Ministry of Higher Education

University of Diyala

College of Basic Education

English Department

The Influence of Sociolinguistics in language

Prepared By: Mustafa Rashid Ahmed

Supervised By: Nizar H. Waly

<u>Dedication</u>

To my parents with
my endless love and
fidelity...

Section Two:

Introduction :

This research deals with the effectiveness of sociolinguistics as a science which consists of sociology and linguistic combing both of them as one science to influence on a language. This research also deals with the background of a particular society, their history, tribes, gender, education or culture,…etc.

In section one we will have a good look at on language and society which is the first subject in this section, then, comes after it language…society and culture, language and gender, differences in male and female speech, sociolinguistics, definition of sociolinguistics, origins and main figures, types and areas of sociolinguistics, language contact, types of variation, variation in English, sociolinguistics and mother tongue education, linguistics and language teaching, the linguistic study of language, the goals of a linguistic theory.

Whereas, in section two the research deals closely with the following subjects: modern sociolinguistics, sociolinguistics…what is it? Language variation, speech communities, the linguistic view point, what factors enter into language variation, what kinds of variation are there in language?, sociolinguistics stimuli to development of the English lexicon-language contact and social need, institutionalization, characteristics of sociolinguistics, linguistic variation in writing, applied linguistics, theory of language and learning, communicative competence, and then we will see a thorough conclusion which sums up the whole research project.

(SECTION ONE)

1-1 Language and Society

Society is seen as a human being considered as group in an organized community. It is also an organized group with common aim and interests. Human development has greatly been enhanced by language and its development.

It was seen that gender differentiation in language arises because language as a social phenomenon is closely related to social attitudes. Men and women are socially different in that society lays down different social roles for them and expects different behavior patterns from them. Language simply reflects social fact. Many ethnic groups use a distinct language associated with their ethnic identity, and it is often possible for an individual to signal their ethnicity by the language they select to use. Speech differences in interaction may be reflected in people's social network.

There is another way that language inflect on society is in sexist language. Language has the theory that affects the nature that men and women are treated differently.

1-2 Language, Society and Culture

It has been observed that when the one speaks may give clues, in terms of regional accent or dialect, to where the person spent most of his early life. Furthermore, one speech may also has a number of qualities which are unrelated to regional variation. Two people growing up in the same geographical area, at the same time, may talk differently cause of a number of social factors. It is necessarily not to overlook this social aspect of language because, in different ways, speech is a form of social identity and is used, consciously or unconsciously, to signal membership of different social groups or different speech communities.

1-3 Language and Gender

Rebecca Hiscock states that language is in one sense the inalienable birthright of every human being, regardless of gender…**.** Rebecca's view has rejected to put into an account the aspect of language learning. Hence, it may not enough to cover the notion of language use.

Wadak believes that gender is not a pool of attributes 'possessed' by a person, but something a person does, and varies between different racialized ethnic and religious groups as well as for members of different social classes.

Thorne and etal think that the term gender: does not denote to grammatical gender (the system to be found in some

language of organizing certain word class into contrasting categories of masculine, feminine, neuter) but referred to social categories based on sex but encompass behavior, roles and images that, although not biologically determined are regarded by society as suitable to its male and female members.

However, gender is different from sex in that sex points to a biological component of male and female, while gender component deals with what is socially learned and acquired.

Moreover, sociolinguistic study of gender clears that variation in the use of language according to gender closely connected to socio-cultural patterns which reflect socio-economic and political inequality and male dominance in many societies.

Showing social status or power differences, Lakoff explains in her research that women's language as a whole shows women's social powerlessness and is thus dominated by stylistic features significantly security and lack of assertiveness. She also claims that female language is consequently heavily influenced by the pragmatic principle of politeness which basically rules adaptive social behavior.

The various views of language and gender which illustrated above have become obvious that language and gender are parallel with each other and if there is any major difference found, it becomes clear in the intention of the user.

1-4 Differences in Male and Female Speech

There are many explanations has been considered for gender difference in language use. Some claims that innate biological differences deal with sex differentiated rates of language acquisition and for psychological orientation or temperament.

Stress on socialization was put into consideration as an explanatory factor. In many societies, girls and boys experience different patterns of socialization, and what was suggested leads to different ways of using and interpreting language.

It was claimed that there are a set of lexical, grammatical and phonological features that distinguish women's language. Lexical differences were said to relate to the use of certain colour contour (e.g. *Beige, ecru*) and certain adjectives of approval (e.g. *adorable, charming*). A postulated grammatical differences involves the use of tags (i.e. form such as *"isn't it", "won't you?"*). Phonological differentiation was illustrated in terms of rising intonation contours.

It was also reported that men's speech (particularly English speakers) is forceful, efficient, sparing, and masterful. But, it is believed that women's speech is weak, trivial, ineffectual, hesitant, hyper-polite, euphemistic, often characterized by gossip and gibberish.

Moreover, Hartmann examined the language of women and assumed to have found some of its euphemistic qualities. She illustrated their language as flowery, tentative, and qualified and therefore a lesser of deficient form. She also mentioned that female used more qualifiers than men, and that men use more absolutes.

In addition, Thorne and Henley think that women use status linguistic forms more than men. They also mentioned that women compared with men of the same social class, age and level of education, more often choose the form close to the *'prestigious'* or *'correct'* way of the talking. Therefore, Trudgill believes that women constantly generate linguistic forms which are closely attached to those of standard language or have higher prestige than those produce by men.

Generally, it is noticed that women are talkative. Anyway, research findings opposed this case. It has been reported that men talk more, for example, swacker had her thirty four informants (17 of each sex) talk into a tape recorder. She discovered that men talked much longer than women usually do until the tape was finished.

Moreover, on the single-sex conversations that had been analyzed, that women tend to see conversation as an opportunity to discuss problems, share experiences and offer support on the contrary of men who see the discussion of personal problem as abnormal component of conversation.

1-5 Sociolinguistics

Sociolinguistics is the study of variation in speaker groups and variation in language use. Social factors and their effectiveness on language use are at the core of sociolinguistics research. When relating the study of sociolinguistic to that of language change, an influence of social factors on languages' structures may also be observed.

Sociolinguistics deals with the influence of these variables, such as: age, social class or sex, on the way we speak or write, on the linguistic structures we use, and on how individuals or groups vary from what may be known as the standard use of language.

Thus, Sociolinguistics accepts and evaluates the fact that language is part of speakers' identities and how identity and in-group aspects influence language, just like specific contexts do.

Generally, sociolinguistics deals with the inter-relationships between language and society. It has strong relationship to anthropology, through the investigation of language and culture, and to sociology, through the crucial role that language does in the organization of social groups and institutions. It is also tied to social psychology, specifically with regard to how attitudes and perceptions are treated and how in-group and out-group behaviors are presented. All these bounders are needed if we are to make sense of what might be said as *'social dialects'*.

1-6 Definition of Sociolinguistics

It is a branch of sociology and as a concept it is concerned with how language use is a determinant of a given society's linguistic requirement. Every society has its linguistic codes that are acceptable for interaction (Meyerhoff, 2006: 1).

Sociolinguistics is a perspective of a speech community which is a group of people who share a set of norms, rules and expectations regarding the use of language (George Yule, 1996: 239).

1-7 Origins and Main Figures

Sociolinguistics has its origins in dialectology, historical linguistics, and language contact with considerable influence from sociology and psychology.

Origins focused on:

1-The structures of language/parole & the diachronic/ synchronic suggested by Ferdinand de Saussure:

-Language/parole- internal linguistics/ Microlinguistics (phonology, morphology, syntax).

-Diachronic/synchronic- external linguistics/ Macrolinguistics (acquisition use of language and culture- society- language connection).

2-The competence/ actions notions.

Trudgill believes that:

-   Macrolinguistics focused on the study of the language (large scale-group behavior).

- While Microlinguistics focused on the description analysis of languages (small groups).

1-8   Types and Areas of Sociolinguistics

1. Sociology of language: Aspects connected with sociolinguistics and language. Social psychology of language: Linguistic attitudes and some sides of linguistics usage in a face-to-face conversation.
2. Anthropological linguistics: Its aim is to study deeply the knowledge of the social structure of communities.
3. Ethnography of communication: It focuses on the role that language plays in the 'Communicative Conduct of Communities' from the different cultures in their various ways of manifestation (styles, dialects and language).
4. Discourse analysis: The study of texts and conversational interaction. Which means:

   -Textual linguistic.

   -Conversational analysis.

5. Geolinguistics: Mixture among secular linguistics, dialectology and human geographical. Focuses on the geographical distribution of linguistics.
6. Dialectology: The academic study of dialects and the geographical distribution of these dialects.
7.   Secular linguistics: Carried out by empirical works. The goals of this discipline are similar to the ones of linguistics.

1-9 Language Contact

In nowadays studies of language change, language contact has been considered a very significant mechanism which governs change at different levels in a language.

In an intercourse between speakers of two languages, which presupposes an indirect or direct contact between the languages, the influence of the culturally dominant language on the other one which seems inevitable. Moreover, many languages borrowing in countries, which is labeled as intimate borrowing in Bloomfield since 1967. This kind of borrowing occurs when two cultures share the same geographical area and are in a dominant to inferior position. The dominance may be one of a political, military or cultural nature.

In Filipovic, it was seen that languages come into contact under the following conditions:

a) When a word of the giving language is taken over by the receiving language in the process of language borrowing, and
b) When the native speaker of a language begins learning a foreign language in the process of foreign/ second language acquisition.

Language contact may be studied successfully if the analysis is not bond to linguistic elements only, since certain extra-linguistic factors participate with the interpretation of its causes and results. Thus, the phenomenon should be examined in social and cultural contexts, beginning with social conditions which bring

languages into contact, and ending with the findings of the contact at various linguistic stages. This type is sociolinguistic, since the study is performed from the point of view of language systems in their social contexts (focusing on linguistic analysis), and language performance of members of social and political groups (focusing on sociological analysis).

1-10   Types of Variation

Generally speaking, variation may takes place on all possible levels of language. It may also be attributed to a variant host of factors determining variation. Some have been named before, such as social factors like age, gender and class. Speakers' regional professional backgrounds do such so matter and may be just as influent as socio factors.

Sociolinguistics distinguish a set of kinds of variation that covers most variables for language variation. The most general differentiation is between variation in the individual so-called idiolects (variation related to social factors, sociolects, regional variation, and dialects) and variation due to functional aspects so-called registers or styles.

The other distinction is evaluated in response to degree of formality, also the distinction between spoken and written, code or register is common. There are substitute paths to that pair and for that they are not used synonymously.

One major pair of words related to kinds of variation is dialect and accent. This gradually leads to confusion whether there is a difference between those two. Where accents are held to very mainly or just on the level of pronunciation. While dialects show variation on further structural levels.

One last worthy question to be mentioned and which is: *when a dialect may be labeled a language of its own*? This issue is neither to be answered easily nor unproblematic. This is not just applied to the matter that a sharp-cut distinction is difficult on a theoretical level, but also becomes more problematic on a level which has factors such as politics, the relation of languages and national identities. Another attempts to define the border between the two terms are by means of mutual intelligibility of speakers, which in turns fails when real-life political are taken into consideration.

1-11   Variation in English

This topic has a connection with sociolinguistics, which is variation in English or in the Englishes of the world.

English is not modern in age but since the beginnings of its spread all round the globe (from roughly the 17th century) it becomes of what it is called pluricentric language which is simply a number of languages carrying the same name. Till now, most researches have agreed that English as spoken in Singapore is definitely not important to be dependent on Australian or Scottish English. Away from their common ancestors, all these world Englishes have become likely dependent from another.

Since the concentration in English linguistics is on American and British English, the standard varieties of these two countries will be used to clarify diversity in Englishes worldwide.

It has been reported that in England the standard variant is *received pronunciation* (RP). It is regionless variety of British English which generally held to be of high prestige and also of a social variety. It is spoken only by a minority, but still governed as standard. Another labels are *'Queen's English'* or *'Oxford English'*. In the U.S. we obviously have *general American* (GA), which is spoken in the *central Atlantic states* (NY, NJ, Wisconsin asf.) but not in: *NYC, NE.GA-speakers* which are perceived as accentless by most Americans. GA is a regional variety that why it is spoken by comparable (relative to RP) large number of speakers.

Social conflicts between standard and nonstandard varieties come ahead in the school as educational policies endorse the use of the standard. Sometimes, they do this implicitly, as in Germany, where the usual unspoken goal of the school is likely for standard German to be altered for dialect.

In all these different conditions, it was observed that children who speak a nonstandard dialect at home are seemed to be at some kind of educational disadvantage.

Sociolinguistics has answered to these issues in three main ways. Firstly, it has sought ways to educate both the general public and teachers about sociolinguistics issues, especially the nature of the standard and nonstandard language. Secondly, it has generated resources and materials which can be used in education, and have been included in educational programs which can give a place to Creoles and dialects. And thirdly, it has carried out research in classrooms to know how children use standard and nonstandard features of language in their speech and writing at schools.

Hence, it is obvious that both Englishes have developed along their own ways and it seems that this will go on. This would be applied for the Englishes as it is assumed that all world Englishes were mere varieties of a mono-centric and that British English would be insensible.

1-12   Sociolinguistics   and   Mother   Tongue Education

This subject deals with the application of work in social dialectology and Pidgin and Creole studies to some of the problems handled by teachers and pupils in mother-tongue classrooms.

The problems which was considered stem from the coexistence in society of nonstandard varieties, spoken by the majority of the population, and a standardized variety, which is the language of education.

Sociolinguists disagree about whether a standard variety is best seen as an idealized set of abstract norms about language, or as a dialect with a written from that is also spoken by educated membered of society.

In any case, the truth remains that for some children (albeit a relatively small number) the language of their home is similar to the standard variety, as for the majority of children the home language is a nonstandard variety with a range of grammatical and lexical features that differ from the standard.

1-13   Linguistics and Language Teaching

The study of language as a phenomenon for individuals was part of general psychology which are the descriptive categories used to applied for the individual's linguistic behavior and were used to applied for the other non-linguistic behavior. Thus, terms such as learning, memory, skill, and perception were as applicable to language as to other behavior. The study of language as a social phenomenon was like a part of general sociology, and the descriptive categories used to applied for language, social-structures, culture, status, role, were used in general sociological descriptions of human society, its structure, and institutions.

What characterized the linguistic study of language or *'linguistic linguistics'* was its autonomy or independence of other disciplines. Linguistic linguistics (or as it has recently been called, *'theoretical linguistics'*) constructs its own categories and terminology which it does not share with the other approaches.

As a result, a process of 'bridge-building' has been occurring with the emergence of what can be called *'hybrid'* disciplines, that is part linguistic and part psychological (psycholinguistics), and part linguistic and part sociological (sociolinguistics). The status of the new studies is ambiguous, and their goals are not reliable and their theoretical apparatus and methods are not yet truly established.

Is sociolinguistics consider as a branch matter, including presumably an open mind about what data to examine and which sides of the data chose are relevant and significant, and those are not. The problem is that, in order to decide what data are relevant and what to search in the data, one has to have some preconception about what he\she is looking for.

Therefore, linguistics is a creative not an observational activity. Its speech does not observe units unfolding themselves in time, but selects from the continuum, that is why such data are relevant to the characterization of the elements it has established.

1-14   The Linguistic Study of Language

What characterizes theoretical linguistics from the other approaches to language is not its scientific status, but its aims. What side of language it sets out to describe and illustrate is on the basis of what its goals are that it selects its data.

The linguistic study of language confines itself to a study of the verbal utterances of human beings. Its goals are to describe the structure of these utterances and to do so by preparing a theory of grammatical linguistic structure. This means that it does not concern itself with the motives of the speaker, what he is trying to accomplish through using language, it does not concern itself with the differences between speakers and hearers or the fact that no two speakers are equal in their verbal behavior that the society

from which the data are taken cannot be considered on some counts as *homogeneous*, or that when people speak, they usually make mistakes or false when they start to forget the thread of their arguments.

The linguist is not interested in the situational context in which his data were produced, the connections between the speakers and hearers, their social qualities, what is happening while they talk, the result of their speech, the accompanying paralinguistic behavior, and so on. However, that whilst linguistics gives us a means of describing what to teach, it does not provide us with the means of confining what to teach.

1-15   The Goals of A Linguistic Theory

It was suggested that there is a reciprocal relation between goals and data. What have been selected to observe constrains what can be said likely to what a person, and wants to say also determines what data you choose at the first hand. So by severely restricting his data, the linguist also determines what he can say about language. However, there are differences which have to be taken into an account between the goals that different linguists have set themselves which have influenced not only the nature of the data they have dealt with, but on their attitudes to those data.

Some linguists have set their sights no higher than to supply a method for illustrating the structural features of some finite body of data or a corpus. The motivation for doing this was particularly powerful when the need was to describe languages or dialects on the aim of dying out, so was the case in *North America* at the beginning of this century, or elucidating written but partially incomprehensible texts.

All that was required of linguistic theory and description at this level was to supply means for describing firmly the sets of limited data that it was concerned, and it should have its endpoint as a comprehensive *'description of the language'* of the corpus. In as hard as it does this, such a theory and associated description can be considered as observationally adequate. The ideal of such a way of approaching linguistic data would be to have an automatic process, an algorithm, or a set of rule-of-thumb processes which *'untouched by human hand'*.

(Section Two)

2-1 Modern (Sociological) Sociolinguistics

Modern, sociological, sociolinguistics began in the 1960s. William Labov made a series of studies about this aspect, and he was considered as one of the leading names in the area of research. Modern sociolinguistics central on social factors such as age, gender, social class, and their influence on language use. One of Labov's famous studies and a groundbreaking one was the field that so-called *'New York department store'* study. Labov examined the relation between social classes and the specific linguistic variants (*rhotic* and *non-rhotic pronunciation*) of a linguistic variable (*rhoticity*) used by members of those classes, to reach into an empirical proof for the connection between the two.

One major problem in all sociolinguistic research is the observer's contradiction. while Labov could still depend on comparable natural data from unmarked interview situation, modern research is restricted to certain rules, e.g. the obligation to inform participants and to ask them for permission to use their data. Therefore, it is so difficult and may be also impossible to gather fully *'natural'* data, which reflects language use as it would be in a natural setting. At the moment speakers know that they are being watched, they rapidly make slight changes in their use of language (even if they may be unconscious) and later on researcher's data are affected. The same thing may be explained by references to a person accidentally passing by a (TV) camera. That person is likely to change his\her behavior,

the way they walk, and their posture, as soon as they suspect being caught on camera.

2-2 **Sociolinguistics, What is it?**

- Language does not exist in a vacuum.
- Since language is a social phenomenon it is normal to claim that the structure of a society has some influence on the language of the speakers of that society.
- The study of this relationship and of other extra linguistic factors is the subfield of sociolinguistics.

2-3 Language Variation

Language is vary in different ways. One way of determining certain variations is to say that speakers of a certain language sometimes utter different dialects of that language. Nowadays, sociolinguistics are more concerned with social variation in language than with regional variation. Studies of social variation in language grew out more than those of regional variation. Therefore, in order to widen the limits and treat the flaws that were perceived to exist in the latter that researchers changed their attention to social-class variation in language.

Language variation also denote to a general term which could be refer to a number of stages. Thus, this term can be used to distinguish between *English* and *French*, but also it can be used to distinguish between two varieties of English, such as *New York city English vs. Appalachian English*.

2-4 Speech Communities

A speech community is a group of people uttering a common dialect. The group may be defined in terms of extra linguistic factors, such as age, region, socioeconomic status, group identification.

It is unnatural, however, that a speech community defines a 'pure' dialect. There is always still some mixing between members of that group and other dialects.

Hence, there is no dialect of English observed for all except for *Clevelanders*. To prove if it is right, we would have to assume communicative isolation, i.e. that *Clevelanders* have little to no contact with people from any other city, as this would lead to outside influences on the dialect.

A speech communities is a group of people who speak a common dialect. Linguists working on language variation which often characterize speech communities in terms of extra-linguistic factors, i.e. along ethnic or geographical lines. As it is said that this could be useful and could be shed lights on the how's and whys of dialect variation, and it is worth to mention that the linguists who do this know that there is truly no such thing as a pure dialect spoken only by a certain ethnic group or by people from just one perfectly definable region. In any case, people are in contact with each other and with many varieties of a language.

2-5 The Linguistic Viewpoint

- Standard English is just a variety or dialect of English. It cannot even legitimately be considered better than other varieties.
- All languages and dialects are equally "good" as linguistic systems.
- All varieties of language are structured, complex, and rule-governed systems which can adequately meet the needs of their speakers for communication.
- It follows that value judgment of languages that are social rather than linguistic. Attitudes toward non-standard varieties are ones which reflect the social structure of the society.

The difference one wishes to capture when labeling dialects as *'standard'* or *'non-standard'* is this: a dialect is *'standard'* if it fulfills some general guidelines, i.e. being used in school, being taught to foreigners learning the language, being used by the media, etc.

2-6 What Factors Enter into Language Variation?

- It is clear that there are many systematic differences between different languages.
- By *'systematic'* we mean describable by rules, but what is not obvious is that languages also contain many levels of internal variation, related to such variables as age, region, socioeconomic status, group identification, etc.
- The various aspects of variation are systematic so as the case with the variation between different languages.

2-7 What Kinds of Variation are there in Language?

Languages show internal variation at almost all levels of structure:

- Phonetic:
1. [t, d, n, s, z] are dental in some *New York city* dialects.
2. *Scottish people* and some *British people* have trilled [r].
- Phonological:
1. Difference between "caught" and "hot" for some *Americans*, not others.
2. Standard *British English* and *Bostonian English* do not allow V-r-C or V-r (park the car).
- Morphological:
1. Some rural *British English* dialects have no genitive marking for nouns (Tom).
2. "hisself" for "himself", "theirselves" for "themselves".
3. *Appalachian English*-different division of weak/ strong verb (climb-clumb, heat-het).
- Syntactic:
1. Done [+aux] : *she done washed the dishes already* (*Southern American English*).
2. Right (adv) : *this is right delicious (Appalachian English).*
3. Compound auxiliaries: might could, might would, may can, use to. Function as single constituents.
4. Need + past part: *' The corpus need watered'.*
- Semantic (Vocabulary Choice):
1. Knock up: *British English 'wake up by knocking',* *American English 'impregnate'.*

2. Pop, soda pop, coke, soft drink, "dope" in parts of south.
3. Car park= parking lot, vest= undershirt (*British English*).

2-8 Sociolinguistic Stimuli to Development of the English Lexical, Language Contact and Social Need

Changes in language at the level of vocabulary are often triggered by sociolinguistic causes, significantly being language contact and need. In language contact, lexical borrowing has proved inevitable, and it has advanced through the mass media and electronic channels of data transfer. Whereas, the need for new lexical item which has specific denotative or connotative meaning, as in terminological systems, jargon and slang, contributes mainly to expansion of vocabulary. Specifically, a corpus of words produced and established in English since 1990s, involving *standard* and *nonstandard* varieties of the language, shows that the development of the vocabulary has been stimulated to a great extant by the two abovementioned factor.

In terms of sociolinguistic approach and along with the studies of language change, large contact and social need are considered as a significant influence upon changes that occur in many domains of the English language, especially in the vocabulary, which is developing daily according to the accumulation of numerous new words in both *standard* and *nonstandard* varieties of the language.

Generally, the production of the new words is essentially initiated by the appearance of a new object or notion. Therefore, word formation progresses are for the purpose of identification, i.e. naming of a new entities in the material world and new concepts which broaden our knowledge and awareness of social and natural environment.

However, two major sociolinguistic factors which have had an impact on the creation of new lexical units in the English language are *language contact* and *social need*.

2-9 Institutionalization

A very major process to the growth of the lexical of a language is institutionalization. Institutionalized words are formed in a language incorporated in the permanent inventory of the lexicon. The institutionalization of a word refers that the word was creative by productive word-formation rules and it is used broadly across a language community. The process of institutionalization is not rule-governed, and it cannot be predicted easily. Sociological factors, namely speakers themselves and their need for the word in question maintain a decisive role in the process.

Generally speaking, it is possible to assume that the words created by a collective social factor to meet a wider social need are likely to be commonly used in a language. Firstly, words spoken by members of a profession or any other subsociety, be that drug addicts, black gangs, hackers, and even for the purpose of asserting the solidarity and cooperation within the group through language, are not likely to fall into disuse.

Secondly, terms which meet the need of specialists in a field of study, and not of an individual or a particular context, are readily established in a language once they are in cooperated in the related terminological systems.

However, neologisms which are not established comprise the so called nonce formations, which denote to the words created by a certain speaker for a particular context, text or speech act. These are mainly individual and stylistic neologisms, found in journalistic texts and literary works, and whose meanings can only be deduced from a co-text or a situational context, which confirm their ambiguity. They are quite often produced and which focusing on *information condensation* and *expressive effect.*

2-10 Characteristics of Sociolinguistics

- A science, which is concerned with the relationship between language and society.
- A branch of linguistics.
- It considers that language is a social and a cultural phenomenon.
- It studies language in its social context, and in real life situations by empirical investigation.
- It is related to methodology and contents of social sciences.

2-11 Linguistic Variation in writing

while a local spoken variety is very different from written standard English, learning to write may be like having a second language. Some categories of error that might be claimed to related to the Creoles could more probably be attributed to a misunderstanding of the relationship between *speech* and *writing*. Moreover, many mistakes seemed to attribute to the increasing risks with sentence construction that children become more ambitious in their writing. However, Winch and Gingell conclude that studies of children's writing carried out in other *Creole-speaking areas* and in *creole-speaking communities in Britain* should consider whether they might be confounding developmental factors with the factor of dialect interference.

It could be argued, on the basis of their written work, that the working class children were more advanced in their language development as the past tense forms that they used in writing more closely are resembled to the forms used by the adult members of the local community.

William's study also demonstrated that *dialect speakers* and *standard English speakers* a like used features associated with informal colloquial spoken English in their writing. Using dialect in writing can be seen as only one side of the close connection that can be found in children's early writing between spoken and written language. Hence, children who wrote less fluent or who had difficulty with the mechanics of writing had fewer features of speech in their writing.

Therefore, all of the grammatical errors could be related to *the influence of nonstandard dialect* with verb forms, for example, the majority of errors came from using stem forms where a past tense or part participle was called for. The left grammatical errors seemed to arise from problems in handling the complexities of written structures, for example, '*it*' and '*them'* occurred with no antecedent, or with the wrong antecedent.

Williamson concludes that if one looks at the issue of writing from the standpoint of the teacher rather than from that of the dialectologist he sees that the problem for the children and their teachers lies in mastering the writing system, not in dialect variation.

Williamson and Hardman also found that the nature of the writing task affected the incidence of nonstandard forms, with the highest number occurring in personal anecdotes. Thus, it is possible that those children who use nonstandard features in writing may be capable of writing exclusively in standard English.

Research into nonstandard language and writing, has confirmed what teachers could usefully focus on in their teaching rather than worrying about the influence of nonstandard features of grammar and lexis, for example, they would do better to emphasize punctuation and orthography in their teaching.

If teachers do decide to focus on nonstandard grammar, the research suggests that the most profitable area to focus on could be the verb phrase.

2-12 Applied Linguistics

In trying to investigate the complex nature of *L2 learning*, one has to appeal to ideas not just from linguistic analysis, but from other fields such as communication studies, education, psychology and sociology. This large-scale endeavor is likely to be called applied linguistics. Since it represents an attempting to deal with a large range of practical problems involving language (not just L2 learning), applied linguistics has emerged in recent years as one of the most active areas of investigation in the study of language.

2-13 Theory of Language and Learning

Little was written about theory of language by Curran. In 1983 his student La Forge tried to be more clear concerning the *Community Language Learning theory*. La Forge agreed that language theory must begin with criteria for sound features, the sentence, and abstract models of language. The non-native language learners' tasks are: to apprehend the sound system, assign fundamental meanings, and to construct a basic grammar of the foreign language. Furthermore, La Forge adds more for his structuralist view of language, and gives a substitute theory of language, which is referred to as *Language as social press*.

La Forge thinks that Communication is more than just a message being transmitted from a speaker to a listener. The speaker is at the same time both subject and object of his own message, and that communication involves not just the unidirectional transfer of information to the other, but the

very constitution of the speaking subject in relation to its other. He also goes beyond that and say communication is an exchange which is incomplete without a feedback reaction from destine of the message.

This social-progress view of language is later expanded in terms of six qualities or subprocesses. Moreover, La Forge also adds on the interactional view of language underlying community language learning: that Language is people; language is persons in contact, language is persons in contact, language is persons in response. CLL interactions are of two dimensions and fundamental kinds: interactions between learners and interactions between learners and knowers. Interactions between learners cannot be predicted in content but mainly it is said to have exchanges of affect. Learner exchanges deeply in intimacy while the class becomes a community of learners.

Interaction between learners and knowers is initially not restricted. The learner informs the knower what he/she wishes to say in the target language, and the knower tells the learner how to say it. In next stages, interactions between learner and knower are featured as self-assertive (stage 2), resentful and indignant (stage 3), tolerate (stage 4), and independent (stage 5). These changes of interactive relationship are paralleled by five stages of *language learning* and five stages of *affective conflicts*.

Curran's counseling experience helped him to found out that the techniques of counseling could be applied to learning in general (this become *counseling-learning*) and for language teaching in particular (*Community Language Learning*). Since the CLL viewpoint of learning is a holistic one, then *'true'* human learning is both *cognitive* and *affective.* This is termed whole-person learning as such learning occurs in a communicative situation since teachers and learners are involved in an interaction, in which each one of them share a feeling of wholeness.

Accordingly to these, the progress of the learner's relationship with the teacher is central. The process can be divided into five stages and compared to the ontogenetic development of the child.

In many situations Curran explained what he called *'consensual validation'*, or *'convalidation'*, in which mutual warmth, understanding, and a positive evaluation of the other person's worth develop between the teacher and the learner.

A relationship characterized by '*convalidation*' is regarded fundamental to the learning process and is a key element of CLL classroom procedures. A group of ideas involving the psychological requirement for successful learning are selected under the acronym '*SARD*' which can be illustrated as follows:

- *'S'* refers to *security*. Unless learners feel secure, they will find it difficult to enter into a successful learning experience.

- *'A'* refers to *attention* and *aggression*. CLL distinguishes that a loss of attention should be taken as an indication of the learner's lack of involvement in learning, the implication being that variety in the choice of learner tasks will increase attention and hence promote learning. Aggression applies to the way in which a child seeks an opportunity to show his/her strength by taking over and applying what has been learned using the new knowledge as a tool for self-assertion.

- *'R'* refers to *retention* and *reflection*. If the whole person is involved in the learning process, then, what is retained is internalized and becomes one of the learner's new persona in period of silence within the frame work of the lesson for the student to focus on the learning forces of the last hour, to assess his present stage of development, and to re-evaluate future goal.

- *'D'* stands for *discrimination.* When learners have retained a body of material, they are ready to sort it out and see how one thing bound to another.

This discrimination process becomes more refined and positively enable the student to use the language for purpose of communication outside the classroom.

These central aspects of Curran's learning philosophy refer not the psycholinguistic and cognitive processes included in second language acquisition, but likely in the personal commitments that learners need to make before language acquisition procedures can activate.

2-14 Communicative Competence

Communicative competence can be illustrated, in terms of three elements as the ability to use the *L2* accurately, suitably, and flexibly. The first element is *grammatical competence* which has the accurate use of words and structures in the *L2*. Focusing just on grammatical competence will not supply the learner with the ability to identify or produce language properly. This ability is known as *sociolinguistic competence*. It aids the leaner to know when to say *Can I have some water?* Versus, *Give me some water!* Accordingly to the social context. A lot was argued concerning pragmatics has to become familiar in the *L2* if the learner is to develop sociolinguistic competence.

The third element is known as *stragic competence*. This is the ability is set to organize a message effectively and to compensate for any difficulties. In *L2* use, learners will definitely discover moments since there is a gap between communicative intent and their ability to express that intent. Some learners may just stop talking (i.e. *bad idea*), other will try to express themselves by *a communication strategy* (i.e. *good idea*).

For example, *a Dutch L1 speaker* wanted to refer to '*een hoefijzer*' in English, but didn't know the English word. Therefore, she used a communication strategy. She referred to the things that horses wear under their feet, the iron things and the hearer understood what she meant (*horseshoes*).

This flexibility in *L2* use is a key element in communicative success. After all, *strategic competence* is the ability to overcome potential communication issues in interaction.

2-15 Internal and External Influence on Language Change

Generally, it has been assumed that languages change in response to internal and external influences. Internally influenced changes result likely from nature processes that all languages can possibly undergo changes as to protect a language from any external influences by putting it in a hermetically sealed bottle, the language would still change, since there are systematic mechanisms of change that are purely internal to language.

Externally influenced changes result more from the *social* and *cultural contexts* in which languages are used. Although internal and external influences are often considered as distinct motivations for language change, they are not necessarily and mutually exclusive. For example, the loss of '*whom*' in English is a result of a more general process that all languages can potentially undergo the gradual movement from a fusional to an isolating language. Meanwhile, the loss could also be attributed to contact with other languages, such as *French*, that lack an elaborated morphology for case.

External changes result from some kind of language contact, which means that speakers of different languages coming into contact and resulting changes to the languages that they speak.

Because English has experienced mainly *'casual to intense contact'*, from other languages, it has undergone changes that have not basically altered the language. Moreover, other languages have been affected more dramatically by *language contact* to the point that some of them have undergone *language death*.

3- Conclusion

Basically, sociolinguistics deals with language-society relationships, and its study is based on empirical analysis from real life social context.

Saussure and Chomsky concepts put somehow the origins of sociolinguistics, although the development would come later, first with Labov and Later with Trudgill.

Research findings found out different directions of sociolinguistics such as Dialectology or Social Psychology of language (in the direction of Labov and Trudgill surveys).

It was useful to have a brief idea of how the relationship and the connection between language and gender is studies with the field of sociolinguistics, and how it is powerfully and strongly connected with Feminism.

However, linguistic data at the level of vocabulary, observed from the sociolinguistic viewpoint, are indicative of a notable stimulus nonlinguistic factors have on the development of the English lexicon. *Language contact* and *social need* incorporate contexts and subjects beyond language itself, namely the *social environment* and *speakers*.

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