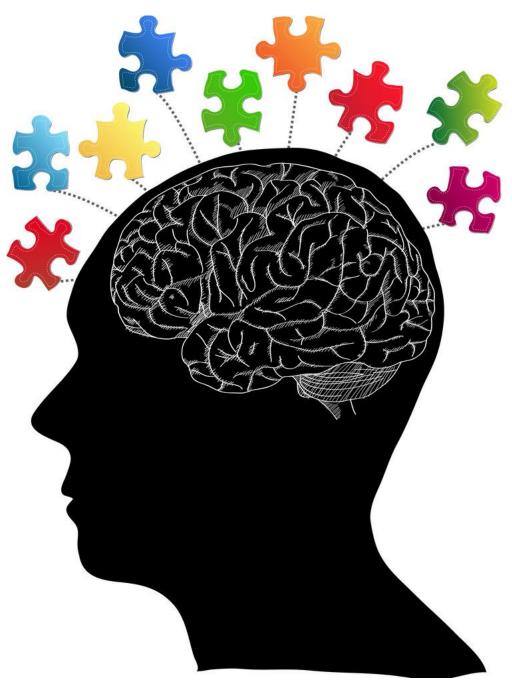


# **BA 3rd Year Linguistics Course**



Dr Samira Chaibeddra

People's Democratic Republic of Algeria Ministry of Higher of Education and Scientific Research University of Mohammed Seddik Benyahia, Jijel



# Faculty of Letters and Languages Department of English

#### I. Course Information

Faculty: Letters and Foreign Languages

Department: English

Target audience: 3rd year BA students.

Course Title: Linguistics

Credits:4
Coefficient:2

Course duration: 15 weeks in each semester. Time: Every Sunday from 9:30 a.m. to 11:00 a.m.

Room: Amphitheatre 3

Lecturer: Dr Samira Chaibeddra

Contact: Via e-mail to samchaibeddra@gmail.com

**Availability:** 

In the Department: Sunday, Monday, and Wednesday from 9: 30h to 12:30

*Email Response*: You can direct your questions to my email and will receive an immediate confirmation receipt and then a reply to your email within the following 24h.

# **II. Course Presentation**

After being introduced to linguistics and its branches and schools in the first and second year of your BA journey with a focus on micro-linguistics, the present course provides you with further information about this scientific study of language but this time by exploring and examining two of its interdisciplinary subfields in the macro linguistics area, namely sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics. This course helps you deepen your knowledge of sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics, identify their objectives, delineate their basic concepts, highlight their significance and display the most reliable research studies that backed its theories

and the research methods adopted in them. It particularly aims at enriching your knowledge through discussions about the relation of language to the aspects beyond it.

# **III.** Course Objectives

By the end of this course, the students will be able to:

- -Define sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics as subfields of macro linguistics.
- Understand the necessity of their birth.
- Delineate and understand their scopes.
- Address their major concepts.
- Explore the underlying theories discussed in these subfields.
- Examine the methods adopted when doing research in these two subfields.
- Identifying the major concerns of these subareas of macro linguistics along with their practical impact.

# **III. Content**

In semester 5, 3<sup>rd</sup> year BA students are introduced to three main chapters in sociolinguistics:

- Chapter I: An Introduction to Sociolinguistics
- Chapter II: Language Variation
- Chapter III: Language Contact and Change

# **Chapter I. An Introduction to Sociolinguistics**

# **Chapter I. An Introduction to Sociolinguistics**

- 1. An Introduction to Sociolinguistics Via Exemplification
- 2. What is Sociolinguistics?
  - Narrow Definition/Broad Definition
  - What is meant by language
  - What is meant by society
  - Different Definitions of Sociolinguistics by Sociolinguists.
- 3. The History of Sociolinguistics and its Emergence
- 4. The Relation Between Language and Society
- 5. The Scope and Boundaries of Sociolinguistics
- 6. The Methodology of Sociolinguistics.

# **Chapter II. Language Variation**

- 1. Introducing Variationist sociolinguistics through the works of Labov
  - The Martha's Vineyard Work
  - The Stratification of New York
- 2. Key Concepts in Language Variation:
  - Vernacular/ Speech Community
  - Language vs Dialect
  - Identity and Power in Language
  - Types of Dialects: (Regional/Social/ Ethnic; isogloss/ Idiolect/sociolect/ecolect)
  - Variation in Language Use Across Gender
  - Style and Register
  - Jargon
  - Slang and Taboo Language

# Chapter III. Language Contact and Change

- 1. Outcomes of Language Contact
  - Borrowing
  - Bilingualism
  - Code-switching
  - Diglossia
  - Language Shift
  - Language Death
  - Pidgin and Creole

#### Introduction

When two English strangers meet for the first time in a train, the topic of their conversation is generally the weather. The reason behind so doing can be ascribed to considering such a topic interesting, avoiding any conversation can result in an unfriendly atmosphere or grabbing the chance of building a relationship. This kind of conversations is an epitome of the social function of language. Language is, indeed, not a mere means of sharing information, be it about the weather or any other subject, but also a means of striking up and maintaining relationships between individuals. In taking part of this kind of conversations, the speakers can intelligently elicit information about each other from the clothes they wear, how they speak, etc. Our accent, for example, can emanate from where a person comes and this information can be even used by the person we communicate with to judge us, which shows the existence of a close interrelationship between language and society, and this is the core of sociolinguistics.

# • What is Sociolinguistics?

Sociolinguistics is defined as "the field that studies the relation between language and society, between the uses of language and the social structures in which the users of language live" (Spolsky, 1998, p. 1). Through this field of study, it is believed that society consists of a number of connected attitudes and set of actions some of which are linguistic. In other words, it "is a field that looks at how people use language in their everyday lives across a variety of life events and language experiences" (Deckert & Vickers, 2011, p. 1). By "linguistics" in the term sociolinguistics, it is referred to the focus on language use and by "socio" it is meant the use of language in social contexts. "When sociolinguists talk about 'language', [they] mean language as it is actually used. That doesn't sound very profound, but actually sets us apart from both normal people and other branches of linguistics.' (Herk, 2012, p. 12). Trudgill (2000) defines

sociolinguistics as "That part of Linguistics which is concerned with language as a social and a cultural phenomenon. It investigates the field of language and society and has close connections with the social sciences" (p. 21).

According to Holmes (2001) the relationship between language and the context in which it is used is the focus of sociolinguistics. It particularly investigates, he states, how language and society are related and demonstrates how individuals communicate in various ways based upon different social contexts. It addresses how the social meaning is conveyed in language by taking into account the social aspects and functions of language.

# The History of Sociolinguistics

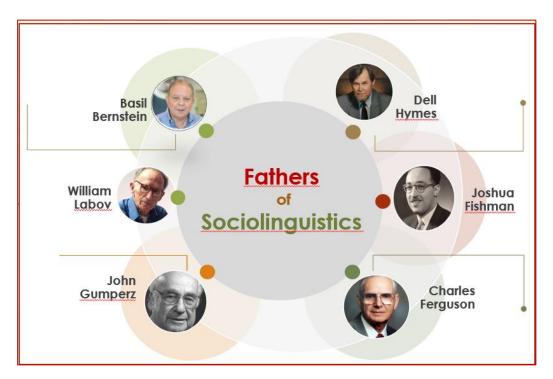
When it comes to the history of sociolinguistics, how it has emerged and who coined the term, different narratives are provided. It is said that sociolinguistics emerged as a result of some linguistic theories' inability to provide a comprehensive explanation of language. Some believe the term was coined in 1939 in an article by Thomas C Hudson entitled "Sociolinguistics" in India", while others claim that the term was actually first used by Eugene Nida in his book "Morphology". The term is believed to be also related to Harver Currie who is thought to coin it as it appeared in his conference paper in 1949 which was published in 1952.

What is now known as sociolinguistics emerged as a result of Chomsky's Transformational Grammar and other notions regarding language meaning. Chomsky reshaped the field of linguistics when he sought to identify universal grammatical structure that explains the similarities in language organization, ignoring the social contexts in which a language is used.

With the introduction of Dell Hyme's communicative competence, the focus shifted to examine language use in social contexts, allowing for an entirely novel perspective in which the social context was given greater weight and from which the study of language could not be separated.

In the 1960s and 1970s, sociologists, linguists, and anthropologists developed an interest in how language use influenced social relations and culture as well as how language structure was formed by the contexts in which it was used. This has led to the emergence of sociolinguistics.

Spolsky (2011) said that six scholars are to be deemed the fathers of the discipline: William labov, Basil Berstein, Dell Hymes, John Gumperz, Charles ferguson and Joshua Fishman.



# • The Relation Between Language and Society

The relation between language and society is central to the field of sociolinguistics. In fact, it can take many different forms.

First, linguistic structure along with behavior can be impacted by or determined by social structure. The age-grading phenomenon, for example, in which youngsters communicate distinctively from older children and older children from mature adults, demonstrates how speakers' language varieties reflect variables like their gender and/or social, cultural, and ethnic origin. Certain social requirements actually significantly influence specific speech patterns, word choices, and even conversational norms.

Second, social structure can be determined or affected by linguistic structure and/or behaviour. The Bernstein Theory of Restricted and Elaborated Codes, the Whorfian hypothesis and the Sexist Language Theory hold this viewpoint. The features of the Hopi language were used in the 1930s by the linguist Benjamin Lee Whorf to support his "Whorfian hypothesis," who stated that language strongly influences how we perceive the world. According to him, this is true for all distinct languages and individuals. The Hopi language serves as a framework for "their universe-talk". The Hopi had a distinct understanding of time than did speakers of European languages, and this distinction was linked to grammatical variations between the languages. In Hopi, there was an absence of any linguistic form that directly refers to the notion of time. The Hopi had "no general notion or intuition of time as a smooth flowing continuum in which everything in the universe proceeds at equal rate, out of a future, through the present, into a past" (Whorf, 1956, p.212). The Hopi concept of time was one of the main examples of Whorf's theory of linguistic relativity. As for Bernstein's Theory of Restricted and Elaborated Code (1971), the language used in casual conversation is said to both shape and reflect the beliefs of a specific social group. Bernstein proposes a relationship between the usage of a restricted code and the social class. He contends that the middle class uses both the elaborated and restricted codes due to their greater social, cultural, and geographic mobility, while the working class is more likely to use the restricted code. Working class people communicate in restricted codes because of their upbringing and socialization. With regard to the Sexist Language Theory, its central claim is that language shapes our perceptions of men and women and powers sexism in the community. To illustrate, in English, the terms "chairman" and "fireman" suggest that only men are fit for such roles.

Third, language and society can have a reciprocal effect on one another and in this case the relation is said to be bi-directional. "Speech behaviour and social behaviour are in a state of constant interaction and that 'material living conditions' are an important factor in the

relationship" (Dittmar 1976 as cited in Wardhaugh, 2006). According to this view, there is a fundamental connection between language and society in which each influences the other. Language is crucial to society, and without society, language cannot exist. Language and society are on a continuum of progress; languages change as societies do.

Fourth, language structure and social structure are completely unrelated to one another. Societies and languages exist separately; language structure and social structure are totally separate entities with no bearing on one another. Chomsky embraced this view, favoring the development of an asocial linguistics prior to the development of any other form of linguistics.

# • The Difference Between Sociolinguistics and the Sociology of Language

Making a distinction between the sociology of language (macro-sociolinguistics) and sociolinguistics (micro-sociolinguistics) is important in any discussion of sociolinguistics. Micro-sociolinguistics looks into the connections between language and society with the aim of a deeper understanding of language structure and the communicative function of language. Finding ways to better understand social structure through the study of language, such as how specific linguistic characteristics function to define particular social arrangements, is the equivalent goal in the sociology of language. On the difference between the two, Hudson says

Sociolinguistics is 'the study of language in relation to society,' whereas the sociology of language is 'the study of society in relation to language.' In other words, in sociolinguistics we study language and society in order to find out as much as we can about what kind of thing language is, and in the sociology of language we reverse the direction of our interest (Hudson, 1996, p 4)

Micro-sociolinguistics examines the influence of the social system on people's language structures and the correlation between language varieties and the social factors such as social class, sex, etc. However, macro-sociolinguistics looks into how the society makes use of language. 'That is, attitudes and attachments that account for the functional distribution of speech

forms in society, language shift, maintenance, and replacement, the delimitation and interaction of speech communities' (Coulmas, 1997, p. 2).

# • The Methods in Sociolinguistics

Ever since it began in the late 20th century, sociolinguistics has been continuously evolving and the methods employed to study sociolinguistic phenomena have expanded, encompassing a wide range of theoretical and methodological approaches. The research methods used were either quantitative (empirical) or qualitative (descriptive). The goal of the quantitative approach is typically to objectively analyse the subject concern by contributing analytically to sociolinguistic studies. The qualitative approach, on the other hand, seeks to provide different descriptions to interpret the sociolinguists' subjects of research.

# **Chapter II. Language Variation**

#### Introduction

The goal of studying sociolinguistics was initially to comprehend language variation and how it is related to language users' social lives. The emergence of language variation can be traced back to the social and geographic separation of people, which allowed the next generation of speakers to grow up apart from each other and develop their languages separately. This generally results in a slight difference in the pronunciation of some words in these groups, new word formation, the creation of various sentence structures, etc. The languages of the groups might, of course, diverge enough over time and space to render them incomprehensible to other groups, thereby qualifying as separate languages.

# • The Early Works of Variation by Labov

In its strict sense, sociolinguistics is believed to have initially started with the work of William Labov in 1963. To investigate language variety, Labov went to Martha's Vineyard where he observed a unique sound pattern. The people living on the island used to pronounce some diphthongs differently from native speakers. The pronunciation is centralized and accordingly the diphthongs /at /and /au/ are instead pronounced /ət/ and/əu/ respectively. This intrigued Labov to know why people on the island pronounced the diphthongs in this manner and after a thorough examination, he found out that it is related to specific linguistic contexts. The results revealed that the individuals with centralized diphthongs were typical of those in their 30s and 40s who worked as fishermen and lived full-time in rural parts of the island. The fisherman desired to openly present themselves as Martha's Vineyard dwellers. Subconsciously, other residents of the island began to adopt the new pronunciation since they appreciated the

fishermen's traditional way of life and how they talk. This resulted in the fishermen's possession of a high social status despite not having a relatively a high socio-economic one.

Another study that Labov conducted within the realm of language variation is that of the social stratification of /r/ in New York City. In order to gather information for his broad study of New York speech, Labov recorded interviews with 340 informants who were chosen through a scientifically designed random sample. He attempted to make a phonological examination of some unclear features as, for instance, in New York City, some speakers occasionally pronounce the postvocalic /r/ after a vowel and others do not, which raised his doubt that this can be associated with free variation. Lobov made a systematic and scientific analysis of the pronunciation of /r/ in both the middle and the end of the words with a particular interest in whether the social class affects the rotation of the /r/ in speaking. The purpose of Labov's research was to determine whether the social class had an impact on how people pronounced the rhotic /r/ sound in terms like "floor," "car," and "fourth." The study's findings based on a lot of interviews with shop assistants demonstrated that the sales assistants employed by more prestigious stores pronounced the /r/ more clearly than those employed by less prestigious stores. As demonstrated by Labov's research, it is impossible to claim with certainty that the New York City dialect is r-less. Instead, there is variation in the way the /r/ sounds are pronounced in NY dialect, and this variation appears to be related to social and contextual factors.

# • The Essence of Variationist Sociolinguistics

The concept of language variation entails that languages differ between contexts, social groups, and places. It also suggests that the way language is affected by social factors causes linguistic variation. Examples of these social factors include those related to geography, ethnicity, social class, gender, age, etc. and language aspects such as pronunciation, syntax and grammar can actually be influenced by them.

There are three facts about language that are frequently disregarded in linguistics and that form the basis of variationist sociolinguistics namely orderly heterogeneity, language change and social identity.

Observing that language varies is basically what is referred to as heterogeneity. Individuals will express the same idea in different ways. Languages such as French, English, Spanish, and so on can all be used to view variation. Where bilingual or multilingual speakers vary in this situation is in the language they choose to speak. Linguistic variation, however, also includes a wide range of possibilities, such as selecting between English and French, choosing between various constructions, selecting different morphological affixes, and even choosing to pronounce individual vowels and consonants differently at the minimal micro-linguistic level.

Language is dynamic by nature. The English language of today is very different from that of 400 or 100 years ago.

For example, ain't used to be the normal way of doing negation in English, but now it is stigmatised. Another good example is *not*. It used to be placed after the verb, e.g. *I know not*. Now it is placed before the verb, along with a supporting word, do, as in *I do not know*. Double negation, e.g. *I don't know nothing*, is ill-regarded in contemporary English. Not so in earlier times. Similarly, use of the ending -th for simple present was once the favoured form, e.g. *doth*, not *do*, and pre-verbal periphrastic do, e.g. I do know, and use of the comparative ending -er, e.g. *honester*, not more *honest*, used to be much more frequent. (Tagliamonte, 2006, p. 6)

By taking linguistic features like these in context, variation analysis seeks to explain how and why each one has evolved and where it is headed. While language is used to transfer information from one person to another, it is also used by speakers to express statements about their identities, group allegiances, perceptions of their relationships with listeners, and types of speech events they believe they are participating in. The fact that language varies is the reason

that all of these tasks can only be completed simultaneously. "The choices speakers make among alternative linguistic means to communicate the same information often conveys important extralinguistic information" (Tagliamonte, 2006, p. 7).

# • Key Characteristics of Language Variation

#### Variety

A variety is a neutral term that is used by many sociolinguists to solve the naming problem and refer to any language subset. Sociolinguists then refer to a standard variety, regional, ethnic, etc.

#### • Vernacular

Getting access to the "vernacular" is one of the main objectives of variationist work methods. There are numerous definitions for the vernacular. It was initially referred to as "the style in which the minimum attention is given to the monitoring of speech" (Labov, 1972, p. 208). The vernacular is 'every day speech' (Sankoff, 1974, 1980, p. 54), 'real language in use' (Milroy, 1992, p. 66) and 'spontaneous speech reserved for intimate or casual situations' (Poplack 1993, p. 252). "Linguists use the term vernacular to refer to the language a person grows up with and uses in everyday life in ordinary, commonplace, social interactions" (Wardhaugh & Fuller, 2015, p. 28). Being the most systematic form of speech, having access to the vernacular is essential.

# • Speech Community

As part of variation analysis, the analyst must fully immerse themselves in the speech community as a participant as well as an observer and this is how recording language use in a sociocultural context is done.

A community is something more than simply a random collection of individuals. A community has a shape and a structure, which is internally cohesive and externally distinctive. Members of a community must have enough in common to be identifiable (both to others within the group and to external observers) as members of that

community, and must show enough differences from non- members to indicate that they do not belong to any other contrasting communities. (Trousdale, 2010 p.16)

# • Language vs Dialect

To start with, an examination of what is meant by the terms "language" and "dialect" by the linguists and non-linguists is necessary. These terms as Haugen (1966) said have both scientific and common meanings that have long been acknowledged, but can cause ambiguity and confusion when applied to real life situations. Linguistic ambiguity exists between language and dialect. While common people speak with great freedom using these terms, they most likely view a dialect as nothing more than a non-prestigious local variation of a "real" language, making it powerless. Scholars, on the other hand, might find it difficult to determine which term to use when in certain circumstances. So how do sociolinguists distinguish between a language and a dialect?

Mutual intelligibility is one criterion that is often used in an attempt to differentiate between languages and dialects; "if speakers can understand each other, they are speaking dialects of the same language; if they cannot, they are speaking different languages. However, there are several problems with this criterion" (Wardhaugh & Fuller, 2015, p. 29). These problems can be summarized as follows.

- First, mutual intelligibility cannot be deemed as an objective determining criterion as some speakers of German can fully understand Dutch while others cannot. Actually, the degree to which you can comprehend someone who speaks differently from you may depend on how familiar you are with various forms of speech.
- Second, there are various varieties of German and Dutch that are found within what is referred to as a dialect continuum. Some German dialects are more easily understood by speakers of Dutch than by speakers of German dialects.

- Third, there are numerous instances of named, **distinct** languages that are mutually intelligible even in the absence of a dialect continuum such as Serbian and Croatian.

- Fourth, sometimes speakers of different dialects can recognize each other as belonging to the same language despite being unable to understand each other such as Mandarin and Cantonese.

Sociolinguists say that sociopolitical identity, not linguistic similarity or difference, is the decisive factor that determines whether two varieties are regarded as different languages or dialects of the same language. "Orientation toward a particular standard language and, often, an associated national identity, is what makes speakers identify as speakers of language X or Y" (Wardhaugh & Fuller, 2015, p. 32). Our understanding of the situation can be clarified by the ideas of solidarity and power. "Power requires some kind of asymmetrical relationship between entities: one has more of something that is important, for example, status, money, influence, and so on, than the other or others. A language has more power than any of its dialects" (Wardhaugh & Fuller, 2015, p. 32). Also, solidarity is the sense of equality that people have for one another. They become close because they share a common interest. When people feel solidarity, they may decide to demand independence or protect a regional dialect that is in danger of extinction.

Standardization is also one of the distinguishing factors between "dialect" and "language. "Standardization refers to the process by which a language has been codified in some way. That process usually involves the development of such things as grammars, spelling books, and dictionaries, and possibly a literature" (Wardhaugh & Fuller, 2015, p. 33). Standardization makes it feasible to teach a language in an intentional way. Beyond the merely linguistic, it assumes ideological dimensions that are social, cultural, and occasionally political.

# • Dialect

A dialect is usually used to describe linguistic 'subvarieties' within a single language. Although dialects can differ in terms of pronunciation, words, sentence structure, and meaning, non-linguists occasionally use the term as a synonym for accent.

# • Regional Dialects

One of the simplest ways to notice the variety of languages is likely by means of regional variations in the way a language is used. You will almost definitely notice variations in pronunciation, word choice and form, and syntax when you travel across a large geographic area where a language is spoken, especially if that language has been spoken there for many hundreds of years when you travel from place to place, you might even notice very noticeable regional accents in the language. These unique variations are typically referred to as regional dialects of the language. The notion of **isogloss** is connected to regional dialects. "Dialect geographers have traditionally attempted to reproduce their findings on maps in what they call "dialect atlases". They try to show the geographical boundaries of the distribution of a particular linguistic feature by drawing a line on a map" (Wardhaugh, 2006, p.136). This line is called isogloss.

# • Sociolect

A variety that is perceived to be associated with the social background of its speakers rather than their geographic origin. Thus, a sociolect is a dialect specific to a social class.

# • Idiolect

A variety of language used by an individual speaker. An idiolect is an individual's way of speaking, including sounds, words, grammar, and style.

# • Register

A register is a language variety that emphasizes language use in specific situation. "Registers are sets of language items associated with discrete occupational or social groups" (Wardhaugh, 2006, p. 53). Wardhaugh (2006) goes on saying,

Speakers learn different registers through socialization in different cultural groups within their society. What we refer to as 'legalese' or 'personal ads' are identifiable registers for most people. Use of such registers thus either conforms to the norms for a particular, socially situated way of using language, or is a way of invoking the

context usually associated with that register. Of course, one person may control a variety of registers: you can be a stockbroker and an archeologist, or a mountain climber and an economist. A register helps you to construct an identity at a specific time or place. (p. 53)

# • Jargon

Jargon is a register that is specific to a given profession or activity and frequently creates its own unique vocabulary. Jargon may include unique terminology or specific definitions for words that already exist. Jargon helps members of the group communicate more effectively, but it can also prevent outsiders from joining the group or comprehending it.

# • Style

A variety of language used in sociolinguistics that is connected to a particular social context and has a different formality than other language styles. As a result, styles can be from extremely formal to extremely informal or colloquial. Joos (1967) divided speech styles into five groups, referred to as "The Five Clocks," which included frozen, formal, consultative, casual, and intimate styles.

# Slang

Words that are connected to extremely casual or colloquial speech patterns such as "batty" in English which means "mad" or "ace" which means "excellent." "Some items of slang, like ace, may be only temporarily fashionable, and thus come to be associated with particular agegroups in a society. Other slang words and phrases may stay in the language for generations" (Trudgill, 2003, p. 120).

#### • Taboo

It is meant by taboo language the words and expressions that are deemed inappropriate for use as they are shocking, rude, profane, or obscene when used. The study of language taboo is

interesting because it provides us insights into the moral, religious, and other values of a community. Common examples of taboo words are "swear words."

# **Chapter III. Language Contact and Change**

# Introduction

Interaction between speakers of distinct languages can lead to an array of consequences. A few words may be borrowed in certain situations, but in others, entire new languages may be created. The outcomes of these interactions vary depending on a number of factors: the duration and degree of interaction between the groups; the different social, political, and economic relations that exist between them; The purposes that their communication with one another must fulfill; The degree to which their languages are similar to one another.

# • Language Contact Defined

Language contact is a phenomenon in sociolinguistics that describes how speakers of various languages or dialects interact with one another. It is well known that this type of contact typically happens when two groups of people connect through trade, meet because of their shared neighborhood, or have speakers of different groups forced to speak a dominant group's language through education.

Since World War II, language contact—or rather, the outcomes of contact between various linguistic communities—has been a focus of intense study. Linguistic aspects and features may be transferred from one language to another. This transfer inevitably results in **language change**. At some point, most languages have been impacted by contact, which has led to varied degrees of feature transfer between them.

English, for instance, has borrowed a great deal of vocabulary from French, Latin, Greek, and many other languages in the course of its history. Transfer of this kind does not even require speakers of the different languages to have actual contact since it can be accomplished through book learning by teachers who then pass on

the new vocabulary to other speakers via literature, religious texts, dictionaries, and so on. (Windford, 2023)

Contact between languages can cause or result in phenomena like pidginization, borrowing, code-switching, language shift, lingua franca, and multilingualism.

# **Borrowing**

Borrowing is defined as "the process whereby bilingual speakers introduce words from one language into another language, these loan words eventually becoming accepted as an integral part of the second language" (Trudgill, 2000, p. 19). Although the word "restaurant" was originally spoken in French, it is now a recognized and used term in English, regardless of their bilingualism. English speakers pronounce it in accordance with English pronunciation rules rather than French pronunciation ones.

Loanwords are just one kind of borrowing that happens across linguistic boundaries in the study of language borrowing. When presented with novel concepts and ideas in the other language, speakers of one language have a variety of choices. Hockett (1958 as cited in Hoffer 2005) classified these choices into loanword, loanshift, loan-translation and loan-blend.

# Bilingualism

While monolingualism is a sociolinguistic phenomenon in which only one language is used and a person is considered monolingual if they are limited to speaking one language, bilingualism and multilingualism are the opposite. Speaking two languages or more is known as multilingualism and anyone who speaks more than one language fluently is said to be bilingual. For some writers, "bilingualism refers only to individuals who have native command of more than one language. Other writers use the term to refer to any speaker who has a reasonable degree of competence in a language other than their mother tongue" (Trudgill, 2000, p.15). Sociolinguists believe that the global prevalence of bilingualism is likely greater than that of monolinguals, at least when it comes to the second sense. Moreover, they reserve the term

multilingualism for nations or societies where only two languages are spoken, and use the term "bilingualism" to refer to individuals, regardless of whether they are trilingual, quadrilingual, etc. We have to distinguish between individual and societal bilingualism and their types

First individual bilingualism is classified according to cognitive functioning into coordinate bilingualism and compound bilingualism by Ervin and Osgood (1954).

Bilinguals are also classified into balanced bilinguals, the bilinguals who are fully proficient in both codes, unbalanced bilinguals who are not equally fully competent in both. And also active bilingualism refers to the ability to use both languages while passive bilingualism is the ability to understand but not to produce utterances.

One type of bilingualism known as simultaneous bilingualism occurs when a child learns two languages from birth.

One type of bilingualism known as simultaneous bilingualism occurs when a child learns two languages from birth and are both learned as first languages. Comparatively speaking, sequential or successive bilingualism the individual learns the second language as a foreign language rather than as one's mother tongue.

Societal bilingualism is classified and de jure (official) bilingualism and de facto bilingualism. The former suggests that there is formal recognition for bilingualism within a speech community. The aforementioned languages hold official status as recognized by the country's constitution. De facto is when more than one language is acknowledged in a country, but none of them has official status.

# • Code-switching

Code switching is a sociolinguistic phenomenon which occurs when individuals switch between two or more languages (The term "code" is used to refer to languages or different dialects). It happens when speakers of a single conversation switch between at least two different languages or language varieties (across sentences or clause boundaries). Individuals occasionally

code switch within a social context or domain. It is simple to explain a switch when there is an obvious change in the circumstances, like the arrival of a new person. Spolsky states that

Bilinguals often switch between their two languages in the middle of a conversation. These code-switches can take place between or even within sentences, involving phrases or words or even parts of words. The switching of words is the beginning of borrowing, which occurs when the new word becomes more or less integrated into the second language. (Spolsky, 1998, p.49)

Code switching has many types, situational code switching occurs when all communication takes place in one of the speakers' languages because that language is generally thought to be suitable when taking part in a conversation or interacting with others. Domain is deemed as a factor impacting language choice in this type of situation along with other factors such as the interlocutor, roles or relationships between speakers, setting, communication channel (writing vs. speech, telephone vs. face-to-face), or type of interaction. However, more unpredictable factors like the topic, the speaker's attitude toward it, the formation of an identity, or solidarity frequently serve as stimulants for code-switching. **Metaphorical code-switching** happens when code-switching is employed as a "sociolinguistic resource" as opposed to merely a contextual response. Code switching can also be divided into tag switching, inter-sentential switching and inta-sentential switching.

#### Diglossia

The term "diglossia" was initially used in linguistics in 1959 by Charles A. Ferguson. He is recognized as the first linguist to use the precise term diglossia in his paper "Diglossia." Diglossia is the term used to describe a situation in which there are two distinct codes with clear functional separation; that is, one code is employed in one set of circumstances and the other in an entirely different set (Wardhaugh & Fuller, 2015, p. 90).

Ferguson (1959) defined diglossia as follows.

Diglossia is a relatively stable language situation in which, in addition to the primary dialects of the language (which may include a standard or regional standards), there is a very divergent, highly codified (often grammatically more 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. (p. 336)

By definition, a diglossic situation has designated statuses for both the H and L varieties. Diglossia is distinct from other forms of societal bilingualism, such as Standard variety and regional dialect contexts, in that no one acquires the H variety as their first language at home. Nonetheless, a large number of people acquire what is regarded as the Standard variety as their first language in non-diglossic contexts. Additionally, due to distinctions in status, the varieties in diglossia do not overlap in their functions. Different forms of bilingualism allow for the use of one or both languages in a specific domain.

In a language context involving diglossia, Ferguson (1996) identifies six characteristics namely prestige, acquisition, literacy heritage, standardization, phonology and lexicon. Wardhaugh states that "a key defining characteristic of diglossia is that the two varieties are kept quite separate in their functions. One is used in one set of circumstances and the other in an entirely different set; these circumstances are called domains" (Wardhaugh, 2006, p. 91).

# • Language Shift

Language shift is the process whereby a population replaces a language with another.

Trudgill (2000) defines it as

The process whereby a community (often a linguistic minority) gradually abandons its original language and, via a (sometimes lengthy) stage of bilingualism, shifts to another language. For example, between the seventeenth and twentieth centuries, Ireland shifted from being almost entirely Irish-speaking to being almost entirely Englishspeaking. Shift most often takes place gradually, and domain by domain, with the original language being retained longest in informal family-type contexts. The ultimate end-point of language shift is language death. (p.77-78)

Ther are actually many factors can lead to language shift. These factors could be economic, political, social, or demographic

# • Language Death

Language death is the result of the process of language shift, which occurs when all speakers of the original language in the community eventually disappear. This can happen if the entire community completely switches to a new language. When one language becomes the language of the majority, it becomes dominant and drives the language of the minority group becomes limited to be used only in specific contexts. Language death also occurs when all the speakers of a language die and as a result their language dies with them.

# Pidgin and Creole

Pidgin is a language variety that is not overly complex linguistically, but rather reduced to its most basic forms. Pidgins are used as a lingua franca and emerge in language contact contexts, like trade. Trudgill (2000) says that pidgin is

A variety of language without native speakers which arises in a language contact situation of multilingualism, and which operates as a lingua franca. Pidgins are languages which have been derived from a source language through pidginisation. The degree of pidginisation is such that mutual intelligibility with the source

language is impossible or very difficult, and they have achieved a stable form through the processes of focusing (see focused) and stabilisation. Many well-known pidgins are derived from European source languages such as English and Portuguese, but there are also many pidgin languages which are derived from non-European sources.

When there is language contact, pidgins give rise to language varieties like creole. A creole, as opposed to a pidgin, is spoken as a first language by some speakers and is appropriate for use in all social contexts.

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