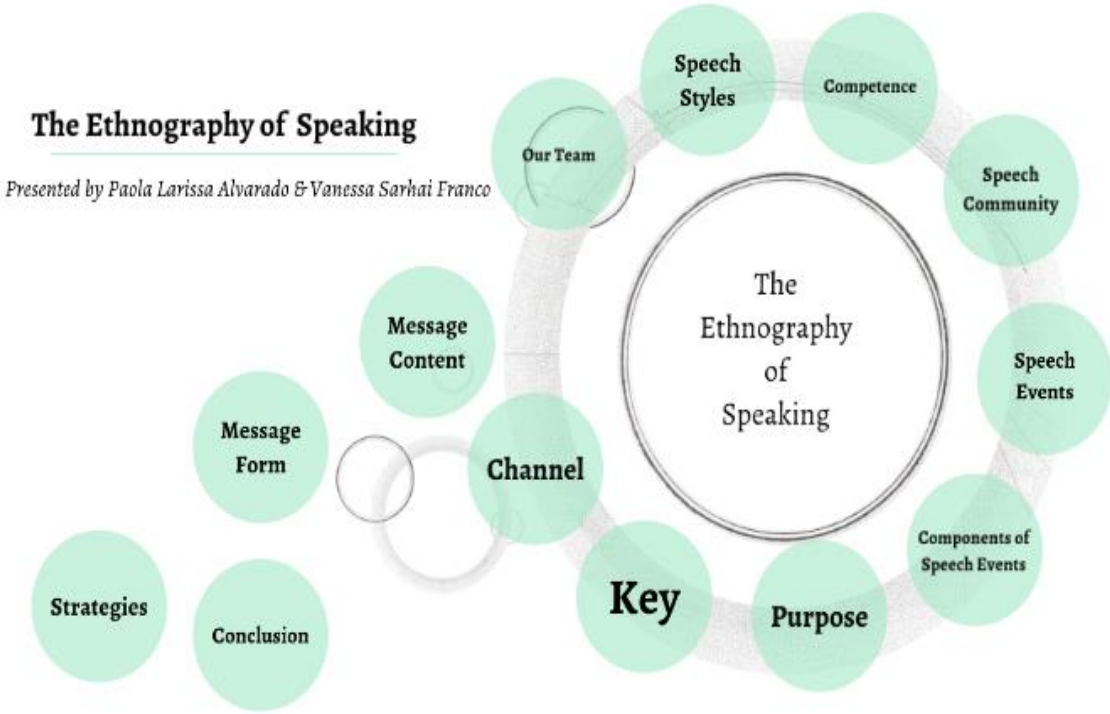


Figure 03: Components of Communicative Competence

8.2. Ethnography of Speaking

Dell Hymes (1974) proposed a prominent ethnographic framework in order to specify the ability of language use in appropriate ways and clarify more what is meant by a competent speaker. This frame work is known as: *'Ethnography of Speaking'* or *'Ethnography of Communication'*. Hymes' ethnography of speaking is, indeed, not just a

method but a coherent theoretical approach to language use. It attempts at analyzing the pragmatic aspects of communicative competence that show how language can be used in communication situations in order to achieve the speaker's purposes.



Hymes constructed the word SPEAKING as an acronym in which he explained the eight attributes or factors that are involved in speech events for the sake of achieving particular communicative objectives as follows:

-S- Setting and Scene

Setting refers to the time and place, that is; the physical circumstances in which speech may occur. The classroom, for instance, would be a setting for teacher-learners interaction. Scene implies the occasions and events where specific types of speech can be created. It demonstrates “**the abstract psychological setting, or the cultural definition of the occasion**” (Wardhaugh, 2006: 247). Speech employed at school is not the same as the speech used at home. Within a particular setting, however, participants are free to change scenes and therefore the speech used in one setting on that case depends on the actual scene or occasion. Teachers’ speech in the classroom, for example, may be varied from one level to another; from formal to informal or from serious to joyful depending on the occasion and the various types of activities done.

-P- Participants

Individuals may overlap distinct categories and roles within a conversation. It means that this factor may include numerous combinations either a sender-receiver, addressor-addressee, or a speaker- listener as it is the case of classroom interaction where the teacher plays the role of *the speaker* when asking a question and the pupil answering is considered as *the hearer/listener* while the rest of the class, although not participating in the communication, are *the audience* as they would also hear and exchange the information. Each participant, within this combination, includes specific personal characteristics such as: age, gender, social class, and relationship with each other.

-E- Ends

They imply the outcomes and the aims that the members of speech community seek to achieve at different scenes. They also refer to the conventions recognized with any occasion as well as to the personal goals. When presenting a lecture, the teacher has his own recognizable social ending view and each pupil within the session has his/her personal goal, too.

-A- Act sequence

It refers to the order of events which take place during the speech. It concerns the real way in which speech is employed, i.e., the form, order, as well as the content of different speech events' forms. Speech of the president, daily conversations, or classroom lectures each go with particular and diverse types of codes and topics selected to be tackled or discussed.

-K- Key

This term includes the manner, the tone of voice and even spirit of the way in which the message is conveyed. These keys can be either serious or mocking and sometimes can be marked through gestures used in certain kinds of behaviours.

-I- Instrumentalities

The sixth term denotes the choice of channel, the forms and styles of speech that can be either oral or written, language, dialect, code, or register. Numerous instrumentalities can be assembled in a single class and within a single topic.

-N- Norms of interaction and interpretation

Hymes speaks about the appropriate norms, properties, and even behaviours of interaction expected from the speaker. Speakers' actions and reactions should be socially acceptable in each event and then may vary from one social group to another.

-G- Genre

The last factor means type of event, to which speech can belong: a poem, a proverb, a sermon, or a lecture.

UNIT THREE :

Language and Variation

1. Language Variation

Language variation is one of the main areas of investigation in the field of sociolinguistics. Accordingly, Chambers (2003:13) says that “though linguistic variation may be obvious, no linguists analyzed it systematically until the inception of sociolinguistics in 1960’s”.

Learners usually confused between the use of the terms ‘language variation’ and ‘language variety’. They are, in fact, two distinct concepts and they cannot be used interchangeably. The former refers to the notion that language varies from one region to another, from one situation to another, from one person to another, and from one topic to another as well. It can be labeled also *‘language variability’*. Language is, indeed, not homogeneous. It changes in correlation to a set of social variables such as: age, gender, level of education, and occupation. The latter, however, can be used to cover all different varieties or sub-categories of language like: a dialect, a register, a jargon, or an idiolect. A person from Oran, for instance, does not behave linguistically in the same way as another one from Tlemcen. In Oran, people say /qara·/ and /· awala/ which mean ‘wait’ and /what/ successively whereas Tlemcenians say /senna/ and /· asm/. In addition to that, in the same speech community, a lot of differences may be noticed because of the co-existence of distinct social groups.

Studies on language variation started in the 1960’s with Labov’s surveys on Martha’s Vineyard (1965) and New York study (1966) in which he found many phonological differences among people of different ages and gender.

2. Language and age

Age plays a prominent role in variation. Young people speak differently from adults. This can be interpreted in the phenomenon of age grading which explains speech suitable to age.

Three principles have influenced language and age-related research:

- 1- Ageing⁴ can be understood only in dynamic terms. The aging process cannot be separated from the social, cultural, and historical changes that surround it. People do not grow up and old in laboratories. Therefore, we must learn how different age cohorts and how society itself is changed by these differences.
- 2- Ageing can be understood only from the perspective of its socio-culturally patterned variability, both within a society and across societies.
- 3- Ageing can be understood only within the framework of the total life course. People do not begin to age at any specific point in life. Rather, ageing occurs from birth (or earlier) up until death. And within the total society, people of all ages are interdependent.

(Kertzer and Keith 1984 : 8)⁵.

⁴ Involves surveying the differences between the speech of people of different ages. (Chambers and Trudgill 2004:151).

⁵ Murphy, B (2010 :1-2)

Labovian paradigm affirms that age is a sociolinguistic factor that affects our language. The old generation is more conservative than the young one. Youngers use some terms that cannot be sometimes understood by elders. These terms are mainly related to technology development as appeared in the following examples⁶:

- /Mabriizi/: it means 'I am fedup'. In spite of the existence of its equivalent in Algerian Arabic, it has widely spread in adolescent language, taken from the Algerian recent "Rai" song «rani mabriizi».
- /argaaz/ and /google/: are addressed to people who are so clever and attentive.
- /zastafa/: this word is used firstly to denote a means of transport (an ancient car in Algeria). Now, it is used in Algerian Arabic to refer to people who walk very slowly.
- /bel tof/ and /kwa de nef/: these expressions are mainly used in facebook's interactions. The first means "beautiful photo" while the latter means "What are the news?"
- /orcho/ or /makaanch rrizo/: from the French word "hors champs" and "pas de réseau" respectively. These words are associated with mobiles interactions. Yet, today they carry a different meaning in adolescent language. They mean: "I am out".

⁶ Examples taken from Bagui (2014: 87).

- /artist/, /annuuch/, /habba/, /fiim/, /intiik/, or /bogoos/: to mean “handsom”. They replace the Algerian word: /baab/. Variation in speech can be also affected by gender.

3. Language and Gender

Language use in correlation to gender has attracted many sociolinguists’ attention since males and females are biologically and socially different. The use of the adverb ‘biologically’ here is connected more with the term “sex” while the adverb ‘socially’ is related to gender. In this respect, Wardhaugh (2006:315) states that “sex is to a very large extent biologically determined whereas gender is a social construct involving the whole gamunt of genetic, psychological, social, and cultural differences between males and females”.

Labov socio-phonological surveys show that, in higher classes, women use more standard variants than men. Gender is, consequently, considered as an effective factor in language variation where Labov (1990:214) asserts that,

Women [...] are said to be more expressive than men or use expressive symbols more than men or rely more on such symbols to assert their position, and women are said to be rely more on symbolic capital than men because they express less material power.

Moreover, Trudgill, in his study of Norwich (1972), analyzed the factors behind men’s and women’s speech differences. He explains that men are judged according to their work while woman to their appearance. This is why, he (ibid: 91) declares that,

The social position of women in our society is less secure than that of men [...]. It may be [...] that it is more necessary for women to secure and signal their social status linguistically.

The use of more standard forms by women in comparison to men has been interpreted in various ways. **“Very often it is seen as indicating women’s greater sensitivity to what is considered standard and non-standard”** (Meyerhoff, 2006: 208). Broadly speaking, women seem to be more prestigious in language than men. They commonly use expressions such as “s’ il te plait”, / allah jxallik/,

· / allah ja afdak/ whereas men’s speech may contain many vulgar words (taboo words, cursing...) instead. Women tend to use frequently tag questions and more standard forms. According to them, they show their feminism via the code used.

Activity One: *Are the statements True or False?*

1. The terms **language variation** and **language variety** refer to the same concept and can be used interchangeably.
2. Language variation correlates with social variables such as age, gender, level of education, and occupation.
3. William Labov's 1960s studies (Martha's Vineyard, New York) revealed phonological differences linked to age and gender.
4. The adolescent Algerian term **mabriizi** is used to mean "I am fed up."
5. Labov's research indicates that, in higher social classes, women use more non-standard language variants than men.
6. Sociolects (social dialects) are associated with variables such as class, education, age, gender and occupation.
7. Registers and jargon are exact synonyms and can always be used interchangeably.
8. A dialect continuum describes geographically adjacent varieties that are generally mutually intelligible with neighbouring varieties.

Activity Two: Match each term with its appropriate definitions

Terms	Definitions / Examples
Dialect	The process of fixing grammar rules, dictionaries and norms to create a standard variety.
Register	Vocabulary and expressions specific to an occupation or activity (e.g., medical terms).
Jargon	An individual speaker's unique language use (personal variety)
Sociolect	A variety defined by use in particular social/professional contexts (e.g., academic, legal).
Dialect continuum	A geographical chain of varieties where neighbouring varieties are mutually intelligible.
Isogloss	Pronunciation features that distinguish a speaker's speech (e.g., vowel quality, loss of /r/).
Accent	A boundary line separating areas where particular linguistic features are used.
Codification	A sub-variety of a language differing in grammar, phonology and lexicon.
Communicative competence	A variety associated with a social group (class, age, gender, occupation).
Idiolect	The ability to use language appropriately and effectively in social contexts.

Activity Tree:

1. How do youth-driven lexical innovations (examples from the unit) spread and become accepted or rejected across generations? Discuss mechanisms (peer networks, media, prestige) and classroom implications for teaching contemporary vocabulary.
2. Considering Labov and Trudgill, why might women favour more standard variants in certain contexts? Discuss sociolinguistic explanations and implications for classroom language models and assessment.
3. Propose a simple classroom study to test whether students of different ages in the same university adopt different registers or slang. State participants, instruments (e.g., short recorded interviews, lexical checklist), and one ethical consideration.
4. Should an ESP syllabus prioritise the standard language, regional varieties, or both? Justify your position and give two concrete classroom activities that reflect your choice.
5. Discuss the role of social media and online platforms in accelerating language variation (neologisms, borrowings). How should language teachers address rapid digital-driven change while maintaining communicative and pedagogical goals?

Correction of Activity One

1. The terms **language variation** and **language variety** refer to the same concept and can be used interchangeably. **False**
2. Language variation correlates with social variables such as age, gender, level of education, and occupation. **True**
3. William Labov's 1960s studies (Martha's Vineyard, New York) revealed phonological differences. **True**
4. The adolescent Algerian term **mabriizi** is used to mean "I am fed up." **True**
5. Labov's research indicates that, in higher social classes, women use more non-standard language variants than men. **False**
6. Sociolects (social dialects) are associated with variables such as class, education, age, gender and occupation. **True**
7. Registers and jargon are exact synonyms and can always be used interchangeably. **False**
8. A dialect continuum describes geographically adjacent varieties that are generally mutually intelligible with neighbouring varieties. **True**

Correction of Activity Two

Terms	Definitions / Examples
Dialect	The process of fixing grammar rules, dictionaries and norms to create a standard variety.
Register	Vocabulary and expressions specific to an occupation or activity (e.g., medical terms).
Jargon	An individual speaker's unique language use (personal variety)
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Communicative competence	A variety associated with a social group (class, age, gender, occupation).
Idiolect	The ability to use language appropriately and effectively in social contexts.

UNIT FOUR
Language Contact

1. Diglossia

1.1. Classical Diglossia

The term diglossia is an important sociolinguistic phenomenon which takes a big part of linguists' interest. It was introduced to English literature on sociolinguistics by the American linguist Charles Ferguson (1959) in an article called «Word» which is now regarded as the classic reference. Diglossia refers to a situation where two varieties (High and Low) of the same language co-exist and which show clear functional separation. That is to say, one variety is employed in one set of circumstances and the other one in entirely different set.

- **“High” variety** = prestige language (public language) in a **formal** settings.
- **“Low” variety** = non-prestige (“home language”) in **informal** contexts.

Ferguson (1959:245) defines diglossia as:

a relatively stable situation in which in addition to the primary dialects of the language (which may include standard or regional standards), there is a very divergent, highly codified (often more grammatically complex) superposed variety, the vehicle of a large and respected body of written literature, either of an earlier period or in another speech community, which is learned largely by formal education and is used for most written and formal spoken purposes but is not used by any sector of the community for ordinary conversation.

In his article, Ferguson identifies four language situations which show the major characteristics of the diglossic phenomenon: Arabic, Modern Greek, Swiss German and French based Haitian Creole:

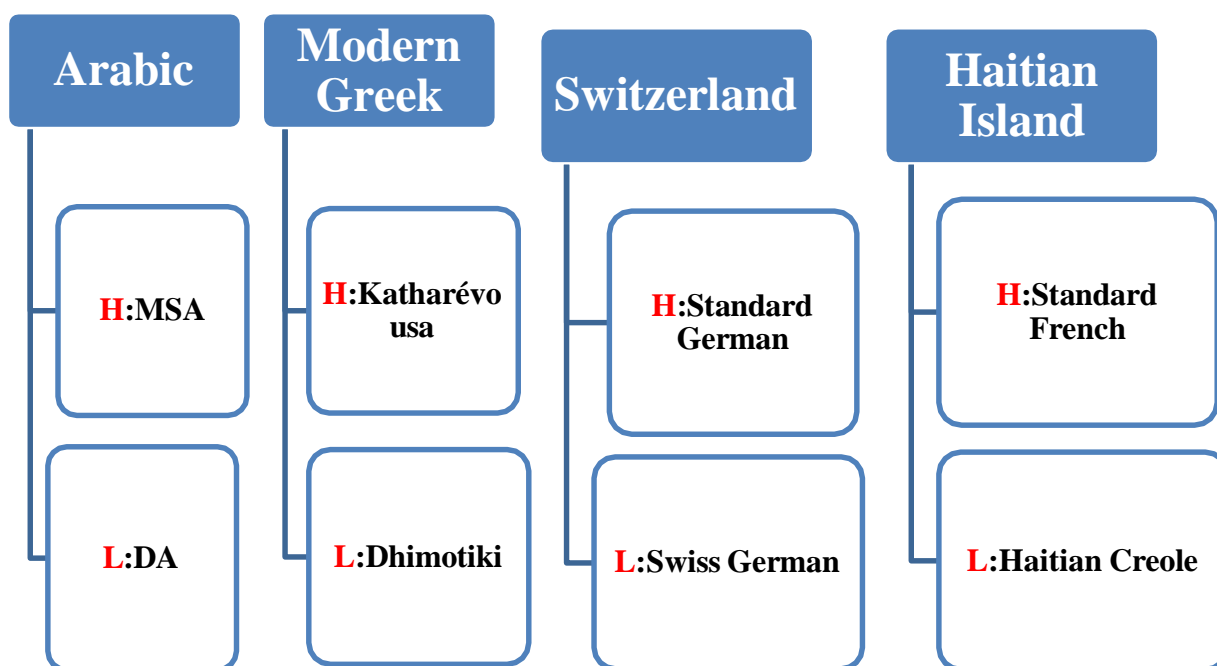


Figure 04: Fergusonian Diglossic Language Situations

Ferguson's theory is multidimensional in the sense that it considers a diversity of criteria. It compares the H and L in terms of nine separate linguistic and social characteristics. In this line of thought, Romaine (1994:46) stresses that there is a considerable difference between H and L:

The high and low varieties differ not only in grammar, phonology, and vocabulary, but also with respect to a number of social characteristics namely: function, prestige, literary heritage, acquisition, standardization and stability.

- ❖ **Function:** it refers to the use of one variety in a given social situation and not the other; in a public meeting, for example, only H is appropriate whereas in family, friends and colleagues conversation L is fittingly used. The H variety is, therefore, more elegant and formal, and is used in more public and official domains as: sermon and news broadcast while the L variety is the medium of interaction between friends and family members. Ferguson (1959) displays that “...one of the most important features of diglossia is the specialization of function of H and L” (in Giglioli, 1972:235). He exemplifies the use of al-Fusha, the H variety for Arabic, in mosque, as opposed to al-Ammiyya, the L variety, which is never used where only H is appropriate.

- ❖ **Prestige:** As far as prestige is concerned, H is somehow more beautiful, more logical, better able to express important thoughts and the like (Huebner, 1996: 29). H has greater prestige than L and is often regarded as more aesthetic, even if it is less intelligible. It is generally associated with a body of important literature and carries with it the prestige of a great tradition or religion. It is more stable, being protected from change by its association with writing. L is, on the other hand, underestimated and often negatively valued.

- ❖ **Literary Heritage:** In most diglossic languages, literature is written in the H variety except what is called folk poetry, which is written and said in the colloquial form of the language. Traditional poetry in ancient eras was written and introduced in H variety.

- ❖ **Acquisition:** H and L are also distinct at the level of language acquisition. The L variety is learned by children and adults without instruction while H is chiefly accomplished by means of formal education. That is, the L variety, the mother tongue, is acquired normally and subconsciously whereas the H variety is learnt through schooling.

- ❖ **Standardization:** The H variety is of course codified and thus standard; i.e., there are grammar books, dictionaries, treatises on pronunciation, styles, and so forth of the H variety whereas the low one is non-standard.

- ❖ **Stability:** Diglossia is a typically stable phenomenon. It persists for centuries and the two varieties last in complementary distribution.

- ❖ **Grammar:** Grammar is one of the most striking differences between H and L varieties. Linguists agree that the H variety has grammatical categories not present in the L variety and an inflectional system of nouns and verbs which is much simpler or totally absent in the L variety. For example; in H there are many complex tenses and rules to follow, but in L we use simple phrases without paying attention to the tense or the grammatical structure.

- ❖ **Lexicon:** Lexis is also different. The dimension of vocabulary of H and L forms is equal but with variation in form and differences in use and meaning. The H form contains some technical terms and learned expressions that do not have their regular equivalents in L, and the L form consists of some expressions and names of homely objects that do not exist in the other form. Moreover, many pairs of words may occur, referring to common objects or concepts, where the meaning is roughly the same.

- ❖ **Phonology:** The phonological system of H and L are slightly different. There might be some sounds present in H and totally absent in L and vice versa. As illustrative example from Arabic would be the phoneme /q/ that can be pronounced as /g/, /q /, or /k/ depending on the region.

Ferguson's definition to diglossia, however, seems to be a simple suggestion that has lacked afterwards clarity. Ferguson, in fact, himself has acknowledged the weak points in a more recent article which he has entitled "*Diglossia Revisited*" (1991) where although he gave new supports to his original article, but he specified that "**his definition for diglossia was putative**" (Freeman, 1996).

1.2. Extended Diglossia

Later on, the linguist J.A, Fishman (1967) proposed an extended version of diglossia. He claims that the term diglossia **“can be extended to include situations where two different languages not language varieties occupy the H and L”**. Fishman refers to Paraguay as an example where Spanish is the H variety used in education and government, and Guarani, an Indian language totally unrelated to Spanish, is the vernacular spoken mainly in the villages and used in cities as a mark of informality.

1.3. Triglossia

- Situations including three languages (MKIFILI,A : 1978)
 - The example of **TANZANIA.**

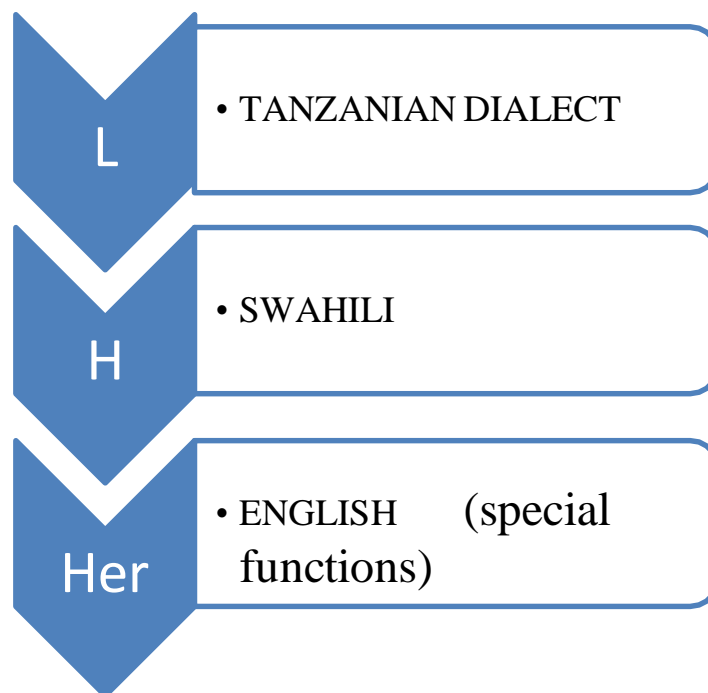


Figure 05: Triglossic Situation in Tanzania

1.4. Polyglossia

- Situations including numerous languages (PLATT, 1977)
 - The case of **MALAYSIA**

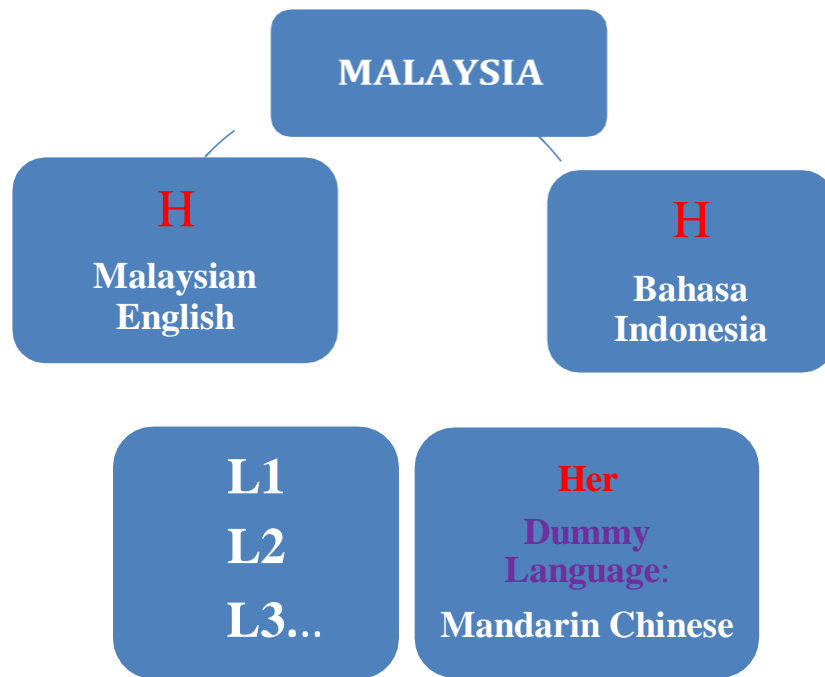


Figure 06: Polyglossic Situation in Malaysia

2. Bilingualism & Multilingualism

Bilingualism refers to the ability of using two or more codes alternatively in day-to-day interaction. The notion of use, here, means that a bilingual is an individual who has a linguistic competence in two languages or more. It has been suggested that the term bilingualism is used to refer to individuals even if they speak more than two languages whereas the term multilingualism indicates multilingual nations/societies using two languages or more.

2.1. Descriptors of Bilingualism

The five main issues which are important variables in relation to bilingualism are:

- ❖ Descriptors which refer to **the degree of bilingualism**
- ❖ Descriptors which refer to **the context of bilingual language acquisition**
- ❖ Descriptors which refer to **age of acquisition**
- ❖ Descriptors which refer to **the domain of use**
- ❖ Descriptors which refer to **social orientation**

2.2. Types of Bilinguals

- ❖ **Balanced Bilingual:** Someone who is highly proficient in both languages.
- ❖ **Unbalanced or Dominant Bilingual:** A person being more proficient in one of the two languages (in most cases native-like).
- ❖ **Passive or Recessive Bilingual:** A person who is a native speaker in one and is capable of understanding but not speaking the second language.
- ❖ **Active bilingualism:** the productive use of both languages.
- ❖ **Semi-linguals or limited bilinguals:** A person with insufficient knowledge of either language.

There are other types of bilingualism which are related to the context and age of acquisition as presented in the following figures



Compound Bilingualism

When the person learns the two languages in the same context where they are used concurrently, so that there is a fused representation of the languages in the brain. This is the case when a child is brought up by bilingual parents, or those from two different linguistic backgrounds.



Coordinate Bilingualism

In this type, the person learns the languages in separate environments, and words of the two languages are kept separate with each word having its own specific meaning.

Figure 07: Types of Bilingualism in relation to context of acquisition

Figure 08: Types of Bilingualism in relation to age of acquisition

• Exposed to both languages before adolescence

Early Bilingualism

• Acquired the second language after adolescence

Late Bilingualism

3. Code Switching

Code switching is a type of discourse that occurs as a natural outcome of language contact and an inevitable consequence of bilingualism. Gumperz (1982:59) defines this phenomenon as “**the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems**”. Anyone who speaks more than one code, he/she certainly switches between them or mixes them according to certain circumstances.

Code switching can occur in a monolingual community or in a plurilingual speech collectivity. In monolingual contexts, code switching is classified as being *‘internal’*, as the switch occurs between different varieties of the same language. In a multilingual community, the switch is between two or more linguistic systems. This is referred to as *‘external’* code switching.

3.1. Structural aspects of Code Switching

This approach attempts to answer questions beginning with the word ‘what’ taking code switching as a product (Muller and Ball: 2005). It endeavours to explore the grammatical constraints which restrict switching between two codes and describe the grammatical aspects of one's speech.

3.1.1. Poplack *‘Linear Order Constraint’*

Poplack (1980) proposes two major constraints: *‘the free morpheme constraint’* and *‘the equivalence constraint’*.

- ✚ **The Free Morpheme Constraint:** The free morpheme constraint prohibits switching between a lexical item and a bound morpheme.

In support of the free morpheme constraint, the following example can be mentioned: / eat-*iendo* /. This word contains the English root 'eat' and the Spanish bound morpheme '-iendo', meaning (-ing). According to Poplack, this switching is not permissible and cannot occur in bilingual speech because of the existence of a bound morpheme.

- ✚ **The Equivalence Constraint:** Switches, in the equivalence constraint, from one code to another do not violate a syntactic rule of either language. This constraint emphasizes that the switch is almost likely to occur where the two codes share the same word order.

Examples:

/ I like you <i>porque eres simpatico</i> /	} Allowed as they obey the syntactic rules of both English and Spanish
' I like you because you are nice'	
/ I told him that <i>pa'que la trajera ligero</i> /	
' I told him so that he would bring it fast'	

Poplack (1980) identifies three significant types of code switching as illustrated in the examples below: (French italicized)

✚ **Intra-Sentential Switching:** involves switching within the clause or sentence boundary as in:

➤ **Rani maḥi** *la mairie* **nxarrādj ha** *les papiers* **bāh** *inscri*
(I am going to the town hall to get some papers to enroll).

➤ **Rani maḥi** *l stade* **kajen** *match*.
(I am going to the stadium, there is a match).

✚ **Inter-sentential switching:** where the switch occurs at sentence and/or clause boundary. Users of this type are fluent speakers in both languages unlike the two other types. It can be used just by educated people. Consider the following example:

➤ Hadi sa·taj·n wana m·a *la révision et enfin je n'ai*
compris rien que le titre.

(It is more than two hours I am revising and I have understood nothing only the title).

✚ **Extra-sentential Switching:** refers to the insertion of a tag or a ready-made expression as in the following instances:

➤ Riha ta· wi *n'est-ce pas ?* (She is very nice, isn't she?).

➤ ri hadi *c'est déjà beaucoup* (just this, It's enough).

3.1.2. Myers' Matrix Language Frame Model

In 1993, Carol Myers-Scotton developed a theoretical model called the *Matrix Language Frame Model* (or MLF). It is currently one of the most influential models “to account for the structures in intra-sentential code switching” (1993a:5). Therefore, her MLF model is based on the notion that there is a hierarchical and asymmetrical relation between language pairs in code switching. The model, in fact, includes two major hierarchies. The first one is the Matrix language (ML). ML is the dominant language and is “is responsible for constructing the morpho-syntactic order of the CS sentences. The second one is the Embedded Language which has a limited role in code switching.

Under the MLF model, there can be three constituents explained by Myers Scotton (1997:221):

- 1) Mixed constituents (ML+ EL constituents) contain content morphemes from both the ML and the EL, but have a grammatical frame from the ML.
- 2) Similarly, ML islands have a ML grammatical frame but all morphemes come from the ML.
- 3) EL islands are morphemes coming from EL and framed by its grammar.

3.2. The Sociolinguistic Approach to Code Switching

The role of sociolinguistic studies is to answer the broad general question: “*why do bilinguals switch languages?*”. In other terms, sociolinguistic research deals with CS as a process.

This approach identifies two types of code switching:

3.2.1. Situational Code Switching: It depends on the situation, i.e. the language used in formal situation is different from the one used in informal one. It is very clear that, for many parts, the social context defines the linguistic choice, and such a choice is controlled by social rules that have been become integrated part of the daily linguistic behaviour of individuals as a result of experience.

3.2.2. Metaphorical Code Switching: It occurs according to changes in topic rather than the social situation. Here, it is “**the choice of language that determines the situation**” (Hudson, 1996:53). Metaphorical switching is then topic-related.

Conversational Code Switching was added to code switching terminology to describe functions. This type of switching takes place in random way and does not consider the context in which it may occur but rather the structure of utterances. In a stretch of speech between bilinguals, for instance, it is not surprising that speakers start with one language then adopt few words from the other then go back to the first for a few more words and so forth.

4. Code Choice

4.1. Myers Scotton “Markedness Model”

- To incorporate the macro and micro perspectives. **(Myers, 1993b)**
- To clarify the social indexical **motivations** for CS.
- Myers Scotton lists **three maxims** of code choice:
 - ❖ **‘Unmarked Choices’**: are **expected** and do not produce any special effect.
 - ❖ **‘Marked Choices’**: are “**unusual, un-expected** and encode the speaker's social disapproval”.
 - ❖ **‘Exploratory Choices’**: assigned to “**explore** or to **negotiate** the unmarked choice between interlocutors when the choice of code is not clearly apparent”⁷.

4.2. Factors Influencing Language Choice

The selection of one code rather than the other is clearly related to certain reasons and different situations. These reasons and situations can be obviously noticed in the next figure:

⁷ (Smith, D.J. 2002:5).

FACTORS INFLUENCING LANGUAGE CHOICE	
<i>Participants</i>	<i>Situation</i>
Language proficiency	Location/Setting
Language preference	Presence of
monolinguals	
Socioeconomic status	Degree of formality
Age	Degree of intimacy
Sex	
Occupation	<i>Content of Discourse</i>
Education	
Ethnic Background	Topic
History of speakers' linguistic interaction	Type of vocabulary
Kinship relation	
Intimacy	<i>Function of Interaction</i>
Power relation	
Attitude toward languages	To raise status
Outside pressure	To create social
distance	

Figure 09: Grosjean's List on Factors Influencing Language Choice⁸

5. Code Mixing Vs Code Switching

Code mixing and code switching refer to the use of two different codes. What must be noted is that code mixing, in reality, is one type of the phenomenon of code switching as a whole. The difference between the two concepts can be summarized in this table:

⁸ Mentioned in Boztepe (2008 :17)

Code Switching	Code Mixing
On purpose	In a spontaneous way
At sentence boundary	Within sentence boundary
Dominated by two or more languages	Dominated by one language
By balanced bilinguals (perfect/educated)	By unbalanced bilinguals (uneducated).

Figure 10: Code Switching Vs Code Mixing

Activity One: Read each statement and mark **True (T)** or **False (F)**

1. Diglossia describes a stable situation in which two varieties (High and Low) of the same language coexist with clear functional separation.
2. In classical diglossia the High (H) variety is typically acquired naturally in childhood without formal instruction.
3. Ferguson listed Arabic, Modern Greek, Swiss German and Haitian Creole as classic examples illustrating diglossic situations.
4. One characteristic that distinguishes H from L is that H usually carries greater literary heritage and prestige.
5. Fishman's "extended diglossia" can include cases where the H and L are actually different languages (not just varieties).
6. Triglossia refers to situations where three languages or varieties occupy distinct functional roles.
7. Polyglossia refers to contexts with only two coexisting varieties.
8. Balanced bilinguals are people who are highly proficient and roughly equal in two languages.
9. A passive (recessive) bilingual can understand a second language but typically cannot speak it fluently.
10. Compound bilingualism arises when the two languages are learned in separate environments so their lexical systems remain distinct.
11. Coordinate bilingualism results when the person learns two languages in the same context with a fused mental representation.
12. Code-switching always occurs only at sentence boundaries.
13. Intra-sentential switching takes place within a single clause or sentence.
14. Extra-sentential switching may involve insertion of a tag or fixed expression from another language.
15. Poplack's Free-Morpheme Constraint prohibits switches that break between a lexical root and a bound morpheme (e.g., *eat-iendo*).

16. The Equivalence Constraint predicts that switches are more likely where the surface word order of both languages is compatible.
17. Myers-Scotton's Matrix Language Frame model assigns the morpho-syntactic frame of a mixed utterance to the Matrix Language (ML).
18. In the sociolinguistic approach, situational code-switching depends on topic changes rather than on the social situation.
19. Myers-Scotton's Markedness Model distinguishes unmarked, marked and exploratory choices as motivations for code choice.
20. Code mixing is typically dominated by one language and often occurs spontaneously within clauses.

Activity Two: answer the questions in full sentences. (Use examples where requested)

1. Define **diglossia** and list three distinguishing features that separate the High (H) and Low (L) varieties.
2. Explain Ferguson's original account of diglossia and give two classic language examples he used.
3. What is Fishman's "extended diglossia"? Provide one real-world example where H and L are different languages.
4. Differentiate **triglossia** and **polyglossia** with one example for each.
5. Define **bilingualism** and distinguish between "balanced bilingual" and "dominant (unbalanced) bilingual."
6. Compare **compound** and **coordinate** bilingualism: how does acquisition context affect mental representation of languages?
7. Describe the three main types of **code-switching** (intra-sentential, inter-sentential, extra-sentential) and give one short example for each.
8. State Poplack's Free Morpheme Constraint and Equivalence Constraint and illustrate each with a short constructed example.

9. Summarize Myers-Scotton's Matrix Language Frame (MLF) model: what is the Matrix Language and what role does it play in mixed utterances?
10. Explain the difference between **code-mixing** and **code-switching** (form and sociolinguistic profile).
11. List five social or contextual factors that influence language choice (code choice) and give a classroom-relevant instance for two of them.
12. Discuss two pedagogical implications of diglossia and code-switching for language teaching (how should teachers respond in the classroom?)

UNIT FIVE

Language Attitudes

1. Language Attitudes: A General Overview

Social psychologists were the first to cope with language attitudes during the late 1950's. The study of language attitudes has been recognized in the branch of sociolinguistics in the mid- 1960's. Language attitude is one of the most important topics in the social psychology of language and one of the central factors that provides a 'reality touch' in understanding the nature of language use and in engendering linguistic variation which may, therefore, lead to language change.

The concept of language attitude can be defined as evaluations of ideas, events, objects or people. It is used broadly to mean **“any affective, cognitive or behavioural index of evaluation reactions toward different language varieties and their speakers”** Ryan *et al* (1982:7)⁹. The way a person reacts to his/her surroundings is called: his/her attitude. Attitudes are generally positive or negative. People, in general, show their evaluation of situations through their reactions in different ways: agreeing or disagreeing with the situation, liking or disliking it.

Allport (1954) argues that attitude is the primary building stone in the edifice of social psychology. Conner & Armitage (1998), in their turn, express that the attitude component is a function of a person's salient behavioural belief which represents perceived outcomes or attributes of the behaviour. It can be simply said that an attitude is an umbrella expression covering feelings, emotions, preferences, judgments as well as opinions (Bagozzi, 1994a).

⁹ Quoted in Dendane (2007 : 258).

Daily speech interactions may have a set of different language varieties. Speakers, on their turn, may have different attitudes towards these surrounding varieties. Such attitudes, as Trudgill (1992:44) points out, “**may range from very favourable to very unfavourable, and may be manifested in subjective judgments about the ‘correctness’, worth, and aesthetic qualities of varieties, as well as about the personal qualities of their speakers”**”.

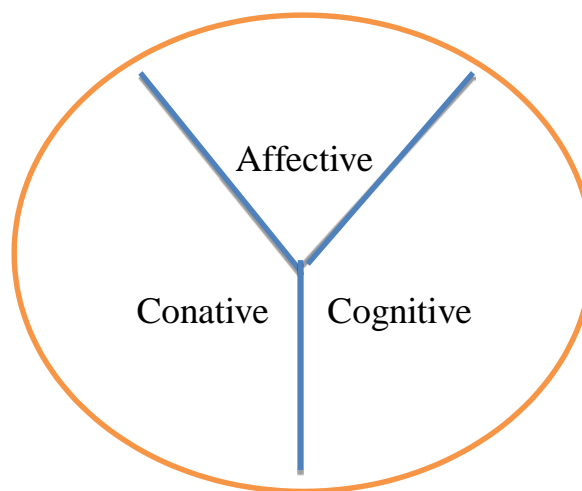
Attitudes may also fluctuate from one’s level of education and personality traits to another. Students from the Islamic Department, for instance, and others from the English Department could have different attitudes towards MSA and English. Regarding the first group, the majority of them may give positive evaluation of MSA and negative or neutral claims towards English on the one hand. The second group, on the other hand, may favour English. Teachers, in their turn, may have divergent linguistic behaviours. Consequently, it can be said that language attitudes are the feelings people have about their own language varieties or languages or language varieties of others. Overwhelmingly, this concept has been differently acknowledged. All definitions highlight that every attitude has three components which are represented in what is called: the ***‘ABC Model of Attitude’***; ***A*** for affective or *affectively-based attitude*, ***B*** for behavioural or *behaviourally-based attitude*, ***C*** for cognitive or *cognitively-based attitude*.

1.1. The affective element: is an emotional component; representing the individual’s feelings towards the object in question. This type ‘A’ is used to express and validate our moral beliefs or value systems.

1.2. The behavioural element: is the action component and a reaction to that object, i.e., the way one behave when exposed to an attitude object.

1.3. The cognitive element: is a mental component that refers to the knowledge of this specific object.

In this line of thought, Schiffman & Kanuk (2004) suggest that attitudes are constructed around three components in what is called *CAC Model* in which they labeled the second component, i.e., **B** component as the *Conative component* as it is shown in the following chart:



CAC Model

Many theories have developed to explain the nature of language attitudes. The behaviourist view defines attitude straightforwardly as single units that can be observed directly from people's responses to social stimuli. Nevertheless, the mentalist view considers attitude as **"a mental or neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related¹⁰"**. Generally speaking, attitudes are regarded as internal units located in the human mind; i.e., consist of a three component model as it is shown in the figure below:

¹⁰ Baker, 1992 :11

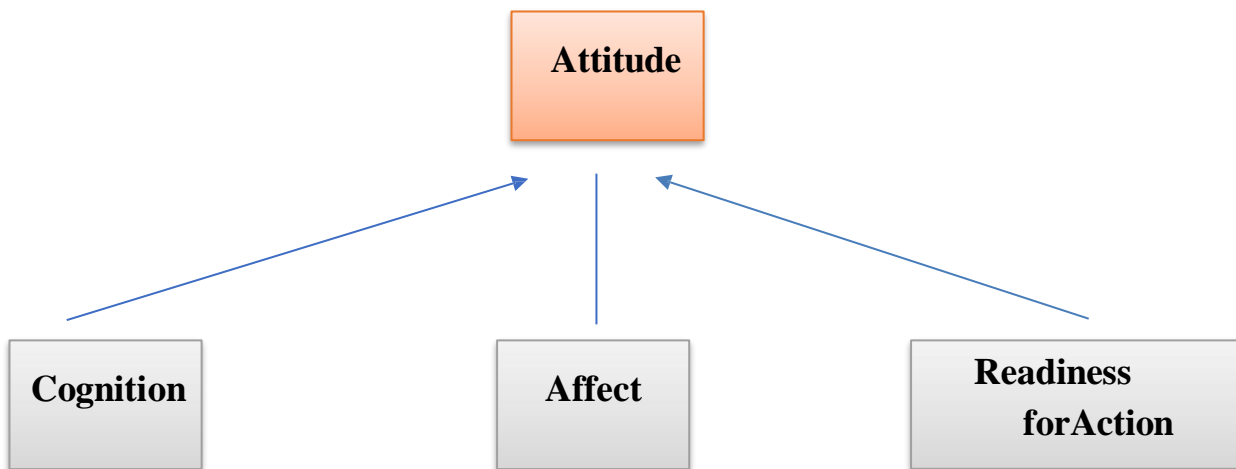


Figure 11: A three-component model of attitude (Baker, 1992:13)

2. How can we measure people's language attitudes?

There are basically three research approaches for evaluating people's attitudes: *the societal treatment approach*, *the direct approach*, in addition to *the indirect approach*.

- 2.1. The Societal Treatment Approach:** It is a broad category that typically includes observation.
- 2.2. The Direct Approach:** It simply involves asking people about their attitudes via questionnaire or interview, or both of them. Questionnaire can contain either close or open questions. Open questions give the participants the opportunity to express their attitudes in their own words and views. In close ones, however, the respondents have to choose one of the alternative answers proposed by the researcher. These answers can be either 'yes-no'

answers or '*multiple choices*'. In addition to the use of the '*Likert scale*' in which the respondents select their degree of agreement with the statement from a five-point scale.

2.3. *The Indirect Approach:* It is a technique called "*the Matched Guise Technique*" proposed by Lambert and his colleagues (Lambert *et al.* 1960), and then developed later on in Lambert 1967, Gardner and Lambert 1972¹¹. This procedure allows the researcher to unveil the unconscious attitudes of the respondents by making them listening to a record text. The same text is performed in different guises. The informants will then ask to guess about the speakers in the guises by filling a questionnaire.

¹¹ Quoted in Edwards, J (1982:22).

Activity One: Read each statement and mark **True (T)** or **False (F)**.

1. Diglossia describes a stable situation in which two varieties (High and Low) of the same language coexist with clear functional separation.
2. In classical diglossia the High (H) variety is typically acquired naturally in childhood without formal instruction.
3. Ferguson listed Arabic, Modern Greek, Swiss German and Haitian Creole as classic examples illustrating diglossic situations.
4. One characteristic that distinguishes H from L is that H usually carries greater literary heritage and prestige.
5. Fishman's "extended diglossia" can include cases where the H and L are actually different languages (not just varieties).
6. Triglossia refers to situations where three languages or varieties occupy distinct functional roles.
7. Polyglossia refers to contexts with only two coexisting varieties.
8. Balanced bilinguals are people who are highly proficient and roughly equal in two languages.
9. A passive (recessive) bilingual can understand a second language but typically cannot speak it fluently.
10. Compound bilingualism arises when the two languages are learned in separate environments so their lexical systems remain distinct.
11. Coordinate bilingualism results when the person learns two languages in the same context with a fused mental representation.
12. Code-switching always occurs only at sentence boundaries.
13. Intra-sentential switching takes place within a single clause or sentence.
14. Extra-sentential switching may involve insertion of a tag or fixed expression from another language.
15. Poplack's Free-Morpheme Constraint prohibits switches that break between a lexical root and a bound morpheme (e.g., *eat-iendo*).
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18. In the sociolinguistic approach, situational code-switching depends on topic changes rather than on the social situation.

19. Myers-Scotton's Markedness Model distinguishes unmarked, marked and exploratory choices as motivations for code choice.

20. Code mixing is typically dominated by one language and often occurs spontaneously within clauses.

Activity Two: answer the questions in full sentences. (Use examples where requested.)

1. Define **diglossia** and list three distinguishing features that separate the High (H) and Low (L) varieties.

2. Explain Ferguson's original account of diglossia and give two classic language examples he used.

3. What is Fishman's "extended diglossia"? Provide one real-world example where H and L are different languages.

4. Differentiate **triglossia** and **polyglossia** with one example for each.

5. Define **bilingualism** and distinguish between "balanced bilingual" and "dominant (unbalanced) bilingual."

6. Compare **compound** and **coordinate** bilingualism: how does acquisition context affect mental representation of languages?

7. Describe the three main types of **code-switching** (intra-sentential, inter-sentential, extra-sentential) and give one short example for each.

8. State Poplack's Free Morpheme Constraint and Equivalence Constraint and illustrate each with a short constructed example.

9. Summarize Myers-Scotton's Matrix Language Frame (MLF) model: what is the Matrix Language and what role does it play in mixed utterances?

10. Explain the difference between **code-mixing** and **code-switching** (form and sociolinguistic profile).

11. List five social or contextual factors that influence language choice (code choice) and give a classroom-relevant instance for two of them.
12. Discuss two pedagogical implications of diglossia and code-switching for language teaching (how should teachers respond in the classroom?)

Conclusion

Sociolinguistics is a field which studies language in relation to society. Earlier to the advent of sociolinguistics, language was, in fact, studied in abstraction from society as treated by Saussurian and Chomskian paradigms. Both paradigms dealt with language as a homogeneous system. While formal linguists have focused on mental assumptions about language structure, sociolinguists' data analysis were based on empirical work; exploring the correlation between linguistic and social structures. Hence, sociolinguistics is a multifaceted field of investigation which encompasses areas ranging from conversation analysis to multilingualism, code switching and language change.

TD TASKS

Task One: Underline the correct answer in each of the following statements.

- 1- The term *accent* is used to refer to dialectal varieties that differ just in grammar.
 - True
 - False

- 2- A dialect continuum is a chain of mutually intelligible dialects of a language.
 - True
 - False

- 3- Dialectal variation refers to variation in linguistic forms associated primarily with which of the following phenomena?
 - Social groups
 - Illiterate speakers
 - Geographical regions
 - Rural regions
 - Different individuals

- 4- Register is a talk that is appropriate in a particular.....
 - Speech situations
 - Societies
 - Conditions
 - None of these

- 5-are usually thought of in terms of the socio-economic status of the speakers.
 - Sociolects
 - Idiolects
 - Dialects
 - None of these

- 6- What is the difference between the concepts 'language' and 'dialect' on the light of Hudson' and Haugen' s views?

Correction of Task One:

- 1- The term *accent* is used to refer to dialectal varieties that differ just in grammar.
- True
 - **False**
- 2- A dialect continuum is a chain of mutually intelligible dialects of a language.
- **True**
 - False
- 3- Dialectal variation refers to variation in linguistic forms associated primarily with which of the following phenomena?
- **Social groups**
 - Illiterate speakers
 - Geographical regions
 - **Rural regions**
 - Different individuals
- 4- Register is a talk that is appropriate in particular.....
- **Speech situations**
 - Societies
 - Conditions
 - None of these
- 5- are usually thought of in terms of the socio-economic status of the speakers.
- **Sociolects**
 - Idiolects
 - Dialects
 - None of these

- 6- The difference between the concepts 'language' and 'dialect' on the light of Hudson' and Haugen' s views is as follows:

Hudson' View: In his comparison between the two concepts, Einar Haugen (1966:23) states that "X is a dialect of language Y or Y has the dialects X and Z (never, for example, Y is a language of dialect X)". Haugen, thus, clarifies that language is the super-ordinate variety that can be used without reference to dialects whereas dialects are subdivisions of a particular language; i.e., dialects usually perceived as varieties of a language and felt to be meaningless unless there is a language to which they can be said to belong.

Haugen' View: Hudson, in his analysis, has distinguished between the concepts in terms of size and prestige. For this edifice, Hudson (1996:32) elucidates that "a variety called a language contains more items than one called a dialect". He (idem) adds "whether some variety is called a language, or a dialect depends on how much prestige one thinks it has, and for most people this is a clear cut matter, which depends on whether it is used in formal writing". According to him, language is larger in size and more prestigious than a dialect.

Task Two:

1. Define the following concepts:

- Dialect continuum
- Language variety.
- Language variability.
- Register

2. What is standardization? Cite the different steps of this process.

Correction of Task

Two: 1.

- ***Dialect continuum***: means a chain of varieties in a certain geographical area.
 - ***Language variety***: a term used to cover all different varieties or sub- categories of language like: a dialect, a register, a jargon, or an idiolect.
 - ***Language variability***: it refers to language variation; i.e., language is not homogenous, it varies from one region to another, from one situation to another, from one person to another, and from one topic to another as well. It changes in correlation to a set of social variables such as: age, gender, level of education, and occupation.
 - **Register**: it is a set of vocabulary items related to specific social situations.
2. ***Language standardization*** is the process by which a vernacular in a community becomes the standard language (SL) form. This carries implicit elements of **prestige** (whereby the SL is valued more highly than others), stability, and common usage. Alternative variations are either eliminated and/or stigmatized.

Steps of standardization process:

- Selection.
- Codification.
- Elaboration of function.
- Acceptance.

Task Three: Compare between the following concepts in each pair:

1. Sociolinguistics Vs Sociology of language.
2. Social dialects Vs Regional dialects.
3. Linguistic competence Vs communicative competence.
4. Dialect Vs Idiolect.
5. Dialect Vs Register.

Correction of Task Three:

1. Sociolinguistics- also called Micro- Sociolinguistics- is, as Hudson (1996:4) states, « the study of language in relation to society ». Therefore, the focus here is emphasized on the structure of language and the way society with its different aspects from social classes and culture, to gender and ethnicity, influences the kind of linguistic structures we use and the way we talk. This leads us to conclude that Sociolinguistics studies, for example, how social situations require a change in the way we talk as there is a difference between 'formal' and 'informal' speeches, 'discussions' and 'arguments', and 'requests' and 'demands'. The Sociology of language- also called Macro- Sociolinguistics- is, as Hudson (1996: 4) affirms, « the study of society in relation to language ». Accordingly, we study the language of a particular community with the aim of discovering and

understanding the use of the social structures and the way the people of this community use them to communicate properly. This leads us to the idea that the Sociology of language studies, for example, the way linguistic structures are formed when different members of a tribe, including the Chieftain, address each other to identify the different social classes of that tribe.

2. A regional dialect is a variety associated with a given regional place or geographical area while a social dialect refers to variation in speech associated with various social groups or classes.
3. Linguistic competence is one component of communicative competence. It refers to the ability to produce infinite number of grammatically correct sentences. The term communicative competence is coined by Dell Hymes. It means that an individual is able to communicate **effectively & appropriately** according to the social context.
4. A dialect is a variety of language spoken in a given geographical area or social group; i.e., spoken by the whole speech community such as: Naama dialect or Tlemcen dialect whereas an idiolect indicates an individual's own speech.
5. Registers refer to varieties according to use in contrast to dialects which indicate varieties according to use. A dialect can show "**who(or what) we are**" whilst a register denotes "**what we are doing**".

Essays:

1. Analyze the following statement:

“Sociolinguistics analyzes the many and diverse ways in which language and society entwine. It is the study of how language serves and is shaped by the social nature of human. Variation is the key concept, applied to language itself and to its use. As a result, language is not homogeneous”.

Explain and exemplify your observations.

2. “Researchers identify two main distinctions in sociolinguistic inquiry. Clearly, these two are sides of the same coin: they mutually determine each other in various ways, and cannot be studied independently of each other”.

Comment!

3. “[...] An aspect of language contact relates to the issue of functional allocation. With a handful of languages, two distinct varieties of the same language are used, side by side, for two different sets of functions. In the Arabic speaking world, the contrast is between the classical language and regional dialect. The same pattern, more or less, occurs in the German speaking cantons of Switzerland [...]. While, there are somewhat different historical reasons for each, and while the functional distribution is somewhat different, they share a set of distribution.’

Spolsky (1998: 63-64)

Discuss and exemplify your observations.

Suggested Answers for Essays:

Each essay should include

1. Introduction.
2. Development.
3. Conclusion.

1. **Analysis:** You must include the following points:

- What is sociolinguistics.
- Its emergence: Origins: Saussure and Chomsky's works.
Prominent figures: Labov-the pioneering -& Peter Trudgill.
- Its interests (aims).
- The effect of society on language and language on society as well.
- The social variables: age, gender/sex, social classes, ethnicity, religion, education...How it can affect our language. (+examples)

A suggested analysis:

Sociolinguistics is the study of the effect of any and all aspects of society, including cultural norms, expectations, and context, on the way language is used. It investigates the correlation between linguistic items and society.

Language is not only used to communicate meaning and information, but also to maintain and establish social relationships. As a matter of fact what and how we speak may reflect ourselves. Indeed, our speech is influenced by a set of factors which influence the choice of words and manner of speech. These factors such as: age, gender, participants, setting, topic and function must be included in description of language and language use. Consequently, sociolinguistics is that field of linguistics that studies the relation between language and social factors and how they are used in different situations. It explains why we speak differently in different contexts, identifies the social functions of language and the ways it is used to convey meaning, and also studies how language varieties differ between groups separated by social variables and how creation and adherence to these rules is used to categorize individuals in social classes.

In sum, it can be said that language is not homogenous. It may change from one region to region, from one social class to another, from one individual to individual, and from one situation to situation. This actual change and its reasons is the interest of sociolinguistics.

2. Comment

-Introduction to the field of sociolinguistics (definitions & emergence).

-**Macro** (Sociology of Language) Vs **Micro** (Sociolinguistics).

Micro: «*the study of language in relation to society*». Therefore, the focus here is emphasized on the structure of language and the way society with its different aspects from social classes and culture, to gender and ethnicity, influences the kind of linguistic structures we use and the way we talk. It influences the way people talk and how language varieties and patterns of use correlate with social attributes such as *class, gender* and *age*. In a simplistic term **micro-sociolinguistics** explores the ways in which society influences a speaker's idiolect. The emphasis is on language.

Macro: «*the study of society in relation to language*». Accordingly, we study the language of a particular community with the aim of discovering and understanding the use of the social structures and the way the people of this community use them to communicate properly. This leads us to the idea that the Sociology of language studies, for example, the way linguistic structures are formed when different members of a speech community address each other to identify the different social classes of that community. The emphasis is on society.

(+ Your own comment).

3. Discussion:

- Classical Diglossia: two varieties of the same language. Ferguson, 1959. —→ Revisited Diglossia, 1991.
- Extended Diglossia: two genetically unrelated languages . Fishman, 1967.
- Triglossia / Polyglossia.
- Examples: Algeria (all situations: MSA / AA / FRENCH / BERBER), Tanzania, Malaysia, Paraguay...
- Discussion: tackling different theorists' views like: Ferguson, Fishman, Mkipili, Platt, Taleb Ibrahim, ...

Other proposed essays for discussion:

1/ Hymes (1974:125) points out that:

The study of language must concern itself with describing and analyzing the ability of the native speakers to use language for communication in real situations rather than limiting itself to describing the potential ability of the ideal speaker/listener to produce grammatically correct sentences. Speakers of a language in particular communities are able to communicate with each other in a manner which is not only correct but also appropriate to the socio-cultural context. [...] The ethnography of Communication/ Speaking is concerned with questions of what a person knows about appropriate patterns of language use in his or her community and how he or she learns about it.

Discuss and exemplify your observations.

2/

While Chomskyan conception of linguistic theory is based on universalistic premises, the aim being to elucidate abstract properties of language, sociolinguistic investigations aim at understanding social/contextual issues. Downes (1998:12) states the following: “In sociolinguistics, [...], natural hearers could make and comprehend in social contexts.”

Discuss and exemplify your observations.

3/ Discuss the following statement:

“The sociolinguistic condition known as diglossia has attracted wide attention since the publication of Ferguson’s seminal article (1959). Despite its occurrence in many non-western contexts, it is not simply a phenomenon of exotic third-world cultures, but characterizes a number of languages found in various parts of the world, including Western Europe”.

Exemplify your observations.

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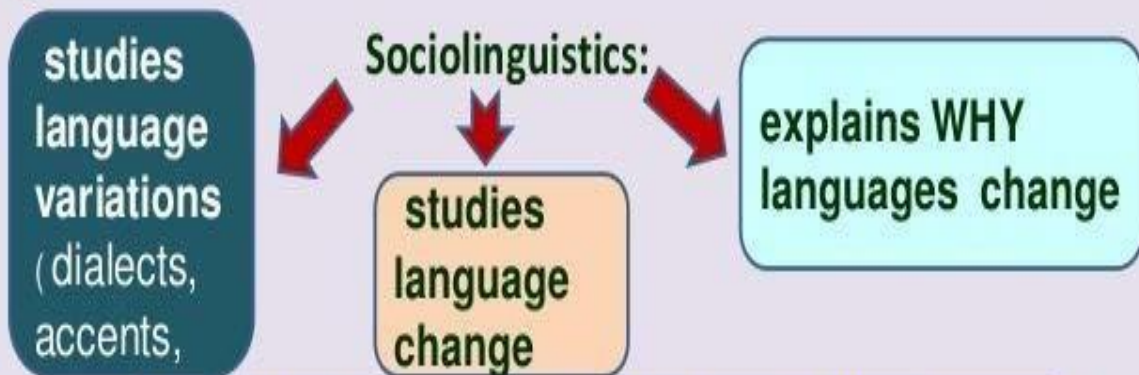
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SOCIOLINGUISTICS

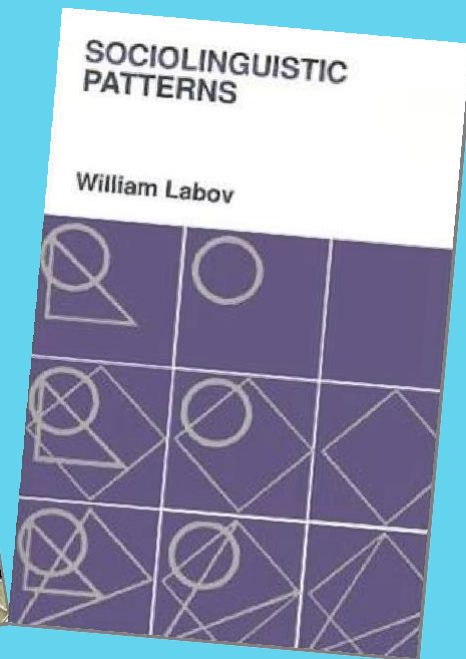
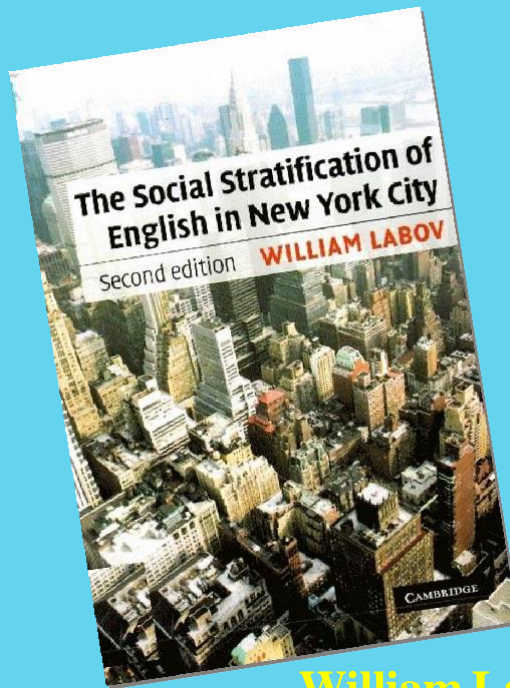
Branch of Linguistics which deals with the study of language use in society and in sociocultural context. In addition, it is the study of the linguistic indicators of culture and power (Schmitt, 2011).



It describes language varieties between different ethnic, religious, status, and gender groups; and explains how educational level, age etc., may influence the language differences, and categorizes individuals in social or socioeconomic classes.

LINGUISTIC FEATURES OF SOCIOLINGUISTICS

- Language varieties in geographical regions involve a change in pronunciation, vocabulary and dialect.
- Language variation may be due to specific area of language use i.e.
 - Law
 - Religion
 - Science
 - Sports
- This language variety is called register.
- Sociolinguistics examine different registers, i.e.
 - legal register, scientific register, etc.
- This kind of study is governed rules of situational and contextual appropriateness.



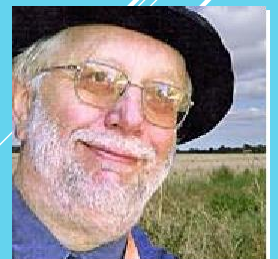
William Labov

The first one to put into practice the area of sociolinguistics in the United States.

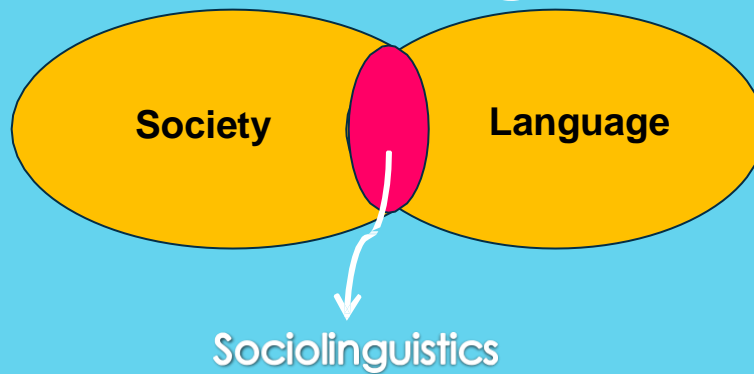


Peter John Trudgill

Later in the United Kingdom



What is Sociolinguistics?



- It is an aspect of linguistics applied towards connections between language and society
- It is the way language is used in different social situations



Varieties differ according to Age, Gender, and Contexts as well



Language Use in Two Different Social contexts:

Context A:

Ray: *Hello mum*

Mum: *Hi. You are late.*

Ray: *Yeah, that damned kept me in again.*

Context B:

Ray: *Good afternoon, sir*

Principal: *What are you doing here at this time?*

Ray: *Mr Sutton kept us in, sir*

Speak to mother:

‘Hello’ – to greet

‘mum’ – as an address form

‘damned’ ‘hateful’,
‘unwelcome’
nicknames for teacher

This conversation describes a relationship : *intimate and friendly tone.*

Speak to the Principal:

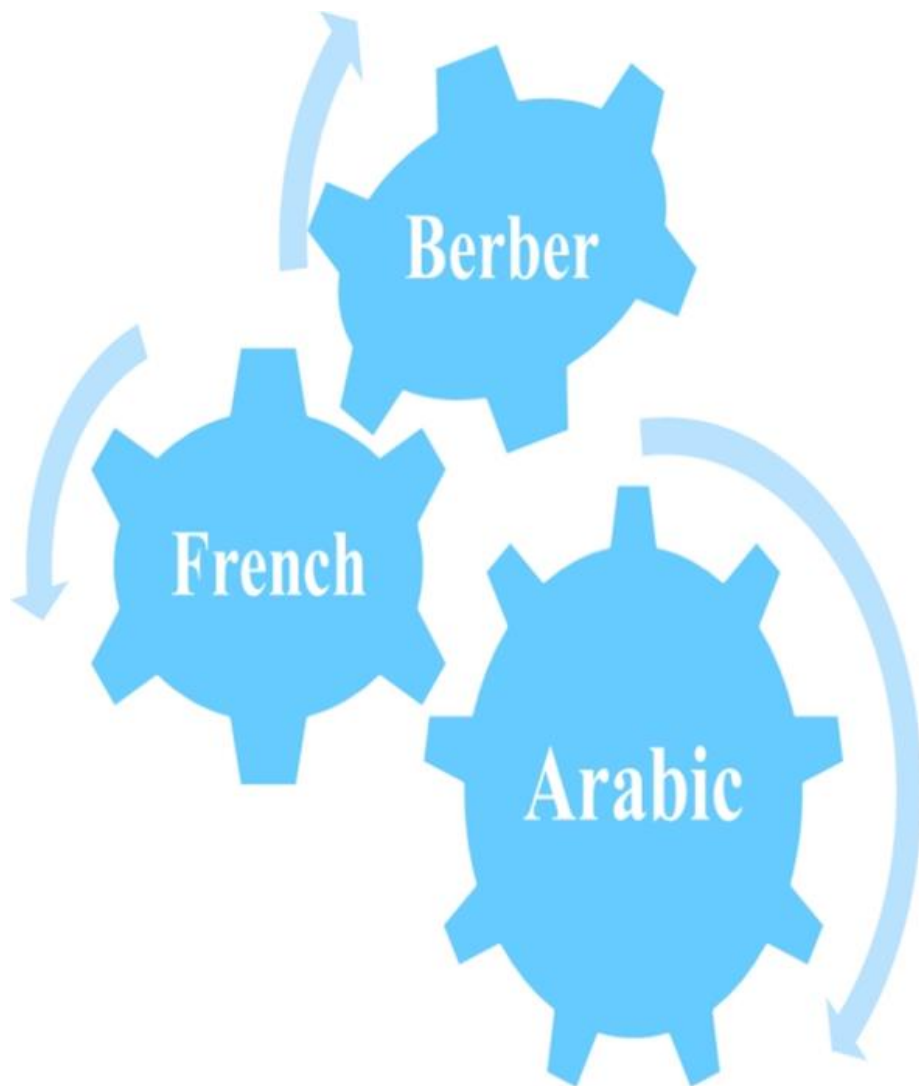
‘Good afternoon’ – to greet

‘sir’ – as an address form

‘Mr. Sutton’ – to refer to the teacher

This conversation describes a relationship : *formal, distant and respectful tone*

Algeria: A Multilingual Speech Community





Formal and Informal Greetings

Formal Greetings

- Good morning
- Good afternoon
- Good evening
- How do you do?
- How are you?

Formal Responses

- Good morning
- Good afternoon
- Good evening
- Very well, thank you

Formal closings

- It has been a pleasure, goodbye
- Thank you for your time, goodbye

Informal Greetings

- Hello
- Hi
- How are you doing?
- How have you been?
- How are things going?

Informal Responses

- Hello/Hi
- Hi
- Fine, thanks and you?
- Great, thanks

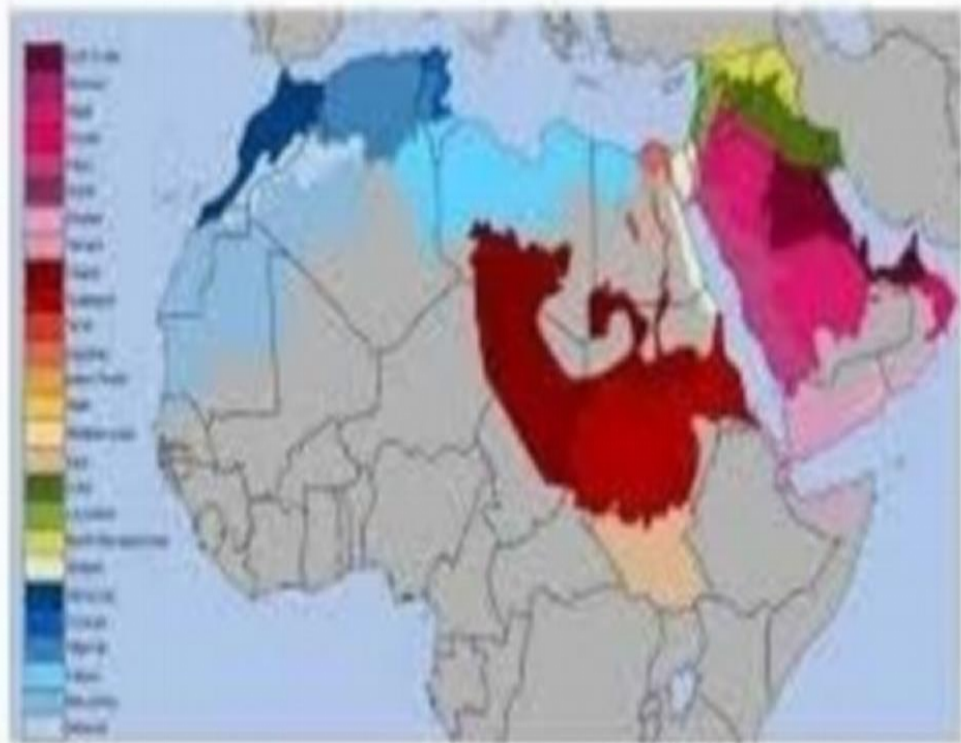
Informal closings

- I have to go now, bye
- I'll see you later/around, bye
- Have a nice day, bye

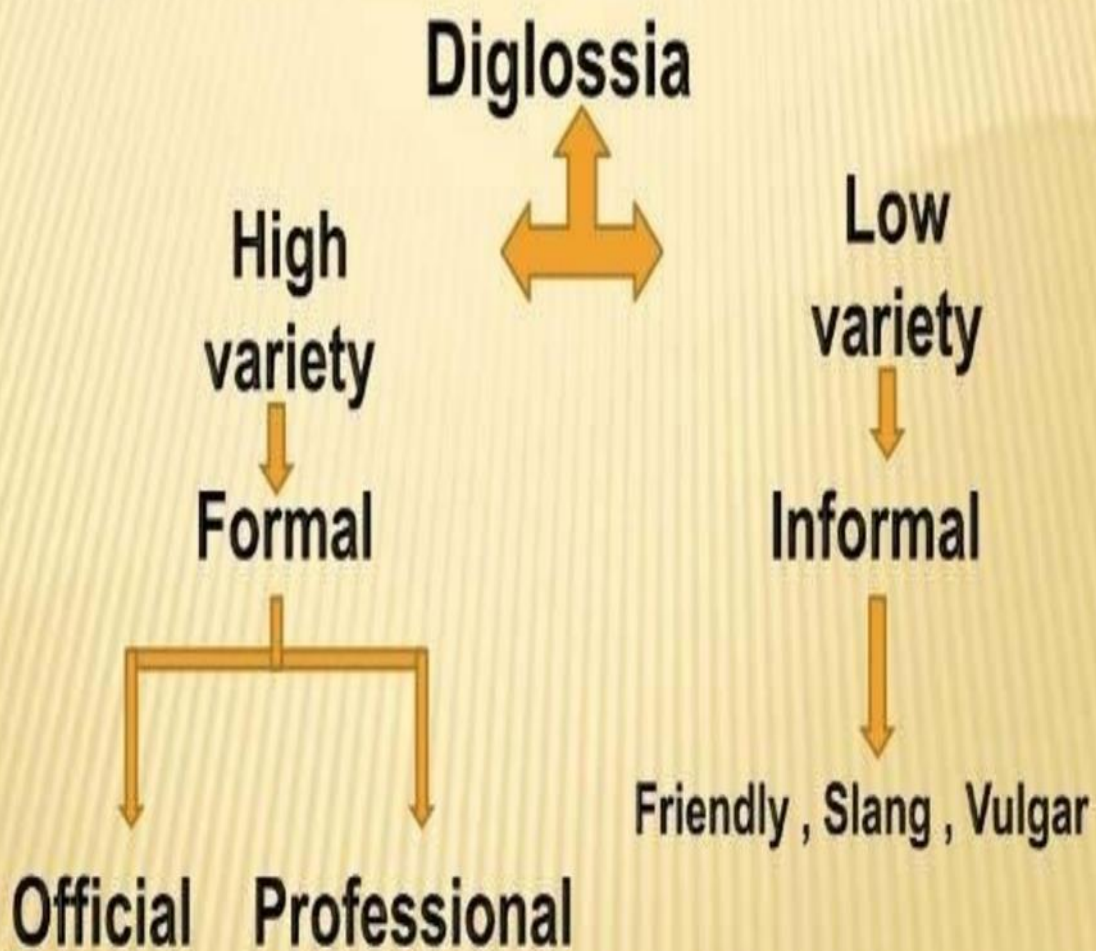
“Your dialect shows who (or what) you are,
whilst your register shows what you are doing”

Dialects, styles, & registers are largely
independent & can be considered separately.

Arabic Dialects



Variation of Diglossia





DOMAIN was first used by Fishman (1972) to describe how speakers compartmentalize their language use

Domains refer to the different spheres of influence in speakers' lives and for language





감사합니다 Natick
 Danke Ευχαριστίες Dalu
 Grazie Thank You Köszönöm
 Спасибо Dank Gracias
 谢谢 Merci Seé
 ありがとう

Obrigado⁷⁸