

BUKU AJAR SOCIOLINGUISTICS

Dr. Umar Fauzan, M.Pd.



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Penulis

Dr. Umar Fauzan, M.Pd.

Editor

Dr. Riinawati, M.Pd.

Tata Letak Isi & Layout

Usman Jayadi

Penerbit

CV. KANHAYA KARYA

Jl. Melati Raya VIII No.2 BTN Rembiga,

Kota Mataram, NTB

WA: 081238426727

Email: penerbitkakupress@gmail.com

Website: www.kakupress.web.id

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PART I

OVERVIEW OF THE COURSE

A. Material

A language is not only studied from the internal viewpoint but also from the external one. Internally, it is studied based on its internal structures; whereas, externally, it is based on the linguistic factors in relation to the factors beyond the language. A study of internal language structures (or, it is based on the sub-systems of a language) will result sub-discipline of linguistics such as phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. It is conducted through theories and procedures belonging to the discipline of linguistics; it is not related to the problems beyond the language.

When a study of language in which the linguistic factors are related to the factors beyond the language, such as language use that is done by its speakers in a certain speech community, it refers to sociolinguistics. According to Fishman, for instance, socially, the language use involves “Who speaks, what language, to whom, when and where” (Fishman, 1972:244). When some aspects of sociology are adopted in studying a language, this means it presents an interdisciplinary study; and its name represents a combination of sociology and linguistics. In this relation, some experts call it as sociology of language; and some others call it as sociolinguistics.

The following discussion involves some terms such as language, linguistics, sociology or its aspects, and sociolinguistics as well as relationships between language and society.

B. Questions for Discussions

1. In your own words, explain the relationship between language and society!
2. How does language reflect someone's identity?
3. If men and women speak differently, is it because the common language they share has a gender bias because boys and girls are brought up

differently, or because part of gender marking is the linguistic choices one can indeed make?

PART II

CONCEPT OF SOCIOLINGUISTIC

A. Material

A term sociolinguistics is a derivational word. Two words that form it are sociology and linguistics. Sociology refers to a science of society; and linguistics refers to a science of language. A study of language from the perspective of society may be thought as linguistics plus sociology. Some investigators have found it to introduce a distinction between sociolinguistics and sociology of language. Some others regard sociolinguistics is often referred as the sociology of language. Sociolinguistics is defined as: The study that is concerned with the relationship between language and the context in which it is used. In other words, it studies the relationship between language and society. 21 It explains we people speak differently in different social contexts. It discusses the social functions of language and the ways it is used to convey social meaning. All of the topics provides a lot of information about the language works, as well as about the social relationships in a community, and the way people signal aspects of their social identity through their language (Holmes, 2001) Sociolinguistics is “the study that is concerned with the interaction of language and setting” (Eastman, 1975; 113). It is the study that is concerned with investigating the relationship between language and society with the goal of a better understanding of the structure of language and of how languages function in communication (Wardhaugh, 1986 : 12).

B. Questions for Discussions

1. How do people use language to define themselves or to set themselves apart from others?
2. How, when, and why does language change?
3. What parts of speech change as people switch between different social situations?

4. What causes listeners to think of one type of language as "better" than another?

PART III

DIALECTS

A. Material

Every language is a composite of dialects. Banjarese language comprises, at least, two dialects: Banjar Hulu and Banjar Kuala dialects. Although we may not say that one dialect is better than that of another, there is an assumption that one of the dialects is regarded as a prestigious one. It seems that Banjar Kuala dialect is viewed as the prestigious dialect. This assumption is based on the fact that a speaker of Banjar Hulu dialect feels ashamed when using his dialect in the environment of Banjar Kuala speech community. Moreover, the speakers of Banjar Kuala dialect often laugh at those who speak in Banjar Hulu dialect. Furthermore, Javanese language is often divided into some dialects: Surabaya, Solo-Yogya, Banyumas dialects. Solo-Yogya dialect is viewed as the prestigious one. The prestigious dialect is often referred to as one that is used by political leaders and the upper socioeconomic classes; it is the dialect used for literature or printed documents; it is taught in the schools; it is used by the military; and it is propagated by the mass media. When a dialect is regarded as a prestigious one, it is often identified as a dominant dialect. This type of dialect is often called the standard dialect. London dialect is the most dominant one in English speech community (Fromkin and Rodman, 1978 : 258).

In a speech community, there must be, what we call, standard dialect, namely, a dialect that is used by many speakers of the speech community. In Indonesia, we recognize, what is called by, Bahasa Indonesia Baku. In England, British English speech communities determine, what they call, Received Pronunciation (RP). In States Sates, English American speech communities introduce, what we know as, Standard American English (SAE). A dialect taught to nonnative speakers is a standard one.

B. Questions for Discussions

1. How is regional dialect different from a social dialect? Elaborate your answers by providing examples!
2. A survey of the following kind might prove quite revealing. Ask a variety of people you know questions such as these, and then try to organize their responses in a systematic way:
 - a. Which language(s) do you speak?
 - b. Do you speak a dialect of X?
 - c. Where is the best X spoken?
 - d. What is your native language (or mother tongue)?
 - e. Do you speak X with an accent? If so, what accent?

Try also to get definitions from your informants for each of the terms that you use!

PART IV

STYLE, REGISTER AND GENRES

A. Material

In dealing with the text different terms are used to point out its variety of features, resulting in some ambiguity, especially in use of such concepts as style, register, genre, text type and mode of discourse. It is the objective of the present paper to differentiate between them and contribute into a better understanding of text and discourse nature. Although style is frequently used both in linguistics and literary criticism, it is very difficult to define. Stylistic features, or techniques of arranging units of phonology, morphology, lexicology and syntax so that to affect the meaning conveyed, are basically features of language, so style in one sense is synonymous with language. Further, style as a set of linguistic means characteristic for a particular purpose of communication between given persons in a definite context can also be called a functional style, and one can traditionally refer to the style of official and business communication, the style of scientific prose, the newspaper style, the belles-lettres style or the colloquial style. Author's individual "language habits", that is a writer's manner of deliberately choosing language means that will have a certain effect on the reader is known as idiolect.

The term register is similar to the term style in that it implies linguistic features that mark communicative situations in particular social setting. However, registers are primarily variations in language use in non-literary situations (e.g. an interview, sports commentary, a telephone conversation, a political speech, legal language) and depend a lot upon the social background, geography, sex and age of the language user. In general, the register of communication, or the speaker's choice of sound, grammar and lexis, is determined by the subject matter of conversation ("field"), the medium of information exchange ("mode"), and social roles of participants ("tenor"). Different registers may overlap with each other in respect of mode or field.

Thus, register essentially represents degree of formality, and is important for socio-pragmatic investigations of style.

When distinguishing between “genre” and “register” some linguists prefer seeing the latter as a particular situational configuration of linguistic resources which is contextually determined. The former is then considered at a “higher level” and viewed as a structure common for groups of texts which are recognized as performing broadly similar functions in a society (e.g. poem, novel, essay, report). For example, the function of reporting can be performed by different genres of reports weather reports, progress reports, etc., and within the genre of, say, weather report, there are such registers as TV weather forecasts and newspaper weather summary, which differ in medium-determined linguistic features. So, any group of texts which show a similarity of register can be said to belong to the same genre, and whereas genres can have some common features, no two registers will ever be identical

The concept of text type was first introduced by German linguist Peter Hartman in 1964 and has been considerably revised since then. At the moment text types are defined as limited sets of samples of actual texts with specific shared characteristics, such as the physical form, the characteristic structure (i.e. the use of linguistic means), the situational conditions (including the medium of the texts) and the communicative function of the texts. It is worth mentioning here that while genre seems to be more common in literature (cf. literary genre), text type can be found in studies of non-literal, specialist texts, which make use of conventional linguistic resources and layout, but differ in content (e.g. journal abstract, notice, maintenance manual, announcement). Thus, the definition of text types, the number of which is limited, is based on textinternal data whereas definitions of genres, which evolve historically by chance, follow various text-external and text-internal criteria alike (e.g. letter and its many subclasses). Sometimes the term “mode of discourse” is used synonymously with “text type”, even though it is restricted to the characterization of texts according to pragmatic properties, or speaker’s

purposes. There are numerous varying classifications of modes of discourse, and the most typical varieties are narration, description, exposition, and argument. These are different ways of viewing the subject and, in fact, a discourse may combine all of them, but it is common to mark the one which organizes the discourse.

B. Questions for Discussions

1. What is the connection between style, register and genres?
2. How genre and register affect the structure of the English text?
3. What is the relationship between genre and language registers

PART V
LANGUAGES IN CONTACT: MULTILINGUAL SOCIETIES

A. Material

Multilingualism can be defined in different ways but basically it refers to the ability to use more than two languages. A basic distinction when discussing bilingualism and multilingualism is between the individual and societal level. At the individual level, bilingualism and multilingualism refer to the speaker's competence to use two or more languages. At the societal level the terms bilingualism and multilingualism refer to the use of two or more languages in a speech community and it does not necessary imply that all the speakers in that community are competent in more than one language. Meanwhile, multilingualism is identified by the prefix multi- which means —many|. It can be said here that multilingualism is the situation where more than two languages are used by a particular society. Singapore is one of the countries where multilingual situation exists. It has been noted that four official languages are used there: Malay, Tamil, Mandarin, and English language.

Language use may occur in using of single language and two or more languages. Those two types of language use may bring about some consequences of both linguistic and sociocultural phenomena. The idea of language use with a single language seems only to be illustrated theoretically. This is because in a sociolinguistic perspective related to multilingualism in society, the single language use is very difficult to do. This may only be done in an official speech by a government leader based on a written text. The facts in the community show that we often encounter, or even we do, the phenomenon of codeswitching. The single language use can only happen when all members of the speech community are monolingual speakers.

A language policy in a multilingual state should not put any ethnic group at a disadvantage. Ethnic communities must be allowed to speak their

language and the government should protect the ethnic languages from extinction. Language problems are very common in a multilingual state. The biggest of problems is school education. Trudgill exposes two different sorts of government language interventions. He explains that ‘Welsh in Wales and Gaelic in Scotland-at one time’ was illegal. The purpose here and often elsewhere was to suppress local vernacular in favour of English, ‘the national language’. The reserve was enacted in South Africa. Bantu Education Department had as its stated aim the education of all Africans in their mother tongue.....an attempt to isolate them from each other, from the ruling elite, from the possibilities of advancement, and from international literature and other contacts. Any language policy which is detrimental to the native speakers of the language because it bans the use of any language or orders citizens to use one language should be abandoned. A language policy should not just be adopted because it has worked somewhere else. Identical policies can have different implications in different contexts.

B. Questions for Discussions

1. How important is languages in contact?
2. What is the effect of languages in contact?
3. What is the effect of multilingualism on society?
4. What are the challenges and opportunities of having multiple languages and multiple dialects in a country?

PART VI

PIDGIN AND CREOLES

A. Material

A lingua franca is defined as ‘a language which is used habitually by people whose mother tongues are different in order to facilitate communication between.’ A variety of other terms can be found which describe much the same phenomenon. That is to say that a lingua franca may refer to a trade language, a contact language, an international language (Wardhaugh, 55-56). A lingua franca is needed in many areas of the world populated by people speaking divergent languages. In such areas, where groups desire social or commercial communication, one language is often used by common agreement (Fromkin and Rodman, 1978 : 267). The lingua francas may be spoken in the various ways. They are not only spoken differently in different places, but individual speakers varied widely in their ability to use the languages. English serves today as a lingua franca in many parts of the world: for some speakers it is a native language, for others a second language, and for still other a foreign language (Wardhaugh, 56).

In the past time, Bahasa Melayu was used as a lingua franca in Indonesian archipelago. Banjarese language may be used as a lingua franca by its nonnative speakers in South Kalimantan; it may be used by Wong Jowo (Javenese people) when communicating with Oreng Madure (Madurese people) in one of the markets in Banjarmasin, South Kalimantan. A pidgin is a language with no native speakers: it is no one’s first language but it is a contact language. That is, it is the product of a multilingual situation in which those who wish to communicate must find or improvise a simple code to enable them to do so.

A pidgin is sometimes regarded as a ‘reduced’ variety of a ‘normal’ language, with simplification of the grammar and vocabulary of that language, considerable phonological variation, and an admixture of local vocabulary to

meet the special needs of the contact groups (Wardhaugh, 1986 : 56). Although a pidgin is reduced variety of a normal language, it is not devoid of grammar. The phonological system is rulegoverned. The inventory of phonemes is generally small, and each phoneme may have many allophonic pronunciations (Fromkin and Rodman, 1978 : 269).

When a pidgin comes to be adopted by a community as its native tongue, and children learn it as a first language, that language is called a creole. That is to say that the pidgin has been creolized. Creoles are more fully developed than pidgins, generally having more lexical items and a broader array of grammatical distinctions. In time, they becomes languages as complete in every way as other languages. In this relation, we may say that first of all, Bahasa Melayu had been regarded as a pidgin, namely, a variety of language with no native speakers in Indonesian archipelago; it was, then, adopted as Bahasa Persatuan (unifying language) called Bahasa Indonesia. After being adopted as Indonesian community, it has been learnt by Indonesian people as native language. At present, there are native speakers of the language.

B. Questions for Discussions

1. Explain what lingua franca is?
2. Distinguish between a pidgin and creole!
3. Describe the features of a pidgin and a creole!
4. Describe the development process of a pidgin and creole!

PART VII

LANGUAGE VARIATION

A. Material

The term linguistic variation (or simply variation) refers to regional, social, or contextual differences in the ways that a particular language is used. Variation between languages, dialects, and speakers is known as interspeaker variation. Variation within the language of a single speaker is called intraspeaker variation. Since the rise of sociolinguistics in the 1960s, interest in linguistic variation (also called linguistic variability) has developed rapidly. R.L. Trask notes that "variation, far from being peripheral and inconsequential, is a vital part of ordinary linguistic behavior" (*Key Concepts in Language and Linguistics*, 2007). The formal study of variation is known as variationist (socio) linguistics. All aspects of language (including phonemes, morphemes, syntactic structures, and meanings) are subject to variation.

Observations and Examples

- a. Linguistic variation is central to the study of language use.

In fact it is impossible to study the language forms used in natural texts without being confronted with the issue of linguistic variability. Variability is inherent in human language: a single speaker will use different linguistic forms on different occasions, and different speakers of a language will express the same meanings using different forms. Most of this variation is highly systematic: speakers of a language make choices in pronunciation, morphology, word choice, and grammar depending on a number of non-linguistic factors. These factors include the speaker's purpose in communication, the relationship between speaker and hearer, the production circumstances, and various demographic affiliations that a speaker can have.

b. Linguistic Variation and Sociolinguistic Variation.

There are two types of language variation: linguistic and sociolinguistic. With linguistic variation, the alternation between elements is categorically constrained by the linguistic context in which they occur. With sociolinguistic variation, speakers can choose between elements in the same linguistic context and, hence the alternation is probabilistic. Furthermore, the probability of one form being chosen over another is also affected in a probabilistic way by a range of extra-linguistic factors [e.g. the degree of (in)formality of the topic under discussion, the social status of the speaker and of the interlocutor, the setting in which communication takes place, etc.

c. Dialectal Variation

A dialect is variation in grammar and vocabulary in addition to sound variations. For example, if one person utters the sentence 'John is a farmer' and another says the same thing except pronounces the word farmer as 'fahmuh,' then the difference is one of accent. But if one person says something like 'You should not do that' and another says 'Ya hadn't oughta do that,' then this is a dialect difference because the variation is greater. The extent of dialect differences is a continuum. Some dialects are extremely different and others less so.

d. Types of Variation

[R]egional variation is only one of many possible types of differences among speakers of the same language. For example, there are occupational dialects (the word bugs means something quite different to a computer programmer and an exterminator), sexual dialects (women are far more likely than men to call a new house adorable), and educational dialects (the more education people have, the less likely they are to use double negatives). There are dialects of age (teenagers have their own slang, and even the phonology of older speakers is

likely to differ from that of young speakers in the same geographical region) and dialects of social context (we do not talk the same way to our intimate friends as we do to new acquaintances, to the paperboy, or to our employer). . . . [R]egional dialects are only one of many types of linguistic variation.

e. Linguistic Variables

- 1) [T]he introduction of the quantitative approach to language description has revealed important patterns of linguistic behaviour which were previously invisible. The concept of a sociolinguistic variable has become central to the description of speech. A variable is some point of usage for which two or more competing forms are available in a community, with speakers showing interesting and significant differences in the frequency with which they use one or another of these competing forms. "Furthermore, it has been discovered that variation is typically the vehicle of language change."
- 2) Lexical variables are fairly straightforward, as long as we can show that the two variants--such as the choice between *soda* and *pop* for a carbonated beverage in American English--refer to the same entity. Thus, in the case of *soda* and *pop*, we need to take into account that for many U.S. southerners, *Coke* (when used to refer to a beverage and not the steel-making fuel or the illicit narcotic) has the same referent as *soda*, whereas in other parts of the U.S., *Coke* refers to a single brand/flavour of the beverage"

B. Questions for Discussions

1. What are some of the independent variables used by sociolinguistics? Explain why the same independent variables are not of equal importance in all societies.

2. What are some of the consistent patterns of variation that have been found?
For example, what is the relationship between the prestige variant of a variable and socio-economic class?

PART VIII

LANGUAGE DEATH AND LOSS

A. Material

When all the people who speak a language die, the language dies with them. When a language dies gradually, as opposed to all its speakers being wiped out by massacre epidemic, the process is similar to that of language shift. The functions of the language are taken over in one domain after another by another language. As the domains in which speakers use the language shrink, the speakers of the dying language become gradually less proficient in it.

Languages represent vast storehouses of human knowledge. Some of languages are not written down, but live only in the memories and cultural practices of human communities – groups of people who over millennia have devised unique systems of survival in difficult circumstances. Human languages are catalogs of plants, animals, insects, people's stories, weather patterns, diseases, social paradigms, songs, jokes, aphorisms, strategies for war and peace, practices of trade and negotiation.

Simple understandings of language death noted from the language shifting is that when the speakers leave their mother tongue and use other language, the mother tongue, slowly or quickly disappear. Campbell (1994, p. 1961) described the language death as “the loss of a language due to gradual shift to the dominant language in language contact situations”. There are four types of language death from Mesthrie and Leap (1995, p. 254):

1. Gradual death: gradual replacement due to language shift
2. Sudden death: rapid extinction, e.g. Tasmanian
3. Radical Death: due to severe political repression, e.g. the massacre of thousand Indian in El Salvador
4. Bottom-to-top death: not used in conversation, but survives in special use e.g. religion or folk songs.

English is also one of the major causes of the death of other languages. Cornish in England was disappeared after the speakers moved their mother tongue away to English (Mesthrie & Leap (1995, p. 253). While the case of Ghanaian language, some of Ghanaian regional languages were disappeared such as Nabit, Sisaala, and Likpakaln because of English authority (Andersen, 2009, p. 11).

In linguistics, language death occurs when a language loses its last native speaker. By extension, language extinction is when the language is no longer known, including by second-language speakers. Other similar terms include *linguicide*, the death of a language from natural or political causes, and rarely *glottophagy*, the absorption or replacement of a minor language by a major language.

Language death is typically the final outcome of language shift and may manifest itself in one of the following ways:

1. Gradual language death: the most common way that languages die. Generally happens when the people speaking that language interact with a higher prestige language speakers. This group of people first becomes bilingual, then with newer generations the level of proficiency decreases, and finally no native speakers exist.
2. Bottom-to-top language death: occurs when the language starts to be used for only religious, literary, ceremonial purposes, but not in casual context.
3. Top-to-bottom language death: happens when language shift begins in a high-level environment such as the government, but still continues to be used in casual context.
4. Radical language death: the disappearance of a language when all speakers of the language cease to speak the language because of threats, pressure, persecution, or colonisation.
5. Linguicide (also known as sudden death, language genocide, physical language death, and biological language death): occurs when all or almost

all native speakers of that language die because of natural disasters, wars etc.

6. Language attrition: the loss of proficiency in a language at the individual level.

An issue of major importance to heritage language communities is language loss. Language loss can occur on two levels. It may be on a personal or familial level, which is often the case with immigrant communities in the United States, or the entire language may be lost when it ceases to be spoken at all. The latter scenario has become an all-too-common threat in indigenous communities in the United States, because their languages are not spoken anywhere else in the world.

Individuals living in the United States and undergoing loss of a language other than English tend to have simplified grammar and gaps in their vocabulary. They may attempt to paraphrase their speech or borrow words and morphosyntactic structures from English. Depending on the strategies they use, people can be slowed down considerably in their attempts to communicate, and may eventually give up entirely due to linguistic insecurity (Anderson, 1982). In families where members of older generations have limited abilities in English, individual loss of the non-English language results in communication rifts between family members and may also cause a great sense of cultural loss for the individual (Hinton, 1999). When a shift to English occurs in indigenous populations, the indigenous language itself may be lost. Indigenous language loss has been given a lot of attention in the field of linguistics in recent years. Linguist Michael Krauss has predicted that 90% of the world's languages are likely to be gone within a century (Hale et al., 1992), and most of the United States' remaining 175 indigenous languages are likely to be lost in that time as well (Krauss, 1996).

While language loss can be devastating to a community, it need not be inevitable. Many dedicated people throughout the world have undertaken the challenge of reversing language loss in their communities. While these efforts

vary in size, resources, goals, and results, they share a dedication to specific heritage languages so that they may be spoken by future generations. The Alliance for the Advancement of Heritage Languages is dedicated to promoting language development in heritage language programs, and the Alliance website contains many resources for individuals and programs involved in these efforts.

B. Questions for Discussions

1. Is language death a separate phenomenon from language change?
2. Is language death good? (or, less caustically: are there any favorable outcomes of language death?)

PART IX MID SEMESTER EVALUATION

1. In your own words, explain the relationship between language and society!
2. How does language reflect someone's identity?
3. How do people use language to define themselves or to set themselves apart from others?
4. How, when, and why does language change?
5. How is regional dialect different from a social dialect? Elaborate your answers by providing examples!
6. A survey of the following kind might prove quite revealing. Ask a variety of people you know questions such as these, and then try to organize their responses in a systematic way:
 - a. Which language(s) do you speak?
 - b. Do you speak a dialect of X?
 - c. Where is the best X spoken?
 - d. What is your native language (or mother tongue)?
 - e. Do you speak X with an accent? If so, what accent?

Try also to get definitions from your informants for each of the terms that you use!
7. What is the connection between style, register and genres?
8. How genre and register affect the structure of the English text?
9. How important is languages in contact?
10. Describe the features of a pidgin and a creole!
11. Describe the development process of a pidgin and creole!
12. What are some of the independent variables used by sociolinguistics? Explain why the same independent variables are not of equal importance in all societies.
13. What are some of the consistent patterns of variation that have been found? For example, what is the relationship between the prestige variant of a variable and socio-economic class?
14. Is language death a separate phenomenon from language change?
15. Is language death good? (or, less caustically: are there any favorable outcomes of language death?)

PART X

CODE SWITCHING AND CODE MIXING

A. Material

There are four official languages used in Singapore, but the government policy made Singaporean people must choose one of the languages to be used in a particular situation. National policy promotes English as a trade language, Mandarin as the international —Chinese language, Malay as the language of the region, and Tamil as the language of one of the important ethnic groups in the republic. It shows that Singaporean has to consider the situation where he/she is conversing so that he/she can choose a particular language. This situation leads to the phenomenon of code choice.

Then, we are turning to the issue of what might cause a speaker to switch from language A to language B. What might cause a speaker to mix language A and language B ? A number of answers have been suggested, including solidarity with listeners, choice of topic, and perceived social and cultural distance. It can be said code switching takes place when the speaker switch from one language to the other, and code mixing occurs when the speaker mix two languages in one utterance.

Code-switching can be divided into two kinds: situational code-switching and metaphorical code-switching. Situational code-switching occurs when the languages used change according to the situations in which the conversant find themselves. Therefore, no topic change is involved. This type of code-mixing often happens in the classroom where a particular foreign language is being learned. For example, in giving a lecture on sociolinguistics to the students, the lecturer uses English language; however, he/she also uses Indonesian language as a students' mother tongue. The process of switching from English into Indonesian is intended to give better understanding to the students. On the other hand, metaphorical code-switching takes place when a change of a topic requires a change in the language used.

Code-mixing occurs when conversant use both languages together to the extent that they change from one language to the other in the course of a single utterance. The key point here is a single utterance. It means that it must be integrated in one sentence; for example, I don't want you pergi kesana.

Undoubtedly, since it is found in a single utterance, it occurs without an associated topic change. Wardaugh cited that the primary usage of code-mixing is as a solidarity marker; that is, the speaker wants to show the sense of intimacy to the interlocutor.

Code-switching and code-mixing, therefore, are commonly expected phenomena, being the expression of the communicative need and adaptability of language, determined by the —bounds of limitless avenues and patterns of social interaction and the unfathomable depth of human creative reservoir| (Adekunle 1990:240). In effect, human beings are always involved in numerous efforts to make language a more effective tool of communication. Code mixing is usually the infusion of single words or items from the donor language into the L1 construction. Code-switching is the lifting of phrasal, clausal or sentential structures. In syntactic terms, code switching occurs in a discourse which is made up of sentences in languages A and B.

According to Bentahila and Davies (1983) code-switching has sometimes been used to register the bilingual's ability to choose one or the other of these two languages in a particular situation. Code-mixing on the other hand is the random alternation of two languages within a sentence. Pfaff (1983) says this language behavior is governed by linguistic and sociolinguistic factors. Banjo (1983) calls it language mixing, and that it occurs in a sentence made of elements of languages A and B. Code switching is the result of a speaker's movement from one language or dialect of another language to another. This movement is conditioned by social as well as linguistic constraints. Linguistic constraints are those of proficiency and mastery of both systems. Social constraints are primarily those of topic, situation, participants, education, sex etc. The basic difference between code switching and code-mixing is the

composition of the elements intermingled and the arrangement of such intermingling.

B. Questions for Discussions

Write down the definition and the differences of:

- a. Code switching
- b. Code mixing

PART XI

ETNOGRAFI SOSIOLINGUISTIS

A. Material

Effective communication requires the integration of multiple factors, including linguistic, cultural, cognitive, and neurological variables. Ethnography and sociolinguistics may enhance our understanding of how those factors interact. Ethnography is the systematic, qualitative study of culture, including the cultural bases of linguistic skills and communicative contexts (Ochs & Schieffelin, 1995). Sociolinguistics, on the other hand, focuses on how language use is shaped by individual and societal forces (Coulmas, 1997). As examples, ethnographic research may examine discourse and vocabulary trends in a specific cultural group; sociolinguistic studies may focus on language input differences in bilingual development or age-related speech variation (Ball, 2005).

Although the separation between ethnography and sociolinguistics is not always clear (Salzmann, 1993), the application of ethnographic and sociolinguistic principles to speech-language pathology research and practice is critical. Ethnographic and sociolinguistic descriptions point to key relationships in the inextricable links among culture, language, communication, and cognition. Language development, communication acts, and concomitant thought processes are affected by the cultural world in which we live (Centeno, 2007b). Ethnographic and sociolinguistic analysis expands our understanding of an individual's communication history, language profile, and psycholinguistic processing (Ball, 2005; Centeno, 2007b), and has particular significance in our increasingly diverse clinical caseloads. Based on monolingual and bilingual speakers, current research and theory illustrate how approaches grounded in the ethnographic and sociolinguistic realities of language and communication can enrich experimental methodology, theory-building, and evidence-based practices in speech-language pathology.

Linking ethnographic and sociolinguistic factors to language sampling facilitates appropriate methodology and diagnostic interpretations of children's grammatical development. Given the variability in acquisitional scenarios across sociocultural contexts, much research in language sampling in specific groups of monolingual and bilingual children is required before generalizations can be made.

B. Questions for Discussions

What are the concepts, methods, and examples of sociolinguistic ethnography?

PART XII

LANGUAGE AND POLITENESS

A. Material

Being polite is a very complicated thing in any language and culture. It is difficult to learn because it involves understanding not just on the language, but also on the social and cultural values of the community. We often do not appreciate just how complicated it is, because we tend to think of politeness simply as a matter of saying please and thank you in the right place. In fact, it involves a great deal of more than the superficial politeness routines that parent explicitly teach their children. For example, in relation to the word please, children are told to say please when they are making request, as a way of expressing themselves politely.

First of all, we need to define what politeness is. Janet Holmes defines Politeness involves taking account of the feelings of others. A polite person makes other people feel comfortable. Being linguistically polite involves speaking to people appropriately in the light of relationship to you. Inappropriate linguistic choices may be considered rude. Using an imperative sentence such as stop talking or shut the door to a superior at work is likely to earn the office junior a reprimand. Calling the manager director her or his name when you do not know the person well and have only started work in the work place is likely to be considered impolite. Making the decisions about what is or not considered polite in the community involves assessing social relationships along the dimensions of social distance or solidarity, and relative power or status we need to understand the social values of a society in order to speak politely.

Furthermore, according to Janet Holmes, there are two different types of politeness. Positive politeness is solidarity oriented. It emphasizes shared attitudes and values. When the boss suggests that a subordinate should use first name (FN) to the boss, this is likely a positive politeness, expressing solidarity

and minimizing status differences. A shift to a more informal style using slang and swear words will function similarly as an expression of positive politeness. The other kind is negative politeness. It involves people's respect and avoids intruding on them. Negative politeness refers to expressing oneself appropriately in terms of social distance and respecting status differences.

Being polite may also involve the dimension of formality. In a formal situation, the appropriate way of talking to your brother will depend on your roles in the context. If he is acting as the judge in law court then calling him Tom will be considered disrespectful, while at the dinner table calling Your Honor will be perceived as equally rude.

In every human interaction, language has a very important role as means of communication. According to Chaer (2003:32), language is an arbitrary system which uses in society to cooperate, communicate, and to identify them. In short, language is used to build the communication, socialization, and interaction with each other.

B. Questions for Discussions

What is the relationship between language and politeness? How big is the impact? Tell!

PART XIII

LANGUAGE AND GENDER

A. Material

The term “gender” is sometimes misunderstood by some certain people by considering it is the same as “sex”. In fact, they have different definitions, “Sex is designation based on biology, whereas gender is socially and psychologically constructed by the process of interactions in the family, social and education settings.” In other words, “gender is not something we have, but something we do, something we perform. Sex is a biological categorization based primarily on reproductive potential, whereas gender is the social elaboration of biological sex.” It means that sex is something that is brought with when a person is born. From some certain characteristics someone can be classified as male or female, such as genitals and reproductive organs. Whereas gender can be seen as something that is not brought with when someone is born, rather than something that is created by humans socially and psychologically according to their belief and rules when they have contact or communicate each other. Imagine a boy is bought a car and blue cloth by his parents, while a girl is bought a doll and pink cloth. These phenomena show how the parents try to form their children who have opposite sex differently when they start bringing them up.

Gender is referred variously across areas of social science. In a specific social setting, the culture legalizes values, expectations, meanings and patterns of behavior and communication of its society. Concerning gender for example, it can be seen a lot of structures that are formed. Based on what emerge on television, magazines or personal experiences, it shows the representations of gender issues. Women are assumed in home making, care giving and subservient roles. Conversely, men are represented as leader and breadwinner. Furthermore, in many cultures women take the name of their husbands after getting married, sons have more freedom to play outside the house and

daughters have to be more at home and take care of younger siblings. Additionally, it shows that at some certain schools or academies the gendered based positioned are offered for the student recruitment so that they will be able to fulfill requirement of future work position. Due to daily practices, such gender issues are considered normal or even are not realized as the forms of gender identities.

Related to gender in language, Sidiqi mentions that “In linguistics, the term referred to the grammatical categories that indexed sex in the structure of human languages. Feminist theorists of the 1960s to 1970s use the term ‘gender’ to refer to the construction of the categories ‘masculine’ and ‘feminine’ in society. This construction was related to biological sex in contested way.” However, the connection between gender and language could be found long before the start of women’s movement in the late 1960s and early 1970s. Perhaps it appeared one century before this issue was raised as a scholarly study. The different way of talk between men and women was expressed in worldwide proverbs which represented women’s verbosity in expressing language and content’s of women talk rebutting, for example:

‘A women’s tongue wags like a lamb’s tail’ (England).

‘The North Sea will be found wanting in water than a woman at loss for a word’ (Jutland).

‘Many women, many words, many geese, many turds’(England).

‘Three women make a market’ (Sudan).

‘Three women together make a theatrical performance’ (China).

‘Women are nine times more talkative than men’ (Hebrew).

‘Women’s and children’s opinion’ (China).

‘A woman’s tongue spreads gossip fast’ (China).

‘Men talk like books, women lose themselves in details’ (China).

‘Never listen to a woman words’ (China).

‘The tongue is babbling, but the head knows nothing about it’ (Russia).

‘Three inches of a woman tongue can slay a man six feet tall’ (Japan).

Besides, the expressions on how women use the language were found not only in proverbs, but also in fictions, such as:

‘Silence gives the proper grace to women’ (Sophocles, *Ajax*)

‘As men/do walk a mile, women should talk an hour/After supper. ’Tis their exercise’ (Francis Beaumont and John Fletcher, *Philaster*, II.iv).

‘How hard it is for women to keep counsel!’ (Shakespeare, *Julius Caesar*, II.iv.9).

‘Her voice was ever soft,/gentle and low, an excellent thing in woman’ (Shakespeare, *King Lear*, V.iii.2740).

‘She has brown hair, and speaks small like a woman’ (Shakespeare, *Merry Wives of Windsor*, I.i.48).

The concern about gender and language had been begun in the nineteenth century. It can be seen from the movement of women that were published to public. Then it also emerged on feminist campaign about personal names and on feminist philosophy. However, the research of gender and language issues was just developed in 1960s and 1970s together with the second movement of feminism. At that era, the writers or authors wrote articles and books regarding two important issues that were the nature and significance of gender bias in language and of gender differences in language use. For example, Cheri Kramer, Barrie Thorne and Nancy Henley aroused some significant questions in their essays ‘Do women and men use language in different ways? In what ways does language – in structure, content and daily usage – reflect and help constitute sexual inequality? How can sexist language be changed?’ Other researchers of gender and language still attracted to ask such questions to investigate their research at that time. Those questions were used to question the social condition in which appeared gender inequality which was reflected through language where men got power and social advantage but conversely women got lack of power and social disadvantage. Feminist language researchers then also argued that the power of men can be seen in the language in various things. The argument was men had more power

to control languages because most of philosophers, orators, politicians, grammarians, linguists, lexicographers were men. As a result, to show male highest position over women, sexism was encoded into language by men. Even a researcher argued that it was important to promote women as users and innovators of the world wide web, so that it will not increase men's supremacy over women on internet language use.

B. Questions for Discussions

1. Who is more likely to use language to bond, encourage and balance power?
2. Mention and explain the characteristics of male language!
3. Mention and explain the characteristics of woman language!

PART XIV

SOCIOLINGUISTICS AND EDUCATION

A. Material

The application of sociolinguistics to educational problems is absolutely essential as it can help us better understand the relationships between languages and schools, and help make necessary improvements in education through the development of a curriculum that would welcome the cultural and linguistic diversity of all students. Also, development of the appropriate reading and writing programs could help educators reach the needs of students who speak non-standard varieties of the language.

Language is an important component of education. School instruction is delivered through the use of language. It is crucial for children to be able to understand the language of schools. Unfortunately, the language of home and the language of school do not always match, and then various teaching methods and literacy practices need to be employed to assure that all children receive equal access to education.

Halliday (1997) asserts that appropriate methodologies need to be culture- (and we would like to add language)-sensitive if they are to address classroom problems.

The well-known controversy around the use of AAE dialect (named Ebonics) in schools proves that the general public does not have sufficient knowledge and understanding of various dialects and their value for large groups of people. Home dialects cannot be easily replaced by standard varieties. Students who speak non-standard dialects at home often cannot fully benefit from schooling. Students' native languages and dialects must be respected by schools and the general public.

Wong Fillmore (2006, p. 340) argues that in American society language became "a source of conflict in education." She wonders what position the society should take toward educating and preserving languages of ethnic

minorities and immigrant groups. If the general public and the minority groups themselves could understand the needs of the non-English speaking students better, then Proposition 227 would have never been signed in California, and bilingual education would have been saved.

Educating the general public about the importance of language maintenance and the advantages of bilingualism can prevent discrimination in educational settings, help reach the needs of bilingual students, and slow down language loss in our society. If the general public is to vote on pedagogical approaches, and be involved in decision making in such areas as bilingual education, its sociolinguistic blindness needs to be cured.

Sociolinguistics applies its theory to linguistically diverse educational settings and communities. It has its approaches to bilingualism, second language learning, and language maintenance. Sociolinguistics course could raise awareness among teachers, policy-makers and community members on the role of minority languages in schools.

Studying sociolinguistics can widen educational horizons of all college students. This course can help them learn more about language variation and language use. This course can prepare them to better participate in our everyday life for their own benefit and for the benefit of other people around them.

B. Questions for Discussions

How is sociolinguistics in education? Explain briefly!

PART XV

REVIEW OF LESSON

A language is an important thing in a given community, a speech community. It is not a means for communication and interaction but also for establishing and maintaining human relationships. One characteristic of a language is that is social. That is to say that all speech events must be in relation to the social aspects. A new-born child acquires a language in the social environment (family as a part of the speech community). A language use also occurs in the speech community. Based the geographical area, one community may be different from one to another. This results in the different varieties language: dialects. These kinds of dialects are known as geographical or regional dialects.

The fact also shows us that the members of a community or speech community are in the same social hierarchy. Consequently, there are also varieties of the same language used by the different types of the language users. These kinds of language varieties are known as social dialects. Sociolinguistics studies a language and its varieties, and how they are used in the speech community in relation to the socio-cultural background of the language use itself.

As a global language, English language has some statuses. Firstly, it is the first language for the native speakers and used as a national language. Secondly, it is the second language for the non-native speakers and used as a official language after their national language. Thirdly, it is a foreign language for the speakers other than the two groups above. For the sake of international communication, it is used as a *lingua franca*. As an international language, English language is functioned as the official language by United Nations (UN) and used for international communication. In the academic field, English language can be used as a medium of instruction and a means of developing science and technology.

It can be concluded from the findings of this study that sociolinguistics plays an important role in the learning of foreign languages. The foreign language

referred to here is English. Where at this time, English has become a very important language especially when communicating with people of different countries. This review-based article is also very good as a reference when it is associated with other fields of sociolinguistics and is a good reference for readers, especially students or teachers because this article is related to the field of education.

PART XVI SEMESTER EVALUATION

1. Write down the definition and the differences of:
 - a. Code switching
 - b. Code mixing
2. What are the concepts, methods, and examples of sociolinguistic ethnography?
3. What is the relationship between language and politeness? How big is the impact? Tell!
4. Who is more likely to use language to bond, encourage and balance power?
5. Mention and explain the characteristics of male language!
6. Mention and explain the characteristics of woman language!
7. How is sociolinguistics in education? Explain briefly!

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